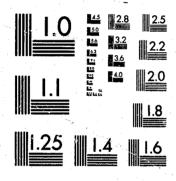
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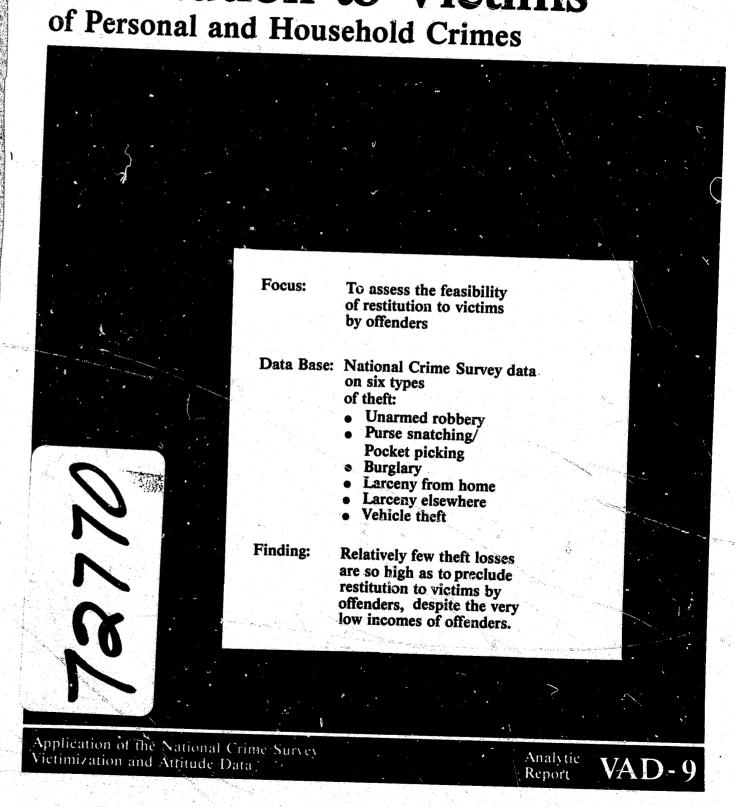
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Restitution to Victims



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Application of Victimization Survey Results Project

ANALYTIC REPORT

Restitution to Victims of Personal and Household Crimes

by Alan T. Harland Research Analyst

CRIMINAL JUSTICE RESEARCH CENTER Albany, New York

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Highlights of the Findings

IN THIS REPORT, the types of investigative steps involved in assessing the amounts of restitution owed by defendants to the victims of their crimes are considered. Six personal and household offense categories for which restitution is frequently used are the focus of the analysis. These are larceny from the home, larceny away from home, burglary, vehicle theft, purse snatching/pocket picking, and unarmed robbery. Violent crimes of theft, such as armed robbery, were not included in the analysis because most restitution programs exclude violent offenders. The main findings are:

(1) Restitution by defendants to the victims of their offenses suggests a unifying link between topical concern for crime victims and traditional demands for sanctions related to the defendant's conduct.

(2) Despite rapidly growing legislative and programmatic interest in restitution, it is used mostly in an unsystematic manner at the discretion and initiative of individual decisionmakers throughout the criminal justice system.

(3) The current popularity of restitution rests largely on an intuitive sense of its rationality, rather than on a balanced research consideration of the conditions under which it might be an effective and appropriate way of dealing with certain criminal defendants and provide a meaningful benefit to the victim.

(4) Using the technique of victimization surveying, the National Crime Survey has produced a great deal of information that is relevant to consideration of the feasibility and potential significance of restitution programming.

(5) The NCS findings in the six categories studied show that relatively few victimizations are so costly as to negate the possibility of a restitutive disposition, even bearing in mind the very low income levels of many defendants.

(6) Among those suffering theft-related losses, relatively few people are compensated by direct return of stolen items or through some form of insurance recovery. Consequently, restitution offers a source of victim redress in many cases in which victims presently receive no other reimbursement for their losses.

(7) Major limitations upon the scope of restitutive redress through the criminal justice system include the high rate of non-reporting for the victimizations studied, low arrest and conviction rates, and the very low wages paid to incarcerated offenders.

RESTITUTION TO VICTIMS OF PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD CRIMES

Introduction

IN THE LAST FEW YEARS dissatisfaction has increased dramatically in the United States over the ineffectiveness and inappropriateness of traditional measures for dealing with the criminal offender (National Research Council, 1978). Disenchantment with utilitarian approaches to punishment, and with rehabilitation in particular, has led to influential calls for a system of penalties based upon principles of retribution or desert, that focus upon the offense committed more than upon characteristics of the offender (Von Hirsch, 1976; Morris, 1974; American Friends Service Committee, 1971).

At the same time, interest in victims of crime has increased substantially in this country. In the field of victimology, writers have begun to assess the victim's role in crime and in the criminal justice system, and programs to aid crime victims are spreading rapidly. Following the initiative of New Zealand and Great Britain, approximately one-half of the States have developed programs in which the State itself provides compensation to victims of violent crimes (Harland, 1978). Further provision is made in the form of "victim assistance" projects that render aid to victims through a more service-oriented approach, including counseling, referral, legal, and medical advice (Viano et al., 1977; Baluss. 1975).

The focus of this report is on a third development in criminal justice, which suggests a unifying link between concern for the victim and the call for offense-related penalties: restitution by offenders. Data available from victimization surveys sponsored by the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (now the Bureau of Justice Statistics) and carried out by the U.S. Bureau of the Census will be presented. The National Crime Survey (NCS), its design, and relevant data elements, will be discussed

below. The NCS data will be used to examine issues such as the amount of loss suffered by victims, recovery of losses, and the failure to report victimizations to the police, as these issues relate to restitution programs. Before the data are presented, however, the next section discusses the concept of restitution in more detail.

Restitution: An Overview A Definition

In its simplest form restitution by an offender means the repayment to victims who have suffered financial losses as a result of the offender's crime(s). Such repayment may be as straightforward as the direct return of stolen property. More typically, it involves payment in cash or in kind for a variety of types of loss. Payments may be made against the value of stolen or damaged property; for medical expenses due to the victim's crime-related injuries; to cover wages lost as a result of time absent from work, whether due to injury or time spent as a witness or assisting the police; and to pay for services obtained by fraud or deception. Criminal restitution does not usually take into account any non-financial loss such as psychological pain and suffering (Harland, 1979).

Because this will be the working definition of restitution throughout this report, it is important to emphasize two major elements. First, restitution of this type is made to those persons or organizations actually victimized by the offender. As such, it should be distinguished from certain types of symbolic restitution that may be made for victimless crimes or where the victim cannot be found, suffers no financial loss, or does not want restitution. In a dangerous driving case involving no accident or injury, for example, the offender might be ordered to make symbolic restitution through unpaid service in the accident ward of a public hospital (Harris, 1979). The major focus of this

report will be upon repayment to actual, not symbolic, victims.

As a second point of emphasis, restitution to victims involves payments by the offender. As such, it must be distinguished from public compensation to crime victims. Compensation is usually paid from State funds through programs that are relatively independent of the criminal justice system. Consequently, compensation programs are able to provide payments to victims whether or not an offender is apprehended. Through restitution, the victim receives only what the offender(s) can be made to provide.

A Brief History

In ancient criminal laws and customs and even in the Utopian society envisioned by Sir Thomas More, restitution played a major role in the preservation of social control. In primitive cultures, anthropologists frequently have observed restitutive systems of justice (Nader and Combs-Schilling, 1975). In other societies, provision was made for restitution in the Leges Barbarorum, the Code of Hammurabi, Mosaic Law, and the Roman Law of Delicts (Jacob, 1970; Mueller, 1965).

Working within legal frameworks less divergent from that in the United States, criminologists have repeatedly advocated the incorporation of restitution into the penal process. The English reformer, Jeremy Bentham, for example, took the position that, whenever possible, restitution should be made by the offender as part of the penalty for his crime (Bentham, 1789), and the idea was discussed extensively at a series of International Prison and Penal Congresses at the turn of the century (Wolfgang, 1965; Childres, 1964). Modern-day fines have their origin in practices similar to restitution (Childres, 1964) and seem symbolic of the way in which the interests of the State have replaced those of the victim in today's criminal justice system.

Despite its prominence in antiquity, the general decline of restitution as a major social control mechanism is stated succinctly by Jacob (1975:37):

The ancient historical evolutionary process thus consisted of several stages: (1) private vengeance; (2) collective vengeance; (3) the process of negotiation and composition; (4) the adoption of codes containing pre-set compensation amounts which were to be awarded the victim in the composition process; (5) the gradual intervention of lords or rulers as mediators, and payment to them of a percentage of the composition-compensation award; and (6) the complete take-over of the criminal justice process and the disappearance of restitution from the criminal law.... During this process the interest of the state gradually

overshadowed and supplanted those of the victim. The connection between restitution and punishment was severed. Restitution to the victim came to play an insignificant role in the administration of the criminal law. The rights of the victim and the concepts of composition and restitution were separated from the criminal law and instead became incorporated into the civil law of torts.

It would seem, however, that the separation has not been absolute. In recent years, the use of restitution has been noted in the legal systems of countries as diverse as Austria, Great Britain, Denmark, New Zealand, Russia, Canada, and Argentina (Schafer, 1972). Moreover, there has been a substantial increase in recent years in the number of formally structured restitution programs in the United States.

General Use in the United States

In this country restitution has traditionally played an extensive and largely unpublicized role at various stages of the criminal justice process. Its use has been noted in informal settlements between offender and victim (Wolfgang, 1965); in station-house adjustments and in plea-bargaining (Laster, 1970); in pre-trial diversion (Mullen, 1975); as a sentencing option—usually as a condition of probation or a suppended sentenc. (Harland, 1979); and as a condition of work release or parole (Fogel, Galaway, and Hudson, 1972). Moreover, it has been suggested repeatedly that restitution could be paid from the proceeds of inmate earnings if adequate prison industries were developed (Hudson, Galaway, and Chesney, 1977; Schultz, 1965).

Restitution has found favor in numerous model sentencing proposals (such as those from the American Law Institute, the American Bar Association, and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals), in the President's Commission Task Force Report on Corrections (1967:35), and in decisions of the United States Supreme Court.² In addition, restitution has been used widely in both State and Federal probation systems (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967; Carter and Wilkins, 1970; Chesney, 1975).

Despite the seemingly universal applicability of restitution, it has been employed largely in an unsystematic manner at the discretion and initiative of individual decisionmakers throughout the criminal justice process. Relevant statutory language typically has been of a broad, enabling nature, stating that restitution may be ordered, without specifying the circumstances under which it might be appropriate. However, in recent years increasing concern has been voiced over the need to structure discretion in criminal justice. A frequently suggested approach includes the formulation of policies at an operating agency level to guide decisionmaking (Gottfredson, Wilkins, and Hoffman, 1978). Consequently, legislative and agency attention is turning now to the establishment of programs in which the collection of restitution is to be a formal policy.

Formal Restitution Programs

In 1972 the most highly publicized restitution program in the United States began to operate in Minnesota under the auspices of the State's Department of Corrections. Prison inmates were paroled to the Restitution Center, a residential half-way house, under a formally-negotiated agreement to make restitution. During its 4 years of operation, the program attracted nationwide attention in criminal justice literature and in the popular press. As a result, it has influenced similar program development in the United States and in Canada.

The Georgia Restitution Program, for example, that has been operating since 1974, shares many of the same program elements and extends to include probationers as well as parolees (Read, 1975). Other restitution projects influenced by the Minnesota experiment include the Pilot Restitution Center in Calgary, Alberta, and the Restitution in Probation experiment in Des Moines, Iowa (Galaway, 1975). More than forty programs were found in a recent survey by Chesney, Hudson, and McLagen (1978).

Beginning in 1976, a concerted effort to develop and test restitution programs was begun by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. As part of a continuing national experiment, programs for adult offenders have received federal funding in 11 States. The point in the criminal process at which these programs were implemented ranges from pre-trial diversion to parole release (Harland, Warren, and Brown, 1979). Much more sweeping efforts are also underway in the juvenile justice system, where over forty programs were recently funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (National Office for Social Responsibility, 1979).

The Problem

The rapidly widening focus upon restitution in the criminal justice system is grounded only negligibly, if at all, in consideration of the theoretical, programmatic, and legal difficulties already encountered. It must be recognized at the outset that the current popularity of restitutive justice rests largely upon an intuitive sense of its rationality. Although restitution has been praised as bringing an "ethical and logical equilibrium" to the criminal law (MacNamara and Sullivan, 1971), however, data are only just becoming available to assess adequately its effects on the offender, the victim, and the administration of criminal justice (Harland, Warren, and Brown, 1979).

The very nature and purposes of restitutive justice remain so unclear that at a recent international symposium on restitution, participants were unable to agree whether it was intended historically for the primary benefit of the offender or the victim (Edelhertz, 1975; Nader and Combs-Schilling, 1975). This uncertainty is reflected in the goals of modern programs. Whereas one program may exhibit a strong commitment to offender rehabilitation, another program may emphasize victim satisfaction. In the former program, anything received by victims becomes a secondary concern to the offender's treatment; in the latter program, offender-benefits, such as increased self-respect, are not essential to program success.

Much of the confusion over restitution is due to the broad range of benefits expected from the single concept. Most early writers approached restitution in connection with state-funded victim compensation, focusing concern entirely upon the victim (Covey, 1965; Smodish, 1969). A growing body of literature, however, stresses the impact of restitution on the offender, seeing restitution as a viable rehabilitative tool and admitting a relative lack of concern for the victim (Eglash, 1975; Cohen, 1944). Still others look upon restitution as merely one source through which victim compensation programs might recover some of the money they award to victims (Garofalo and Sutton, 1977).

Approching restitution in such a divided manner has resulted in an unbalanced consideration of the issues and a failure to respond to the more central question: Are there conditions under which restitution can be an effective and appropriate tool for deal-

¹The concepts of compensation, composition and restitution frequently are used interchangeably. A useful distinction is that compensation refers most often to payments made by the State to victims—typically, for violent crimes only; restitution refers to payments or services by an offender, either to the victim or to the community—most often as a condition of probation; composition is the least used of the three terms and is for the most part synonymous with restitution, except that it refers sometimes specifically to informal negotiation and complete settlement between offender and victims.

²E.g., Bradford v. United States, 228 U.S. 446 (1913).

³See, for example, Colorado Revised Statutes, 5-16-11-204(e).

⁴The Minnesota program was closed in January 1977 as an initial part of a plan to expand restitution efforts throughout the State.

ing with certain criminal offenders and provide a meaningful benefit to the victim? Once the issues are addressed in this light it becomes readily apparent that restitution is part of the ageless correctional dilemma of seeking to balance optimally the interests of the individual offender against those of his victim and of society in general.⁵

Aims of the Analysis

Many questions about the feasibility and propriety of restitution programming will be answered only as a result of careful evaluation of ongoing programs. For example, research is needed to determine the impact of different types of restitution programs on different types of victims and offenders. The primary purpose of this report, however, is to apply a national data base to the types of inquiry that arise in the routine processing of individual offenders through a restitution program: What are the types and amounts of losses suffered by victims of various crimes? To what extent are losses recovered through insurance or other means? How likely is it that offenders will be able to pay restitution to their victims? Answers to such questions at a national level will provide baseline information to guide the implementation of programs at a local level. This baseline information also may usefully be compared with data from operative programs in the future.

Six Focal Offenses

The analysis focuses upon six personal and household offense categories that are frequently handled in restitution programs, and for which data are available from the National Crime Survey. These six "focal" offense categories are: (1) larceny that occurs away from home and in which property is not taken directly from the victim. This will be called "larceny elsewhere"; (2) larceny from or near the home (also in which property is not taken directly from the victim) or "larceny from home"; (3) pocket picking and purse snatching, which is labelled "larceny with contact"; (4) vehicle theft; (5) burglary; and (6) unarmed robbery that includes only threats or minor assaults; because most restitution programs exclude violent offenders, the more serious types of robbery involving a weapon and/or serious injury to the victim are not part of the anaivsis.

Questions Addressed

Within each offense category, the analysis mirrors the procedures followed by restitution program staff when they determine the restitution amount(s) that each offender will be expected to pay.

The first step in this process is to identify the type of loss for which restitution is to be made. The types of crime-related losses considered for restitution vary from project to project. Among the more thorough programs, however, four basic areas are usually covered: loss of cash, property, or services due to theft; property damage; medical expenses due to criminal injuries; and work time lost as a result of the criminal incident. Because of the dominant emphasis upon property-related losses, and because victim compensation programs (when they exist) cover claims for medical expenses and time lost from work, restitution programs encounter relatively few medical or work-time claims. The major parts of this report, therefore, will concentrate on theft losses and damage.

For the major types of loss, the next step is to establish the estimated gross amounts lost and to check the source(s) of these figures. In many programs an estimate given by the victim may be corroborated through documentation of receipts, bills, and so on. This protec's the offender from excessive claims and provides a record against which any complaints about amounts imposed can be made.

Having thus determined the total amount for which an offender might be responsible, the next question is whether any person victimized was able to recover anything. Only by examining police recovery, insurance payments, and so on, can programs prevent victims from double recovery and identify third parties who might have a claim to restitution. If a victim, for example, has been reimbursed for the value of stolen property by an insurance company, any subsequent restitution may have to be paid to the insurance company. By a process of subtraction of recovery amounts from gross losses, the analysis proceeds for the major type of loss (something stolen) to the precise net losses within each offense category. These losses will most often represent the actual amounts for which restitution is owed. In addition, however, the analysis follows the programs' concern for an offender's ability to pay, and data are presented from which to gauge the earning capacity of offenders. Similarly, certain victim characteristics are examined that may be relevant to the procedures and/or expectations of many restitution programs. In a case involving several victims, for example, the offender may not be able to pay full restitution to all of them, so the relative financial needs of each victim may be considered in deciding who should receive restitution.

Finally, the analysis turns to general factors that limit the scope of restitutive programming and, at the

same time, may themselves be affected by the expanded use of restitution. In this context, the analysis turns to the phenomenon of non-reporting of victimizations, and the funneling effect of criminal processing, both of which result in only a small proportion of all offenders being convicted.

Before turning to the data analysis, it is necessary to briefly review the design and relevant data elements of the National Crime Survey.

The National Crime Survey

In 1972, the Bureau of the Census, under contract to the Department of Justice, began the systematic collection of a wealth of information about the circumstances and consequences of criminal victimization in the United States. Known as the National Crime Survey (NCS), the data collection program includes personal interviews with about 132,000 individuals in a national stratified probability sample of approximately 60,000 households annually. The respondents are asked questions to determine whether they had been the victims of a selected set of crimes during the six months preceding the interviews. Detailed questions are used to elicit from respondents the nature and consequences of any victimizations uncovered in the course of the interviews.

The survey involves a rotating panel design consisting of six panels of 10,000 households each; all persons 12 years of age and older in each household are interviewed twice a year—the interviews being six months apart-for three years, after which time, new households are introduced into the panel. The panel feature was designed to provide information not only on the nature of criminal victimization, but also on the change over time in victimization incidents and patterns. Although issues of panel design, sampling frame, questionnaire construction and administration, are by no means insignificant (indeed, they are quite complex), their treatment is beyond the scope of this inquiry. Detailed discussion of the design, methodology, and administration of the National Crime Survey is provided elsewhere (Garofalo and Hindelang, 1977).

As noted, National Crime Survey data are derived from a sample of households; the crimes reported, therefore, constitute a sample, not a universe of victimizations. The nature of the sampling technique and the large number of cases included in the sample, how-

ever, enable one to be reasonably confident that the rates and patterns of criminal victimization estimated on the basis of this sample are statistically reliable (LEAA, 1976). In some tables of this report, the sample data are divided into a number of categories and subcategories. When the data are divided finely, some subcategories may contain too few sample cases to make reliable estimates. Table percentages computed on bases containing 50 or fewer sample cases will be designated by footnotes.

Information is collected about the victimization incident to accurately classify the crime being described by the respondent. Included are crimes against the household (burglary, attempted burglary, larceny from the household, and vehicle theft) and crimes against the person (rape, robbery, aggravated and simple assault, and personal larcenies). In addition, the survey interview addresses a variety of other factors. One section of the interview is concerned with whether the household residence is rented or owned (or in the process of being bought), the type of living quarters occupied by the household, the number of household members 12 years of age or older, and the annual income of the family. Other sections solicit information about the individual household members interviewed, including age, race, sex, marital status, education, and employment. A copy of the NCS questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix A.

More relevant to the present analysis is the detailed information gathered about victimizations. Following a series of general screening questions about victimization experiences occurring in the previous six months, each respondent is asked about the particulars of each incident reported to the interviewer: when and where it occurred (at home, in the street, in a public conveyance, a public or commercial building, an office, factory, warehouse, inside school, etc.); What happened (Were you attacked? How? Were you threatened? How? Was there a weapon present?); the consequences of the crime (injury, medical attention, cost of medical attention, insurance coverage, property loss or damage, cost of loss or damage, police recovery of stolen item, time lost from work as a consequence of victimization, whether the incident was reported to the police, and if not reported, why the police were not notified). For those personal victimizations in which the victim saw the offender, information about the assailant(s) was also solicited. How many offenders were there? What was the age, race, and sex of the offender? Was the offender known to the victim? What, if any, was the offender's relationship to the victim-spouse, ex-spouse, brother, sister, child, parent, or other?

⁵For a discussion of the literature of the philosophy of punishment in this context, see von Hirsch, 1976.

⁶Contemporaneous with the household portion of the National Crime Survey, but independent in terms of sampling, methodology, and administration, was the Commercial Victimization Survey (CVS), designed to measure crimes of robbery and burglary committed against commercial establishments.

From the discussion so far, it should be obvious that some kinds of incidents about which there might be keen interest are simply not included in the NCS. For example, vandalism and arson—important crimes for which restitution could be made—are not included. Because of such restrictions, it must be remembered that the present analysis can deal only with the potential for restitution in those crimes covered by the survey; the potential for restitution cannot be evaluated across a fuil range of crimes. Despite the restrictions of the NCS, its probe of the nature and consequences of criminal victimization has yielded an unprecedented amount of information about the nature, costs, and consequences of certain types of victimization. This report organizes those data into a succinct analysis of the potential of restitution programs for those types of victimization. Data Analysis and Discussion Type of Loss A threshhold concern in the administration of a restitution program is, of course, whether the criminal incident led to some form of loss for which restitution can be made. Most statutes and legal decisions that explicitly address the issue require that the restitution

be directly related to the financial loss resulting from the offense (Harland, 1979; Laster, 1970). Other forms of restitution, discussed above as "symbolic" and also called "creative" restitution (Eglash, 1975), must be dealt with on a case-by-case basis and will not be addressed in any detail in the present analysis.

Figure 1 presents an overall picture of victimizations for the six crime categories combined. The six offenses involved an estimated total of almost 33 million victimizations in the 1974 national survey. The branching networks from this total show the number and relative frequency of victimizations involving theft and/or damage. The breakdown further indicates whether any physical injuries were sustained as a result of the offense, but it must be remembered that, by definition, unarmed robbery is the only one of the six offense categories used here that could have involved physical injuries.

Because the six offense categories were selected for analysis according to their susceptibility to restitutive disposition, it should not be surprising that 86 percent of the victimizations in the six offense categories resulted in something being stolen. The corresponding figure for damage is 19 percent of the total or almost 6.25 million victimizations. In victimizations in which nothing was stolen, however, the proportion involving damage is much higher (50 percent) than in cases in

which something was stolen (14 percent). Because of the largely non-violent nature of the offenses chosen, the low incidence of injury (less than I percent of the total cases) is to be expected.

By tracing down the extreme right hand side of Figure 1, it can be seen that almost 2.25 million victimizations, or 7 percent of the total for all six offenses. involved neither theft, damage, nor personal injury in 1974. These include cases such as an attempted purse snatching or a burglary in which the offender was interrupted before stealing anything. Because there is no readily measurable loss to the victim, these offenses are ignored by most restitution programs unless some form of symbolic restitution is considered. Payment for psychological injury to the victim typically has been beyond the scope of restitution programs. Restitution payments have been restricted to very specific losses, rather than including the more general harms encompassed by civil remedies. It seems likely, however, that increasing emphasis on restitution programming may lead to gradual inroads in this area (Harland, 1979).

The other 93 percent of these victimizations are all, prima facie, eligible for restitution. The vast majority of loss investigations by a restitution program staff would be necessitated as a result of something having been stolen in the incident. Even in cases in which nothing is stolen, however, an investigation would be initiated 50 percent of the time because of loss due to damage. Cases involving only physical injury represent a minute proportion of the total pool of eligibles.

Loss investigation for restitution can be a long and complex process of contacting victims, verifying amounts, and arranging negotiations between victims and offenders. The difficulties increase when more than one type of loss is sustained. It should be encouraging to program planners to note that an overwhelming number of victimizations result in only single losses. In general, the investigation will be simpler in those 24 million cases involving only losses from stealing, than in those few unarmed robberies involving theft, damage, and injury. In these latter cases, for example, the investigation must consider amounts of stolen cash, plus estimates of the value of stolen and damaged property, plus the cost of any medical treatment for physical injuries. As will be seen below, the inquiry becomes even more complex when non-restitutive forms of recovery are present, such as police recovery or insurance reimbursements, each of which may be expected to vary across crime categories and according to type of loss.

When the six offense categories are examined individually (Table 1), further implications for a system of

FIGURE 1 Estimated number and percent of victimizations resulting in loss, damage, and personal injuries; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

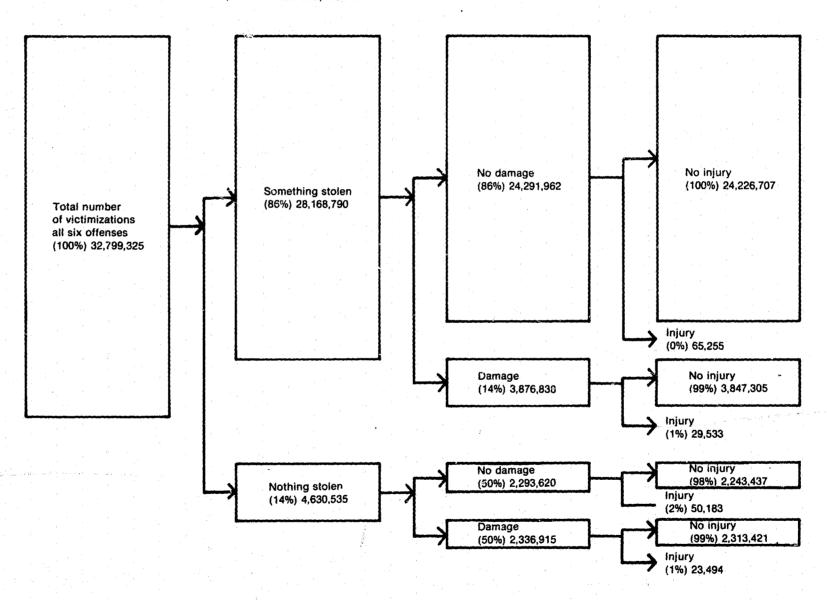


TABLE 1 Estimated numbers and percentages of victimizations resulting in loss and damages, aby type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

				Type of offe	ense		
Outcome	Total	Unarmed robbery	Purse snatching/ pocket picking	Burglary	Larceny from home	Larceny elsewhere	Vehicle theft
Something	3,876,838	48,930	13,548	1,465,881	534,378	1,531,968	282,13
stolen and	100%	1.3%b	0.3%	37.8%	13.8%	39.5%	7.39
property damages	11.8%	9.0% C	2.6%	22.0%	6.0%	10.3%	21.09
Something	24,291,962	253,341	435,097	2,855,456	7,754,272	12,420,236	573,55
stolen: no	100%	1.0%	1.8%	11.8%	31.9%	51.1%	2.49
property damages	74.1%	46.4%	85.1%	42.9%	87.5%	83.5%	42.79
Property	2,336,915	44,60	4,733	1,457,180	160,575	364,404	305,16
damages but	100%	1.5%	0.2%	62.6%	6.9%	15.7%	13.19
nothing stolen	7.1%	8.2%	0 9%	21.9%	1.8%	2.4%	22.79
Nothing	2,293,620	199,043	58,100	876,556	416,835	562,038	181,04
stolen:	100%	8.7%	2.5%	38.2%	18.2%	24.5%	7.99
nothing	7.0%	36.4%	11.4%	13.2%	4.7%	3.8%	13.59
damaged							
Total	32,799,325	546,176	511,478	6,655,073	8,866,060	14,878,646	1,341,89
	100%	1.7%	1.6%	20.3%	27.0%	45.4%	4.19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	1009

^aExcludes losses resulting from injuries.

restitutive justice become readily evident. It can be seen from Table 1, for example, that the offenses for which victims most frequently may be considered for restitution are the two classes of larceny that together account for more than 70 percent of the total number of victimizations for all six categories in 1974. Burglary is the next largest overall category with more than 6.5 million victimizations (20.3 percent). The remaining offenses of unarmed robbery, pocket picking, purse snatching, and vehicle theft account for less than 8 percent of the total.

Examination of only those victimizations in which something was stolen reveals a pattern almost identical to that just described for all types of outcomes. The latter pattern is to a great extent dictated by the size of the two categories in which something was stolen. In the two larceny groups particularly, the two categories in which something was stolen account for more than 93 percent of all the larcenies, suggesting a high completion rate for these offenses, or more likely, the probability that many attempts go unnoticed by the respondent and unreported to the interviewer. Whatever the reason, the apparent high rate of theft loss in these offenses and in purse snatching/ pocket picking (87.7 percent), as well as the sheer volume of larcenies,

confirms the importance of this group of victims for restitutive purposes.

In the remaining offenses of unarmed robbery, burglary, and vehicle theft, the proportion in which nothing was stolen is considerably higher (44.6, 35.1, and 36.2 percents, respectively). And, within these three offense groups, unarmed robbery shows the largest proportion of cases with nothing stolen and nothing damaged. Thirty-six percent of all unarmed robbery victimizations resulted in neither theft nor damage and the corresponding figures for burglary and vehicle theft were 13.2 and 13.5 percent, respectively.

At this stage of the analysis, damage alone seems to be a sizeable factor for restitution purposes only for burglary and vehicle theft, each showing about 22 percent in this category. The frequency of damage in addition to theft loss exhibits an almost identical pattern, accounting for about 22 percent of the burglary and vehicle theft victimizations, and for slightly less than half that proportion for unarmed robbery and for larceny elsewhere (9.0 and 10.3 percent).

On the whole, the outlook for restitution seems relatively straightforward when type of loss is considered. In a large majority of the six types of victim-

ization, property is either stolen or damaged; far fewer victimizations in any crime category involve more than one type of loss.

Gross Amounts of Loss

Throughout much of the literature concerning restitution in the criminal justice system, a constantly recurring reservation appears: most offenders are impecunious "men of straw" for whom substantial monetary penalties are unrealistic (Polish, 1973). However, examination of Table 2 indicates that such a reservation can be accepted by restitution advocates without seriously compromising their position or detracting from the viability of restitution programming. For the six offenses as a whole, almost one-half (48 percent) of the victimizations in which loss or damage occurred involved amounts of less than \$25 in 1974. Following this heavy clustering of cases in the lowest end of the dollar range there is immediately a sharp decline in the number of victimizations in the higher cost categories. Fears that offenders will not be able to afford restitution should be somewhat dissipated when it is realized that approximately threequarters (73 percent) of the 1974 victimizations resulted in gross loss/damage costs of less than \$100.7

Although the overall pattern is once more defined by the dominant larceny categories, it is nevertheless an accurate reflection of each of the individual offenses-with one exception. In the vehicle theft category, more than one-quarter (28.3 percent) of the 1974 victimizations resulting in loss/damage involved between \$1,000 and \$5,000. Three-fifths of the auto theft victimizations (61.3 percent) involved at least \$250. As will be seen below, because a large proportion of stolen vehicles are recovered (see Table 5), and because remaining major expenses are frequently offset by insurance (see Table 7), the situation becomes complex for restitution purposes. This aspect of restitution programming will be dealt with in more detail as analysis turns to recovery and insurance questions. However, even though this crime category does not follow the general cost pattern, more than one-quarter (27.9 percent) of these victimizations resulted in losses/damages of less than \$250 in 1974.

Similarly low victimization costs are shown in Table 3 for cases in which only cash was stolen. However, Table 3 indicates that such cases are relatively rare, accounting for slightly more than 2 million vic-

timizations; this represents only 7.2 percent of all victimizations in which something was stolen. Again, in Table 3 one can see the relatively small number of victimizations in higher loss categories. For every offense category, more than 60 percent of the victimizations in which cash was stolen involved amounts of less than \$50 in 1974. The auto theft category is excluded from Table 3 because theft of cash from a vehicle is subsumed under the larceny categories.

The very low losses indicated by Tables 2 and 3 bear obvious implications for both the scope and procedures of restitution programs. At a preliminary level, they show that, standing alone, relatively few victimizations are so costly, even in terms of gross losses, as to negate the possibility of a restitutive disposition. Moreover, investigation of loss in such cases should be simple and fast enough to permit identifying restitutive obligations in the earliest processing stages of the criminal justice system. Such information is, of course, crucial to programs electing to make restitution a component of pretrial diversion, plea bargaining, or civil compromise of cases.

Besides facilitating the use of restitution at early stages of criminal processing, the predominantly low loss figures in Tables 2 and 3 have important implications for procedures of loss investigation. Obviously the task of a specialized staff of loss investigators will usually be less difficult in cases involving small loss amounts. The pressure to document and corroborate amounts might be reduced because offenders are less likely to challenge an order of restitution if the amount involved is not great.

For cases in which something was stolen, Table 4 indicates the method of value determination for losses in each type of offense. Clearly, a large majority of the value estimates are based upon either the original (38.2 percent) or replacement cost (18.2 percent) or upon a personal estimate by the victim (23.7 percent). These value determination criteria raise issues such as whether the original cost figure should be reduced because of age depreciation and whether the offender should be given an opportunity to minimize replacement costs by working to repair damage, etc. It can also be argued that personal estimates made by the victim of the value of stolen items should not be forced upon the offender without providing a meaningful opportunity to object. For it is not unreasonable to suppose that failure rates among offenders in restitution programs may be strongly related to the presence, absence, and degree of coercion involved in the restitution "agreement". Certainly, the motivation to repay the victim will not be enhanced if the offender feels that he or she is being treated unfairly.

bRow percent.

^CColumn percent.

^{7&}quot;Gross" loss here refers to losses stemming from the immediate offense, before police and insurance recovery are taken into account. However, it is pointed out below that reporting and clearance rates are higher for higher loss offenses so that the proportions may change at later stages in the criminal justice process.

TABLE 2 Estimated number of victimizations resulting in loss and damage, by amount of loss and damage and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

			i		Tota	amount of los	s and damages	а		:	
Type of offense	Total ^b	No value ^C	\$1 10 \$24	\$25 to \$49	\$50 to \$99	\$100 to \$249	\$250 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 to \$4,999	\$5,000 or more	Not ascertained
Unarmed robbery	347,134	21,062	140,885	40,513	36,711	39,372	21,305	2,764	8,461	2,384	33,677
	100%	6.1%	40.6%	11.7%	10.6%	11.3%	6.1%	0.8%	2.4%	0.7%	9.7%
Purse snatching/	453,378	2,507	192,401	86,799	66,049	57,667	15,486	5,326	1,188	0	25,955
pocket picking	100%	0.6%	42.4%	19.1%	14.6%	12.7%	3.4%	1.2%	0.3%	0%	5.7%
Burglary	5,778,517	542,891	1,438,053	547,348	645,967	823,338	. 454,725	393,948	288,627	32,474	611,146
	100%	9.4%	24.9%	9.5%	11.2%	14.2%	7.9%	6.8%	5.0%	0.6%	10.6%
Larceny from home	8,449,226	130,842	4,365,479	1,164,964	1,151,418	877,778	211,921	81,149	46,075	7,040	412,560
	100%	1,5%	51.7%	13.8%	13.6%	10.4%	2.5%	1.0%	0.5%	0.1%	4.9%
Larceny	14,316,608	173,398	7,510,545	2,110,565	1,684,742	1,479,542	451,595	196,081	72,351	12,857	624,931
elsewhere	100%	1.2%	52.5%	14.7%	11.8%	10.3%	3.2%	1.4%	0.5%	0.1%	4.4%
Vehicle	1,160,844	62,049	77,073	48,184	43,394	94,065	123,245	200,978	329,078	59,350	123,428°
theft	100%	5.3%	6.6%	4.2%	3.7%	8.1%	10.6%	17.3%	28.3%	5.1%	10.6%
Total b	30,505,706	932,749	13,724,436	3,998,373	3,628,281	3,371,762	1,278,277	880,246	745,780	114,105	1,831,697
	100%	3.0%	45.0%	13.1%	11.9%	11.0%	4.2%	2.9%	2.4%	0.4%	6.0%

^aExcludes losses resulting from injuries.

^bIncludes only victimizations in which loss or damage occurred.

^cIndicates checks or credit cards or items of no dollar value.

TABLE 3 Estimated number of victimizations resulting in theft of cash, by amount and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

					То	tal cash stolen		1, 1		
Type of offense	Total ^a	\$1 to \$24	\$25 to \$49	\$50 to \$99	\$100 to \$249	\$250 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 to \$4,999	\$5,000 or more	Not ascertained
Unarmed robbery	77,050	48,164	3,946	5,966	5,115	2,337	0	2,459	0	9,063
	100%	62.5%	5.1%	7.7%	6.6%	3.0%	0%	3.2%	0%	11.8%
Purse snatching/	120,143	60,131	19,264	15,163	12,813	2,583	1,253	1,188	0	7,748
pocket picking	100%	50.0%	16.0%	12.6%	10.7%	2.1%	1.0%	1.0%	0%	6.4%
Burglary	388,906	187,935	54,204	54,525	58,524	12,444	4,550	2,143	0	16,581
	100%	48.3%	13.9%	14.0%	15.0%	3.2%	1.2%	0.6%	0%	3.7%
Larceny from home	277,193	155,294	35,751	44,651	18,072	1,081	2,818	3,516	1,272	14,639
	100%	56.1%	12.9%	16.1%	6.5%	0.4%	1.0%	1.3%	0.5%	5.3%
Larceny elsewhere	1,177,824	921,412	107,621	59,387	34,632	7,288	3,636	1,101	0	42,748
	100%	78.2%	9.1%	5.4%	2.9%	0.6%	0.3%	0.1%	0%	3.6%
Total ^a	2,041,116	1,373,036	220,786	179,692	129,156	25,733	12,257	10,407	1,272	88,779
	100%	67.3%	10.8%	8.8%	6.3%	1.3%	0.6%	0.5%	0.1%	4.3%

TABLE 4 Estimated number of victimizations in which something was stolen, by method of value assessment and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

				:	Method	of assessmen	it			
Type of offense	Total ^a	Cash	Original cost only	Replacement cost only	Personal estimate of cash value	Insurance report	Police estimate	Don't know	Other (includes combination)	Not ascertained
Unarmed robbery	302,271	77,050	108,347	28,005	63,372	2,441	1,131	6,351	10,976	4,600
	100%	25.5%	35.8%	9.3%	21.0%	0.8%	0.4%	2.1%	3.6%	1.5%
Purse snatching/	448,645	120,143	133,682	45,222	92,895	0	0	11,739	34,714	10,250
pocket picking	100%	26.8%	29.8%	10.1%	20.7%		0%	2.6%	7.7%	2.3%
Burglary	4,321,337	388,906	1,585,155	498,493	1,156,446	81,085	20,949	91,146	415,564	83,593
	100%	9.0%	36.7%	11.5%	26.8%	1.9%	0.5%	2.1%	9.6%	1.9%
Larceny	8,288,650	277,193	3,267,577	1,607,423	2,135,693	57,096	12,378	197,529	595,779	137,983
from home	100%	3.3%	39.4%	19.4%	25.8%	0.7%	0.1%	2.4%	7.2%	1.7%
Larceny	13,952,203	1,177,824	5,476,121	2,894,896	2,832,061	124,819	19,424	180,516	1,027,046	219,495
elsewhere	100%	8.4%	39,2%	20.7%	20.3%	0.9%	0.1%	1.3%	7.4%	1.6%
Motor vehicle theft	855,683 100%	0 0%	196,927 23.0%	66,706 7.8%	390,733 45.7%	94,041 11.0%	2,450 0.3%	13,428 1.6%	77,477 9.1%	13,923 1.6%
Total ^a	28,168,789	2,041,116	10,767,809	5,140,745	6,671,200	359,482	56,332	500,709	2,161,556	469,844
	100%	7.2%	38.2%	18.2%	23.7%	1.3%	0.2%	1.8%	7.7%	1.7%

^aIncludes only victimizations in which something was stolen.

To summarize, restitution program planners may be guided in several ways by expressing the immediate consequences of victimization as a gross loss figure. First, it is apparent that most victimizations lead to losses that seem readily manageable for restitutive purposes. Second, if small losses can be taken as an indicator of less serious crimes, restitution may have extensive utility as a dispositional alternative early in the criminal process, such as a condition of pretrial diversion. Finally, although the small amounts involved appear to mitigate the need for extensive investigation of loss, the data show that the methods used to determine gross loss figures (Table 4) actually raise questions that call for further investigation before an equitable restitution settlement can be made.

Recovery from Insurance, Police, and Other Sources

Clearly, the ultimate scope of restitutive programming is not determined by a knowledge, no matter how precise, of the immediate losses resulting from personal victimizations. Identifying gross losses is merely the first, though often a complex step in a restitutive investigation. Stolen property is sometimes recovered; damaged property is repaired; and the victim may carry insurance to cover both types of loss as well as medical expenses due to crime-related injuries. For unrecovered or unrepaired portions or for expenses beyond those paid by insurance, the offender's liability for restitution directly to the victim remains relatively simple. However, for those losses in which recovery is made or insurance is paid, the use of restitution as a criminal sanction becomes less straightforward.

Fortunately, respondents in the NCS survey who indicated some theft loss were asked both about insurance coverage and whether anything was recovered from sources other than insurance; property may be recovered, for example, through the efforts of the police and/or the victim. For such types of noninsurance recovery, Table 5 shows the responses for each crime category, indicating that, in general, very little is recovered in this manner. In less than 10 percent of all of the victimizations in which something was stolen was there complete recovery (9.4 percent), and the corresponding figure for partial recovery is below 5 percent (4.2 percent). By far the greatest number of victimizations involved no recovery at all from sources other than insurance (86.3 percent). Within the individual offense categories, only unarmed robbery and motor vehicle theft depart substantially from this pattern. Slightly more than 30 percent of the former and almost 70 percent of the latter involved some recovery by means other than insurance.

However one elects to explain these recovery patterns, the potential for a financial restitutive disposition diminishes as recovery becomes more extensive. Nevertheless, in cases of partial recovery, restitution of the balance remains a possibility, and forms of restitution are not unknown even in cases where complete recovery has occurred prior to disposition of the offender. In cases involving joyriding by youths, for example, a juvenile judge may grant probation on condition that the offender(s) wash the victim's car over a certain period; similar forms of symbolic or "creative restitution" are well documented in the literature (Eglash, 1975), although research is needed to

TABLE 5 Estimated number of victimizations in which something was stolen, by type of offense and extent of recovery by means other than insurance; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

				Type of offe	ense		
Extent of recovery	Total ^a	Unarmed robbery	Purse snatching/ pocket picking	Burglary	Larceny from home	Larceny elsewhere	Vehicle theft
Full	2,657,619	61,218	37,480	335,849	836,192	1,008,134	378,746
	9,4% b	20.3%	8.4%	7.8%	10.1%	7.2%	44.3%
Partial	1,196,949	31,005	99,429	167,864	154,982	537,043	206,630
	4.3%	10.3%	22.2%	3.9%	1.9%	3.8%	24.1%
None	24,314,222	210,048	311,740	3,817,624	7,297,476	12,407,027	270,307
	86.3%	69.5%	69.5%	88.3%	88.0%	88.9%	31.6%
Total ^a	28,168,790	302,271	448,645	4,321,337	8,288,650	13,952,204	855,683
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

^aIncludes only victimizations in which something was stolen.
^bColumn percentages.

determine the willingness of offenders and victims to become involved in such arrangements, and to investigate issues of potential legal liability for injuries caused to and by the offender while performing such tasks.

Of considerable practical and theoretical significance is the question of differing recovery rates depending upon the size of loss sustained. On a practical level, restitution becomes a more feasible and more generally applicable penalty if, in higher loss cases, at least some of the property is recovered so that the balance will fall reasonably within the earning capacity of the offender. Of more theoretical interest are the implications for investigative and manpower allocation practices by law enforcement agencies that differ according to loss amounts involved. Because victims in higher loss categories are more likely to report to the police (Hindelang and Gottfredson, 1976) and because police and public interest may become more aroused by such offenses, a positive relationship might be expected between recovery rates and amount of loss; that is, higher recovery rates might be expected in the higher loss categories. Table 6 lends some support to this hypothesis.

Examining each type of outcome (full, partial, or no recovery) as a percent of victimizations in each loss category, both full and partial recovery (by means other than insurance) increase fairly consistently as the amount of loss rises. As would be expected, this pattern reverses when no recovery was made, falling from a high non-recovery rate of 92.9 percent in cases involving \$1 to \$24, to a low of 60.2 percent in cases where losses amounted to \$1,000 or more. Although there is considerable variation within each offense and loss category, it is reassuring for restitution purposes that some recovery occurs in about 24 percent of victimizations with losses between \$500 and \$999, and in about 40 percent of victimizations with losses of \$1,000 or more. Although these figures compare favorably with the overall recovery rate of about 14 percent, they are strongly influenced by the high recovery rate in vehicle thefts.

The non-insurance recovery rate for vehicle theft victimizations is so high (44.3 percent complete recovery) that the applicability of a restitutive penalty is seemingly reduced. Some programs have required restitution, however, for depreciation on the stolen machine in proportion to the mileage driven by the offender, or for a comparable rental charge using the scales employed by the major rental companies. In addition, offenders have been held responsible for reasonable documented expenses incurred by the victim as a result of making alternative travel arrangements.

Because the overall non-insurance recovery rate for

all offenses combined is so low, and because symbolic or related restitutive penalties can be adapted to fit situations where recovery is made, restitution programming would not seem to be unduly affected by the recovery of stolen property. Where recovery is not made in this direct manner, however, but occurs through insurance coverage, the outcome hinges upon a more complex allocation of rights among interested parties.⁸

The NCS data can be used to address questions involving the frequency and extent of insurance coverage for cases of unrecovered or partially recovered property and for robbery cases involving medical expenses. From Table 7, it can be seen that insurance recovery for theft losses follows much the same pattern as direct recovery insofar as recovery is a proportionately more frequent phenomenon in the higher loss categories, rising from about 1 percent for losses under \$25 to 33.3 percent in cases with losses of \$1,000 or more in 1974. The pattern of recovery through insurance is probably due, in part, to the nature of market insurance, particularly stipulations that the insured is responsible for the first \$50, \$100, or some other amount, of the loss. Thus, even if the property is insured, the victim may not file a claim for a loss worth \$110 if his or her insurance carries a "\$100 deductible" clause. This characteristic of insurance policies also helps to explain why some types of crime show higher rates of recovery through insurance than do others i.e., 27.6 percent for vehicle theft and 11.4 percent for burglary vs. no more than 6 percent for the four other types of crime in Table 7. Vehicle thefts and burglaries are more likely to result in losses of property having a value of \$500 or more than are the other four crimes: therefore, the losses in vehicle theft and burglary are more likely to exceed the deductible limits of insurance policies. In addition, some types of property are more likely to be insured against theft than are other types; for example, automobiles and home furnishings are more likely to be insured than are coats or the contents of purses and wallets, which might be stolen during

Despite similarity between the patterns for direct recovery and recovery through insurance, programmatic responses to the two types of recovery can be quite different. In some States the offender is made to pay monies directly to the insurance company (Edelhertz, 1975), whereas in other jurisdictions there may be legal objections to such payments. Restitution

⁸Even when property is recovered by the police, there remains the question of third party interests. Should the offender, for example, be required to pay restitution to an innocent third party purchaser of stolen goods?

TABLE 6 Estimated number of victimizations in which semething was stolen, by amount stolen, percent recovered by means other than insurance, and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

			Total value of theft loss								
Type of offense	Total ^b	No value	\$1 to \$24	\$25 to \$99	\$100 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 or more	Not ascertained			
Unarmed robbery	302,271	2,295 ^C	130,812	74,489	59,758 ^C	3,939 ^C	11,105 ^C	19,874 ^C			
Full recovery	20.3	100.0	12,7	13.4	18.0	0	35.7	88.6			
Partial recovery	10.3	0	7.2	15.0	15.4	29.8	0	0			
No recovery	69.5	0	80.1	71.6	66.6	70.2	64.3	11.4			
Purse snatching/											
ocket picking	448,645	2,507 ^C	188,772	154,081	71,920	5,326 ^C	1,188 ^C	24,851 ^C			
Full recovery	8.4	100.0	9,9	1.7	5.0	0	0	40.9			
Partial recovery	22.2	0	20.1	24.9	26.4	76.5	. 0	0			
No recovery	69.5	0	70.0	73.4	68.7	23.5	100.0	59.1			
Burglary	4,321,337	25,581 ^C	1,043,055	1,095,657	1,260,231	400,310	331,141	165,361			
Full recovery	7.8	94.6	4.0	5.2	4.8	2.7	2.4	80.5			
Partial recovery	3.9	0	2.0	3.6	3.7	7.7	8.8	0.7			
No recovery	88.3	5.4	94.0	91.2	91.4	89.7	88.9	18.8			
arceny from home	8,288,650	96,800	4,375,100	2,312,042	1,077,528	81,731	49,448 ^C	296,001			
Full recovery	10.1	97.5	4.2	8.3	4.8	11.3	4.8	92.4			
Partial recovery	1.9	0	1.2	2.8	3.7	6.7	2.6	0			
No recovery	88.0	2.5	94.6	88.8	91.5	82.0	92.6	7.6			
arceny elsewhere	13,952,203	92,565	7,533,391	3,819,079	1,871,384	182,030	82,947	360,807			
Full recovery	7.2	100.0	4.4	4.6	5.5	4.4	5.6	83.0			
Partial recovery	3.8	0	3.0	5.5	4.1	6.2	4.3	1.3			
No recovery	88.9	. 0	92.5	99.9	90.4	89.4	90.2	15.7			
ehicle theft	855,683	1,183 ^C	3,650 ^C	13,379 ^C	208,022	204,462	401,519	23,558 ^C			
Full recovery	44.3	100.0	30.0	55.0	53.7	42.6	39.4	52.1			
Partial recovery	24.1	0	2.5	8.7	18.2	22.9	30.0	0			
No recovery	31.6	0	67.5	36.3	28.1	34.5	30.6	47,0			
Total b	28,168,789	210,931	13,294,780	7,468,717	4,548,843	877,798	877,302	890,452			
Full recovery	9.4	98.2	4.5	6.0	8.1	13.1	20.2	83.8			
Partial recovery	4.3	1.8	2.6	4.9	4.9	11.3	19.6	0.6			
No recovery	86.3	0	92.9	89.1	87.0	75.6	60.2	15.6			

^aSubcategories may not sum to totals due to rounding.

^bIncludes only victimizations in which something was stolen.

^CBase on which percentage was computed contains 50 or fewer sample cases and may be statistically unreliable.

TABLE 7 Estimated number of victimizations in which something was stolen and percent with some recovery through insurance, by amount stolen and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

Total value of their lesses

	· · · · ·			Total value o	their losses	-	
Type of offense	Total	\$1 to \$24	\$25 to \$99	\$100 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 or more	Not ascertained
Unarmed robbery	299,976 ^a 3.6% b		74,489 1.6%	59,758 ⁰ 13.6%	3,939 ^C 34.3%	11,105 ^C 0%	19,874 ^C 0%
Purse snatching/	446,138	188,722	154,081	71,920	5,326 ^C	1,188 ^C	24,851 ^C
pocket picking	2.2%	0%	2.3%	8.4%	0%	0%	0%
Burglary	4,295,756	1,043,055	1,095,657	1,260,231	400,310	331,141	165,361
	11.4%	1,0%	4.4%	17.1%	26.3%	31.4%	4.4%
Larceny	8,191,850	4,375,100	2,312,042	1,077,528	81,731	49,448 ^C	296,001
from home	4.5%	0.7%	5.9%	15.5%	22.9%	14.1%	1.7%
Larceny	13,869,638	7,533,391	3,819,079	1,871,384	182,030	82,947	360,807
elsewhere	6.0%	1.1%	7.8%	20.5%	23.1%	14.5%	3.0%
Vehicle	854,500	3,650 ^C	13,379 ^C	208,022	204,462	401,519	23,558 ^C
theft	27.6%	0%	0%	7,4%	24.4%	42.3%	5.1%
Total	27,957,858	13,294,780	7,468,717	4,548,843	877,798	877,302	890,452
	6.9%	0.9%	6.5%	17.5%	24.8%	33.3%	2.7%

aNumber of victimizations in cell; base on which percentage was computed.

has been restricted by several appellate courts to the direct (not third party) victim of crime (Harland, 1979).

It is apparent from Table 7 that insurance recovery patterns, as in the case of direct recovery, seem to lend support to the need for and viability of restitution programming. Although insurance may account for large amounts of recovery for those who recover at all, it provides relief for relatively few people among those suffering theft losses (6.9 percent). Especially, when it is considered that a similar pattern holds true for direct recovery, restitution offers a possible source of victim redress in the many cases in which victims presently receive no other reimbursement for their losses. In addition, restitution becomes more feasible because the cases resulting in higher loss amounts, which might otherwise be problematic for restitution purposes, involve victims who are already more likely to be compensated through alternative channels.

As would be expected, the vehicle theft victimizations are those most frequently covered by insurance, with 27.6 percent involving some insurance recovery. Also, it will be remembered from Table 6 that 44.3 per-

cent of auto theft victimizations resulted in complete recovery from non-insurance sources, and 24.1 percent resulted in partial recovery. It would seem, therefore, that although auto thefts represent some of the larger initial victim losses, direct and insurance recoveries will frequently bring the net losses within the restitutive capacity of many offenders.

Insurance recovery for theft losses among the remaining offenses follows a pattern that conforms to common sense assumptions based on insurance habits in this country. Thus, the very low recovery rate for the two "personal" crimes—purse snatching/ pocket picking (2.2 percent) and unarmed robbery (3.6 percent) is to be expected in view of the nature of the items stolen, which are not commonly covered by insurance. By way of contrast, the much higher insurance recovery figure for burglary (11.4 percent) matches expectations based upon the extent of homeowners' insurance in the United States. More important, for restitution purposes, is the much higher proportion of recovery in burglaries involving more than \$500. This, again, holds promise for the success of restitution programming for the actual victims of crime, and negates to

some extent the frequently voiced objection that offenders "cannot afford to pay" restitution.9

Net Theft Losses

At this point, attention will turn to an examination of *net* theft losses for each offense after both direct recovery and insurance recovery are taken into account (1 able 8).

Although Table 8 reflects a now familiar loss pattern (with by far the greatest proportion of cases in the smaller-loss groups), several notable exceptions appear over the patterns for gross losses (i.e., before any recovery is considered). Whereas less than 1 percent of the original theft losses were reported as having no value relevant to a restitution settlement, the category of victimizations resulting in no net loss is more than 10 times as large (9.4 percent). In the vehicle theft category, in particular, more than one-half (54.9 percent) of all the victimizations resulted in no net theft loss at all, due almost entirely to decreases in the higher loss categories; although 73 percent of these higherloss victimizations involved initial theft-loss amounts exceeding \$500, the corresponding net loss figure is about 21 percent for 1974.

The percentage distributions in Table 8 illustrate the minimum restitution payments that would be needed to fully compensate the individual victim for out-of-pocket theft losses. The discussion in earlier sections of direct and insurance recovery patterns indicates how such net loss figures are determined and addresses some of the issues and problems for restitution programming that arise in reaching such a determination.

By a careful documentation of how net losses are determined, restitution investigators serve a variety of "clients". First, they make information available to criminal justice decisionmakers to increase dispositional alternatives. Second, they facilitate adequate recovery by victims. Third, they protect the offender from inflated estimates of loss. And, finally, an objectively detailed assessment of the precise consequences

of the crime can serve to emphasize to the offender the rationality of a restitutive sanction. It may also dispel any misconceptions about the gravity of the harm to the victim.

Identifying and ratifying net losses, however, indicates only what should be paid. It says nothing about whether the offender can afford to pay in restitution. That issue is addressed in the next section.

Determining Ability to Pay

One of the most critical factors in the success or failure of restitution programming obviously will be the earning capacity of the offender at the time of the disposition. Although NCS data do not speak to this issue, and although precise income and employment figures are not presented in the official statistics, it is possible to draw some inferences from the limited information available. A significant number of offenders in each offense category will be unsuitable for a straight cash restitution disposition because they are unemployed, earn too little, or are juveniles. Uniform Crime Reports for the same year as the NCS data, for example, show that in 1974 32.6 percent of all robbery arrests were of persons under 18 years old. Nine percent of all robbery arrests were of persons under 15 years old. Corresponding figures for burglary were 53.3 and 21.7 percent, for larceny-theft 48.9 and 22.6 percent, and for motor vehicle theft 55.2 and 14.6 percent (Kelley, 1975). Clearly, if restitution is to be made available to as many victims as possible, program planners must face the questions surrounding its use with youthful offenders. Approaches ranging from community service by the youth to payment by parents are all fraught with legal and pragmatic difficulties that must be considered before full scale restitution programs are implemented.

Where adult offenders are concerned, the issue is not quite so complicated, although there remain problems related to the ability of offenders to make restitutive payments. One problem, for example, is the inequity of allowing the rich to "buy themselves out of trouble." Also, special problems arise with unemployed and unemployable offenders. Although the F.B.I. statistics are silent about this element of offender information, some indication of offender employment background is available as a result of a 1972 national survey of jail inmates in the United States (LEAA, 1975).

To the extent that restitution may become an alternative to jail sentences in the future, the income figures for sentenced inmates in Table 9 are directly relevant. For those inmates awaiting trial, the figures will prob-

bPercent of cell victimizations in which something was stolen that resulted in recovery through insurance.

^CBase on which percentage was computed contains 50 or fewer sample cases and may be statistically unreliable.

^{*}Policies with respect to requiring offenders to reimburse insurance companies as well as the actual crime victim vary from program to program and from practitioner to practitioner. Those in favor of such payments argue that the offender should not benefit from the victim's foresight in obtaining insurance, and that restitution to insurance companies will help to keep premiums from rising. Opponents argue that restitution to insurance companies constitutes a "windfall profit" to them, and that premiums are unlikely to be affected. Faced with an offender with limited means, however, there is evidence to suggest that a large majority of practitioners would favor payment to individual victims before insurance companies (Harland, 1980).

TABLE 8 Estimated number of victimizations in which something was stolen, by gross and net theft loss and type of offense, six focal offenses, United States, 1974

		Total value of theft loss								
Type of offense	Total ^a	No loss/ no value	\$1 to \$24	\$25 to \$49	\$50 to \$99	\$100 to \$249	\$250 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 to \$4,999	\$5,000 or more
Unarmed robbery: Gross Net	100% (282,397) 100% (281,245)	0.8% b 16.4% b	46.3% 43.5%	13.0% 11.6%	13.4% 11.6%	14.8% 10.4%	6.3% 3.0%	1.4% 0.9%	3.1% 1.7%	0.8% 0.8%
Purse snatching/ pocket picking: Gross Net	100% (423,794) 100% (421,392)	0.6% 6.5%	44.5% 42.3%	20.5% 19.9%	15.9% 15.3%	13.3% 12.0%	3.7% 2.8%	1.3% 1.0%	0.3% 0.3%	0% 0%
Burglary: Gross Net	100% (4,155,976) 100% (4,127,452)	0.6% 6.9%	25.1% 25.3%	11.4% 11.1%	14.9% 15.3%	19.4% 18.6%	10.9% 9.7%	9.6% 7.3%	7.3% 5.4%	0.7% 0.4%
Larceny from home: Gross Net	100% (7,992,649) 100% (7,926,916)	1.2% 8.3%	54.7% 53.5%	14.6% 13.5%	14.3% 12.6%	10.8% 8.9%	2.6% 2.0%	1.0% 0.7%	0.5% 0.5%	0.1% 0%
Larceny elsewhere: Gross Net	100% (13,591,396) 100% (13,507,656)	0.6% 8.0%	55.4% 54.3%	15.5% 14.2%	12.6% 11.3%	10.6% 8.3%	3.1% 2.4%	1.4% 1.0%	0.6% 0.4%	0.1% 0.1%
Vehicle theft: Gross Net	100% (832,125) 100% (822,084)	0.1% 54,9%	0.4% 1.8%	0.2% 1.3%	1.5% 4.3%	9.1% 8.0%	15.9% 8.4%	24.6% 11.1%	41.3% 9.3%	7.0% 0.9%
Total: Gross Net	100% (27,278,337) 100% (27,086,745)	0.8% 9.4%	48.7% 47.7%	14.2% 13.2%	13.2% 12.1%	12.1% 10.1%	4.6% 3.7%	3.2% 2.2%	2.8% 1.5%	0.4% 0.2%

^aBecause net losses were not reported in all theft cases, the percent figures for gross losses were calculated on slightly larger bases than those used for net losses. Cases in which the value of the gross or net theft loss was not ascertained are excluded from the table.

Prow percents.

TABLE 9 Income earned by inmates of jails during the 12 months prior to incarceration, by confinement status, race, a and sex, 1972b

		Previous income	
Total	Less than	\$3,000 to	\$7,500
	\$3,000	\$7,499	or more
100.0	56.7	32.3	11.0
137,333	77,902	44,354	15,077
100.0	59.2	32.1	8.7
42,528	25,177	13,669	3,682
100.0	58.1	31.2	10.7
55,796	32,402	17,398	5,996
100.0	54.2	31.9	13.9
77,722	42,119	24,827	10,776
100.0	59.2	33.3	7,5
56.990	33.765	18.964	4,261
100.0	55.7	32.9	11,3
129,484	72,179	42,623	14,682
100.0	72.9	22.1	5.0
	100.0 137,333 100.0 42,528 100.0 55,796 100.0 77,722 100.0 56,990 100.0 129,484	Total \$3,000 100.0 56.7 137,333 77,902 100.0 59.2 42,528 25,177 100.0 58.1 55,796 32,402 100.0 54.2 77,722 42,119 100.0 59.2 56,990 33,765 100.0 55.7 129,484 72,179	Total Less than \$3,000 \$3,000 to \$7,499 100.0 56.7 32.3 137,333 77,902 44,354 100.0 59.2 32.1 42,528 25,177 13,669 100.0 58.1 31.2 55,796 32,402 17,398 100.0 54.2 31.9 77,722 42,119 24,827 100.0 59.2 33.3 56,990 33,765 18,964 100.0 55.7 32.9 129,484 72,179 42,623

^aThe small discrepancy between the sum of black and white percentages is due to the exclusion of the "other" category from the analysis (less than 2 percent of ali jail inmates).

Source: LEAA, 1975

ably be lower than for offenders in general because many who could afford bail are automatically excluded. In either case, it can be seen that few of these offenders are in a position readily to "buy themselves out of trouble."

For every group of inmat_ in Table 9, more than half had incomes of less than \$3,000 for the 12 months prior to incarceration, and for female offenders in particular, 72.9 percent fall into this income category. Consequently, it seems that even though the present analysis has shown the majority of victimization losses to be manageable by an offender in regular employment, the success of adult restitution programs may

frequently hinge upon their ability to provide and maintain some employment in the first place.

Victim Characteristics

In assessing the need for and potential impact of restitution programming, it is expedient to examine certain characteristics of those victims who appear to be the most likely "cheats" of such a program. It is to be expected that certain types of victims will be more willing to become involved with a program than others and that involvement will vary according to type of crime, type of loss, and victim characteristics such as age, race, social status, and so on. Programs may sometimes have to choose between one victim and another if the offender cannot afford to repay both. And, the success or failure of an offender under a restitutive disposition may also vary according to the nature and extent of victim involvement, and may be influenced by the characteristics of the victim.

It has already been argued, for example, that resti-

^bSubcategories may not sum to 100 percent due to rounding.

¹⁰The income data reported are for 1972. Income data for inmates confined in 1978 yield slightly lower figures, but the same trend exists. For every group of inmates, more than 42 percent had incomes of less than \$3,000 for the 12 months prior to incarceration (the range is between 42.5 percent for whites and 49.9 percent for blacks). Females are still the most frequent group with 58.4 percent falling into this income category.

tution to an individual may have a more rehabilitative impact than payment to an impersonal corporate victim. For similar reasons, it could be argued that restitution will be a more successful disposition where the social and financial situations of offenders and victims are not too disparate. It might be easier for an offender to understand the need for a restitutive settlement and to comprehend the harm to a victim who is similarly situated rather than to one who is much wealthier or socially more advantaged.

From Table 10 it appears that restitution to very wealthy victims of the six focal offenses would be a relatively rare event. Only 7 percent of victimizations resulting in a net theft loss involved families with annual incomes, in 1974, of more than \$25,000.11 The largest overall category (45 percent) incorporates those families reporting 1974 incomes of \$10,000 to \$25,000 with the two personal crimes, unarmed robbery, and purse snatching/ pocket picking, occurring more frequently in the lower income ranges. The under \$10,000 income groups, which encompass the legitimate earning capacity of many offenders (see Table 9 above), account for 43 percent of the victimizations, suggesting at least a rough financial equality in many cases between the parties to a restitutive arrangement.

However, in about half of the cases in Table 10, the victim had a family income of \$10,000 or more. In these cases, it is likely that the victim's financial status is higher than the offender, and there is an obvious risk that restitution could be interpreted by the offender as unnecessary and, therefore, unjust. This, of course, is a contradiction of one of the more frequent claims about restitution; that is, its apparent fairness in restoring an "ethical and logical equilibrium," and in reducing offender resentment over his or her treatment and against the "system" in general. Rather than undermining offender rationalizations in this way, patently disparate financial standing may "prove" to the offender what he or she had previously only supposed: that, notwithstanding the crime loss, the victim is still the more prosperous. Restitution could then become, in the offender's eyes, simply another source of unjust enrichment of the wealthy at the expense of the poor.

Extraneous Limits on Restitutive Programming

The ultimate scope and feasible impact of restitution programs is dictated to a great extent by the performance of criminal justice agencies in the apprehension and processing of the offender. But even before the criminal justice process is felt, a further reduction of eligible victims takes place due to the decision by many victims not to report an offense to the police.

Crime Reporting Behavior

Although restitution may take place between victims and offenders informally, a victim's decision not to report an offense to the police will almost always preclude the opportunity for restitution through formal programming in the criminal justice system. Consequently, the determinants of nonreporting are important indicators of the types of crimes, victims, and offenders with which restitution programmers will be faced.

Almost seven-tenths (67.7 percent) of all victimizations attributable to the six focal offenses were not reported to the police, with a great deal of variation according to the individual offense involved and whether or not anything was stolen. Both sources of variation, as well as others to be considered below, indicate that crime reporting is presently influenced strongly by the victim's desire for some form of compensation or recovery of stolen property. They also suggest that a widely publicized program of restitution could, in turn, have a marked impact upon future reporting.

The lowest incidence of nonreporting (11.3 percent) occurs in the vehicle theft category when something was stolen; the highest non-reporting (83.9 percent) appears for those larceny elsewhere victimizations in which nothing was stolen. In addition, for every offense category the reporting rate was higher in those cases in which something was stolen than in the. nothing-stolen or attempt group. The implications to be drawn from this varied reporting behavior are two fold. First, the increased reporting where loss is involved can be seen as an indication that reporting stems from the victim's desire to make recovery, 22 least as much as from any altruistic attention to civic responsibility. 12 Second, the fact that non-reporting of vehicle theft is fully 35.6 percentage points lower than the next lowest category (burglaries in which some-

[&]quot;Although this excludes iosses attributable solely to damage, the general picture of the victim remains unaltered because of the proportionately few victimizations reported in which only damage occurred (7.1 percent). Questions about vandalism damage were not asked in the survey. The loss data reported here are for victimizations that occurred in 1974. Inflation has affected loss amounts, but not as much as might be expected. For example, in 1974, 68 percent of the nonviolent personal crimes of theft in which some loss occurred involved amounts less than \$50; by 1978 this had dacreased to 59 percent; for household theft, 55 percent involved amounts less than \$50 in 1974, compared with 48 percent in 1978.

¹²This is the conclusion reached by Hawkins (1970) in his study of non-reporting in Seattle.

TABLE 10 Estimated number of victimizations involving a net theft loss, by annual family income of victim and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

				Annual	family income of	victim		
Type of offense	Total ^a	Less than \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$7,499	3,000 to \$7,500 to		\$15,000 to \$24,999	More than \$25,000	Not
Unarmed robbery Purse	235,121 100% 1%	40,833 17% ^b 2% ^c	70,252 30% 1%	20,454 9% 1%	\$14,999 37,579 16% 1%	34,897 15% 1%	10,596 4% 1%	20,510 9% 2%
snatching/ pocket picking Burglary	394,191 100% 2%	61,221 16% 2%	110,345 28% 2%	52,930 13% 2%	67,081 17% 1%	59,767 15% 1%	22,997 6%	19,850 5%
Larceny	3,342,047 100% 16% 7,267,312	590,894 15% 25%	981,316 26% 19%	406,118 10% 14%	783,284 20% 13%	627,452 16% 13%	1% 256,240 7% 15%	2% 196,741 5%
from home	100% 30% 12,429,185	721,519 10% 30%	1,688,993 23% 32%	857,105 12% 30%	1,960,439 27% 32%	1,282,243 18% 26%	389,045 5% 22%	15% 367,968 5%
elsewhere /ehicle	100% 51% 370,587	928,512 7% 39%	2,273,004 18% 43%	1,427,220 11% 51%	3,174,796 26% 52%	2,893,451 23% 58%	1,069,500 9% 61%	28% 662,702 5% 51%
heft otal ^a	100% 1%	18,913 5% 1%	105,060 28% 2%	50,791 14% 2%	85,726 23% 1%	69,424 19% 1%	17,726 5%	22,947 6%
otai	24,538,443 100% 100%	2,361,892 10% 100%	5,228,970 21% 100%	2,814,618 12% 100%	6,108,907 25% 100%	4,967,234 20% 100%	1% 1,766,104 7% 100%	2% 1,290,718 5%

^aIncludes only victimizations in which a net theft loss of \$1 or more was reported to the interviewer.

bRow percentages,

thing was stolen, 46.9 percent) indicates that even between offenses in which losses are sustained, reporting may be influenced by the degree to which the victim anticipates recovery. For example, it seems likely that the high reporting in vehicle cases is grounded in some part in a desire to establish a valid insurance claim, from which the recovery potential is known to be strong, as well as to start police action towards direct recovery.

As the criminal justice system operates today, the victim cannot, for the most part, anticipate restitution in return for reporting an offense to the police even if the offender is apprehended. The convicted offender in such a case pays his debt to society and the victim is forgotten. The prospect of this form of "satisfaction" may well be insufficient incentive for many victims to take the trouble to report an offense. Under a well-publicized system of restitutive justice, however, the victim's stake in the criminal justice process is increased, and the possibility arises that non-reporting may diminish as a result.

In addition to the rise in reporting due to increasing the victim's satisfaction if the offender is caught, a restitutive system may actually enhance the probability of arrest in the first place. Increased victim cooperation facilitates the job of law enforcement officials who in turn may be more responsive to individual losses, especially where a restitutive mechanism is available. Law enforcement officials as well as victims may be influenced to take action, in cases previously considered trivial, where the potential benefit is now direct and the sanction (restitution) more certain. Increased role-satisfaction for law enforcement officers may be achieved through a more certain knowledge that the offender will "pay" if apprehended and that the victim may benefit from and be more grateful for police assistance.

If such attitudes should indeed gain ground under a system of restitutive justice, the potential impact on reporting behavior is suggested to some extent by the reasons given by many victims for not reporting. Although victims sometimes gave more than one reason for not reporting an offense to the police, the most frequently cited reason in every crime category was that "nothing could be done—lack of proof," ranging from 43.1 percent in the case of purse snatching and pocket picking to 23.7 percent for unarmed robbery. To the extent that this reason reflects an honest appraisal by the victim of a hopeless situation, it is doubtful whether the prospect of restitution would have made much difference. If it is an indication of a lack of confidence in police investigative techniques, on the other hand, improved police response under a

system of restitutive penalties could eventually lead to an increase in reporting.

This latter line of reasoning would most certainly be valid for those victims who failed to report because they felt that "the police would not want to be bothered" (7.3 percent), and an improved police image might also influence those victims who simply "did not want to get involved" (less than I percent). For the latter group, the possibility of receiving restitution might also be sufficient incentive for at least some of the victims to decide to become involved, especially in those cases where amounts of loss are not totally trivial. This may also be so where the victim viewed the offense as "not important enough" to report (28.1 percent) or where the victim felt that there was "no time" or it was "too inconvenient" to report (3 percent), or where victims stated that they "did not want to report" because it was a "private or personal matter" (ranging from 12.4 percent in the unarmed robbery category to only 2.4 percent for larceny elsewhere).

Limiting Effect of the Criminal Justice System

The most restrictive factor in the use of restitution is that it can be enforced through the criminal justice process only if the offender is apprehended. Comparison of the NCS data and the 1974 F.B.I. statistics shows that only a small proportion of offenses comes to the knowledge of the police. Even fewer are actually cleared by arrest. Consider residential burglary, for example; the F B.I. estimate of 1,872,834 offenses for 1974 is less than one third the number revealed by the victim survey. For residential and business burglaries combined, only 18 percent were cleared by the police, and it is not unusual that the arrest of one person may clear several reported offenses in this crime category. Although offenders may become more reluctant to plead to multiple offenses if restitution is required, there will undoubtedly be cases in which programs will have to apportion restitution between different victims. In cases where the offender cannot afford to repay all victims, restitution will be reduced to partial payment; alternatively, policies must be devised to determine precedence of claims between one victim

Although the number of arrests for each offense is far below the number of victimizations reported in the NCS survey, the rank ordering for each offense remains the same. The largest number of arrests falls in the larceny-theft category and diminishes through burglary, motor vehicle theft, down to the lowest number of arrests for unarmed robbery. However, a further

limiting factor exists for programs in which the primary aim is full recovery by the victim. The distributions of victims and losses may be rather different in the official statistics than in the more complete reporting in NCS data. Average losses in cases cleared by the police, for example, may be higher than those in the total population of cases, because of non-reporting and less intensive investigative practices in the less serious cases.¹³

A further important limitation on the scope of restitutive programming may be rooted in the plea bargaining practices of prosecuting attorneys. An offender pleads guilty to one count of larceny, for example, in return for a prosecution agreement to drop similar charges. What happens to the victims of those charges? Obviously, if restitution is permissible only for conviction offenses, it presents quite a dilemma for the prosecutors. They must either continue to bargain, and select victims for exclusion from restitution; or they must forego bargaining when restitution may be involved; or they must try to secure restitution for offenses of which the offender will not be convicted (Harland, 1979).

Still another major limitation upon the use of restitution is the narrow range of offense behavior for which it is now used. During the different periods in history and across a variety of cultural settings, restitution has been employed in connection with almost every conceivable offense, ranging from a minor property crime to the most heinous form of murder (Nader and Combs-Schilling, 1975:29). Similarly, in tort law, a financial value has been placed on everything from a damaged reputation to the loss of life or limb. However, under modern restitutive programming, the extent to which restitution is a feasible and acceptable penalty has become restricted generally to a narrower class of cases.

The victim's claim to recovery and the use of restitution as a rehabilitative tool both must assume their places among the hierarchy of traditional punitive goals such as deterrence, deserts, and incapacitation. If these alternative goals mandate a penalty involving incarceration, as they often do in more serious cases, the offender's ability to pay restitution is usually deferred or destroyed because of the very low wages paid for inmate labor. As a result, restitution has come to be looked upon as primarily a diversionary disposition, suitable only when an offender is returned to the community (Cohen, 1944).

Although it is theoretically possible to place an actuarial value on all forms of harm resulting from crime (Wilkins, 1965), restitution has been restricted to less serious offenses involving property loss and minor personal injury. As indicated above, offenses such as murder, rape, and armed robbery are usually excluded. The exclusion of serious violent crimes seems to be inevitable as long as offenders who commit such crimes receive long prison terms during which they are prevented from earning more than token sums of money.

The irony of restricting restitution to largely non-violent offenses is shown clearly in Figure 2. According to the Uniform Crime Reports, it is in precisely those cases in which restitution is most applicable that the lowest proportion of offenses are cleared by the police. The lowest clearance rate for the typically non-restitutive personal offenses (51 percent for forcible rape) is almost twice that of the highest rate for the more normally restitutive crimes in which property is stolen (27 percent for robbery).

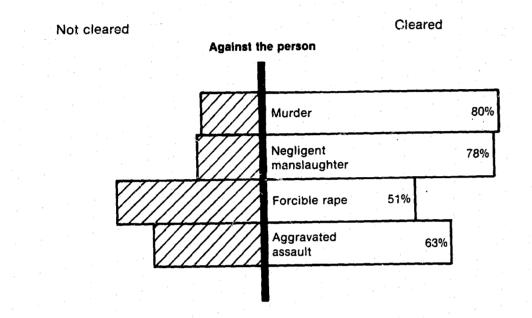
Even under these circumstances, however, the potential for restitution programming remains broad. When the proportions in Figure 2 are converted into numbers of offenses, there are almost ten reported property offenses for every reported violent crime. Therefore, even though proportionally fewer property offenders than violent offenders are caught by the police, Uniform Crime Reports data suggest that restitution programs still may be in a position to benefit more victims than existing State compensation schemes concerned exclusively with violent crimes.

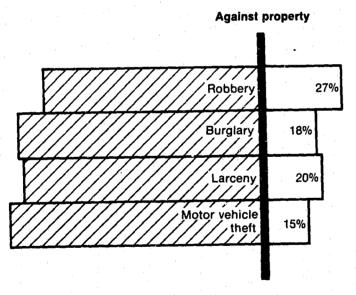
Summary and Conclusion

The major purpose of this report is to discuss some of the issues surrounding restitution to crime victims in the context of data available from the National Crime Survey. The types of investigative steps taken by restitution program staff to determine victim losses are applied to a national sample of victimizations. In addition, further restitutive considerations are discussed, such as victim characteristics and the ability of offenders to pay. Finally, several major limitations on the scope of restitutive programming are addressed. Data on the phenomenon of non-reporting of crimes are presented, and several aspects of the criminal jus-

¹³Average losses in the Uniform Crime Reports for offenses reported to the police do not correspond exactly with the six crime categories discussed here. However, for *robbery* as a whole, including more serious robberies than those included in our definition as well as robberies of business establishments, the average reported loss during 1974 was \$321. For burglaries as a whole, including non-residential as well as residential burglaries, the figure was \$391. The average value of goods and property reported stolen by *pick pockets* was \$117, by *purse snatchers* \$75, from motor vehicles \$180, and by miscellaneous thefts from buildings \$271. The average value of stolen motor vehicles was \$1,246.

FIGURE 2 Proportions of Uniform Crime Reports index crimes against the person and against property that were cleared by affect, 1974





Source: Kelley, 1975

tice system are shown to restrict the use of restitution; particularly important are the low wages paid to incarcerated offenders, low arrest rates, and the effects from processing cases through the criminal justice system.

The analysis and discussion in this report are suggestive of the potential scope of restitutive programming. Tracing the operating procedures of a restitution investigator, the report shows that a large majority of victimizations, in the six crime categories discussed, result in losses that seem readily manageable for restitution purposes. Even when all of the factors besides amount of loss are considered, the expanded use of restitutive dispositions seems feasible.

Restitution remains a largely untested correctional tool that could be utilized for large numbers of offenders. If it is to be developed in this way, and as a recovery mechanism for crime victims, its impact will be greatest under a program with as few restrictions upon offender and victim eligibility as possible. Frequently emphasized topics in today's criminal justice system include the futility and expense of incarceration (Morris, 1974), and the preference for community correctional programs for as many offenders as possible (Nelson, Ohmart, and Harlow, 1978; Wilkins, 1965). A carefully planned expansion of restitution programming may both supplement and add impetus to this trend, and offer a new dimension to correctional and victim services in the United States.

Despite the primitive state of our knowledge about its differential effect upon offenders, victims, and the criminal justice process, restitution is receiving widespread public attention. More importantly, the number of jurisdictions in which restitution is being required is proliferating in a large variety of cases. Any encouragement from this report to continue such expansion should be confined to a carefully planned application of the restitutive sanction. Wholesale expansion of restitutive justice—before research has shown for which offenders, offenses, victims, and under what circumstances it is a viable option—could

have any or all of the following consequences: inappropriate use with indigent offenders might lead to a
de facto introduction of a situation akin to debtor's
prison; meanwhile, the search for more effective alternative offender dispositions might be thwarted; introduction of an essentially civil remedy into criminal
proceedings without procedural protections comparable to those afforded a civil respondent; public and
legislative opinion might be misled to believe that victims are being compensated adequately, whereas much
of the restitution ordered will never be paid; this in turn
leads to a possible obstacle to the development of alternative victim remedies in those cases in which restitution does not materialize.

It is important, therefore, that restitution programs collect data on the types of offenses, losses, and victims with which they are dealing to make comparisons with the type of analysis presented here and with official statistics such as the Uniform Crime Reports of the F.B.I. In this way, it will be possible to determine not only who is benefiting from restitutive dispositions but also who is not. This latter group can then provide the basis for consideration of alternative schemes to benefit crime victims, to supplement both State-funded compensation and offender restitution programs.

It was pointed out at the outset of this report that restitution is intuitively appealing as a source of aid to victims and as a possible beneficial sentencing option for offenders. It should be obvious, however, that these are not always mutually obtainable goals. In cases of conflict, a decision must be made whether the emphasis is to be on the victim or the offender, and the effects of either choice must be examined before a stance towards restitution can be adopted. Restitution may prove to have a significant impact upon sentencing and correctional practices in the near future. Until research has shown whether that impact will be beneficial or deleterious, restitution must be viewed with the cautious optimism appropriate to any other innovation.

APPENDIX A National Crime Survey Questionnaire

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5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 0 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 0 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t dsk abo 0 Ns c. Did you tempora	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 0 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 0 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abor O NS c. Did you tempore 0 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abov 0 Ns c. Did you tempore 1 No	de any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — Hew man have a jeb or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t dsk abo 0 Ns c. Did you tempora	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t dsk abor O NS c. Did you tempora	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t dsk abor O NS c. Did you tempora	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t dsk abor 0 Ns c. Did you tempora	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
b. Did you secund to ask about to No.	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t dsk abor 0 Ns c. Did you tempora	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t dsk abor O NS c. Did you tempora	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?
5 Go b. Did you eround t ask abor O NS c. Did you tempore 0 1 No	do any work at all he house? (Note: list unpaid work.) Yes — How man have a job or busifily absent or an le	LAST farm's y hours ness fr yolf b	WEEK not country business operates oper	ting work otor in Hi to 28a	4,	d. When	SELF- practic Workin t kind of neer, st	e or fa g WITH work v ock cle	rm? OUT PA were you rk, typis	Y in family doing? (Fo t, farmer)	business or r example: e. es or duties?	ferm?

Page 2

	HOUSEHOLD SCR	EEN QUESTIONS	
29. New I'd like to ask some questions about crime. They refer only to the last 12 months between	Yes - Hew many times?	32. Did anyone take something belonging to you or to any member of this household, from a place where you or they were temporarily staying, such as a friend's or relative's home, a hotel or motel, or a vacation home? 33. What was the total number of motor vehicles (cars, trucks, etc.) owned by you or any other member of this household during the last 12 months?	(ST) None - SKIP to 36
31. Was anything at all stolen that is kept outside your home, or happened to be left out, such as a bicycle, a garden hose, or lawn furniture? (other than any incidents atready mentioned)	Yes - How many times?	34. Did anyone steat, TRY to steat, or use (it/any of them) without permission? 35. Did anyone steat or TRY to steat part of (it/any of them), such as a battery,	2] 2 3] 3 4] 4 or more Yes – How many times? Yes – How many times?
	INDIVIDUAL SC	hubcops, tope-deck, etc.?	☐) No
36. The following questions rofer only to things that heppened to you during the last 12 months between1, 197 and, 197 Did you have your (packet picked/purse snatched)?	1	ATTEMPTED to steal something that belonged to you? (other than any incidents already mentioned)	Yes - How many times?
 Did enyone take something (else) directly from you by using force, such as by a stickup, mugging or threat? 	Yes - How many times?	47. Did you call the police during the last 12 months to repertusementing that happened to you which you thought was a crime? (Do not count any calls made to the policy concerning the Incidents you have just told me about.)	
 Did enyone TRY to rob you by using force or threatening to harm you? (other than any incidents already mentioned) 	Yes - How wanty	No - SKIP to 48 Yes - What happened?	(S)
39. Did anyone best you up, attack you or hit you with something, such as a rock or botale? (other than any incidents already mentioned)	No V		
40. Were you knifed, shot at, or stacked with some other weapon by anyone bt all? (other than any incidents already montioned)	Yes — How many times?	Look at 47. Was HH member 12 + attacked or threatened, or was something stolen or an attempt made to steal something that belonged to him?	Yes - How many times?
 Did enyone THREATEN to best you up or THREATEN you with e knife, gun, or some other weepon, NOT including telephony threats? (ether than any incidents already mentioned) 	Yes — How many times?	48. Did anything happen to you during the last 12 months which you thought was a crime, but did NOT report to the police? (other then any incidents already mentioned)	:
 Did anyone TRY to attack you in some other way? (other than any incidents already mentioned) 	Yes - Now many times?	☐ No — SKIP to Check Item E☐ Yes — What happened?	
43. During the lost 12 menths, did anyone steel things that belonged to you from inside any co or truck, such as packages or clothing?	Yes - How many times?		(059)
44. Wes enything stelen from you while you were sway from home, for instance at work, in a theater or restaurant, or while traveling?	Yes - Hew many tirees?	Look at 48. Was HH member 12 + attacked or threatened, or was something stolen or an attempt made to steal something that belonged to him?	Yes - New many times?
45. (Other than any incidents you've elreedy mentioned) was enything (else) at all staten from you during the last 12 months?	Yes - How many times?	Do any of the screen questions co for "How many times?" No – Interview next HH membe End interview if lost res and fill item 13 on cover. Yes – Fill Crime Incident Rep	er. pondent,
ABM NCS-1 (8-1-74)	Pa		

CONTRACTOR.

31

	PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS													
14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20a.	¦20b.	21.	22.	23. What is the highest	24.			
NAME	TYPE OF INTERVIEW	LINE NO.	RELATIONSHIP TO HOUSEHOLD HEAD	AGE LAST BIRTH-	MARITA STATU		ORIG	N SEX	ARMAD FORCES WEMDER	grade (or year) of regular school you have ever attended?	Did you complete that year?			
KEYER - BEGIN NEW RECORD	•	(cc 8)	(cc 9b)	(cc 13)	(cc 14)	(CC 1) (cc 16	(cc 17)	(cc 18)	(cc 19)	(cc 20)			
Last	(034)	(03)	(036)	(037)	(038)	(039)	;	(00)	(41)	(042)	(043)			
	1 Per Self-resp.		1 Head		I □ M.		,	1-	Yes	00 [] Never attended	1 [] Yes			
	2 Tel Self-resp.		z 🔲 Wife of head	1	2 🔲 Wd				2 No	or kindergarten	2 [] No			
First	3 Per Proxy	((3 🔲 Own child	1	3 [□] D.	3 []]	n.	1	}	Elementary (01-08 H.S. (09-12)				
	4 Tel Proxy		4 Other relativ	1	4 [] Se		1	1	}	College (21-26+)	1			
	5 NI-FIII 16-21	<u> </u>	5 Non-relative		5 🗌 NA			٠.,	 					
CHECK	Look at item 4 or household as las	t enume o Check	ration? (Box I Item B		(6)		Yes Yes	en fook No	- When 2 []	rork during the post 4 did you lost work? Less than 5 years ago — 1 5 or more years ago 2	KIP to 28 <i>0</i>			
	live in this house of		•		- [Never worked	KIP to 36			
	s - SKIP to Check I		2 □ No		[27. 18	there an	10010n	why you	could not take a job L	ST WEEK?			
	lid you live on April ' ssession, etc.)	1, 1970?	(State, foreign	country	, [@	i) 1	⊒ No	Yes		Already has a job				
0,5, po			4							Temporary illness				
State, e	tc	Cou	inty							Going to school				
c. Did you	live inside the limit	s of a c	ity, town, villa	ge, etc.?			,		ا اسا	Other - Specify				
(45) 1 □ No	2 🗀 Yes No	ame of c	ity, town, villa	ge, etc.	₇ }-	30 5			1	13 04 - 4				
(046) II				•	Ì					k? (Name of company, her employer)				
	u in the Armed Force	s or Ar	vil 1, 1970?				1							
(047) 1 1 1 Ye		A			46	a -		wasta	CAID		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
CHECK A	Is this person 16	Vests :	ld or older?		-10	ノヘー			- SKIP					
ITEM B	No - SKIP to	•	Yes		_ }	D. WJ	orykina o Vradio n	f busine fr., reta	il Shoe s	Justry is this? (For existore, State Labor Depi	imple: TV farm)			
					3	~ ~		7			-, ,,			
	ere you doing most of I house, going to sch	e so (loo	omethina else?		~ y -	- W	re you -	ــــــ						
	orking - SKIP to 280	6 [Unable to work	-SKIP	3260	S) 1	An en	ployee	of a PRIN	VATE company, busine	55 Or			
2 [] Wi	th a job but not at we	ork 7	□Retired /		1	7	indivi	dual for	wages, s	alary or commissions?				
	ooking for work	. 8 [Other - Speci	X		2 [A GO	/ERNME	NT emp	loyee (Federal, State,	county,			
	eeping house oing to school			11	\geq 1	- 1	or loc		VED -	OWALL .				
			Armed Forces	-	(86)	3 {	SELF	ce or fai	m?	OWN business, profess	10401			
	do any work at all L					4 (-			Y in family business o	form?			
	the house? (Note: If) out unpaid work.)	jarm or	bus mess operat	חודאיזו יט.	. [doing? (For example:				
(049) ∘ □ No		hours?.	- KIND	lo, 28a	!					t, farmer)				
c. Did you	have a job or busine	s from	which you wer	•	 1@			<u> </u>						
tempora	irily absent or an lay	OH LAS	T WEEK?		- 1					ent activities or duties				
(650) 1 □ N	2 ☐ Yes — Absen 3 ☐ Yes — Layof				. Į		imple, t	hitig, K	eping uc	count books, selling o	ars, etc.)			
<u> </u>	3 [] TES - Layor	7 3/10		DUAL S	PEFN	OUEST	ONS T							
\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \		1	(_/											
	ng questions refer on you during the last			es How times	many ?					thing that	- How many times?			
1	_1, 197 and				·	be	öngéd to	you? (o	ther than	ı anğ ¦∟JNo				
you have yo	our (pocket picked/pu	150 SHO	rched)?		_ L				entioned		_==			
	take something (else			es – How	many					ng the last 12 months t you which you thought				
	using force, such as	by a st	ickup,	times	?					you which you thought ills made to the police	# a s d			
mugging or		alas A		=	= 6	S8) co	cerning	he incid	lents you	rhave just told me abo	ut.)			
	TRY to rob you by u ing to harm you? (oth		וייאמנ	es — How Umes	many		No - SA Yes - W							
incidents a	lready mentioned)		LIN	<u> </u>		┝┤└	1 C2 - H	nor nop	. 4 U 4 G (
39. Did anyone	beat you up, attack ;	you or h	it you 🔲 Y	es – How	тэлу	П				······································				
with someth	ring, such as a rock o any incidents already	or bottle	i	times	' F	=	Lock	at 47	Was Hu	member 12 + 11-1 Var				
	rifed, shot at, or atta					HECK	atta	ked or t	hreatene	d, or was some- السالة على العام	How many times?			
some other	weapon by anyona at	al!? (at	her	es – Haw times	il.	TEM C				empt made to [[]]No				
	cidents already menti		i 🗆 N							pelonged to him?				
	THREATEN to beat			es — How times	, ,	~ ~~				during the last 12 mont				
	N you with a knife, go on, NOT including tel			0	' <u>[@</u>	9 (6)	rerthan	iny inci-	dents alr	t did NOT report to the eady mentioned)	honce:			
	ony incidents alread				[No - SA	IP to Ci	eck Item					
	TRY to attack you is		¦ [□ Y	es – How	many	ЩП	Yes - W	hat happ	ened?					
other way?	(other than any inci-	cents		times	"	Ш				 				
	lest 12 months, did a	- VACA	حنب		_					I member 12 + 11 7 Yes	- How many			
things that	belonged to you from	inside	any car 🔚	es – Hew times		HECK	atta	ked or t	hreatene	d, or was some-	times?			
or truck, su	ch as packages or cl	othing?	, L N	<u> </u>	' لــــ	TEM D				empt made to No				
	ng stolen from you wh		mete ; \ Y	es — Haw times	many		<u> </u>			questions contain any	entries			
	home, for instance at estaurant, or while tr					uervi			ny times					
	any incidents you've			es — (19W		HECK	— — •			xt HII member. End in				
mentioned)	Was anything (else)	at all st	alen :	times	7 '	m	7 、			ondent, and fill item 13	on cover.			
	ring the last 12 mont	is?		<u> </u>	ᆖᆫ		' لبا ر	es – Fi	ii Crime	Incident Reports.				
FORM NCS-3 18-3-7	41	_			Page 4	–								

BEC	KEYER – GIN NEW RECORD	Notes		persons	s engaged in and t	o the Census Bureau is confi lidentifiable information will i or the purposes of the survey, thers for any purpose.	be used only by and may not be
Lin	e number		•	FORM NC		EPARTMENT OF COMMERCE	
ע				10-3-741	SOCIAL AND EC	DNOMIC STATISTICS ADMINISTRA PREAU OF THE CENSUS COLLECTING AGENT FOR THE MENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRAT	TION
Scre	en question number]			LAW ENFORCE	COLLECTING AGENT FOR THE MENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRAT DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE	FION
<u>) </u>]				INCIDENT REPORT	
Inci	dent number					ONAL CRIME SURVEY	
9						TRAL CITIES SAMPLE	
la.		a last 12 months - (Refe		5a.	Were you a custo	mer, employee, or owner?	
		stion for description of c		(113)	1 [_] Customer		
		/did the first) incident h essary. Encourage respo		•••	z [T] Employee		
	give exact month.)	- Linconaga respo			3 [_] Gwner		
			, i		4 [] Other - Spe	··-	
)		(01-12)		ь.	Uid the preson(s) to the store, rest	steal or TRY to steal anyth aurant, office, factory, etc?	ing belonging
		s incident report for a se	ries of crimes?	(114)	ı [Yes)	
(CITECA TO	lo – SKIP to 2	have 3 or	<u> </u>	2 🙀 No	SKIP to Check Item B	
	ITEM A 21 J	es – (Note: series mus) more similar incide	ents which		Don't know		
	<u> </u>	respondent can't rec		6a.		s) live there or have a right	to be
ь.		ese incident: take place	?		\ . /	guest or a workman?	
١	(Mark all that apply) 1 Spring (March, Apply)	eil Maul]	601	1.3	to Check Item B	
, :	2 [] Summer (June, Jt			11	2[.]No		
	3 [Fall (September,		\sim		3) Don't know		
	4 [] Winter (December	, January, February)	2) b.		s) actually get in or just TR	Y to get
٠.		ere involved in this serie	25	(16)	in the building? 1 [] Actually go	t in	
,	1 Three or four			\checkmark	2 [] Just tried t		
	z[] Five to ten a[] Eleven or more	\sim	1/1/	•	3 [] Don't know	- 1	
	4 ["] Don't know	< ⋅	(11/2)	c.		idence, such as a broken loc	k or broken
		ries, the following quest	ionscete		window, that the	offender(s) (forced his way	
	only to the most recen		Δ	(17)	to force his way	in, the building:	
2.	About what time did (t	nis/the most record		9		was the evidence? Anythin	g else?
)	incident happen?	///	>		(Mar	k all that apply)	-
	2 During the day (:			Broken lock or window Forced door or window)
	At night (6 p.m.	o (acm∕)			ے ا	(or tried)	SKIP
	3 [] 6 p.m. to mi 4 [] Midnight to					Slashed screen	to Che
	s Don't know				5 []	Other - Specify 7	Item E
3a.	Did this incident take	place inside the limits of	of this		<u> </u>		
	city or somewhere els	•?		_ d.	How did the offe	nder(s) (get in/try to get in)?	?
)	1 [] Inside limits of 2 [] Somewhere else			110	1 [] Through un	locked door or window	
		ed States - END INCIDE	NT REPORT	_	z [] Had key		
ь.		ty did this incident occu			3 [T] Don't know	• *	
					4 [] Other - Spe	cify	
	State					Was respondent or any other	
	County			(119)	CHECK	this household present when incident occurred? (If not su	
_ c.		he limits of a city, town,	village, etc.?		ITEM B	1 [] No - SKIP to 13a	
) .	1 [*] No		•		7	2[] Yes	
	Z [] Tes - Enter non	e of city, town, etc. 7					
)				7a.		have a weapon such as a gr	
4.	Where did this incider	t take place?			bottle, or wrench	was using as a weapon, such ?	1 05 0
)	i [] At or in own dwe			(120)	1 [] No		
	break-in or atten	property (Includes)	SKIP to 6a	_	2 [] Don't know		
	2 [] At or in vacation					was the weapon? (Mark all t	that apply)
	3 [] Inside commerci				3 []		
	store, restaurant public conveyan		ASK Sa		41 1	Knife	
	4 [_] Inside office, fa			1		Other - Specify	
	5 [] Near own home;	yard, sidewalk,		Ь.		hit you, knock you down, or	actually
	driveway, carpo	t, apartment hall	4		attack you in son		actourty
	(Does not include attempted break		SKIP	(121)	ı [] Yes - SKIF	to 7f	
	6 [] On the street, in	a park, field, play-	to Check	_	2 [] No		
		rounds or parking lot	Item B	ŀ		al	
	7 [] Inside school			\sim	· · ·	threaten you with harm in a	ny way"
	a [] Other - Specify	7		\sim	I [] No - SKIP	to /e	
					2 Yes		

1 ,347	CRIME	NCI	DEN'	T QU	ESTIONS - Continued	4		
7d.	How were you threatened? Any other way?	Т	90				its pro	gram pay for all or part of
خا	(Mark all that apply)	ı	$\overline{}$		total medical expensi	es :		
(13)	Verbal threat of rope	- 10	133)		Not yet settled	CW1D		
i '	2 Verbal threat of attack other than rope	- 1				SKIP to	100	
1	3 Weapon present or threatened with weapon	IP] All J] Part			
ł	4 [] Attempted attack with weapon	. (_=			1.1	4
1 .	(for example, shot at)	1	. '	d. Hov	w much did insurance	or a heal	ith ben	etits program pay?
	5 [] Object thrown at person	- 10	134)	\$	0	Obto	ain an	estimate, if necessary)
1	6 Tollowed, surrounded	-			1 1 1		16	and the same state of the same
1	7 Other - Specify	- 1	10		l you do anything to p ing the incident?	notect yo	POISEIL	ar your property
l		٦,	135)		No - SKIP to II			
•.	What actually happened? Anything else?	- l`	<u>س</u>	2] Yes			
i -	(Mark all that apply)	•		b. Wh	at did you do? Anythi	ing else?	(Mari	k all thet apply)
(24)	1 Something taken without permission 2 Attempted or threatened to	- 10	136)	۱ [Used/brandished g	un or kni	fe	
	take something	ľ		2 [hit, ch	ased, threw object, used
1	3 [] Harassed, argument, abusive language	- 1		- r	other weapon, etc.)		tentio	n, scare offender away
1	4 Forcible entry or attempted			3 [(screamed, yelled,	called fo	r help	, turned on lights, etc.)
l .	forcible entry of house SK	"Pi		4 [Threatened, argued	d, reason	ed, etc	., with offender
'	5 Forcible entry or attempted to 100	, I		5 [Resisted without for	orce, use	d evas	sive action (ran/drove away,
1	6 Damaged or destroyed property	1			hid, held property.	locked d	loor, d	ucked, shielded self, etc.)
	7 [] Attempted or threatened to	- {		6 [☐ Other ← Specify			
	damage or destroy property	٦ŀ		1 ₩-	s the crime committee	alan var	one o	r more than one person?
1	B _ Other - Specify >	- 1,	_		Only one	2 [] Do	n't kn	ow - 3 More than one -
		{{_{1}}}	(17)	٠.	₹\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\		IP to	
1 4.	How did the person(s) attack you? Any			n. Wa	s this person male	T		How many persons?
1.	other way? (Mark all that apply)	- 1			female:	.]	_ "	tion many persons.
(125)	1 🔲 Raped	- 1	1	\sim	\sim	1	(113)	_
-	2 Tried to rape	- Ì	(UB).	$\mathcal{N}_{[}$	Male Male	ł	g.	Were they male or female?
	3 Hit with object held in hand, shot, knifed	اہ		\si_2	Female		(144)	ı 🔲 All male
1.	4 Hir by thrown object 5 Hit, slapped, knocked down	<u> </u>	\	3.7	on't know		•	2 All female
,	6 Grabbed, held, tripped, jumped, pushed etc		4	` _;				3 Male and female
1	7 Other - Specify	٣,			w old would you say			4 Don't know
80	. What were the injuries you suffered, if any?	7	~ /	>>th	e person was?	ļ	h.	How old would you say the
	Anything else? (Mark all that apply)	\mathcal{A}	(E	1[Under 12			youngest was?
126	I None - SKIP to 10a	- 1	V	2 [7 12-14	[(145)	Under 12 s 21 or over -
-	2 Raped	\			15-17	l	_	2 12-14 3KIP 10) 3 15-17 6 Don't know
	3 Attempted rape 4 Knife or gunshot wounds	/				ļ		4 🗆 18–20
1	5 Broken bones or teeth knocked out	- 1				- [٠,	How old would you say the
İ	s Internal injuries, knacked unceascious	í		5	21 or over)	"	oldest was?
	z Bruises, black eye, cuts, searches, swelling	- 1		6 [Don't know	- 1	(144)	1 🔲 Under 12 👍 🔲 18-20
1	e Other - Specify			c. Wo	s the person someone	e vou		2 ☐ 12-14 5 ☐ 21 or over
1 6	. Were you injured to the extent that you needed	٦			ew or was he a strang			3 15-17 6 Don't know
	medical attention after the attack?	- 1	<u></u>		Stranger	۱ ۱	j.	Were any of the persons known
(127)	1 No - SKIP to 10a	ı	(140)			1		or related to you or were they all strongers?
1	2 Tes	{		, 2	Don't know	SKIP	(147)	All strangers SKIP
	. Did you receive any treatment at a hospital?	- 1		3	☐ Known by	>to e	9	2 Don't know fom
(139)	1 No 2 Emergency room treatment only	- 1			sight only			a ☐ All relatives } SKIP
1	3 Stayed overnight or longer —	j		. 4	Casual Casual	ļ :		4 Some relatives to l
1	How many days?	ı			acquaintance	,	ļ	5 All known
(129)		ļ		5	☐ Weii known	-	1	6 Some known
1-	. What was the total amount of your medical	\neg		,	s the person a relativ	v-	k.	How well were they known?
1	expenses resulting from this incident, INCLUDII	NG]	·		Aonts	**	خا	(Mark all that apply) 1 By sight only
	anything paid by insurance? Include hespital and doctor bills, medicine, therapy, braces, and		6		□ No		(14)	2 Casual SKIP
1	any other injury-related medical expenses.		(11)				ŀ	acquaintance(s) to m
	INTERVIEWER - If respondent does not know				Yes - What relation		ì	₃ ☐ Well known
	exact amount, encourage him to give an estimate	•			2 Spouse or ex	-spause	lı.	How were they related to you?
(Tech	o No cost - SKIP to 10a		1		3 Parent			(Mark all that apply)
1	s <u>00</u>				4 ☐ Own child		(m)	1 Spouse or 4 Brothers/
L	x Don't know		.		5 🔲 Brother or Si	ster	1	ex-spouse sisters 2 Parents s Other -
90	. At the time of the incident, were you covered				6 Other relativ	/e —	Ì	3 Own Specify
1	by any medical insurance, or were you eligible for benefits from any other type of health				Specify 7			children
1	benefits pregram, such as Medicaid, Voterans'	1			•			
1_	Administration, or Cublic Wolfere?	į	1			==		. Were all of them «
100	1 ☐ No · · · · · } SKIP to 10a	.		e. W	es he/she —	1	(150)	1 White?
1	2 Don't know	- 1	W) 1	White?		. س	2 Negro?
1.	a Yes	-4	ľ		── Negre?	SKIP		3 Other? - Specify
י ו	Did you file a claim with any of those insurance companies or programs in order to get part or all	٠			Other? - Specify	_}to	l	
1	of your medical expenses paid?		i	•		120	1	4 Combination - Specify
(13)	t No - SKIP to 10a	- 1	l			· [1	
1	2 TYes	.]		4	Don't know	j	1	5 Don't know

		CRIME INCIDENT O	UESTI	ONS - Continued
. 1	2a.	Were you the only person there besides the offender(s)?		Was a car or other motor vehicle taken?
(13)		1 Yes - SKIP to 13a		CHECK (Box 3 or 4 marked in 13f)
		2 No		ITEM D No - SKIP to Check Item E
	L	How was of these servers and counting neutralif wars		Yes
	٥,	How many of these persons, not counting yourself, were robbed, harmed, or threatened? Do not include persons	Ĺ	
_		under 12 years of age.	14	a. Had permission to use the (car/motor vehicle) ever been
[133)		o None - SKIP to 13a	<u>ش</u>	given to the person who took it?
		Number of servers	(161)	SKIP to Check Item E
	_	Are any of these persons members of your household now?	1	2 Don't know
	٠.	Do not include household members under 12 years of age.	ļ	3 Yes
(13)		o 🗀 No	1	b. Did the person return the (car/motor vehicle)?
		Yes - How many, not counting yourself?	(162)	ı 🗀 Yes
		(Also mark "Yes" in Check Item I on page 12)	 	-
٠,	3	Was something stolen or taken without germission that	i	z No
'	Ju.	belonged to you or others in the household?		is Box I or 2 marked in 13f?
		INTERVIEWER - Include anything stolen from	1	CHECK No - SKIP to 15a
ĺ		unrecognizable business in respondent's home. Do not include anything stolen from a recognizable		ITEM E Y Yes
		business in respondent's home or another business, such	l	
139		as merchandise or cash from a register. 1 Yes ~ SKIP to 13f	1	c. Was the (purse/wallet/money) on your person, for instance,
9		2 No		in a packet ox being held by you when it was taken?
	h.	Did the person(s) ATTEMPT to take zomething that	(63)	T[]Yes
	٠.	belonged to you or others in the household?	L	\$ [<u>Z</u>] No
(155)		1 No - SKIP to 13e		Was only cash taken? (Box 0 marked in 13()
ĺ		2 ☐ Yes		CHECK Yes - SKIP to 160
	c.	What did they try to take? Anything else?	VO)ITEM F
*		(Mark all, that apply)		
(B)		1 Purse 2 Wallet or money	J)	Altogether, what was the value of the PROPERTY
İ		af] Car	N	Ythat was taken?
}		4 Other motor vehicle	$\langle \rangle$	NTERVIEWER - Exclude stolen cash, and enter \$0 for stolen checks and credit cards, even if they were used.
		5 Part of car (hubcap, tape-deck, *C;)		(BAZZE)
		5 □ Don't know	(64)	, <u>W</u>
		7 Other - Specify	ľ	b. How did you decide the value of the property that was
		Did they by to take a purse, wallet,		stalen? (Mark all that apply)
		CHECK or money! (Sort or 2 marked in 13c)	(65)	1 Original cost
		ITEM C THO - SKIP TO 190		2 Replacement cost
,		Yes	1	Personal estimate of current value
İ	ď.	Was the (purse/wallet/monsy) on your person, for		4 Insurance report estimate 5 Police estimate
Ì		instance in a pocket or being held?	1	s ☐ Don't know
(137)		¹ ☐ Yes } SKIP to IBa	1	7 Other - Specify
		2 No		
	٠.	What did happen? (Mark all that apply)		
(B)		i Attacked	16	a. Was all or part of the stolen money or property recovered,
-		2 Threatened with harm	(166)	except for anything received from insurance?
		a Attempted to break into house or garage	w	None SKIP to 17a
		4 Attempted to break into car	1	2 All J
ŀ		to	ł	3 Part
ľ		6 Damaged or destroyed property 180		b. What was recovered?
		7 Attempted or threatened to damage or destroy property	169	500
		B Other - Specify	_	Cash: \$and/or
!				Property: (Mark all that apply)
1			(18)	o Cash only recovered - SKIP to 17a
	ţ.	What was taken that belonged to you or others in	1	1 Turse
199		the household? What else?	l	2 Wallet
ı~		and/or		3 Car
		Property: (Mark all that apply)	1	4 ☐ Other motor vehicle
(M)		o Only cash taken - SKIP to 14c	l.	5 Part of car (hubcap, tape-deck, etc.)
ľ		1 Purse		6 Other - Specify
l		z 🔲 Wallet	l	o Could - Specify
1		3 ☐ Car	l	
		4 Other motor vehicle		c. What was the value of the property recovered (excluding
l		s Part of car (hubcap, tape-deck, etc.)	Ī	recovered cash)?
		s ☐ Other — Specify	(169)	27
<u> </u>			<u> </u>	·

	CRIME INCIDENT	QUESTIONS - Continued
	7a. Was there any insurance against theft?	20a. Were the police informed of this incident in any way?
100	1 □ No } SKIP to 180	1 No 2 Don't know - SKIP to Check Item G
	Z Don't know 3 SKIP to 180	Yes Who told them?
	3 □1 Yes	Household member Someone else SKIP to Check Item G
	b. Wes this less reported to an insurance company?	s Police on scene
(10)	1 [] No	b. What was the reason this incident was not reported to the police? (Mark all that apply)
	2 Don't know SKIP to 18a	(182) 1 Nothing could be done - lack of proof
		2 Did not think it important enough 3 Police wouldn't want to be bothered
	a Yes	4 Did not want to take time — too inconvenient
	s. Was any of this loss recovered through insurance?	s []] Private or personal matter, did not want to report it s []] Did not want to get involved
	Not yet settled SKIP to 18a	7 Afraid of reprisal
1	2 □ No	e Reported to someone else e Other — Specify
1	3 TYes	A Is this person 16 years or older?
1	d. How much was recovered?	CHECK No - SKIP to Check Item H
	INTERVIEWER — If property replaced by insurance company instead of cash settlement, ask for estimate	/ / Tes - A3A 2/0
}	of value of the property replaced.	21a. Did you have a job at the time this incident happened? (183) 1 No 4 SKAP to Check Item H
		2 □ Ye
(73)		b. What was the jeb? Same as described in NCS-3 items 28a-e - SKIP to
	Sc. Did any household member lose any time from work	Check Item H
	because of this incident?	2 Different than described in NCS-3 items 28a-e
103	o No - SKIP to 19a	c. For whom did you work? (Name of company, business, organization or other employer)
l	Yes — Hew many members?	
1		d. What kind of business or industry is this? (For example: TV
1	b. How much time was lost ultegether?	and radio mfg., retail shoe store, State Labor Dept., [arm]
		e. Were you –
100	I Less than I day	188 1 An employee of a PRIVATE company, business or individual for wages, salary or commissions?
	2 1-5 days	2 A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county or local)?
	s 6-10 days	3 SELF-EMPLOYED in OWN business, professional
i .	o Over 10 days	prectice or form? 4 [Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or form?
19	Te. Was enything demaged but not taken in this incident?	f. What kind of work were you doing? (For example: electrica:
) .	For example, was a lock or window broken, clothing damaged, or demage dune to a car, etc.?	engineer, stock clerk, typist, farmer)
(176)	1 No - SKIP to 20a	(18)
۳	2 TYes	 What were your most impurtant activities or duties? (For example: typing, keeping account books, selling cars, finishing concrete, etc.)
	b. (Was/were) the damaged item(s) repaired or replaced?	
m	1 [] Yes - SKIP to 19d	Summarize this incident or series of incidents.
۳		CHECK A
ſ	2 [] No	ITEM H 🗸
ì	c. How much would it cost to repair or replace the damaged item(s)?	
Ì		
100	\$	
_	× Don't know	
	d. How much was the repair or replacement cost?	
100	x [] No cost or don't know - SKIP to 20a	Look at 12c on Incident Report. Is there an entry
1	and the second of the second o	for "How many?" CHECK No
1	\$	ITEM I Yes — Be sure you have an Incident Report for each HH member 12 years of age or over who was
	e. Who paid or will pay for the repairs or replacement?	robbed, harmed, or threatened in this incident,
	(Mark all that apply)	is this the last incident Report to be filled for this person?
(B)	1 Household member	CHECK No - Go to next Incident Report. [TEM] Yes - Is this the last HH member to be interviewed?
	a Landlord	■ No - Interview next HH member.
1	a [] Insurance	Yes - END INTERVIEW, Enter total number of Crime Incident Reports
	4 Other - Specify	filled for this household in item 13 on the cover of NCS-3.
		

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