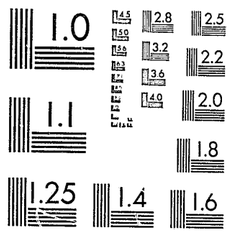




# SOURCES OF DATA THAT IDENTIFY AND MEASURE THE IMPACTS OF ORGANIZED CRIME



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This report was prepared under Grant No. 80-IJ-CX-0066 from the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice, to the Temple University School of Law. Points of view are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect official positions or policies of the National Institute of Justice, the U.S. Department of Justice or Temple University.

This report divides the discussion of indicators that may identify or measure the impact[1] of organized crime into three areas: Community and Quality of Life Measures, Licit and Illicit Business Attributes, and Governance Issues. Within each of these categories, sources of criminal justice[2] and non-criminal justice[3] data are evaluated to determine the extent to which various existing data bases can be used to analyze the impact of organized crime. Several issues emerged upon examining these information systems. The conclusion reviews the problems of and prospects for using today's data systems to ascertain the impact of organized crime on American society.

## COMMUNITY AND QUALITY OF LIFE MEASURES

### A. Public Perceptions of Organized Crime

The impact of organized crime on a community can be examined through public opinion polls. Such surveys can provide data on perceptions of and reactions to those activities designated by the public as involving organized crime. In this context, various questions can be addressed. What activities do respondents deem to be organized crime-related? How do people perceive organized crime's effect on their lives? Do they feel more or less safe with the presence of organized crime in their neighborhood or their city? Do they feel that they benefit or suffer when organized crime distributes goods and services? Does the presence of organized crime affect security precautions taken by respondents? Does organized crime prompt or deter involvement in community affairs? These and other inquiries can be made through public opinion surveys.

National public opinion polls, such as those conducted by Gallup, Harris, and the National Opinion Research Center, regularly ask a number of questions about perceptions of crime (for example, perceived changes in the level of crime in the last year)[4] and reactions to street crimes (for example, precautions taken in response to street crimes).[5] These questions rarely are directed toward any specific crime. In 1978, however, a Gallup survey asked whether organized crime would become involved in casino gambling, if it were legalized in the respondent's state. Over three-quarters of the respondents answered affirmatively.[6]

At the local level, there have been surveys that probed the role of organized crime in a specific community.[7] Unlike national polls, which offer a continuing data base by repeatedly asking the same questions, local polls (including those focusing on organized crime) are often conducted only once. The major advantage of local surveys is that, since the information is specific to the community, local officials can more carefully target their investigations. National surveys cannot provide local officials with such specific information.

Self-report surveys have been conducted nationally on topics such as drug use and gambling.[8] Some of the drug use surveys are made on an annual basis. One major gambling survey was done in conjunction with a commission investigation. Although both drugs and gambling have been considered traditional organized crime activities, these self-report polls have not generally inquired about the connection, if any, between organized crime and drugs or gambling. By incorporating questions about such connections, these specific subject surveys could assess the impact

of organized crime's provision of such goods and services.

In summary, three types of polls might be used to examine the impact of organized crime on the public. National surveys could add questions dealing with organized crime without altering polling methodology. By repeatedly asking such questions, a continuing data base would be developed. Local public opinion surveys could provide law enforcement and prosecutors with systematic data on organized crime activities in their jurisdictions, beyond what is obtained from informants. Finally, topical surveys could also be potential sources of data, if questions tapped organized crime's role.

B. Measures of Community Stability

Some have suggested that the activities of organized crime affect the composition and strength of a city or neighborhood. To investigate whether there is such a relationship, changes in stability factors could be explored in light of the presence of organized crime. A variety of questions could be examined through analyses of predominantly non-criminal justice data sets.

Employment characteristics may be considered one measure of community stability. Is there any connection between organized crime and patterns of lawful employment in a city or neighborhood? Does the existence of organized crime in a community provide a primary or an alternative career ladder for residents? Does organized crime divert candidates from legitimate occupations? Does organized crime offer those without legitimate options an alternate career ladder? Does organized crime stop or stall the deterioration of a neighborhood through its employment network?



Employment and unemployment figures are available from the federal government on a nationwide basis.[9] Fluctuations in work force participation by type of employment could be correlated with the presence or absence of organized crime.

Specific information on illicit employment opportunities has been generally obtained from case histories of organized crime figures.[10] Informants, police officials, and others have described organized crime networks, including the duties of various positions and estimates of the number of people employed at each level of the hierarchy.[11] These sources today represent the only data on organized crime employment patterns. Those criminal justice data sets that include prior employment information (for example, computerized presentence report information and admission to prison data[12]) do not and probably would be unable to describe the illicit employment histories of offenders. One way to obtain such employment histories would be self-report surveys of offenders whose responses would be anonymous. Until this type of survey is conducted, data on illicit employment opportunities will be based on the impressions of a few individuals.

In addition to employment, other measures can be used to gauge community stability. These factors focus on the demographic characteristics of residents and attributes of the neighborhood. The Bureau of the Census, through its decennial census, collects information in these two areas.[13] The relationship of resident factors such as age, sex, race, and marital status to the presence of organized crime could be calculated. Other variables that could be correlated with the the presence of organized crime are items measuring neighborhood

viability; new housing starts, the turnover of home-ownership, rental versus ownership of property, assessed value of property, and property abandonment all indicate community stability and vitality. Some of these factors are collected by the Bureau of the Census or by other national organizations.[14] However, when local governments collect this type of information, the data may not be gathered on a regular basis and are often not aggregated in a manner useful for research purposes. Nonetheless, when this type of data is available in a central depository or can be collected from local governments, correlational analyses can be made of the relationship between organized crime and community stability.

C. Provision of Public Sector Services

Although the impact of organized crime on public sector services is difficult to measure, one might be able to study the relationship between quantifiable characteristics of education, housing, transportation, and health care and the presence of organized crime. If there is a relationship, the question might be posed whether that effect is beneficial or detrimental in a predictable way. Various measures of the quality of these services would be available on a city-specific basis. Sources of data would include the agencies providing the services, special investigative media or academic reports, and professional associations. Occasionally, reports to federal agencies, such as the Department of Housing and Urban Development, provide information on a nationwide basis regarding those agencies receiving subsidies for services. The method of measuring the quality of services would, of course, vary by the type of service.



Educational systems might be evaluated using statistics such as the proportion of the community sending children to public schools, salaries of teachers, cost of books per pupil, and number and length of teacher strikes. To measure the quality of public housing, the number of units, vacancies, waiting lists, evictions, and the like, could be used. In the area of transportation, quantitative measures include fare rates, breakdowns per miles travelled, and ridership. The number of specialists, the number and type of medical practices started and ended, number of hospital beds, and similar factors might be used as indicators of the quality of community health care.[15]

As noted above, these types of measures would generally be available on a city-by-city basis. This decentralization of the data bases would result in definitions, categories, completeness, and other aspects of data collection varying from city to city. Generalizations based on comparisons between cities would have to be qualified because of these variations. However, the major obstacle to examining the relationship between organized crime and public sector services would be the difficulty of obtaining the data from each location under study.

## LICIT AND ILLICIT BUSINESS ATTRIBUTES

### A. Licit Businesses

Systematic investigation into organized crime's impact on legal businesses poses difficult problems in a number of respects. For clarity, this section of the report is organized into four areas. First, the relationship of the characteristics of the commercial community to the presence of organized crime is discussed.

The possibilities of directly addressing the impact of organized crime on business decisions are then explored. The alternatives for examining organized crime's infiltration into licit businesses are reviewed, followed by an inquiry into data sources on union activities associated with organized crime.

Are the characteristics of individual businesses (the size, type, and solvency of commercial, industrial, and service businesses) or the general business community (profits, productivity) correlated with the presence of organized crime? Data applicable to this question are available from publications of professional trade associations, local and state departments of commerce and revenue, the U.S. Department of Commerce, local chambers of commerce, and quasi-public agencies involved in a city's or state's economic development. Data on many general aspects of commerce are available on a nationwide basis.[16] For example, the number of employees in each industry is centrally collected and could be used for this type of analysis. If very detailed information is sought, one would have to look to the specific locations being studied. Although a number of agencies, such as those just listed, might be checked for information,[17] this search could be time consuming and may not provide comparable information from different locales.

Information on relocation, expansion, and termination of firms is generally available from city or state agencies such as economic development agencies and from surveys of businesses.[18]



Although aggregate data could be correlated with the presence of organized crime, surveys would offer a more direct approach. A planning agency may survey businesses to determine which factors affect decisions to remain in or leave a community. In these surveys, crime is typically treated as a unidimensional phenomenon, preventing attribution of business decisions to the presence of organized crime. Minor additions to these surveys could provide the opportunity to explore systematically organized crime's effect on business decisions.

Is there a source of information that can gauge organized crime's infiltration into legitimate businesses? Is there a way to identify industries that have been or are likely to be co-opted by organized crime? Does organized crime's association with a business make a difference in the quality or delivery of goods and services? Other than by relocating, which was discussed above, how do businesses without organized crime affiliations react to businesses with perceived organized crime ties?

Informants and electronic surveillance have provided evidence of organized crime's involvement in licit business enterprises.[19] These sources have revealed organized crime's ventures into the garbage industry and trucking industry. Based on these sources, which hardly supply systematic, continuous data, police and prosecutors estimate the impact of organized crime's infiltration into legitimate businesses. Criteria may include the price of goods and services or impressions of the quality of products before and after organized crime's involvement. To the extent that such measures can be quantified, officials could develop a data base on the subject.

Standardization of criteria across cities could result in a multi-city data set useful in researching the question of organized crime's impact on businesses that have been infiltrated.

One view of the role of organized crime in legitimate businesses might be obtained through bankruptcy filings. Aggregate data at the national level would not be useful for this project,[20] but individual filings could provide evidence of a relationship between organized crime and that business. A close examination of cases of bankruptcy fraud might also suggest the enterprises infiltrated by organized crime.

Organized crime's involvement in a legitimate business may have a secondary impact on other businesses. For example, bankruptcy scams and insurance fraud may lead to redlining by banking and insurance institutions of certain areas of the city, certain groups, or particular industries. Information on such practices may be derived from reports filed by banks on their patterns of loans and mortgages and from rate information filed by insurance companies.[21] However, a clear relationship between these banking and insurance practices and organized crime would be difficult to discern from these data.

The last part of this section on organized crime's impact on licit businesses focuses on labor. The impact of organized crime on union activities has been documented by evidence obtained from electronic surveillance, testimony given during congressional hearings, and prosecutions for various crimes.[22] Aggregate data on indictments and convictions for illegal labor activity are available from the



Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts.[23] Electronic surveillance and informants do not provide continuous sources of uniform data. Thus, there does not appear to be a systematic source of information on organized crime's effect on union pension funds, strikes, contract negotiations and settlements, union subcontracts with other organizations, and the extent and nature of an industry's unionization.

B. Organized Crime's Involvement in Illicit Activities

The criminal justice system has three information networks that collect data on the types of crimes committed. At the local level, police departments enumerate the offenses that are known to them. Nationally, information on eight major crime categories are included in the Federal Bureau of Investigation's annual Uniform Crime Reports. Data are compiled from reported crimes and are presented by city and state. Finally, victimization surveys, conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Department of Justice, provide national estimates of personal and household victimizations, but are not limited to reported offenses, as are police data. Victimization data are based on samples of households throughout the United States and are not currently available by city or state. Can organized crime's involvement in crime be identified through an analysis of these three data sets?

Gambling, prostitution, narcotics, and loansharking are crimes traditionally associated with organized crime. Victims/participants are often reluctant to report or testify about these activities. Consequently, local police statistics underestimate the level of these activities. Even if such figures reflect behavior in a predictable way, the categories are too broad to assess organized crime's involvement.

At the national level, the Uniform Crime Reports and the victimization surveys do not even include these crime categories. As a result of these problems, major areas of organized crime activity escape systematic scrutiny.

But what about those criminal activities that are included in the Uniform Crime Reports and victimization surveys? Can these data bases be used to examine any areas of criminal activities involving organized crime? Unfortunately, the answer is no. Although criteria can be developed to identify crimes as organized crime-related,[24] none of the data bases accessible to the public for research contain such criteria. The lack of detail in local and national data sets effectively precludes the study of offenses involving organized crime. In the absence of indicators of organized crime-related offenses in existing data sets, there would have to be a search of police reports to obtain this type of information.

In collecting data on arrests, police classify the information by the type of crime and the demographic characteristics of the arrested population. Categories of offenses typically do not differentiate arrests for organized crime-related offenses from other arrests. The Uniform Crime Reports tabulates arrests for over two dozen offense categories. The addition of organized crime indicators to the records sent to the Federal Bureau of Investigation would enhance the research potential of the arrest data set.

Prosecution information is available from statewide court administrative offices, courts, and local prosecutors' offices. Some reporting systems only collect processing information about cases, such as the number of indictments, dismissals, and trials. Other data sets



include offense and offender characteristics, but for the most part the categories are not very detailed. Although a national reporting system comparable to the Uniform Crime Reports has not been developed, prosecutors' offices throughout the United States have begun to adopt versions of PROMIS (Prosecutor's Management Information System), a computerized data bank for prosecutors. Federal prosecutors will soon receive versions of PROMIS.[25] Although these prosecutor data bases generally do not indicate organized crime cases, the addition of this information would not require a major alteration of data collection procedures and would assist prosecutors in tracking these particular cases.

Conviction and disposition information, which may be collected by the same agencies that collect prosecution data, may also be obtained from probation departments and departments of corrections. At both the federal and state level, these data are not useful for studying organized crime because categories are broad and lack indicators of organized crime associations.

Another potential source of information on organized crime's criminal activities is a computerized presentence report file. Most files contain only basic information and do not separate organized crime-related cases from other cases. On occasion, a special survey is undertaken of presentence reports (for example, for sentencing guidelines studies or pretrial alternative projects) and these situations may present an opportunity to include organized crime indicators. In lieu of a computerized data system, reports could be inspected to identify organized crime cases.

A major source of evidence about the activities of organized crime has been and continues to be information derived from electronic surveillance.[26] With some exceptions (such as when one party consents to an interception), federal and state prosecutors in jurisdictions permitting electronic surveillance must seek judicial approval before intercepting wire or oral communication.[27] In addition, federal law requires that information on the nature, type, placement, cost, and duration of devices (phone wires and microphone/eaves-drop) be submitted to the Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts.[28]

Unfortunately, none of the data required by federal law permits one to distinguish organized crime-related cases from other types of cases. The Administrative Office has also not required any distinguishing data. Once again, although indicators would not be difficult to devise, they have not been, and consequently, these data cannot be used to study the activities of organized crime.

U.S. Attorneys must file requests with the Department of Justice for immunity for federal crimes.[29] Although the published information is not useful for research purposes,[30] a study of applications for immunity could provide one source of data on cases involving organized crime figures. Federal and local grand jury proceedings may contain information on organized crime. However, these proceedings are confidential and are not intended to provide quantifiable research data on the impact of organized crime. Nevertheless, when the confidentiality problem is put aside, grand jury transcripts are potential sources of data on the impact of organized crime.



As noted in the previous section on licit businesses, informants provide law enforcement and prosecutors with evidence on the activities of organized crime. Because crime data rarely reveal the criminal activities of organized crime, law enforcement officials, prosecutors, and researchers must rely on informants for data on organized crime's illicit activities. Data from informants are typically qualititative, describing specific targets, individuals or industries, and therefore do not provide continuous or standardized information. Nevertheless, evidence from informants may aid researchers in designing studies that will yield continuous and standardized data.

In summary, criminal justice data bases do not directly identify and measure the impact of organized crime on illegal business enterprises. Aggregate data bases typically do not differentiate organized crime-related cases from other cases. Although primary sources of data, such as police files, wiretaps, and presentence reports, are possible avenues for research on organized crime's illicit activities, examining these sources would be time consuming and would not provide continuous data. A better method would be to add indicators to already-existing computer data systems (for example, the Uniform Crime Reports and PROMIS); these additions would not disrupt these systems. Building on existing standardized data bases would establish a continuous information system that would be amenable to multijurisdictional studies of the impact of organized crime.

## GOVERNANCE ISSUES

### A. Political Process

Is there any way to document systematically the existence and extent of organized crime's influence on the political process across the United States? Even if organized crime is found to be involved with the political process, can decisions made by the executive, legislative, and judicial branches be connected with organized crime? In this section on the political process, potential approaches to answering these questions are explored.

Recent reforms in the laws on campaign financing have been designed to assure the visibility of those who support candidates for elected public office. These records can be examined to determine whether organized crime figures or organizations with organized crime affiliations publicly support any candidate. Similarly, the record of endorsements by groups, such as unions, can be checked to ascertain whether any groups with organized crime affiliations support particular candidates. Voting patterns (turnout, election irregularities, recounts, and other factors) are available in each community for those wishing to inspect them. Regulations regarding lobbying also make it easier to investigate these activities. The records of public officials are available for analysis too. When direct evidence of organized crime's political activities is not available, the general relationship between the presence of organized crime and these political process factors could be analyzed. Besides these methods of investigating elected officials, the appointment process for important public offices often puts the prospective appointee before public scrutiny; that is,



hearings may be held and information submitted to those considering the confirmation of the candidate for appointment. Information gained from these sources may imply a connection between organized crime and appointees for public office.

Statistics on arrests, prosecutions, and convictions of politicians for crimes related to their positions are public information.[31] These data would have to be linked with other data in order to draw inferences about the impact of organized crime on political corruption.

Even when links to organized crime can be made, conclusions about the overall state of the government would be inappropriate. Although organized crime may have some influence over certain individuals at a particular level of government, its influence may be limited in situations in which decisionmaking involves a group of people, some of whom are not connected with organized crime.

### B. Criminal Justice System

The impact of organized crime on the criminal justice system can be measured in direct costs, such as staff and equipment. This section begins with a discussion of these measures. Other types of impacts, such as police corruption, are more difficult to calculate; nevertheless, possible research methods are described. Next, the impact on the system may be documented in a study of case flow, a comparison of organized crime cases with other cases. Finally, data are suggested that may be useful in analyzing the correlation between organized crime and aggregate processing characteristics.

Organized crime's impact on criminal justice can be calculated by the number of personnel assigned to organized crime. Equipment

purchased specifically for investigating organized crime activities might also be included in these kinds of tabulations. Data on the number of police and prosecutors investigating organized crime would generally be available from most large police departments, district attorneys' offices, and task forces on organized crime. Judicial and correctional personnel probably cannot be counted because they are typically not assigned to certain types of crime or criminals. Determining the size of an investigative force does not necessarily determine the size of the organized crime problem, but it does help to gauge the "cost" of organized crime to the criminal justice system.

Organized crime's interference with law enforcement, prosecution and adjudication, and sentencing is less easily documented than are personnel costs. However, official responses to disclosed corruption can be calculated. For example, arrests of police officers for activities related to their positions are quantifiable measures of police corruption, as are suspensions and dismissals from the police force. Transfers from one unit to another,[32] and demotions and promotions within the police department may also indicate police corruption. The results of judicial disciplinary proceedings are sources of data on judicial misconduct. Unfortunately, data on these official reactions to corruption are not categorized in such a way that a link can be established between organized crime and the misconduct of criminal justice personnel. Furthermore, these data may have to be collected from each agency in each study site because these statistics are not centrally collected.



To assess organized crime's impact on criminal justice officials, primary data from each study site would have to be obtained. Personnel files; transcripts of disciplinary hearings; arrest reports; special investigative commission transcripts, reports, and notes;[33] transcripts of grand jury proceedings; prosecutors' files; and similar sources would probably contain the type of information necessary to establish a connection with organized crime. The lack of these kinds of reports, inaccessibility to these materials, and incomplete information all hinder research in this area.

Self-report surveys of criminal justice officials can provide data on the respondent's misconduct and can specifically probe the role of organized crime in that conduct. In addition, surveys can obtain data on perceptions within various criminal justice agencies on the existence and extent of the problem. To date, this kind of survey has most often focused on police officers,[34] but it also appropriate for pursuing other types of criminal justice corruption.

Self-report surveys can elicit information on individual decisions influenced by ties to organized crime. The link between organized crime and policy decisions would be more difficult to examine because a survey would undoubtedly elicit only perceptions of the factors that have contributed to policies. This conclusion is based on the assumption that police officials are less likely than police officers to reveal that their decisions are affected by organized crime since this evidence of interference would result in a reconsideration of that policy. Whereas the officer and the subject of his or her decision remain anonymous, it is much easier to identify the adminstrators who are

responsible for the policy. And, once a survey has uncovered an organized crime influence on a policy, the policy most likely will be changed.

A survey of residents might also be used to obtain their perceptions of the impact of organized crime on police activities. Respondents could be asked about whether certain types of crimes are highly visible in certain neighborhoods,[35] and whether police are responsive to complaints. The public's views of the factors contributing to this situation would aid officials in discovering the causes of police lethargy, so that officials can take appropriate remedial action.

The impact of organized crime on the criminal justice system can be gauged in other ways. Organized crime cases can be tracked through the system and compared with cases which do not have organized crime ties. For example, organized crime cases and non-organized crime cases can be analyzed in terms of the number of continuances and the reasons given for requesting them. As noted earlier in this paper, case files would have to be examined to isolate those cases related to organized crime activities from those that are not. However, once that identification is made (either through a manual search or through the development of a computerized data base with an organized crime case "signal"), the impact of organized crime-related cases on the system can be evaluated in conjunction with the impact of other cases. In addition, the relationship between the presence of organized crime and the processing productivity of the criminal justice system can be assessed. Most processing elements are collected by individual courts, and/or by



centralized state data systems, and by a national data bank.[36] Bail-setting patterns, indictments and informations, continuances, dismissals, convictions and guilty pleas, mistrials, bench and jury trials, processing time, dispositions, and similar quantifiable measures of system activity can be correlated with organized crime. Interpreting these relationships would reveal if, and in what area, organized crime affects the functioning of the criminal justice system.

C. Management of City and State Functions

Is there a data base that would permit analysis of organized crime's relationship to various city and state governmental operations? If not, what kind of information is collected that might be correlated with the existence of organized crime?

As far as can be determined, there is no data base that focuses on organized crime's effect on governmental functions. However, there are numerous data bases that might be used to examine correlations between different aspects of government activities and the presence of organized crime. The federal government, through a number of agencies, collects information in this area. For example, the Bureau of the Census and the Department of Justice annually produce a report on expenditure and employment data for the criminal justice system.[37] Various private research organizations, such as the International City Management Association, The Northeast-Midwest Institute, The Police Foundation, and others, collect a wide range of information about city, county, and state governments.[38] Information is available on the structure of government, salaries, and job qualifications of public sector personnel (police, fire, sanitation, for example), as well as a multitude of other

aspects of government. These data bases might be examined in conjunction with data on the presence of organized crime.

Detailed information on city functions may not be collected by local governments in a manner that is useful for research. For example, local governments collect data on taxes (abatements, liens, items taxed, amount of tax), contracts (supplies, services),[39] and licensing practices (number, type, locations, fees),[40] but these data may not be computerized or even tabulated. And, even if the data are present, government officials may deny access for research purposes.

At the state level, information on liquor licenses,[41] vehicle registrations, driver's licenses, taxes, and similar items can generally be obtained from the appropriate governmental agency. Private research organizations also regularly obtain data on selected areas from state governments,[42] which could be used for the study of the relationship between organized crime and characteristics of state governments.

CONCLUSION

A number of themes emerged from the examinations of these three areas of organized crime's potential impact on society. In the course of this review, the problems for utilizing existing criminal justice and non-criminal justice data bases were discussed. In addition, the report has also suggested prospects for building on existing data bases. When appropriate, alternatives were described, such as the need to start from scratch with primary data. This conclusion summarizes the problems and prospects of empirically studying the impact of organized crime.



Although a major problem with existing data bases is that they do not include measures of the impact of organized crime, most information systems could remedy this deficiency without major alterations in data collection methods. For example, public opinion polls could add questions on organized crime's impact since they already inquire about other aspects of crime. Criminal justice information systems could narrow categories or add categories in order to isolate organized crime cases from other cases. The costs of these procedures would be small compared to creating an entirely new information system. The continuous nature of these data systems would facilitate examining temporal changes in the impact of organized crime. One disadvantage to national survey samples is that it may be impossible to break down the data into more specific categories; consequently, their usefulness for local prevention and enforcement efforts may be limited.

Informants and electronic surveillance were mentioned throughout this report as major sources of evidence on organized crime activities. These and other sources of information (for example, newspapers, property records, and licensing applications) are difficult to quantify for research purposes. In the course of this report, it was suggested that police attempt to develop criteria to measure the impact of organized crime. A data system of this type could be based on information obtained by the police from these sources. For example, information might be regularly compiled on the price of goods supplied by organized crime. Measures could be refined over time and the usefulness of these informations system could be evaluated periodically.

Because informants and electronic surveillance will probably continue to be important sources of data, attention should be focused on devising a data system appropriate to the type of data that they supply.

This report also referred to the possibilities of analyzing the relationship between the presence of organized crime and the quantifiable aspects of communities, businesses, and government functions. The limitations of this type of analysis should be noted. The existence of a relationship in a statistical sense is not synonymous with showing that organized crime was responsible for the change. Conclusions of a cause and effect relationship would have to be made with caution. Nevertheless, this approach may be the only way to investigate some areas.

In lieu of the alternatives suggested, there is always the option of creating a data system that would address the impact of organized crime. The data system would be based on the collection of data from primary sources, such as presentence reports, police files, and personnel files. Unfortunately, this effort would be time consuming and costly, and would encounter problems that an existing data set would not. Uniform definitions of categories, access to all relevant sources, and cooperation among all the agencies and organizations involved would have to be worked out. Of course, the new data system would be able to isolate organized crime cases, the major problem with current information systems.

The advantages and disadvantages of these research choices should be carefully considered. Without a systematic data base on the impact of organized crime, reducing its impact will be difficult.



FOOTNOTES

1. Despite some overlapping indicators of the two concepts, a distinction can be drawn between the existence of organized crime and its impact. The focus of this report is on identifying and measuring the impact of organized crime. Definitional problems regarding organized crime are beyond the scope of the paper. It is assumed that the existence of organized crime in a specific community can be established in some way (perhaps merely by expert opinion). The presence or absence of organized crime can then be correlated with variations in quantifiable aspects of the community, legal and illegal businesses, and the government.

2. Criminal justice data bases focus on various elements, activities, or events in the criminal justice system, such as arrests and convictions. For annotated bibliographies of criminal justice data sources, see N. Parisi, Sources of National Criminal Justice Statistics: An Annotated Bibliography (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977) and E. Johnson and M. Kravitz, Basic Sources in Criminal Justice: A Selected Bibliography (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978). For other information on criminal justice data, see T. Ketterman, Directory of Criminal Justice Information Sources, 3rd edition (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979).

3. These data sets are primarily designed for non-criminal justice research purposes. For example, the Bureau of the Census' Current Population Reports contains demographic information that can be used in the study of criminal justice issues, but the data were not collected with that specific purpose in mind.

4. In conjunction with the 1972-1973 and 1975 city victimization surveys, the Bureau of the Census administered an attitude questionnaire. Some of the questions paralleled those regularly posed by private polling organizations. The continuous national victimization surveys have not included an attitude component. However, if an attitude section were included, then respondents could be queried about the impact of organized crime.

5. For a summary of public opinion poll data on street crime, see M. Margarita and N. Parisi, Public Opinion and Criminal Justice (Albany, N.Y.: Criminal Justice Research Center, 1979).

6. M. Hindelang, M. Gottfredson, and T. Flanagan, eds., Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics 1980 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981), p. 222.

7. Institute for Social Analysis, A Community Self-Study of Organized Crime. Report prepared for the Criminal Justice Coordinating Council, City of New York, 1973.

8. On drug use, see, for example, L. Johnston, J. Buchman, and P. O'Malley, Drugs and the Nation's High School Students, 1979 Highlights (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980); P. Fishburne, H. Abelson, and I. Crisin, National Survey of Drug Abuse: Main Findings 1979 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980). On gambling, see Commission on the Review of the National Policy Toward Gambling, Gambling in America (Rockville, MD: Public Gaming Research, 1976).

9. See reports issued by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

10. See footnotes in The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Organized Crime (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office,1967). (Hereinafter President's Commission.)

11. See President's Commission, supra note 10, especially the appendices.

12. National surveys of inmates of jails and prisons have included prior employment information. These secondary sources, as well as the original files on the prisoner's employment history, are not useful for a study of illicit employment history. See, for example, U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, Profile of Jail Inmates (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979).

13. Supra note 3.

14. See, for example, National Association of Home Builders, NAHB Econometric Forecasting Service, Total Housing Starts 1978-1980 and Jobs Lost by Region and State (Washington D.C.: NAHB, 1980).

15. H. Lasswell et al., The Impact of Organized Crime on an Inner City Community (New York: Policy Sciences Center, 1972), p. 169.

16. Information on business is available for each state. See U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis, Survey of Current Business (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office). If very detailed information is sought, it would not be available in the national reports.

17. A very useful document available in most municipalities would be the report prepared for the sale of municipal bonds. These bond issue reports would generally be distributed by the local department of revenue.

18. See, for example, City Planning Commission and Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation, Survey of Industry (Philadelphia: City Planning Commission and PIDC, 1975).



19. The experts rely to a great extent on data from informants and electronic surveillance. See comments by participants, Conference. Organized Crime Research Program, February 10, 11, 1982 at Temple University School of Law. Participants discussed the role of informants many times (February 10, pp. 47, 53, 71-72, 98, 211-213, 253-255; February 11, pp. 2, 40). Wiretapping and other forms of electronic surveillance were also mentioned frequently as key sources of data (February 10, pp. 71-72, 128, 211-213; February 11, pp. 11-12, 14). (Hereinafter Transcript.) President's Commission, supra note 10, at 4, 5.

20. Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, Annual Report (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, annual).

21. See Home Mortgage Disclosure Act of 1975, P.L. 94-200, Title III, 89 Stat. 1125, §302-310, as amended P.L. 96-399, Title III, 94 Stat. 1657 (October 8, 1980), 12 U.S.C., §2801 2809.

22. President's Commission, supra note 10, at 5.

23. Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, supra note 20.

24. These criteria could be derived from those factors police use to assign a case to the organized crime unit within the police department.

25. See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, Criminal Justice Newsletter, 13(9), May 10, 1982, p.7.

26. Supra note 19.

27. 18 U.S.C. §2510 et seq.

28. 18 U.S.C. §2519. Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, Report on Applications for Orders Authorizing or Approving the Interception Wire or Oral Communication (Washington D.C.: Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, annual).

29. 18 U.S.C. §6003.

30. See Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Flanangan, supra note 6, at 394.

31. U.S. Department of Justice, Criminal Division, Federal Prosecutions of Corrupt Public Officials, 1970-1978 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1979).

32. Transcript, supra note 19, February 10, at 153, 175, 176, 179; February 11, at 7. The experts noted that transfers could indicate doing a job properly or having been corrupted. See also Pennsylvania Crime Commission, A Decade of Organized Crime: 1980 Report (St. Davids, PA: Pennsylvania Crime Commission, 1980), pp. 97-98.

33. See for example, Knapp Commission, Report on Police Corruption (New York: George Braziller, 1972).

34. A. Simpson, The Literature of Police Corruption, Volume I (New York: John Jay Press, 1977) and N. Duchaine, The Literature of Police Corruption, Volume II (New York: John Jay Press, 1979).

35. Transcript, supra note 19, February 11, at 3.

36. Although the source would vary by the jurisdiction, these types of statistics would be available from city or state court administrations. Although it is possible to collect a wide range of quantifiable data in this area, some jurisdictions may not cross-tabulate basic information, such as the number of informations by the type of crime. Some data, such as reasons for continuances, may not be collected at all. A national data base has been developed for statewide processing characteristics. National Center for State Courts, State Court Caseload Statistics: Annual Report 1977 and 1978 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980).

37. U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of the Census, Expenditure and Employment Data for the Criminal Justice System (Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, annual).

38. There are numerous organizations that regularly conduct surveys that could be used for organized crime research purposes. Illustrative of these sources are: International City Management Association, Municipal Yearbook (Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association, annual); Northeast-Midwest Institute and Northeast-Midwest Congressional Coalition The State of the Region 1981 (Washington, D.C.: Northeast-Midwest Coalition, 1981) and T. Eisenberg, D. Kent and C. Wall, Police Personnel Practices in State and Local Governments (Washington D.C.: Police Foundation, 1973).

39. Transcript, supra note 19, February 10, at 68. The kind of data that might be relevant would be whether the same business consistently underbids for municipal contracts and thus wins the contract.

40. Transcript, supra note 19, February 10, at 110-111. This may include investigating zoning changes and realty companies for patterns, too.



41. Transcript, supra note 19, February 10, at 80-81. Data may be derived from hidden ownership cases which come before the Liquor Commission.

42. Council of State Governments, The Book of the States (Lexington, KY: Council of State Governments, biennial); National Center for State Courts, Quarterly Survey of Judicial Salaries in State Court Systems (Williamsburg, VA: NCSC); Pennsylvania Economy League, State Division, Taxes Paid by Industry: A Comparative Study of State-Local Tax Costs (Harrisburg, PA: PEL, 1974).

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