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U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice



National Institute of Justice

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About the National Institute of Justice

The National Institute of Justice is a research branch of the U.S. Department of Justice. The Institute's mission is to develop knowledge about crime, its causes and control. Priority is given to policy-relevant research that can yield approaches and information that State and local agencies can use in preventing and reducing crime. The decisions made by criminal justice practitioners and policymakers affect millions of citizens, and crime affects almost all our public institutions and the private sector as well. Targeting resources, assuring their effective allocation, and developing new means of cooperation between the public and private sector are some of the emerging issues in law enforcement and criminal justice that research can help illuminate.

Carrying out the mandate assigned by Congress in the Justice Assistance Act of 1984, the National Institute of Justice:

- Sponsors research and development to improve and strengthen the criminal justice system and related civil justice aspects, with a balanced program of basic and applied research.
- Evaluates the effectiveness of justice improvement programs and identifies programs that promise to be successful if continued or repeated.
- Tests and demonstrates new and improved approaches to strengthen the justice system, and recommends actions that can be taken by Federal, State, and local governments and private organizations and individuals to achieve this goal.
- Disseminates information from research, demonstrations, evaluations, and special programs to Federal, State, and local governments, and serves as an international clearinghouse of justice information.
- Trains criminal justice practitioners in research and evaluation findings, and assists practitioners and researchers through fellowships and special seminars.

The Director of the Institute is appointed by the President of the United States, and upon confirmation by the Senate, serves at the President's pleasure. The Director establishes the research and development objectives of the Institute. The Director has final authority to approve grants, contracts, and cooperative agreements, and maintains responsibility for fiscal operations of the Institute. In establishing its research agenda, the Institute is guided by the priorities of the Attorney General and the needs of the criminal justice field. The Institute actively solicits the views of police, courts, and corrections practitioners as well as the private sector to identify the most critical problems and to plan research that can help resolve them.

James K. Stewart

Director

National Institute of Justice

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Foreword

As our society works to reduce the threat of crime, research is providing the solid foundation for new public policies that can make a difference in our Nation's safety. The National Institute of Justice, which Attorney General Edwin Meese III has called the flagship agency for research against crime, is fulfilling the promise envisioned just two decades ago when federally supported research began: Providing new policy options that help State and local governments protect the innocent and use their scarce criminal justice resources to best advantage.

Over the years, research has pushed the boundaries of our knowledge, changing the way we look at crime, criminal offenders, and drug abuse. Building on this evolving understanding, the National Institute of Justice adopted a more focused approach in the last 5 years, redirecting its emphasis toward policy-relevant research that provides reliable, practical information for criminal justice professionals and policymakers.

This report sets forth some recent significant advances of NIJ-supported research. As these pages show, we have realized important gains in shaping more effective policies for containing crime and strengthening our justice system. New policies targeting career criminals, drug abuse by offenders, family violence, as well as wider options for deploying police and enhancing corrections capabilities can make a difference.

In addition to the research results highlighted here, the National Institute of Justice has worked on other fronts to ensure an adequate domestic defense against crime. One of its chief aims has been the development of a corps of talented research scientists to gather reliable data and solve problems. The sheer brain power now mobilized for research against crime is immensely encouraging, and the National Institute of Justice will continue to nurture this vital source of our progress.

Similarly, we are working continuously and diligently to improve the way we plan and manage criminal justice research. During the past 5 years, we have realigned research priorities to meet real-world needs. We have opened and maintain a continuing dialog with State and local criminal justice practitioners and policymakers to make sure the Institute's research focuses on their most pressing concerns and offers the most useful answers.

To this end, we have reorganized the way the National Institute of Justice allocates its resources. In the past, research funds were funneled primarily to the three sectors of the criminal justice field: police, courts, and corrections. Now we take a more holistic approach, addressing the overarching problems that face not only these separate institutions but criminal justice as a whole: Career criminals, drugs, victims, to name just a few. We believe this fundamental change avoids fragmenting our response to critical issues and will yield a synergy beneficial to creative, efficient research.

The record of accomplishment set forth in this report, I believe, shows that the field of criminal justice research and development has advanced toward the critical mass capable of sustaining and expanding progress.

In facing other threats to our Nation's well-being, we have relied upon research to guide us. The great advances in the treatment of disease over the past 50 years are testimony to the contributions of research. A sustained commitment to criminal justice research can open up similar possibilities for safeguarding Americans from the threat of crime as we move toward the 21st century.

James K. Stewart
Director
National Institute of Justice

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Criminal careers: A guiding concept in research and policymaking

National Institute of Justice research findings on criminal careers can play an important role in criminal justice decisions. They can inform the choices to be made at key decision points: Arrest, pretrial release, prosecution, sentencing, and parole.

Different objectives motivate decisionmakers at each of these points—maintaining public order, imposing deserved punishment, and preserving order in prison. But all share the objective of crime control. Decisionmakers may attempt to reduce crime through incapacitation of career criminals. At the same time, they may try to alter criminal careers either directly, through prescribing behavioral or other individual therapies, or indirectly, by modifying substance abuse, employment prospects, or other characteristics associated with the frequency or duration of serious criminality.

As part of its continuing research on criminal careers, the National Institute of Justice asked the National Research Council to convene a panel to explore these issues. The panel assessed the predictability of criminal careers and the crime control effects of incarceration on those careers in the 1986 publication *Criminal Careers and "Career Criminals."*

The researchers projected, based on national rates of crime and incarceration from 1973 and 1982, that for robberies and burglaries the more stringent incarceration policies of 1982 reduced that year's crime rate by 35 to 45 percent. More dramatic reductions in the number of crimes saved per incarcerated offender could be obtained by incapacitation policies that focus on high-rate offenders.

Earlier NIJ research by the Rand Corporation has shown the extreme variations in individual rates of crime. Surveys of prison inmates revealed that the worst 10 percent of offenders reported committing more than 50 robberies or 200 burglaries per year, while half the prisoners reported fewer than 5 per year.

Attempts to identify *career criminals* require examination of *criminal careers* of all offenders—what makes them start committing crimes, what makes them commit crimes at higher or lower rates at various times, and what makes them stop. In general, criminal careers must be considered along several dimensions, including:

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- *Frequency.* The number of crimes per year per active offender varies substantially among offenders. Because they commit more crimes per unit of time, high-rate offenders contribute disproportionately to the total number of crimes.
 - *Seriousness.* “Specialists” engage predominantly in one type of crime; “generalists” engage in a wide variety of offenses. The mix of offense types and their seriousness may vary over the course of an offender’s career.
 - *Duration.* It is important to understand both *total* career length (and the factors that distinguish long careers from short careers) and *residual* career length (the expected time remaining in a career at any given point).

Knowledge about criminal careers may be especially helpful in developing effective public policies. It may be, for example, that many offenders are currently imprisoned (under “habitual offender” laws) well after they have ceased to be serious risks for reoffending—in other words, their “careers” reach a natural end. On the other end of the “career” spectrum, early indicators of likely participation in criminal activity, such as educational difficulties or disruptive school behavior, suggest preventive strategies such as preschool education or family-oriented treatment.

Predicting which offenders will fall into the high-rate category remains as yet an inexact science. Improvements identified by National Institute of Justice research are helping to increase the accuracy and usefulness of approaches to predicting rates of future criminal behavior.

The drug-crime connection— A research update

Two of America's highest priorities are controlling drugs and drug-related crime. Poll after poll ranks these threats as top concerns among the public and criminal justice system practitioners. Drugs and the crimes they spawn exact massive social costs. A national sample of 2,600 addicts interviewed by NIJ researchers admitted to committing 167,000 crimes in the previous year.

The annual cost of illicit drug use and related crime was an estimated \$59.7 billion, including treatment, costs of illness and premature death, reduced productivity and lost jobs, accidents, crime and losses to crime, welfare programs, costs to victims, and the costs to the criminal justice system.

In response, efforts to thwart drug trafficking and to diminish the corrosive impact of drugs are intensifying at all levels of government.

Findings from NIJ research have revealed promising options for stepping up efforts to attack drug trafficking and suppress demand for drugs by criminals. Following is a brief sampling of Institute research in progress, which is designed to shape narcotics control policies:

Drug use by criminals. Previous knowledge about the extent of drug use among criminals has been based on reports by offenders themselves. Research on drug testing of arrestees has revealed new dimensions of the drug problem, outstripping estimates based on self-reports.

Drug testing in 1984 in Washington, D.C., and New York City, using highly accurate urinalysis technology, found that more than half those arrested in both cities tested positive for illegal drugs and, recently, that drug use by arrested persons is on the rise. One New York sample of 400 arrestees revealed 80-percent usage, primarily of cocaine.

Replication of the pretrial drug testing is planned in three or more cities. The Bureau of Justice Assistance is funding operation of the program and NIJ will support evaluation.

Disrupting supplies. Research is focusing on the best combination of strategies to disrupt various types of distribution networks.

In one study, researchers are collecting data on drug unit policies and operations and on the characteristics and vulnerabilities of wholesalers. The study will analyze when the dealers were first detected, how much intelligence had been gathered, and what conditions led to major arrests and prosecutions.

Public safety and offender supervision. Mandatory drug testing appears to be the best available method to ensure that released defendants remain drug free and thus less likely to jeopardize public safety. New research will assess the potential of drug screening for reducing the risk posed by convicted felons in intensive probation supervision programs. Another study is analyzing probation and parole supervision of addicted offenders. The effects of varying levels of supervision are being tracked to find better ways to match addicts with the right degree of supervision and control.

Extending drug testing capabilities. Urinalysis technology is a reliable indicator for detecting recent drug use—within the past 2 or 3 days. Analysis of a few strands of hair, on the other hand, offers the potential to detect drugs over a much longer period. NIJ is exploring the method to determine if it can be applied economically and on a wide scale.

Enforcement. NIJ research is assessing the merits of police crackdowns on street-level heroin trafficking. Results from one study in Lynn, Massachusetts, indicate positive effects from disruption at the point of purchase.

Another new study is compiling data on drug-related homicides, a growing problem in some major cities. The research should lead to more accurate reporting of such homicides and may advance our understanding of drugs as a catalyst for violence. NIJ also has studied the experience with laws and local ordinances that ban the promotion and sale of drug paraphernalia.

Prevention and treatment. NIJ research is analyzing various approaches that appear promising and is assessing the impact of treatment on drug-abusing criminals.

DARE. Drug Awareness Resistance Education (DARE) is a model program started in the Los Angeles public school system that involves police and schools as partners in the fight against drug abuse. NIJ-sponsored evaluators are assessing whether or not DARE concepts have the same impact in different communities and are comparing various approaches in terms of reducing demand for drugs among school-age children.

Treatment effects. Many of the effects of drug treatment programs are still unknown. The National Institute of Justice, in cooperation with the National

Institute on Drug Abuse, explored questions about the impact of treatment among a national sample of clients in the Treatment Outcome Prospective Study. The research found that crime was lower after treatment, and the savings in crime-related costs were at least as great as the cost of the treatment programs.

New knowledge about drug-crime links will come from additional research being funded by the National Institute of Justice. Opportunities for intervention with drug-abusing delinquents are being explored in inner city neighborhoods in California. The study is examining how drugs figure in the commission of violent crime by juveniles and the social-psychological and demographic characteristics of high-risk delinquents.

National Institute of Justice research on drug and alcohol abuse and related crimes is expected to award up to \$1,500,000 this fiscal year for studies aimed at more effective tactical responses as well as more complete and accurate measurement of the extent of drug abuse, drug-related crime, and the social costs of drug abuse.

Drug testing of offenders reduces pretrial arrests

Pioneering research on offender drug use in Washington, D.C., and New York City has revealed a level of abuse far exceeding what many had assumed. Urinalysis testing of some 14,000 persons arrested in both cities showed that more than half had been using dangerous, illegal drugs such as cocaine, PCP, or heroin during the 48 hours preceding the test. Equally important, the tests revealed the prevalence of multiple drug use. Nearly a third of the drug-using arrestees in Washington and almost two-fifths of those in New York had used more than one drug.

Previous NIJ-sponsored research has shown that multiple drug use is one of the most salient characteristics of serious, habitual offenders, and that high-risk individuals, such as heroin addicts, commit four to six times more crime when they are on drugs than when they are relatively drug free. Heroin users also have been found to commit as many as 15 times more robberies and 20 times more burglaries than nonusers.

The drug testing program in the District of Columbia relies on state-of-the-art technology to produce highly accurate drug tests in a very short time (generally 1 to 2 hours). The D.C. Pretrial Services Agency has put drug use information in the hands of judges at a defendant's first appearance, throughout the pretrial period, and at sentencing. Such information is vitally important for judges who must decide the risk a defendant poses to a community if released before trial.

Data from the District of Columbia show that drug-using arrestees, if they are not placed in the drug testing program, are 50 percent more likely to be rearrested before trial than non-drug users. Mandatory drug testing in the District of Columbia reduced pretrial rearrest rates among defendants who reported regularly for drug tests. In fact, the rate of pretrial arrests for these individuals—14 percent—was identical to that for defendants who did not use drugs.

Drug testing benefits both the community and the drug user. By screening out the high-risk defendants who fail to report for testing or drop out after a few tests, judges can take action against them. At the same time, arrestees have the opportunity to stay in the community pending trial if the tests show they remain drug free. Without the program, this group would be likely to continue using drugs and remain a high risk to public safety.

Drug testing also can be a forecasting system, enabling local and national officials to spot in advance changes in the availability and use of specific drugs. The testing program, for example, detected the growing use of cocaine and the high level of PCP use in the District of Columbia.

Development of a national drug use forecasting system is an NIJ priority in 1987. The Drug Use Forecasting System (DUF) is beginning in 10 large cities across the country. Not only will it provide data on national trends, it also will provide each participating city with information that can assist in earlier detection of drug epidemics; plan allocation of law enforcement, treatment, and prevention resources; and measure the impact of efforts to reduce drug use and crime.

Forfeiture: Powerful tool against drug trade

In the early part of this decade, Federal prosecutors rediscovered an ancient legal concept that is particularly appropriate for criminal activities that generate huge illegal profits, such as drug trafficking. This concept, forfeiture of the tools and profits of crime, is a powerful tool for State and Federal prosecutors alike.

Today, forfeiture legislation can help disrupt a trafficking operation by seizing the means of production and transport of drugs, as well as property used to finance drug sales and distribution.

Forfeiture statutes are also used to remove the profit motive. In fiscal 1986, for example, more than \$90 million in income went to the Federal Government's Assets Forfeiture Fund. Under the Comprehensive Crime Control Act of 1984, \$25 million of this was shared with the State and local agencies that participated in those cases.

A National Institute of Justice survey published in 1984 showed that local prosecutors and police administrators ranked the drug trade as their most serious law enforcement problem. Aware of the success of Federal prosecutors in using Federal forfeiture statutes, the Institute in 1985 directed legal researchers at Abt Associates, Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts, to survey State forfeiture provisions to learn what powers State authorities could use to combat drug trafficking under these statutes.

The survey, published in 1985, summarized for each State the most important forfeiture legislation related to drug offenses. In most States, proceeds from the sale of seized property go to the State or local treasury. Some States, however, allow law enforcement agencies to keep the funds or property for official use without counting it against their budgets. Seized vehicles, for example, can be used as undercover cars, and forfeited cash can supplement the fund for undercover drug purchases by investigators.

All States authorize seizure of drugs themselves. Statutes also define properties that may not be illegal per se but may be seized because they were used to commit the crimes. These commonly include:

- **Conveyances** such as aircraft, boats, and other vehicles used to transport or conceal contraband (47 States).

● **Raw materials**, products, and equipment used in manufacturing, trafficking, or cultivating (42 States) and the **containers** used to store or transport drugs (38 States).

● **Drug paraphernalia** for consuming or administering a controlled substance (19 States).

● **Criminal research and records**, including formulas, microfilm, tapes, and data that can be used to violate drug laws (38 States).

Vehicles and cash are the most frequent forfeiture targets. A few States also authorize seizure of real and personal property, and a growing number are adding “traceable assets”—such items as jewelry and houses purchased with illicit profits.

Prosecutors point out that a *broad* definition of seizable property increases the effectiveness of the sanction by reducing an offender’s opportunity to convert profits into nonforfeitable assets.

In addition to allocating forfeiture proceeds to government treasuries or law enforcement, legislators have permitted other interests to benefit. A few States earmark a percentage of forfeitures for drug rehabilitation and prevention programs. New York’s law provides funds for restitution to victims, while Washington State allocates 50 percent of proceeds to its Criminal Justice Training Fund.

Problem-solving police prevent crimes

Crime runs in patterns. Police long have known that some patterns may lead a detective to a single suspect. Now, research has shown that other patterns can enable police to interrupt whole series of criminal events linked by similar causes, similar opportunities, or similar people involved.

The new approach, "problem-oriented policing," solved many long-standing problems for the Newport News (Virginia) Police Department when it served as a real-world laboratory for an Institute-supported study conducted by the Police Executive Research Forum.

The 2-year experiment demonstrated effective new methods without creating any appreciable new costs to the police agency.

Most police departments use crime analysis, going through checklists of actors, locations, and motives to delve into the common backgrounds of similar criminal events. Problem-oriented policing uses the crime-analysis model, but asks far more questions than usual, in a more logical sequence. Officers of all ranks, from all units are expected to use the procedures daily and to draw on the resources of other government and private agencies for ideas, personnel, and joint action.

Thus, problem-oriented policing is a four-step process: *scanning* to identify problems; collection and analysis of information in the *analysis* stage; working with other agencies and the public to implement solutions or *response*, and evaluating effectiveness in the *assessment* stage. The results of assessment may be used to revise the response, collect more data, or even redefine the problem.

Some of the results in Newport News:

The many robberies in downtown Newport News were rarely prosecuted because victims rarely would cooperate. Research and analysis showed that many robberies were related to prostitution and that the prostitutes were often males impersonating women. Enlisting the cooperation of bar owners and hotel managers, the police were able to force the prostitutes onto the streets where their soliciting activities were within view.

With the assistance of prosecutors and judges, they were then able to set terms of probation that prevented the perpetrators from frequenting traditional haunts. In addition, police briefed Navy personnel on the male prostitutes and associated health and safety risks. Personal robberies downtown dropped 39 percent.

Household burglaries in a deteriorating 1942-built housing development struck 23 percent of all apartments each year. Police research related the burglaries to the ramshackle condition of the units, where burglars and drug addicts took shelter in apartments unfit to rent. The magnitude of the deterioration and risk was corroborated by the code violations and requests for service known to the housing authority and fire departments. Although plans are underway to demolish and replace the old buildings, residents, managers, and other city agencies are taking better care of what they have now—and burglaries are down 35 percent.

Thefts from cars parked near the Newport News Shipyards, where 36,000 people work, amounted to \$160,000 a year in losses—10 percent of the city's serious reported crime. Research and analysis revealed patterns in the thefts that permitted arrest of frequent offenders—and interviews with them that led to still more arrests. Although a long-term prevention program will prove a more lasting answer, thefts have dropped by 53 percent.

When Newport News used problem-oriented methods to revise its approach to domestic violence calls and require any family assailant to accept professional counseling before being released from jail, the murder rate dropped sharply.

A reluctant officer, skeptical of the new police methods, watched the skating rinks where complaints were mounting of youths in drunken street disturbances at closing time. He noticed that many youths were being dropped off by their mothers early in the evening; he reasoned the mothers would be going to bed before the youngsters were ready to come home.

By convincing rink operators they should offer shuttle bus service *home* to nearby housing projects, he ended the late-night congestion and a summer-long problem. The officer is skeptical no more.

Police give better services for less money

Nearly a decade of National Institute of Justice research into calls for police services and police patrol methods culminated in 1986 with publication of the evaluation of the differential police response field test. The test, which was conducted in Toledo, Ohio; Garden Grove, California; and Greensboro, North Carolina, sought to prioritize calls for police and their response. The new strategy was based on the research finding that only a small percentage of calls for police service involve ongoing emergencies.

Police departments at the three test sites sought to reduce the number of nonemergency calls for service handled by immediate mobile response, increase the number of calls handled by alternative methods, decrease the time spent by patrol units answering calls for service, and increase the time available to patrol units for crime prevention or other activities.

Police calltakers provided both satisfactory *explanations* to citizens on the possible police responses to their calls and satisfactory *responses*, based on standardized procedures to ensure that each call was handled in accordance with policies set by the police chief. The possibility of mishandling a call based on variability of different calltakers was greatly reduced.

The evaluation assessed the impacts of differential response on police practices and on citizen satisfaction. It also assessed how well the program might work if implemented in other locations.

Each department had to develop a new system for classifying calls for service, determine how each classification would be handled, and train its personnel in the new standardized system. Among responses other than immediate dispatch of a patrol car, the departments were to include taking reports over the telephone, mobile response delayed for half an hour or an hour, referrals to other agencies, and at least one other alternative such as asking the caller to come to the police station or schedule an appointment or mail a report.

The evaluation concluded that all three sites successfully reduced the number of calls requiring immediate responses and that all three successfully increased the time available for crime prevention, directed patrol, and other activities. Civilian communicators proved preferable to sworn personnel, and patrol officer satisfaction with the telecommunicators increased.

The alternative responses proved less costly than traditional responses, and productivity increased among officers using the alternatives. In Greensboro, one successful alternative used was to send civilian evidence technicians rather than sworn officers to handle nonemergency crime calls. Another successful alternative was elimination of nonessential services, such as escort service.

Citizens expressed, overall, a high degree of willingness to accept alternative responses. At all sites, the alternative most acceptable to citizens was making an appointment and the least acceptable was mailing in a report. Citizen satisfaction exceeded 90 percent for all alternatives but one (88 percent), and satisfaction was directly related to whether the caller was informed that a delay might occur. This represents a marked increase in citizen satisfaction over prior police practices.

The evaluators concluded that the differential response model can be successfully adapted to meet the needs of police departments in a wide range of environments.

The test established the importance of the calltaker's role and demonstrated a need for extended training and job upgrading for calltakers, but showed that civilian personnel are satisfactory in the role.

The test showed that effective implementation of differential responses can reduce the amount of time patrol officers spend on trivial calls, increase the number of calls answered that prove to be true emergencies, and make more officer time available for other necessary duties—all without displeasing the general public.

During 1985 and 1986, approximately 1,000 police officers received National Institute of Justice training in the new approach, thus transferring the differential police response concept to some 400 departments nationwide.

The communitywide effects of the fear of crime

The pervasive fear of crime is a threat to organized society. It makes citizens suspicious of one another, it erodes the sense of community upon which a decent neighborhood life depends, it weakens people's confidence in their local government, and it is the ultimate tax on private enterprise.

Though the level of fear is often out of proportion to the actual risk of victimization, it cannot be dismissed as groundless or hysterical—not when one-quarter of all American households are touched by crime in a typical year.

With active support from the National Institute of Justice and in cooperation with the police departments of Houston, Texas, and Newark, New Jersey, the Police Foundation has put to the test a variety of methods intended to reduce fear, improve the quality of neighborhood life, and increase popular satisfaction with local police services.

The experiment offers many insights, not the least of which is the discovery by local police that creating neighborhood organizations where none had existed significantly helps reduce the fear of crime and clearly reduces the actual level of victimization. Storefront police offices and increased police contact with citizens also makes residents feel safer.

The economic cost of crime and the fear of it—especially in America's inner cities—is exorbitant. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, 7.3 percent of households with incomes of less than \$7,500 were burglarized in 1984. The poorest also suffer the highest median economic losses from personal crime, including robbery, assault, and theft. Crime in these poor neighborhoods simultaneously builds a hurdle to economic development that most investors cannot clear. As NIJ's study "Downtown Safety, Security, and Economic Development Program" reports, crime and the fear of crime can influence entrepreneurs' investment decisions more than high taxes or labor costs. According to another study funded by NIJ, industrialists in two Chicago neighborhoods were unable to staff full shifts because of employees' fear for their safety.

The NIJ also commissioned an assessment of a novel public-private crimefighting campaign in Oakland, California. The Oakland Police Department in cooperation with private sector developers and businessmen undertook a number of strategies designed to revitalize the city's decaying central

business district. Although Oakland offered many advantages, marketing properties and attracting investment faced difficulties unless the fear of crime and the incidence of crime could be allayed.

The police department, under severe fiscal constraints, was unable to provide the level of services the private sector considered necessary. So the private and public sectors collaborated in an effort to bolster security in the downtown area. Developers made long-term commitments to underwrite the costs of specific police activities in the central city area. Police managers implemented strategies tailored to the special crime problems of the downtown area.

The combination of public and private cooperation had positive effects. Crime declined and investment prospects and new construction increased.

Reducing crime and its disruptive effect on community ties can eliminate the largest obstacle to improving the quality of life and economic vitality of our urban centers as well as of our suburban neighborhoods.

Measuring the success of Crime Stoppers

Without reliable information from witnesses about the identity of criminals, the chance of solving any crime is drastically reduced. Recognizing the citizen's critical role in successful investigations, Police Officer Greg MacAleese started the first Crime Stoppers program in 1976 in Albuquerque, New Mexico.

Crime Stoppers offers cash rewards as an inducement and anonymity as protection to persons who provide information leading to the arrest or indictment of suspected criminals.

The idea spread quickly, and there are now an estimated 600 programs in the United States, with others in Canada and New Zealand. The National Institute of Justice sponsored the first social-science inquiry into how the program works, a national evaluation by researchers from Northwestern University. Findings were generally encouraging.

The proper functioning of Crime Stoppers hinges on joint cooperation and concerted efforts of three elements—the community, information media, and law enforcement. In a typical Crime Stoppers operation, the nonprofit corporation's board of directors represents the community's contribution by setting policy, coordinating fundraising, and formulating a system of rewards.

The media educate the public about the program's objectives and achievements and regularly publicize details of unsolved offenses by presenting an account or reenactment of a selected "Crime of the Week." Anyone with information about this crime is encouraged to call Crime Stoppers. Police corroborate the information to safeguard named suspects from spite calls. If the information is corroborated and results in an arrest, the caller is likely to receive a cash award.

Police or other law enforcement personnel staff the program, receive the information reported by the anonymous callers, and direct it to detectives for further investigation. The program's police coordinator usually selects the crime to be publicized and serves as liaison between the media, the public, and investigators.

The program has a good public image, the evaluators found, and Crime Stoppers International releases statistics that tend to confirm this view: The

group claims 92,339 felonies solved from 1976 through 1985 with more than \$562 million in narcotics or stolen property recovered—an average of more than \$6,000 a case. Almost 21,000 defendants were convicted out of almost 22,000 tried—a 95.5-percent conviction rate. Reported rewards totaled \$6.7 million.

However, the evaluators wrote, there is little reason to believe that Crime Stoppers will substantially reduce the crime rate in most communities; cases cleared through the program represent only a small fraction of serious crime.

The program is intended to stimulate involvement of citizens. But community involvement seems to be concentrated in certain subgroups of the population. The *business* community provides most of the *financial* support. And *criminals* themselves, and people associating with them, provide most of the *anonymous tips*.

The evaluation surveyed a new program in Indianapolis, Indiana, and found that with strong media cooperation, Crime Stoppers can quickly and dramatically increase people's awareness of this opportunity to help fight crime. For example, 38 percent of people surveyed had heard of Crime Stoppers at the beginning of the program—and 92.9 percent 6 months later.

Many give credit for the success of Crime Stoppers to large rewards. Yet a controlled experiment in Lake County, Illinois, showed that variations in the reward size had virtually no effect on the tipster's satisfaction and intention to continue participating in the program.

Most programs are relatively small, but widespread program networking results in generous sharing of experiences and resources across jurisdictions.

Jail crowding

The dilemma of too many prisoners and not enough space to house them faces communities throughout the Nation. Indeed, jail crowding is one of the most serious concerns of criminal justice officials, according to a National Institute of Justice survey.

Jail crowding affects not only the local sheriff, but law enforcement, prosecution, the judiciary, probation, and the community at large. If each part of the local justice system does what it can to ease jail crowding, the sum of these small solutions has a cumulative impact. A systemwide problem, jail crowding responds to a systemwide solution.

The National Institute of Justice has assessed and synthesized information on a whole range of changes that local jurisdictions can consider to alleviate jail crowding while safeguarding public safety. Innovations in case processing, improved criminal justice efficiency, diversion of certain non-dangerous offenders, and renovation and construction of correctional facilities are among the options localities can choose to meet the demand for jail space.

Experience shows that jurisdictions using a *systemwide* approach to jail crowding have had success managing growing jail populations. The approach demands the cooperative involvement of *all* justice officials in decisionmaking and views the local system as a screening mechanism that can be modified to enhance the use of scarce jail space.

Given the success of this approach, the Institute sponsored studies that documented various options that can become part of a community's solution to crowding. National Institute of Justice reports published in 1986 highlight the role of each local criminal justice agency in ensuring the effective use of bed space to prevent crime and maintain public safety.

- Law enforcement officials can look at the proper placement of people who may not belong in jail facilities, such as the mentally ill.
- Jail administrators can provide timely access to prisoners for prosecutors, public defenders, and pretrial services officers, and transfer information to other system actors to help develop systemwide solutions.
- Prosecutors can work to expedite charge decisions.
- Judges can look at a range of sentencing options and work toward reducing court delays.

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- Probation officials can implement procedures to streamline the preparation of presentencing investigation materials for defendants detained in jail.

While program and process changes can help improve system efficiency, demand for jail space nevertheless frequently exceeds supply. For this reason the National Institute of Justice has also launched a corrections construction initiative, which pools nationwide information on construction plans, costs, and techniques, and gives officials who have achieved time and cost savings through advanced building techniques an opportunity to share their success stories.

The three components that make up the program—a data base of correctional facilities, The *National Directory of Corrections Construction*, and a series of *Construction Bulletins*—are discussed elsewhere in this report.

Private-sector involvement in corrections

Crowding and escalating costs of American prisons and jails are among factors prompting public officials and the private sector to experiment with new alliances in the field of corrections. Corrections departments have long relied on private vendors for specific institutional needs such as food service or the operation of aftercare facilities and programs. Now private firms help by financing new construction, creating "factories with fences" to help pay the costs of confinement, and even operating primary confinement facilities.

In fact, privately operated prisons are a reality today in some parts of the country. Three years ago, no adult prisoners were held in secure facilities, such as prisons or jails, under private management. As of January 1987, Institute research has shown, an estimated 1,200 adults convicted of crimes ranging from murder to drunk driving were held in privately operated State and local correctional facilities.

The National Institute of Justice has taken the lead in exploring issues involved in and cataloging the growing experiment with private sector activity in corrections. Major Institute-sponsored efforts during 1985–1986 include:

- An exploratory study of corrections and the private sector examined the participation of private industry in prison work programs, the use of private sector alternatives for financing prison and jail construction, and the involvement of private contractors in facility management. It analyzed the legal, political, and administrative issues in each type of involvement.
- A major conference on privatization brought together State, Federal, and local officials to debate issues and share experiences.
- A manual on lease-purchase financing for prison and jail construction explained the comparative costs of such financing versus general obligation bonds under different sets of financial assumptions.
- A case study of Ohio's use of variable rate lease-purchase financing for prison construction showed significant savings in time and dollars.

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- A national assessment described incentives and obstacles to private sector participation in prison industries, and a training demonstration program assisted States wishing to involve private corporations in their industries programs.

Another NIJ-sponsored study, scheduled for publication in 1987, examined trends in contracting for State correctional facilities and the legal aspects of such contracting, offering ways to decide whether to contract and how to conduct procurement. Conducted by The Council of State Governments and The Urban Institute, the study involved an extensive review of the literature on contracting and interviews with corrections agency personnel, contractor personnel, purchasing officials, legislators, and legislative staff.

The research team identified 23 of the most important issues facing government officials considering contracting for the operation and management of prisons and jails. These issues can be grouped into four main categories: legal issues, precontract policy and program issues, contract issues, and monitoring and evaluation once the program is in progress.

The study urged State and local governments, in cooperation with contractors, to devote careful attention to responsibility for security, protection of inmates, and liability protection of the State and the private firm, and to carefully develop inmate-selection criteria.

Two studies of private-sector involvement in prison industries found that all 50 States have industry programs in one or more prisons, although only about 9 percent of all State inmates are employed in them. Most States operate their own prison industries, either with no outside involvement or with the private sector limited to an advisory role. However, 26 State-level prison industries involved the private sector as of January 1985, and the majority of governors, State legislatures, and State corrections directors were interested in the concept of private-sector involvement.

In February 1985, the National Institute sponsored "Corrections and the Private Sector," a national forum that explored the pros and cons of increased private sector involvement in corrections. Nearly 300 State and local corrections administrators, sheriffs, criminal justice analysts, and private business representatives attended.

New construction methods for corrections

When the National Institute of Justice asked criminal justice officials to name the most serious problem facing the entire system, police, courts, and corrections officials were virtually unanimous in recognizing prison and jail crowding as the number one concern. Responding to this need, the Institute has launched a new corrections construction initiative to help State and local officials make informed decisions and share practical ideas on creative methods to build or expand correctional facilities.

At the heart of the three-pronged program is the Construction Information Exchange, a computerized data base that permits State, local, and Federal officials to share lessons learned from recent jail and prison construction projects. Through the Construction Information Exchange, agencies planning to build, remodel, or expand correctional facilities are able to contact other jurisdictions that have faced comparable issues and exchange detailed information about the facilities and current plans. In this way, new ideas on project management and building technologies can be transferred from agency to agency.

The exchange serves criminal justice practitioners in several ways. A sheriff, for example, who is planning to build a combined jail and court facility may contact the Construction Information Exchange to obtain a special search of the data base describing facilities of this type. The sheriff receives a computer printout providing a wealth of detail on projects like the planned facility, and persons to contact for further information are listed.

As another step in the construction initiative, the National Institute of Justice published the first edition of the *National Directory of Corrections Construction*. Based on results of a national survey, the directory is a compendium of designs, construction methods, and costs for jails and prisons built between 1978 and 1986. It includes information on more than 100 prison and jail construction projects totaling \$1.2 billion in construction costs. Never before have so many aspects of correctional facility construction been systematically compiled and reported—the directory contains more than 70 data elements on each construction project. Each facility profile contains details on costs, dimensions, exterior and interior design and construction features, inmate capacity, staffing levels, operating budget, and more. Floorplans are included for most facilities.

The directory may be used to examine different construction methods, so officials may consider what will work best for their own jurisdictions. Construction costs are displayed in several ways, permitting comparison of one facility to another.

All of the facilities listed in the *National Directory of Corrections Construction* are maintained in the data base of the Construction Information Exchange, along with many facilities added since publication of the first edition. The Institute is now planning a second edition.

As the third element in the construction initiative, the National Institute of Justice also publishes a series of *Construction Bulletins*, case studies of facilities for which officials have reported substantial time and cost savings in constructing correctional facilities. The *Construction Bulletins* explain in detail selected projects from the data base that demonstrate new building techniques and particularly helpful approaches identified by specific States or localities. These include the use of modular construction, alternative financing, and improved construction management. Each bulletin includes the background of a specific jurisdiction's corrections problems and a step-by-step description of what was done to resolve the issue.

One *Construction Bulletin* describes the use of prefabricated concrete cell modules, which enabled officials to open a new 336-bed expansion unit only 8 months after groundbreaking at a cost of approximately \$16,000 per cell. Another bulletin describes how, after careful review of several alternatives for underwriting a facility, the State of Ohio chose an innovative finance method of issuing municipal bonds that saved over \$3 million during its first year.

The National Institute of Justice will continue to expand the Construction Information Exchange in its efforts to disseminate information on improved ways to construct prisons and jails and serve the criminal justice community.

Electronic monitoring of offenders

As jurisdictions continue to search for effective penalties and control of convicted offenders, electronic monitoring—alone or with other means of intensive supervision—may prove to be a workable option. The National Institute of Justice has embarked on several efforts to examine this technology.

First, it looked at the development of the technology and described some programs throughout the country that are using or planning to use electronic monitoring combined with home confinement. Meanwhile, the Law Enforcement Standards Laboratory at the National Bureau of Standards began testing devices that were provided by several manufacturers. The Institute also launched a field assessment of the equipment's reliability.

The Institute is also supporting three experiments that randomly assign offenders to electronic monitors or to an alternative sanction to examine the efficacy of electronic monitors as a sentencing tool.

In December 1984, Palm Beach County, Florida, established the first monitoring programs, one involving probationers and the other involving work-release offenders from the county's minimum-security correctional facility.

As of December 1986, the Institute found that 20 States were using various kinds of electronic monitoring devices to supervise more than 900 parolees, defendants awaiting trial, or people on probation.

The Institute queried all agencies using the devices and found that most of the programs were in Florida and Oregon. The majority were monitoring only a few people—19 were supervising fewer than 5 defendants or offenders—but there were 14 programs supervising 20 or more people.

The rapid growth of these programs demonstrates the willingness of criminal justice agencies to experiment with new technology that will increase community safety.

The electronic monitoring technologies currently in use include two approaches to the use of equipment rather than people to determine whether or not an offender stays in a designated location during his nonworking hours. In one approach, an offender must wear a device that transmits a signal. If the individual is at the designated location, this signal is relayed

to the base computer. In the other approach, the computer periodically contacts the offender whose presence at the monitored location is verified.

Although a formal assessment of the monitoring programs' experience has not been completed, some preliminary observations can be made:

- The devices do not have the capacity to eavesdrop or otherwise reveal an offender's activities. Their only capability is to indicate whether the wearer is present, has left, or has returned to a specific location.
- Home confinement with electronic monitoring, in each jurisdiction now trying this approach, is a voluntary choice by the offender.
- Home confinement may eventually be a useful adjunct in intensive supervision programs, in forced early-release programs due to prison crowding, or in protecting the community from high-risk defendants awaiting trial.

Monitored home confinement may prove to be a valuable tool for the criminal justice system, expanding currently limited supervision capabilities. It is an approach that holds the potential for seeing that justice is done and offenders punished, while encouraging offenders' responsibility to their families and accountability to their victims.

The Institute will continue to report as more and more jurisdictions try out these approaches. As the knowledge base grows and the technology improves, the concept and use of electronic monitoring is certain to undergo further refinement.

Felony probation: Options for reducing the risk

Few issues in crime control are as pressing as how to control dangerous, convicted criminals. One of the greatest harms to society may in fact be the inability to exercise adequate control over people who have already been convicted.

As the number of offenders behind bars continues to grow—passing the half-million mark in 1985—crime has begun to decline, as measured by the National Crime Survey. At the same time, the public is expressing understandable concern about jail and prison crowding. But what is less well known is that only one-quarter of those offenders under correctional supervision are actually incarcerated. Because overwhelming caseloads make it virtually impossible to provide adequate supervision, the remaining three-quarters of convicted offenders are essentially free—on probation or parole, unsecured in the community.

Some 2 million offenders are currently on probation. A significant portion are felons. The Rand Corporation, under the sponsorship of NIJ, has researched some of the risks associated with the increasing number of serious felons now on probation. The study found that two-thirds of a sample of felons on probation in Alameda County, California, were rearrested within 3 years—most often for robbery or burglary.

Followup research examined the effects of probation compared with imprisonment. A key conclusion of this phase of the study was that public safety would clearly benefit from incarcerating a larger proportion of high-risk felons, and for longer periods of time. Prison crowding and the costs of expanding capacity led the researchers to suggest that States consider intermediate sanctions, such as intensive probation supervision, electronic monitoring, house arrest, and community service sentencing to provide greater control of offenders and minimize the risk to society.

The National Institute of Justice has investigated a number of sentencing options in an effort to bring additional knowledge to bear on control of the Nation's probationers.

One promising approach that ensures more reasonable control is use of intensive supervision programs. These programs can invoke strict curfews and require offenders to maintain employment, receive counseling, provide

community service, remain drug- and alcohol-free, and make restitution to their victims.

NIJ has sponsored an evaluation of such a program in Georgia. The study, conducted by the State's Department of Corrections, suggested the intensive supervision approach there posed less risk to public safety than ordinary probation. Intensive supervision costs less than prison although more than regular probation. Most of the more than 2,300 offenders sentenced to the program were still participating at the time of the evaluation. Only 16 percent had been removed from the program for violations or new crimes.

The ability to enforce intensive surveillance programs, house arrest, and curfews may be revolutionized by electronic monitoring devices. This new technology may help reduce repeat crimes among those already under supervision by the criminal justice system. The preceding section of this report reviewed this developing technology.

Another revolutionary tool the Institute has experimented with is a new, accurate technology that provides a drug-use profile within minutes. More accurate data on the extent of drug use among probationers can help communities plan improved probation and law enforcement strategies. To help offset the costs of these technologies (discussed in an earlier section of this report), one option may be to charge probationers a user's fee for court-ordered urinalysis or monitoring equipment.

Correctional systems battle AIDS

Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is a major public health issue in the United States today, with 29,435 reported cases and 16,667 deaths. A challenge in health care since 1981, the disease now presents a serious challenge to American correctional systems.

Between November 1985 and October 1986, there were 254 deaths from AIDS among Federal, State, and local jail and prison inmates. And as of October 1986, a total of 1,232 cases of AIDS had been confirmed in the Nation's prisons and jails since the first case in 1981.

The National Institute of Justice and the American Correctional Association jointly sponsored the development of *AIDS in Correctional Facilities: Issues and Options*. The publication was based largely on a survey of all 50 State correctional departments, the Federal Bureau of Prisons, and 33 large city and county jail systems. The study summarized the latest medical information on AIDS, presented statistics on the incidence of AIDS in correctional facilities, and enumerated the key policy areas facing correctional administrators.

Due to the increasing incidence of AIDS during 1986, and the progress of researchers in understanding the nature and modes of transmission of the AIDS virus, the National Institute of Justice published a new report, *Update: AIDS in Correctional Facilities, 1986*, which addresses many new issues faced by correctional officials.

Evidence continues to accumulate that high-risk behavior for transmission of AIDS does not include casual contact. This has been particularly important to corrections staff, who are concerned that they may contract the virus through biting or spitting incidents, or as a result of administering cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) on inmates. The latest research confirms that the virus can only be transmitted through contact with blood or semen. There have been no reports of infection as a result of any occupational contact. However, a small number of corrections staff have contracted AIDS from outside sources. For the most part, inmates within the correctional system who have AIDS contracted the disease before they entered prison.

Because neither a vaccine against the virus nor a cure for AIDS will be available in the immediate future, education and training are the cornerstones of the response to AIDS in correctional facilities. Education and training include "live" training sessions—lectures, discussion groups, and seminars—as well as audiovisual programs, and distribution of written materials.

The report states that 86 percent of all correctional systems provide education and training to inmates, while 96 percent have programs for staff.

The fact that a larger percentage of State/Federal systems than city/county systems provide education for inmates is probably due to the high inmate turnover in jails. However, the report strongly advocates education and training for all inmates, no matter how rapid the turnover. Education may be more important for short-term inmates because they come into contact with many individuals in a relatively short period of time, and then return to society. Educating these inmates serves important correctional management purposes as well as important public health objectives.

The legal issues faced by correctional systems are numerous; many cases have been filed by inmates, with a few being filed by staff. Some of the legal issues involve equal protection standards; cruel and unusual punishment (in segregation cases); quality of care (inadequacy of care in death of inmates); failure to protect others from infection (including screening issues); and confidentiality (of medical records). The low number of staff-initiated legal cases is because there have been no cases of AIDS among correctional staff attributable to contact with inmates. Those that have arisen usually involved alleged discrimination against the staff member because he or she had AIDS.

The National Institute of Justice continues to keep up with the growing AIDS-related issues faced by correctional systems in an attempt to arm policymakers, prison administrators, corrections staff members, and inmates themselves with the knowledge necessary to combat the myriad problems presented by this disease.

When a fine is the penalty for crime

With tax money in short supply and some 2 million Americans under probation, the National Institute of Justice is studying new forms of criminal sentences. One of the oldest and most widely used forms of noncustodial penalty is the fine, levied in American courts chiefly for less serious offenses or those involving only monetary gain.

When researchers from the Vera Institute of Justice conducted an NIJ survey on the use of fines as criminal sanctions, they found that fines were often overlooked as penalties because they served no rehabilitative function. Rehabilitation, however, has recently tended to be minimized as a correctional goal; proponents of the fine note that it does serve another goal, that of punishment, and seems also to have deterrent value.

The researchers traced some courts' reluctance to assess fines to the belief that they are hard to collect and that most felons are poor and thus unable to pay a fine. Contrary to this perception, the research showed that some courts impose heavy fines on even poor defendants and maintain high collection rates.

Courts in Western Europe—especially in Sweden, West Germany, and England—make far greater use of fines, even for felonies such as assault. In West Germany, fines became much more prevalent after adoption of a policy against sentences to imprisonment of less than 6 months.

Methods of collecting fines include work programs by which the value of an offender's labor is credited against the overdue fine, wage garnishment, and "distress"—a procedure frequently used in England in which an offender's property may be seized and sold to satisfy the fine.

In both the United States and in England, court officials told the researchers that the *threat* of imprisonment or of property distraint was more effective in collecting fines than the actual incarceration or seizure in collecting most fines.

To increase the equity of fines, a system originating in Sweden but even more widely used in West Germany calls for the collection of "day fines." Offenders are fined the amount they could earn in a given number of days' work. Judges are thereby able to impose roughly equal amounts of punishment to offenders regardless of economic circumstances. European experience suggests that it is not difficult to determine an offender's earning power.

This general philosophy, linking incarceration to the loss of earning power it causes, is already considered by some judges at sentencing. However,

plans to develop a structured day fine system in a U.S. court have not been made until quite recently. Vera is currently conducting for the National Institute an experiment to levy and collect day fines in a large metropolitan area. If successful, the experiment may point the way to reducing the caseloads of overburdened probation departments. Day fines also were part of the recommendations of the Delaware Sentencing Reform Commission about which then-Governor Pierre S. du Pont IV, wrote in a paper published by the National Institute of Justice in 1985.

Vera researchers noted in earlier National Institute projects a number of other alternative sentences that have much in common with the fine: restitution, court-ordered contributions to specific charities or organizations, penalty assessments, assessment of court and prosecutorial costs, and community service.

Restitution has attracted the interest of many legislators and judges because it takes into account the needs of the victim of crime. It has been the policy of the U.S. Department of Justice since 1982 to seek restitution to the victim as part of the sentence in any Federal prosecution in which it is appropriate.

Bolstering court resources with volunteer lawyer-judges

Traditionally, the most common response to concern about case delay and increasing volume in this country's courts has been to increase the number of judges. In a period of fiscal restraint, however, there has been little room in public budgets to support increases in judicial resources proportionate to the tremendous growth in caseloads.

Some jurisdictions are finding that it makes good sense to use lawyers as temporary judges or in other quasi-judicial roles, as a way of temporarily supplementing permanent judicial resources. These lawyer volunteers serve their courts in a variety of capacities, from judges with full authority to judicial adjuncts who handle settlement and arbitration cases.

The National Institute of Justice has sponsored research that assesses the impact of the volunteer lawyers in easing judicial burdens. A 2 1/2-year study, conducted for the Institute by the National Center for State Courts, had three goals: 1) to evaluate six projects experimenting with the use of lawyers serving as supplemental judicial resources, 2) to provide technical assistance to courts interested in the use of judicial adjuncts, and 3) to disseminate guidelines on the use of judicial adjuncts developed during the initial phase of the project.

Preliminary findings on the use of pro tempore judges showed that using lawyers in this way can improve the court's ability to serve the public. The study concluded that "lawyers are useful as judicial adjuncts in a wide range of programs." Judicial adjuncts can reduce case backlogs when used to perform judicial duties or other functions that consume judicial time, or to conduct procedures to resolve cases that would otherwise come before the courts.

The researchers looked at the use of temporary appellate judges by the Arizona Court of Appeals and trial judges in Pima County, Arizona, and Multnomah County, Oregon. In addition, they evaluated the use of lawyers as trial referees in Connecticut, as arbitrators in the court-annexed civil arbitration program in the Fourth Judicial District in Minneapolis, and as experts who recommend settlement proposals in civil jury cases in the King County (Washington) Superior Court.

The response from judges, participants, and defense attorneys was, for the most part, positive and in some instances enthusiastic. Except for serious

criminal trials and child custody proceedings, the research proved that most cases can be assigned to temporary judges with benefit to all parties.

All six sites found little difficulty in getting lawyers to donate 3 or 4 days at a time. Moreover, all six evaluations concluded with encouraging consistency that the technique benefits courts, sometimes greatly and in all cases positively.

While judicial adjuncts are not a permanent alternative to the creation of needed judgeships or judicial positions, they serve well as standby resources to maintain court schedules, to meet trial guarantees, or to reduce trial and appellate backlogs.

Resolving arguments informally: Alternative dispute resolution

Increasingly, citizens and communities are seeking alternatives to what they perceive as the unwieldiness of the court system. The National Institute of Justice has tracked the development and impact of the alternative dispute resolution "movement."

In the past 15 years, about 180 cities and towns have established community dispute resolution centers. Such centers attempt to give citizens acceptable solutions—through the use of conciliation, mediation, and arbitration—faster and less expensively. Cases often involve run-of-the-mill conflicts between consumers and merchants, neighbors, family members, landlords and tenants, and petty criminals and their victims.

Sometimes these types of conflicts escalate into serious violence before they come to the attention of the justice system. Dispute resolution programs essentially provide fair remedies without necessarily following strict legal procedures. Sometimes they convert criminal disputes to civil ones; more often, they solve civil issues before criminal questions can arise.

In general, programs fall into three categories:

- *Justice system-based.* These typically rely on a sponsoring agency, usually the court or prosecutor's office, for referrals, facilities, and personnel. Defendants are often open to criminal charges if they do not complete the mediation process satisfactorily.
- *Community-based.* These usually receive referrals from the community rather than the justice system. Hearings are often long and held in informal settings, such as community centers or parish halls. Community leaders and nonprofessional mediators (often volunteers) serve as staff.
- *Composite.* These tend to operate in informal settings with nonprofessional staff, but receive referrals from the justice system as well as the community.

While the Federal Government provided many community centers with startup funds, communities have continued not only to support the programs, but to start new ones. About half of the existing community programs are funded entirely by local government; State governments and foundations support most of the rest.

The American Bar Association is pursuing a particularly interesting idea in court-based dispute resolution programs —the “multi-door” courthouse, in which citizens “referred in” from a variety of governmental and non-governmental sources would have their complaints diagnosed and then be “referred out” to the appropriate agency. The National Institute of Justice sponsored an evaluation of the ABA program by the Institute for Social Analysis. The program was designed to help decrease the “runaround” many citizens experience in seeking redress for their grievances. It is not unheard of for a citizen to arrive at the district attorney’s office, be referred to the city prosecutor a mile away, then back to the DA, then to the mediation program.

The three test sites—Houston, Tulsa, and Washington, D.C.—adapted the ABA’s design to their localities. Both the size and the nature of the caseload for the three programs varied dramatically. Results showed a high degree of satisfaction with the centralized intake process (although intake was just the first step in the dispute resolution process and did not mean that the disputes were automatically solved).

The promising results of the multi-door experiment have sparked efforts to develop or improve dispute resolution forums found ineffective or absent during the initial effort. In Washington, D.C., for example, new intake centers are planned for the citywide Citizen Complaint Center and for the Domestic Relations Mediation Service at Superior Court, where many matters of property settlement and even details of custody might be resolved without taking up trial time.

A decade of emphasis on victim's plight

In research as in legislation, the 1980's have recognized the victims of crime as central characters in the criminal event, worthy of concern and compassion but also essential to the process of identifying and bringing criminals to justice. The National Institute of Justice pioneered research that revealed the problems victims experience in dealing with crime and the criminal justice system. Here are a few examples of victim-related studies:

Many studies have shown that the quickness with which a crime is reported is more important to whether an arrest is made than the quickness with which police respond to the call. In general, however, because of citizen delay in reporting crime incidents, the likelihood of arresting offenders on the spot is limited. In addition, research shows that rapid police response is not the key to citizen satisfaction: What most victims want is *predictable* response, not quick response (see page 12).

Other studies show that victims who receive assistance after a crime are more responsive to dealing with the criminal justice system, thus making the work of police and prosecutors easier. To encourage citizens to cooperate with criminal justice agencies, the National Institute now makes available videotaped public service announcements that stress this citizen role. The theme of the announcements, shown on national television, is "Report! Identify! Testify!"

Nineteen States have adopted the allocution right for victims—the right of victims to present their views at sentencing and parole hearings. An NIJ study in California courts found that less than 3 percent of eligible victims actually did appear—in part because fewer than half the victims were aware they *had* such a right. The study showed the inadequacy of notification procedures and pointed out areas for improvement. Victims regarded the right as important, but wanted information about the status of the case against the defendant as much as they wanted to participate.

Examining the impact of the justice system itself on the victim, a study explored ways of making information available, at key criminal justice decision points, on what harm the victim suffered—physical, psychological, or financial. The study noted that while police see firsthand the evidence of victim harm and this influences their actions, as the case proceeds through prosecution, criminal justice practitioners learn about victim harm in

increasingly indirect ways. By the time the case enters the courtroom, judges learn about victim harm directly from the individual in only a small minority of cases.

For this reason, the researchers suggested that judges ask for a victim impact statement in all presentence reports. Such a statement would enable the judges to be sure how the crime affected the victim and thus impose sentences that more closely reflect the seriousness of the crime. The statement would also assure the victim that he or she was playing a role in the sentencing decision and thus in the outcome of the case. Such victim impact statements have been required by law in Federal criminal cases since 1982.

Institute research also documented the fact that the impact of crime affects not only the victim but extends to the victim's family and friends, in part because most victims turn to their social network of friends and relatives for support, assistance, and advice in reacting to the crime.

In addition, the National Institute is examining the implementation and effects of victim impact statements, as well as addressing the extent to which victim rights legislation is actually being reflected in local policies and practices within the criminal justice system. These studies will help determine how well victim needs are being met and the effects of victim involvement on the criminal justice process. The report of the study will include a comprehensive state-by-state analysis of specific victim rights and the statewide policies that enhance or inhibit them, with illustrative case studies.

The 1982 report of the President's Task Force on Victims of Crime recommended that hospitals "establish and implement training programs for hospital personnel to sensitize them to the needs of victims of violent crime." The National Institute now has funded startup costs for the Model Victim Crisis Center at Hollywood Presbyterian Medical Center in Los Angeles. The center will develop and provide information on the types of in-hospital crisis intervention services that have the greatest impact on victims. It will be staffed by volunteers from university graduate programs in the area.

The American Bar Association conducted a study for the Institute on the sentencing of those who sexually abuse children. It examined whether penalties for sex offenders are different for cases with child victims compared to those with adult victims. The study found little difference between applicable statutory provisions, but documented that, in actual sentencing, imprisonment was imposed in only 69 percent of child sexual abuse cases compared with 89 percent of comparable cases with adult victims. Sentences for the abusers of children also were shorter. The reason for the discrepancy stemmed from the fact that children are more frequently attacked by family

members or others known to them. The researchers noted that this fact “greatly affects the processing of cases from initial reporting through sentencing and disposition.”

Meanwhile the Institute published a compilation of research findings and experience on the use of child victims as witnesses—a publication discussed in the next section.

Protecting abused children when they must testify

Nearly 72,000 cases of child sexual abuse within the family were reported in a recent year. Unknown thousands of other cases went unreported. Less than 10 percent were prosecuted.

Even cases that are filed with police may not result in prosecution for a variety of reasons. These include inability to establish the crime, insufficient evidence, unwillingness to expose the child to additional trauma, and the belief that child victims are incompetent, unreliable, or not credible as witnesses. Yet, public sentiment increasingly favors criminal justice intervention in these cases.

The National Institute of Justice commissioned a study to explore research and practical experience in bringing abusers to trial and in dealing with child victims. The result was a State-by-State analysis of statutes relating to children's testimony in court, plus a number of general principles to guide prosecutors handling these difficult cases.

Despite wide publicity given to permitting children to testify on videotape or through closed-circuit television, the researchers reported that there are other ways to avoid direct contact between a child witness and the accused that pose fewer threats to the rights of the accused. Children can be instructed to look elsewhere in the courtroom than at the defense table, or to tell the judge if the defendant makes faces.

Many prosecutorial innovations require no new laws. A child witness' communication skills can be enhanced through the use of dolls, artwork, and simplified vocabulary. A smaller chair can be provided for a child, not what must appear to be a massive throne on the witness stand. Children can be briefed on the roles of various people at the trial and taken beforehand on a tour of the courtroom.

Laws that can relieve a child's anxiety include those providing for a supportive person, even if not a guardian ad litem, to remain with the child through the trial; requiring law enforcement, social service, and prosecutorial investigations to be combined using a single trained interviewer for the child rather than a succession of questioners; or giving precedence in scheduling to sexual offense cases or cases in which the victim is a minor.

Special competency requirements for child witnesses should be abolished, the report noted, recommending a statutory presumption that every witness is competent (as in the Federal Rules of Evidence). Legislators should consider special hearsay exemptions for certain out-of-court statements that become important when a child freezes or recants on the witness stand.

Prosecutors should designate at least one staff attorney to specialize and receive special training for cases in which the victim is a child. Mental health professionals in the community should be asked to help interview children, select potential jurors, and formulate opening and closing statements.

Judges should be aware of the child's unique situation in the courtroom and should be alert to confusing or intimidating lines of questioning when the child is testifying. When discomfort threatens to cloud a child's testimony, the judge should call a recess to identify and remedy the distress. Judges should avoid granting continuances whenever possible, and should ensure that every child has a supporting friend or advocate in the case.

Drastic interventions such as closed circuit television or videotaped depositions should be used only in extraordinary cases, even in States that permit them. Sensitive treatment of the child, along with creative interpretation of available statutes and case-law precedents, may be more effective in most cases.

New tactics against domestic violence

National Institute of Justice research has guided police to more effective responses to spouse abuse. Arrest is most effective in curbing repeat incidents of family violence, according to NIJ research in Minneapolis. Now the Institute is testing that policy along with an array of new police options.

In 1984, the Attorney General's Task Force on Family Violence recommended to the Nation that "... every law enforcement agency should establish arrest as the preferred response in cases of family violence." The Task Force cited the then-new report of a National Institute of Justice experiment conducted by the Minneapolis Police Department and researchers from the Police Foundation:

Four times as many cities as 2 years ago now encourage their police to arrest a domestic assailant.

Spouse abuse drew public attention when a 1975 survey estimated that more than 1.7 million Americans had faced a spouse wielding a knife or gun the previous year and that 2 million had experienced a severe beating.

For police, handling family violence calls presented many problems. For one thing, the abused spouse rarely would agree to sign a complaint or, having signed, could frequently be persuaded to withdraw it. The law usually permitted no arrest without the complaint of a victim or eyewitness, or evidence of severe bodily injury.

Policy often limited police responses to calming down the disputing parties, counseling them or referring them to social service agencies, or sending the violent person away from the home for a cooling-down period of some stated number of hours. There was, however, little evidence to recommend one approach over the other.

The Institute found that when an assaulting spouse is arrested and jailed overnight, a repeat offense is dramatically less likely than when the offender is sent away from home for 8 hours or when the parties are given advice or counseling.

In only 10 percent of cases did repeat violence occur in the 6 months following arrest. But more violence followed within 6 months in 19 percent of cases where "advice" was given and in 24 percent of cases where the suspect was sent away.

Many States changed their laws to permit (and in some States *require*) arrest in domestic assaults even when the arresting officer did not witness the incident. From 1984 to 1986, according to a survey of the 100 largest police departments, the number of urban departments encouraging arrest increased from 10 percent to 46 percent.

Police departments in six jurisdictions are building on the Minneapolis experiment by testing arrest in combination with other police responses, including coordinated efforts with human services agencies.

Technology Assessment Program guides law enforcement purchasing decisions

As consumers, we all know the value of making informed choices about products we buy. For criminal justice agencies, the stakes are much higher. The costs of purchasing decisions are measured not only in dollars and cents but often in lives.

Selecting the best equipment for law enforcement has never been more important—or more complex. Shrinking budgets and increasingly sophisticated technology underscore the need for objective, reliable information to guide purchasing decisions.

By testing and evaluating equipment, the National Institute of Justice Technology Assessment Program (TAP) helps law enforcers and criminal justice agencies choose the best products to use in their day-to-day work. The program is the link between technological developments and the everyday needs of criminal justice professionals.

One of the program's most significant contributions was the development of performance standards for soft body armor. In response to many requests for information about how age affects the ballistic resistance of armor, NIJ this year completed a test of old armor. The results indicated that the ballistic resistance of vests remains high even in vests more than 10 years old.

As a result of the used body armor testing, police departments can now make more rational policy concerning the purchase of additional soft armor for their officers.

TAP has recently also tested handguns (9-mm and .45-caliber autoloading pistols and .38- and .357-caliber revolvers), assisted the Michigan State Police in their patrol vehicle testing and evaluation program, revised a report on transmitters, and issued a report on electronic monitoring devices. Articles about the program appeared in *The National Sheriff*, *Security Management*, and the *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*. TAP also contributes a regular column to *Law Enforcement Technology*.

The Technology Assessment Program has three components:

1. The **Advisory Council** assesses key technological needs, assists the program in establishing priorities, aids in reviewing data, and serves as representatives to the law enforcement and criminal justice community. The Advisory Council recommends directions for future standards and tests.
2. The **Law Enforcement Standards Laboratory** (LESL) of the National Bureau of Standards, National Engineering Laboratory, develops performance standards and guidelines for equipment.
3. The **TAP Information Center** (TAPIC) oversees equipment testing, disseminates the results of tests, and serves as a clearinghouse of information. The Information Center is a reference and referral center with a toll-free telephone number working professionals can call for answers to questions about equipment. The Information Center also serves as the liaison between NIJ, LESL, and the Advisory Council.

Today's law enforcement executives face high crime rates, increasing public demand for police services, and at the same time, increasing pressure from dwindling resources. Just as research has revealed improved alternatives to traditional policing methods, so does research and evaluation reveal improved methods of selecting equipment to combat crime.

Dissemination: Putting research to work

Research takes on power when it is moved into the street or the courtroom as a weapon against crime. Practitioners and policymakers in our cities and towns depend on the National Institute of Justice not only for the results of its own research but for the good news of programs and policies that succeed in other localities.

In establishing the National Institute of Justice, Congress instructed it to "collect and disseminate information" and "serve as a national and international clearinghouse for the exchange of information" pertaining to the prevention and reduction of crime and the operation of the criminal justice system.

Since 1972, the Institute has maintained an information clearinghouse to help accomplish these purposes. The National Institute of Justice/NCJRS (National Criminal Justice Reference Service) boasts the world's most comprehensive collection of criminal justice information—more than 85,000 documents—accessed through a computerized document data base.

NCJRS links the world of research to the day-to-day work of defense against crime at every level of society and government. Its primary services are provided to local, State, and Federal criminal justice agencies—the "priority users" of NCJRS. Many other groups, however, depend on the Institute's dissemination services, among them academicians and researchers working in criminal justice, information media, and the general public. Many of their needs can be met through cost-recovery charges.

The National Institute of Justice was a pioneer among Federal agencies (in 1979) in making more information available to more agencies and individuals through charging user fees.

One innovative and successful cost-recovery product was the Crime File series of 22 videotapes providing discussion of current issues in criminal justice by leading authorities on each subject. The National Institute first funded the production of the series through a grant to the Police Foundation, then used the NCJRS cost-recovery program to reproduce and disseminate the tapes.

The quarter-million dollar sales that the tapes produced, like the \$350,000 total projected for the user-fee program in each of the next 3 years, offers only a benchmark to the success of the Institute's innovative application of a user fee system for information transfer. More significant is the fact that collecting user fees has made it possible to disseminate *more* information, in a wider variety of media, to more people.

The Institute stresses the distribution of information in forms readily usable by local-level practitioners and policymakers. The primary information vehicle is a bimonthly journal, *NIJ Reports*. It offers at least one major article each issue on new or developing findings in criminal justice research, as well as providing a list of upcoming conferences, workshops, and other criminal justice events, and abstracts of the most significant new documents in the NCJRS data base. It goes to more than 68,000 readers who register annually with NCJRS to receive free subscriptions.

Another leading dissemination medium is *Research in Brief*, a series of readable, four- to eight-page summaries of significant research results, distributed free on request.

In 1986 the Institute distributed more than 212,000 documents through NCJRS—an average of almost 17,700 a month.

The Institute created during 1986 the Corrections Construction Initiative (see page 22 of this report), setting up a Construction Data Base by which State and local officials may share their experiences in the construction or rehabilitation of prisons and jails. The Institute also set up through NCJRS a Federal Criminal Justice Research Data Base to provide online information about current research projects not only of NIJ and other agencies of the Office of Justice Programs but of about 40 other Federal agencies that conduct criminal justice-related research.

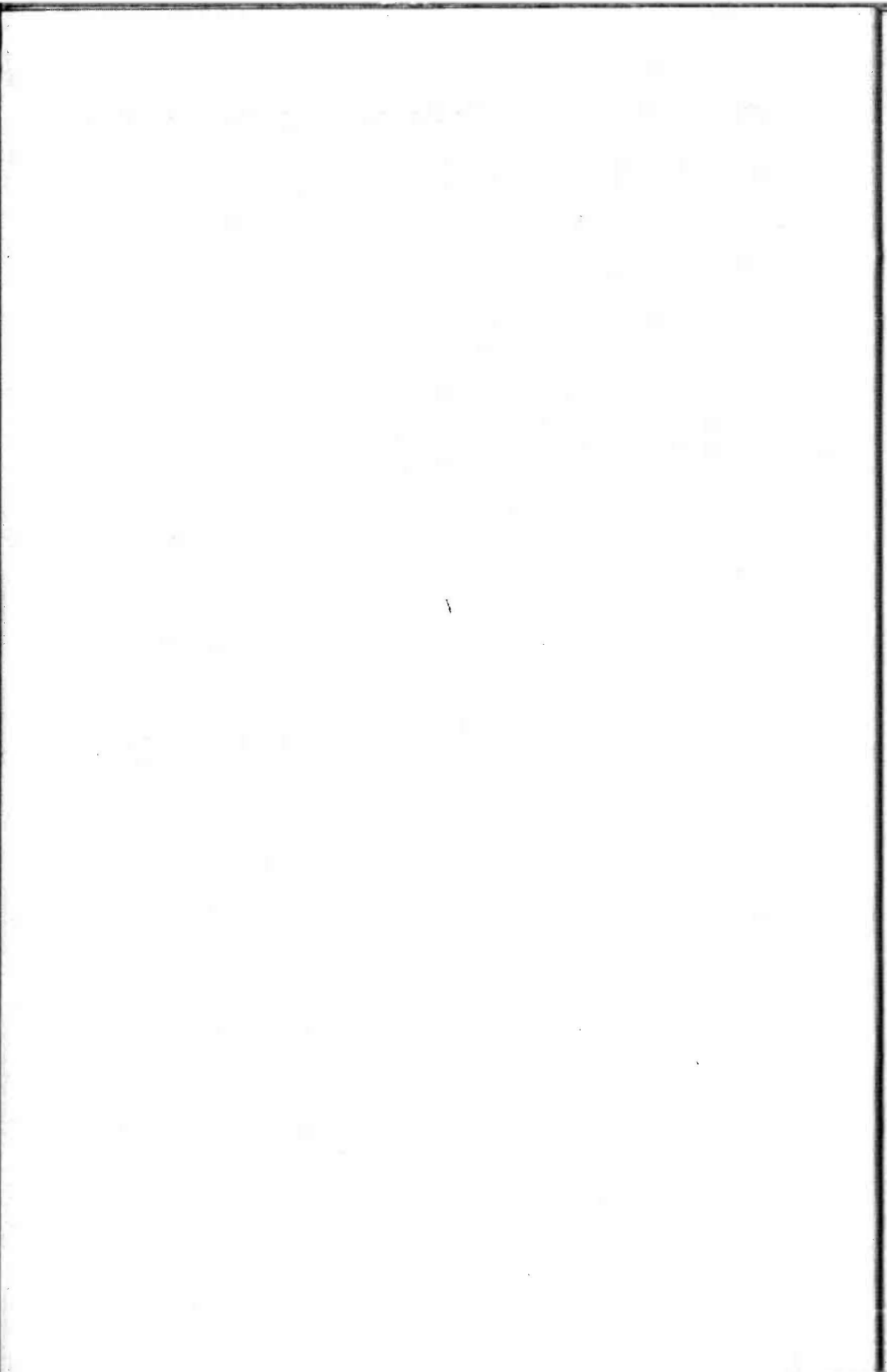
Another Institute networking effort is the Criminal Justice Editors Resource Group, an informal linkage of some 70 publications on justice-related topics that exchanges information each month and meets four times a year—with the Institute furnishing a senior editor from NCJRS to coordinate the effort.

One key mission of the Reference Service is to provide instant help to the practitioner, policymaker, or other interested citizen with questions about criminal justice. Since 1984, NCJRS has provided a toll-free number by which users of the service can call 12 hours a day. Last year, the Reference Service received an average 2,546 reference requests a month. Some of these requests arrived by mail or by personal visits to the public NCJRS reading room—but of that 30,000-plus total, 9,115 inquiries came on the toll-free number (800-851-3420) and 6,130 on the Service's local, Washington-area number.

Central to this function of the Reference Service are its Criminal Justice Information Specialists—in fields including police, courts, corrections, juvenile justice, statistics, criminology, and crime prevention. Virtually all have either advanced degrees, field experience, or both in their specialties. When they join NCJRS, they receive new training in information science, including speedy retrieval of information from the document data base.

In 1987, the Institute is increasing the rate of acquisitions to the NCJRS data base, adding about 50 percent more documents a month than at present.

Although the National Institute is the principal sponsor and overall manager of the Reference Service, other OJP agencies sponsor clearinghouses that are integral components of NCJRS: the Juvenile Justice Clearinghouse for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, the National Victims Resource Center for the Office for Victims of Crime, and the Justice Statistics Clearinghouse for the Bureau of Justice Statistics.



Organization of the National Institute of Justice

The operations of the National Institute of Justice are conducted by three offices which are designed to accomplish the Institute's research, development, testing, evaluation, and dissemination responsibilities. The offices are the Center for Crime Control Research, the Office of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Research, and the Office of Communication and Research Utilization.

Center for Crime Control Research

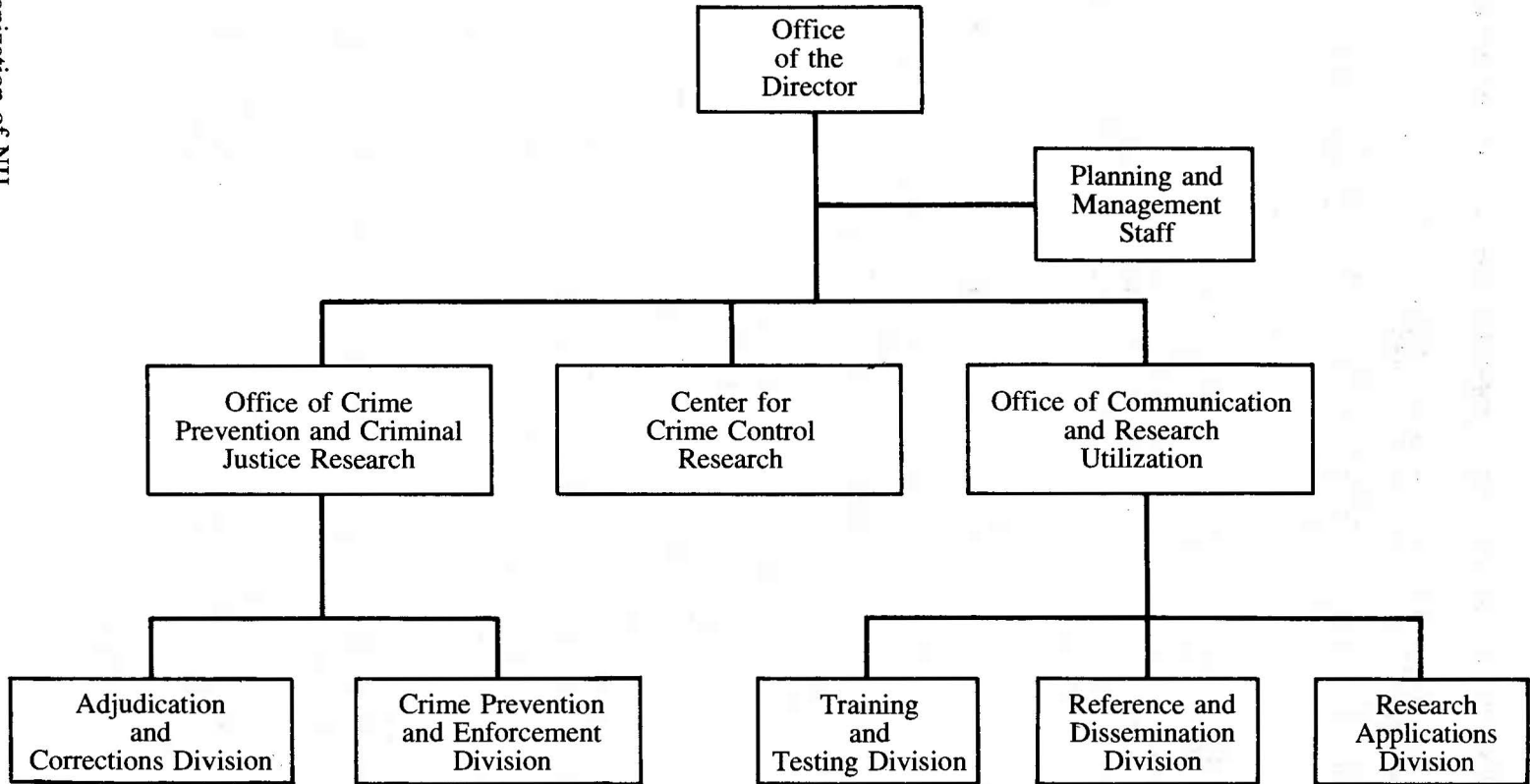
Significant changes in policy often occur on the basis of limited information, intuition, and personal beliefs. Such changes can have unintended, sometimes counterproductive results. The Center analyzes trends in crime and criminal justice and identifies critical issues that require sustained study and experimentation over a comparatively lengthier timeframe than other problems. For example, a major and ongoing emphasis of the program is determining the deterrence effects of alternative sanctions and crime control efforts. The United States currently spends \$33 billion annually on a system designed to deter and punish offenders, and we need to know how effective the system is.

The Center also seeks to develop new tools to enhance the ability of research to provide more reliable answers to criminal justice problems. Current methodologies are often insufficiently precise in measuring the effects of alternative crime control strategies. The Center draws from all disciplines in refining research techniques so that the real effects of different sanctions and enforcement strategies can be determined.

Office of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Research

In an era of fiscal stringency, the productivity of the criminal justice system, particularly at the State and local levels, must be improved and innovative ways found to bring all the resources of the community to bear on the problem of crime. This Office houses the Institute's applied and developmental research and evaluation activities. It supports applied research and evaluation directed specifically at improving day-to-day criminal justice

National Institute of Justice



operations through the study of current operational practices and the exploration of innovative concepts and policies. It also sponsors research and evaluation on how the impact of the resources of the community and the private sector can be expanded through the creation of partnerships to prevent and control criminal behavior.

The Office emphasizes funding research that is relevant to policymaking and on problems amenable to short and intermediate-term solution. It is concerned with the practical operations of law enforcement agencies, components of the adjudication process (defense, prosecution, and the judiciary), the correctional system, and with ways other sectors of society interact with the criminal justice system in controlling and dealing with criminal behavior.

Office of Communication and Research Utilization

The research funds of the National Institute of Justice represent a substantial investment of tax dollars. An equal effort must be expended to ensure that the results are placed in the hands of those who need them. Research, no matter how successful, will have limited impact on policy and practice without intensive efforts to communicate research-based information to those who can put it to use.

The audiences for criminal justice research are varied—administrators and practitioners who operate components of the system, legislators and State and local officials who set policy, and researchers who are exploring various aspects of the field. Each has a different perspective and each is likely to obtain and use information in a different way.

The responsibility of this program is to establish links with these audiences to ensure that their needs and priorities inform the Institute's research agenda, and that the results of Institute research and evaluation have an impact on criminal justice policy and practice.

The program sponsors a biennial survey of criminal justice professionals, short-term studies of emerging issues with implications for criminal justice operations, and syntheses of research and operating practice. It also maintains liaison with a variety of national and international agencies and organizations, public interest groups, criminal justice research and professional associations, and the private sector. The Office establishes and maintains feedback mechanisms both to monitor the impact of research on policy and practice and to ensure that the research needs of the field are being met.

Office of the Director

The Director of the Institute is appointed by the President of the United States, and upon confirmation by the Senate, serves at the President's pleasure. The Director establishes the research and development objectives of the Institute. The Director has final authority to approve grants, contracts, and cooperative agreements, and maintains responsibility for fiscal operations of the Institute.

The Office of the Director includes a staff of Special Assistants who aid the Director in his executive, administrative, and liaison responsibilities.

Finally, the Office includes a Planning and Management staff which is responsible for reporting to the Director on the fiscal management of the Institute, conducting short- and long-term planning for and evaluation of Institute operations, preparing budget materials, and monitoring the implementation of internal policies established by the Director. The staff also oversees the conduct of in-house research.

Publications of the National Institute of Justice, 1986

National Institute of Justice publications (and reports of research supported by the Institute) are available from several sources: free from the National Institute of Justice/NCJRS; at a cost-recovery price from NCJRS; for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office; or for sale by the organization that produced the work under a grant or contract from the National Institute.

Most documents in all these categories are also available from NCJRS by interlibrary loan, in free microfiche, or both, as are certain unpublished works that are not otherwise available. Some loan documents are unpublished reports that the Institute makes available by putting them on file with the Reference Service.

The *National Institute of Justice Publications Catalog* lists all Institute publications, not limited to those published in 1986, that were in stock as of February 1987. It includes convenient order forms for the various sources, and is available from

Distribution Services
National Institute of Justice/NCJRS
Box 6000
Rockville, MD 20850

Free documents

All free documents are available, while supplies last, from Distribution Services, address above, or by calling 800-851-3420. (From Alaska, Maryland, or Metropolitan Washington, D.C., call 301-251-5500.) Specify title and the identifying "NCJ number." First listed are books and pamphlets:

Crime Victim Restitution—An Analysis of Approaches. By D. McGillis, Abt Associates, Inc. 86 pp. NCJ 103680.

Evaluation of the Differential Police Response Field Test (executive summary). By J.T. McEwen, E.F. Connors III, and M.I. Cohen, Research Management Association, Inc. 22 pp. NCJ 101378.

Helping Crime Victims—Levels of Trauma and Effectiveness of Services (executive summary). By R.F. Cook, B.E. Smith, and A.V. Harrell, Institute for Social Analysis. 27 pp. NCJ 100868.

Network of Knowledge—Directory of Criminal Justice Information Sources, sixth edition. Comp. Paula R. Goldberg. 204 pp. NCJ 103687.

Police-Prosecutor Coordination: The Key to Effective Prosecution. 17 pp. NCJ 101146.

Research in Brief. This series is one way in which the National Institute shares important research results that can help policymakers and practitioners with their day-to-day decisions. New developments are described in fast-reading, 4- to 12-page summaries. You may request individual copies (by title and number) from the Distribution Services address or by calling the telephone numbers given above; you can also request to be shipped all new titles as they become available. Also available is a "RIB order form" listing all titles in the series.

AIDS in Prisons and Jails: Issues and Options. NCJ 100221.

Armed Criminal in America. NCJ 102827.

Confronting Domestic Violence: The Role of Criminal Court Judges. NCJ 102833.

Crime Stoppers—A National Evaluation. NCJ 102292.

Danger to Police in Domestic Disturbances—A New Look. NCJ 102634.

Employee Drug Testing Policies in Police Departments. NCJ 102632.

Field Training for Police Officers: State of the Art. NCJ 102633.

Interviewing Victims and Witnesses of Crime. NCJ 099061.

Line-of-Duty Deaths: Survivor and Departmental Responses. NCJ 103238.

New Dimensions in Probation: Georgia's Experience With Intensive Probation Supervision. NCJ 102848.

Predictions of Dangerousness in the Criminal Law. NCJ 104599.

Problem-Oriented Policing. NCJ 102371.

Prosecution of Child Sexual Abuse: Innovations in Practice. NCJ 099317.

Systemwide Strategies To Alleviate Jail Crowding. NCJ 103202.

Research in Action reprints. The following, by date of publication, are reprints from *Research in Action*, feature articles that first appeared in the bimonthly journal *NIJ Reports*. You may order single copies just as you would any other free publication of the National Institute of Justice, or you may call one of the telephone numbers listed above to inquire about obtaining multiple copies.

Jailing drunk drivers: Impact on the criminal justice system. By National Institute staff, Fred Heinzelmann, project director. July 1985

INTERPOL: Global help in fight against drugs, terrorists, and counterfeiters. By Michael Fooner. September 1985

Electronically monitored home confinement. By Daniel Ford and Annesley K. Schmidt. November 1985

Volunteer lawyer-judges bolster court resources. By Alex B. Aikman. January 1986

Project DARE: Teaching kids to say "no" to drugs and alcohol. By William DeJong. March 1986

Prosecuting child sexual abuse—New approaches. By Debra Whitcomb. May 1986

Toward the multi-door courthouse—Dispute resolution intake and referral. July 1986

Drugs and crime: Controlling use and reducing risk through testing. By John A. Carver. September 1986

Block watches help crime victims in Philadelphia. By Peter Finn. November 1986

Newport News tests problem-oriented policing.

January 1987

By William Spelman and John E. Eck.

Controlling drug abuse and crime: A research update.

March 1987

By Mary G. Graham.

Crime victims: Learning how to help them.

May 1987

By Robert C. Davis.

Construction Bulletins. These are fast-paced case studies of how States and localities have used new techniques in construction, design, financing, or planning of new prisons and jails. They're available just like the RIB's listed above—by single title or by the series—and are also listed on the RIB order form.

California Tests New Construction Concepts. NCJ 101593.

Florida Sets Example With Use of Concrete Modules. NCJ 100125.

New Construction Methods for Correctional Facilities. NCJ 100121.

Ohio's New Approach to Prison and Jail Financing. NCJ 102093.

Crime File Study Guides. The *Crime File Series* began with a series of 22 videotapes, produced for the National Institute of Justice by the Police Foundation and on sale from NCJRS. Call 800-851-3420 or 301-251-5500 to ask for a price list and order form describing not only the first 22 tapes but new titles being added in 1987.

A printed study guide is provided for each tape. You receive all the guides when you place any tape order, or you can order the free guides separately. They include:

Biology and Crime by R. Herrnstein. NCJ 100733.

Deadly Force by W. Geller. NCJ 100734.

Death Penalty by F.E. Zimring and M. Laurence. NCJ 100735.

Domestic Violence by L. Sherman. NCJ 100736.

Drinking and Crime by J.B. Jacobs. NCJ 100737.

Exclusionary Rule by B.P. Wilson. NCJ 100738.

Foot Patrol by G.L. Kelling. NCJ 100739.

Gun Control by F.E. Zimring. NCJ 100740.

Heroin by J. Kaplan. NCJ 100741.

Insanity Defense by N. Morris. NCJ 100742.

Inside Prisons by J.B. Jacobs. NCJ 100743.

Jobs and Crime by R. McGahey. NCJ 100744.

Juvenile Offenders by P. Greenwood. NCJ 100745.

Neighborhood Safety by L. Sherman. NCJ 100746.

Out on Bail by M.D. Sorin. NCJ 100747.

Predicting Criminality by P. Hoffman. NCJ 100748.

Prison Crowding by A. Blumstein. NCJ 100749.

Repeat Offenders by L. Sherman. NCJ 100750.

Search and Seizure by G.R. Stone. NCJ 100751.

Sentencing by R. Singer. NCJ 100752.

TV and Violence by J.R. Milavsky. NCJ 100753.

Victims by P. Finn. NCJ 100754.

Fee publications from NCJRS

These National Institute publications should be ordered (by title and NCJ number, please) from

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Rockville, MD 20850

You should include check or money order, payable to NCJRS, for payment in full or your VISA or MasterCard number, expiration date, and signature. You may also establish a deposit account with NCJRS and authorize payments from that or pay with a government or university purchase order (if a purchase order is used, please add \$1.95 for processing).

Telephone 800-851-3420 or 301-251-5500 for questions about payment policy or to order by charge card or deposit account. In the list below, the first price given is valid for orders from the United States only; in parentheses, the first price is for orders from Canada, the second from elsewhere in the world (payment, please, in U.S. dollars drawn on a U.S. bank).

Alleviating Jail Crowding: A Systems Perspective. Issues and Practices. By A. Hall, Abt Associates, Inc. 96 pp. \$6.40 (\$7.00, \$9.70). NCJ 099452.

Avoiding Overcrowding Through Policy Analysis—The Nevada Experience. By J. Austin, American Correctional Association. 38 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 101846.

Dealing Effectively With Crowded Jails—A Manual for Judges. By J.J. Perlstein and D.A. Henry, Pretrial Services Resource Center. 79 pp. \$5.80 (\$6.00, \$8.20). NCJ 099463.

Evaluation of the Differential Police Response Field Test. Research report. By J.T. McEwen, E.F. Connors III, and M.I. Cohen. 278 pp. \$12.00 (\$14.40, \$21.20). NCJ 101267.

Guardian Angels—An Assessment of Citizen Response to Crime. Executive summary. By S. Pennell, C. Curtis, and J. Henderson. 39 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 100911.

Helping Crime Victims: Levels of Trauma and Effectiveness of Services. Executive Summary. By R.F. Cook, B.E. Smith, and Adele V. Harrell. 30 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 100868.

Implications of Effective Case Processing for Crowded Jails—A Manual for Prosecutors. By J.J. Perlstein and D.A. Henry, Pretrial Services Resource Center. 36 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 099464.

Keeping the Peace—The Parameters of Police Discretion in Relation to the Mentally Disordered. By L.A. Teplin, Northwestern University Hospital. 44 pp. \$5.20 (\$5.20, \$7.10). NCJ 101046.

National Directory of Corrections Construction. By C.B. DeWitt. 245 pp. \$14.90 (\$17.10, \$23.00). NCJ 101991. *Note:* A second edition, much enlarged, will become available in 1988. Telephone for information before ordering.

Repeat Offender Laws in the United States—Their Form, Use, and Perceived Value. Executive Summary. By W.F. McDonald, L.A. Athens, and T.J. Minton. 46 pp. \$5.20 (\$5.20, \$7.10). NCJ 103054.

Robbery of Financial Institutions. Executive Summary. By T.L. Baumer and M.D. Carrington, Indiana University School of Public and Environmental Affairs. 47 pp. \$5.20 (\$5.20, \$7.10). NCJ 100861.

Technology Assessment Program. The following documents from the National Institute's Technological Assistance Program may be ordered from NCJRS just like any other fee publications, or additional information can be obtained by telephone from the Technology Assistance Information Center, 800-24-TAPIC or 301-251-5060.

Ballistic Tests of Used Soft Body Armor. By D.E. Frank. 43 pp. \$5.20 (\$5.20, \$7.10). NCJ 103016.

Direct Contact Police Annunciator Panels. NIJ Standard 0320.00. 24 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 100860.

Measured Vehicular Antenna Performance. NIJ Report 201-85. 37 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 101789.

Mobile FM Transceivers. NIJ Standard 0210.00. 33 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 101844. (A few free copies may remain; inquire by phone.)

9 mm/45 Caliber Autoloading Pistols. NIJ Standard 0112.00. 21 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 101681.

Personal/Mobile FM Transceivers. NIJ Standard 0224.00. 23 pp. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 101682.

Susceptibility of Emergency Vehicle Sirens to External Radiated Electromagnetic Fields. NIJ Report 200-85. \$4.00 (\$4.00, \$5.20). NCJ 101845.

Vehicle Tracking Devices. NIJ Standard 0223.00. \$4.60 (\$4.60, \$5.80). NCJ 101843.

Available from GPO

Those National Institute of Justice documents sold by the Government Printing Office should be ordered by title and GPO stock number from

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Washington, DC 20402

All orders must be prepaid, although the Superintendent of Documents also accepts deposit accounts for easier payment.

These documents also can be borrowed from NCJRS (see "Loan documents" below) by title and NCJ number (*not* GPO number). In many cases, they also are available in free NCJRS microfiche.

AIDS in Correctional Facilities—Issues and Options. By T.M. Hammett and M. Sullivan, Abt Associates, Inc. 256 pp. \$11.00; GPO stock number 027-000-01250-7. NCJ 100126.

Confronting Domestic Violence—A Guide for Criminal Justice Agencies. By G.A. Goolkasian, Abt Associates, Inc. 167 pp. \$5.50; GPO stock number 027-000-91258-2. NCJ 101680.

Coping With Police Stress. By G.A. Goolkasian, R. Geddes, and W. DeJong, Abt Associates, Inc. 174 pp. \$5.00; GPO stock number 027-000-01257-4. NCJ 097683.

Private-Sector Involvement in Prison-Based Businesses: A National Assessment. By G.E. Sexton et al., Criminal Justice Associates. 157 pp. \$6.00. GPO stock number 027-000-01249-3. NCJ 100437.

Victim Appearances at Sentencing and Parole Hearings Under the California Victims' Bill of Rights. By E. Villmoare and V.V. Neto, University of the Pacific, McGeorge School of Law. 88 pp. \$4.25; GPO stock number 027-000-01271-0. NCJ 104915.

Loan documents

The documents listed below may be borrowed from the NCJRS collection through interlibrary loan. Although loans are free to government criminal justice agencies and certain others, nominal fees are charged most borrowers. Call to inquire about fee status and purchase of discount coupon books for loan fees. Then, have your public, organizational, or corporate library order the document for you (using the standard four-part interlibrary loan form). There is an additional "lookup" fee if the NCJ number is not included. Your library should send the form (with your fee when required) to

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An asterisk in the list below indicates that paper copies of the document may be available from the organization that prepared the report for the National Institute; inquiries should be made to the organization named—using the order number (*not* NCJ number) if one is given. Inquiries about copies of journal articles may be sent to the journal.

Catching Career Criminals—The Washington, D.C., Repeat Offender Project. By S.E. Martin and L.W. Sherman, Police Foundation.* 18 pp. NCJ 102044.

Crime deterrence and rational choice. By I. Piliavin, R. Gartner, C. Thornton, and R.L. Matsueda. *American Sociological Review* 51, 1 (February 1986): 101-19. NCJ 100859.

Criminal Careers and "Career Criminals," v. 1. By A. Blumstein, J. Cohen, J.A. Roth, and C.A. Visher. Published for National Research Council by National Academy Press.* 466 pp. NCJ 102422.

Deterring alcohol-impaired driving—a comparative analysis of compliance in Norway and the United States. By J.R. Snortum, R. Hauge, and D.E. Berger. *Justice Quarterly* 3, 2 (June 1986): 139-65. NCJ 102003.

Elements of the defense attorney's craft—an adaptive expectations model of the preliminary hearing decision. By R.B. Flemming. *Law and Policy* 8, 1 (January 1986): 33-57. NCJ 101106.

Longitudinal evaluation of a delinquency prevention program by self-report. By D.W. Denno and R.C. Clelland. *Journal of Offender Counseling, Services and Rehabilitation* 10, 3 (Spring 1986): 59-82. NCJ 101641.

Preliminary Findings—Evaluation of the Use of Lawyers as Supplemental Judicial Resources. National Center for State Courts. 9 pp. NCJ 101053.

Reducing Fear of Crime in Houston and Newark—A Summary Report. By A.M. Pate, M.A. Wycoff, W.G. Skogan, and L.W. Sherman, Police Foundation.* 61 pp. NCJ 100128.

School Crime and Student Misbehavior Project (final evaluation report). Urban and Rural Systems Associates. 325 pp. NCJ 100709.

———. (executive summary). 27 pp. NCJ 100496.

Urine Testing of Arrestees—Findings From Manhattan. By E.D. Wish, E. Brady, and M. Cuadrado, Narcotic and Drug Research, Inc. 11 pp. NCJ 101915.

Victim responses by rapist type—an empirical and clinical analysis. By R.A. Prentky, A.W. Burgess, and D.L. Carter. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 1, 1 (March 1986): 73-98. NCJ 101806.

Washington, D.C., Urine Testing Program for Arrestees and Defendants Awaiting Trial—A Summary of Interim Findings. By M.A. Toborg, J.P. Bellassai, and A.M.J. Yezer, Toborg Associates, Inc., and District of Columbia Pretrial Services Agency. 10 pp. NCJ 101914.

Microfiche documents

The following documents can be ordered in free microfiche from

Microfiche Program
National Institute of Justice/NCJRS
Box 6000
Rockville, MD 20850

Please specify title and NCJ number. Asterisks indicate availability of paper copy from research organization.

National Conference on Prison Industries—Discussions and Recommendations. By G.S. Funke, George Washington University National Center for Innovation in Corrections.* 54 pp. NCJ 102295.

Prison Versus Probation in California—Implications for Crime and Offender Recidivism. By J. Petersilia, S. Turner, and J. Peterson, Rand Corporation (stock no. R-3323-NIJ).* 77 pp. NCJ 102320.



Articles by the National Institute of Justice staff

James K. Stewart

"Emerging trends in relationships between police and private security." *Public Administration Review* special issue on Law and Public Affairs. In press.

"Ensuring a drug-free workplace: The police chief's new responsibility." *The Virginia Police Chief*. July 1987.

"Proof positive of drug link to crime." *Wall Street Journal*, page opposite editorial, May 28, 1987.

"Cost-conscious marketing makes for management miracles." *Journal of Public Communication* 9, 1 (1986): 17-18.

"Felony probation: An ever-increasing risk." *Corrections Today* 48, 8 (December 1986): 94-102.

"The urban strangler: How crime causes poverty in the inner city." *Policy Review* 37 (Summer 1986): 6-10.

"Crime File: A government marketing success story." *Government Executive* 18, 6 (June 1986): 46-52.

"Research and the police administrator: Working smarter, not harder." In William A. Geller ed., *Police Leadership in America: Crisis and Opportunity*. New York, Praeger; Chicago, American Bar Foundation, 1985: 371-82.

"Public safety and private police." *Public Administration Review* 45, special issue on Law and Public Affairs (November 1985): 758-65.

"The Visiting Fellowship Program: An opportunity to pursue law enforcement interests at the National Institute of Justice." With Gil Kerlikowske. *The Police Chief* 52, 11 (November 1985): 56-59.

"National Criminal Justice Reference Service—A resource for officers and agents." *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* 54, 7 (July 1985): 10-15.

"National Criminal Justice Reference Service—Bridging the gap between researchers and practitioners." *The National Sheriff* 37, 1 (February/March 1985): 23-27.

"Law enforcement in the 21st century." *The National Sheriff* 36, 5 (October/November 1984): 19-22.

"Progress on NIJ's new directions." *Corrections Today* 46, 4 (August 1984): 128-30.

"Analyzing costs: An aid to effective police decisionmaking." *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* 53, 7 (July 1984): 20-23.

"How the National Criminal Justice Reference Service can help." *The Police Chief* 50, 10 (October 1983): 18-21.

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