BJS Data Report, 1988

BJS reports on...

Crime and its characteristics 7

Drug abuse 29

The relationship between delinquency and crime 40

Adolescent court involvement and sentencing 45

Coercion and confidentiality 69

Pricing guide for data and criminal justice information resources 116262
Single copies of any report cited here or any other BJS publications can be ordered from the Justice Statistics Clearinghouse, National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS), P.O. Box 6000, Rockville, MD 20850, toll-free 800-732-3277 (local number 301-251-5500). Please order using NCJ numbers listed in the sources, page 73. Postage and handling are charged for bulk orders.

Public use tapes for BJS data sets and other criminal justice data are available from the National Archive of Criminal Justice Data, P.O. Box 1248, Ann Arbor, MI 48106 (313-763-5010).

The Assistant Attorney General, Office of Justice Programs, coordinates the activities of the following program offices and bureaus: the Bureau of Justice Statistics, National Institute of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, and the Office for Victims of Crime.

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April 1989
Contents

Introduction 1

BJS data collection and analysis 1
BJS publications 2
BJS clearinghouses and report distribution 4

BJS reports on . . . 7

Crime and its characteristics 7
Crime trends 10
The volume and rate of crime 12
Violent crime 13
Victims of crime 14
Elderly victims 15
International crime rates 16
Seasonality of crime 16
Motor vehicle theft 18

Drugs 20
Drug use and criminal offenders 22
Trends in offender drug use 23
Arrests and seizures 24
Prosecution and sentencing of drug law violators 25
Time served in prison by drug offenders 27
Drug offenders in correctional populations 28
Drug offender profiles 29
Public opinion about drugs 30
Drug use in the general population 33

The cost of crime 35
Economic cost of crime to victims 36
Cost of the justice system 36
Trends in justice system spending 38

The public response to crime 40
Reporting crime 41
Fear of crime 41
Public confidence in the criminal justice system 42
Public opinion on crime and punishment 43

Adjudication and sentencing 45
Felony courts 47
Civil and criminal cases filed and disposed 48
Prosecution of felony offenders 49
Indigent defense 50
Federal pretrial release and detention 50
Sentencing practices 51
Sentencing felony offenders 53
Prosecution and sentencing of white-collar offenders 55

Corrections 56
Adult correctional populations 59
Prison and jail crowding 61
Characteristics of prison and jail inmates 62
Characteristics of juveniles in long-term facilities 63
Persons in jail for drunk driving 64
Corrections funding 65
Time served in prison and on parole 66
Capital punishment 67

Federal justice data 69
Privacy, security, and confidentiality of criminal justice data and criminal histories 70

Source notes 73
Introduction

In 1967, The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (the Katzenbach Commission) devoted a chapter to criminal justice statistics. That chapter, entitled "Criminal statistics—An urgently needed resource," began with the following comments:

"Over 30 years ago a distinguished Commission appointed by the President of the United States to study crime and propose measures for its control reported serious deficiencies in essential information at the national level. Calling 'accurate data . . . the beginning of wisdom,' the Wickersham Commission recommended development of a 'comprehensive plan' for a 'complete body of statistics covering crime, criminals, criminal justice, and penal treatment' at the Federal, State, and local levels and the entrusting of this plan at the Federal level to a single agency.

"Had this recommendation been adopted, the present Commission would not have been forced in 1967 to rely so often on incomplete information or to conclude so frequently that important questions could not be answered."

The Katzenbach Commission reissued the recommendation for such a Federal criminal justice statistics agency. Two years later, a modest justice statistics effort was established administratively within the new Law Enforcement Assistance Administration; but it was nearly a decade later, in 1979, when the Justice System Improvement Act established the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) as an agency within the Department of Justice with specific statutory responsibilities to—

• collect, analyze, publish, and disseminate statistics on crime, victims of crime, criminal offenders, and operations of justice systems at all levels of government
• provide financial and technical support to State statistical and operating agencies
• analyze national information policy on such issues as the privacy, confidentiality, and security of criminal justice data and the interstate exchange of criminal records
• provide basic information on crime and justice to the President, the Congress, the judiciary, State and local governments, the public, and the media.

The Bureau of Justice Statistics was reauthorized with additional responsibilities by the Justice Assistance Act of 1984 and the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988.

BJS data collection and analysis

In meeting its statutory mandate BJS has developed more than two dozen major data collection series. The series use a variety of methods that include household interviews, censuses and sample surveys of criminal justice agencies and of prisoners and inmates, and compilations of administrative records.

BJS collects little raw data itself. Rather, it designs collection programs and enters into agreements to collect data with other Federal agencies (such as the U.S. Bureau of the Census), State agencies, private associations, and research organizations.

Introduction

Initial data analysis is performed by the statisticians, criminologists, and social science analysts who serve on the BJS staff. BJS maintains this internal analytic capability to provide the Administration, the Congress, the judiciary, and the public with timely and accurate data about crime and the administration of justice in the Nation.

BJS publications

During fiscal 1988 BJS prepared and published 42 reports, data releases, and user guides.

Bulletins and Special Reports

BJS Bulletins, begun in 1981, present data gleaned from various BJS statistical series. In a concise, easy-to-read format each BJS Bulletin presents the latest information on certain aspects of crime or the administration of justice. Most Bulletins are annual reports, releasing updated information from ongoing BJS statistical series.

BJS Special Reports, begun in 1983, also are aimed at a broad audience. Each issue focuses on a specific topic in criminal justice, often analyzing BJS data in greater depth than possible in the first release of data from a BJS statistical series in a Bulletin or press release.

Press releases

The findings in each BJS Bulletin and BJS Special Report are summarized in a press release to ensure their wide exposure to policymakers and the public. Occasionally, to expedite public communication, press releases alone are used to announce new BJS findings. During fiscal 1988 this was done in March for the first release of 1987 victimization data and in September for midyear prisoner counts.

BJS press releases and reports receive wide coverage in the electronic and print media and are often cited in newspaper editorials. During fiscal 1988 BJS press releases appeared in nearly 4,000 articles in newspapers with circulations totaling in the millions. BJS data stories also are covered routinely by local and network telecasts and radio programs.

Detailed tabulations

BJS also releases detailed tabulations from its data series. These reports often run to more than 100 pages. They contain extensive cross-tabulations of the variables in the BJS data collection series. The reports provide full access to BJS data by persons who find it impractical to use the data tapes. The reports also explain data collection methodology, define terms, and include copies of questionnaires used.

Technical Reports

BJS Technical Reports address issues of statistical methodology and special topics. The content is more detailed and technical than in a BJS Bulletin or Special Report.

Sourcebook

Each year BJS publishes its Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics. This book presents data from nearly 100 different sources in a single easy-to-use reference volume.
Report to the Nation

During fiscal 1988 BJS published Report to the Nation on crime and justice: Second edition. This nontechnical portrait of crime and its victims is in a news magazine format with color graphics and maps. It highlights the latest research and statistics, much of which were developed by BJS.

The report is designed to inform the public, the news media, criminal justice officials, researchers, and students. It answers such questions as: How much crime is there? Is it increasing or decreasing? Whom does it strike? When and where does it happen? Who is committing the offenses? What are we doing about it? How much does the criminal justice system cost?

Along with subjects covered in the first edition, the new report adds facts on—
- high-technology crime
- organized crime
- drunk driving
- laws that govern the civilian use of deadly force
- forfeiture
- sentencing practices and outcomes
- prison crowding
- the privatization of criminal justice functions
- the links between drugs, alcohol, and crime
- other topics.

The fully indexed publication has 134 easy-to-read pages of text, tables, graphics, and maps that update the Bureau's award-winning first edition published in 1983.

Like the first landmark edition, which was the first attempt to describe comprehensively crime and the justice system in a nontechnical format, the second edition was enthusiastically welcomed by the criminal justice community. Each edition was a major work effort of BJS.

A technical appendix to the second edition also was published in fiscal 1988. This 93-page document provides details on the multitude of data sources used in the report, the data used in graphics, and methodological notes relevant to the data in the report.

BJS data reports

Two other statistical overviews, BJS data report, 1986 and BJS data report, 1987, were published during the fiscal year. These reports present highlights of the most current data from the BJS statistical series.

Guides to BJS data

The pamphlet How to gain access to BJS data describes the programs of the Bureau and the availability of data from the various BJS series.

Periodically, BJS publishes Telephone contacts. It lists a wide range of topics in criminal justice and gives the names and phone numbers of the BJS staff members most familiar with each topic.
BJS clearinghouses and report distribution

A total of 744,387 copies of BJS reports were distributed in fiscal 1988, including those printed in earlier years. There are three primary mechanisms by which BJS reports are disseminated.

BJS sends reports to persons who have asked to be on 1 or more of 11 BJS mailing lists to get new reports on specific data series. In fiscal 1988 almost 20,000 persons were on BJS mailing lists. Currently, the mailing list is divided into 11 topical categories of user interest, with between 2,500 and 19,700 names in each category:

• National Crime Survey reports of victimization statistics
• Adult corrections
• Juvenile corrections
• Prosecution and adjudication in State courts
• Drugs and crime
• Justice expenditure and employment
• White-collar crime
• Federal justice statistics
• Privacy and security of criminal history information
• BJS Bulletins and Special Reports
• Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics.

Between 2,500 and 25,000 copies of each BJS report are distributed to the mailing lists depending on the topic and the number of persons signed up for that category. In fiscal 1988 a total of 518,511 reports were distributed in this manner. Persons on the mailing list must notify BJS annually that they are still interested in receiving BJS reports, or their names are purged from the list.

BJS reports also are distributed through the BJS Justice Statistics Clearinghouse. The clearinghouse sends reports in response to a request for a particular title or in response to a general inquiry for information on a specific topic. The clearinghouse also takes copies of BJS reports to professional meetings, where the participants can obtain them at the BJS display.

In fiscal 1988 the clearinghouse distributed 175,000 copies of BJS reports to persons who contacted the clearinghouse, by telephone, mail, or in person. Of these, 77,547 reports were sent to persons with general questions, and another 46,412 were sent to persons who requested a specific report. Other functions of the BJS Justice Statistics Clearinghouse are described below.

Finally, the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS) notifies persons on its mailing list of forthcoming BJS publications. Users then request copies of desired publications; in fiscal 1988 more than 50,000 copies of BJS reports were distributed in this manner. Of the 74,000 persons on the list—

• 72.8% are Federal, State, or local policymakers or criminal justice practitioners
• 14.6% are researchers or academicians
• 12.6% work for professional and community organizations and the media.

To register for the NCJRS or BJS mailing list or to order a BJS report, write to NCJRS, P.O. Box 6000, Rockville, MD 20850, or call 800-732-3277 (in Maryland and the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area, dial 301-251-5500).
Justice Statistics Clearinghouse

To assist persons seeking crime and criminal justice data, BJS supports the Justice Statistics Clearinghouse at NCJRS. The clearinghouse makes available more than 140 BJS publications.

In fiscal 1988 the clearinghouse responded to 6,280 telephone requests for information. Callers to the clearinghouse were:

Federal policymakers and practitioners 6%
State and local policymakers 5
State and local criminal justice practitioners 23
Private organizations 30
Faculty and students 26
Other 10

The BJS representative, who specializes in BJS statistical resources, can be reached toll-free by dialing 800-732-3277 (in Maryland and the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area, dial 301-251-5500).

Data Center & Clearinghouse for Drugs & Crime

BJS established a specialized Data Center & Clearinghouse for Drugs & Crime during fiscal 1988 with funds provided by the Bureau of Justice Assistance. BJS saw the need for easier access to existing data on drug law enforcement and the justice system's treatment of drug offenders and non-drug offenders who are drug users. Until now, persons in need of such data have had to contact many sources throughout Federal, State, and local governments.

The Data Center & Clearinghouse—
• provides easy access to existing data
• evaluates the statistical sufficiency and adequacy of the data for policymaking
• develops analyses in lay language that will help explain the nature of drug enforcement in this country
• is developing a comprehensive report on drugs modeled on the BJS Report to the Nation on crime and justice.

The clearinghouse can be reached toll-free by dialing 800-666-3332; the mailing address is 1600 Research Boulevard, Rockville, MD 20850.

National Archive of Criminal Justice Data

BJS sponsors the National Archive of Criminal Justice Data at the Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research at the University of Michigan. The archive assists users whose needs are not satisfied by published statistics.

All BJS data tapes (covering most of the BJS data series) and other high-quality data are stored at the archive and disseminated via magnetic tapes compatible with the user's computing facility. The archive maintains 250 different criminal justice data sets and provides access to thousands of others. Approximately 50 new data sets are received each year.

The archive can be reached by writing the National Archive of Criminal Justice Data, Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research, P.O. Box 1248, Ann Arbor, MI 48106, or telephoning 313-763-5010.
Introduction

State Criminal Justice Statistics Catalog and Library

With BJS funding, a catalog and library of statistical reports produced by the State criminal justice statistical analysis centers are maintained by the Criminal Justice Statistics Association, 444 North Capitol Street, N.W., Suite 606, Washington, DC 20001; 202-624-8560.

National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Information Systems

BJS also supports the National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Information Systems, 925 Secret River Drive, Suite H, Sacramento, CA 95831; 916-392-2550.

This clearinghouse —
• operates an automated index of more than 1,000 criminal justice information systems maintained by State and local governments throughout the Nation
• issues technical publications
• provides technical assistance and training for State and local government officials
• prepares the Directory of automated criminal justice information systems
• operates the computerized Criminal Justice Information Bulletin Board
• operates the National Criminal Justice Computer Laboratory and Training Center.

During fiscal 1988 the clearinghouse produced, and BJS published, Criminal justice microcomputer guide and software catalogue. This guide and catalogue is designed to assist small or medium-sized criminal justice agencies with little experience in computer technology to define their needs for an appropriate automated system and analyze, evaluate, and score software packages, hardware components, vendors, and services.

The report has two parts and four indexes:
• Part I, the microcomputer guide, describes the basics of computer hardware and software, explains the different ways hardware and software can fit together to solve criminal justice problems, and outlines step by step how to select a system.
• Part II, the software catalogue, describes more than 150 existing proprietary and public-domain software applications designed specifically for use by the criminal justice community, explaining each product's functions and providing contact names and numbers.
• The four indexes categorize the software catalogue entries by vendor or agency, criminal justice discipline, type of microcomputer used, and public domain.

Updates of the software catalogue are issued periodically.
Crime and its characteristics

The extent and nature of crime are prime social indicators. Public officials, criminologists, researchers, and the public use them to assess the effectiveness of policies and programs to reduce crime. Just as key economic indicators measure the health of the U.S. economy, crime indicators measure the safety and security of the American public.

The largest BJS statistical series, and the second largest ongoing survey undertaken by the Federal Government, is the National Crime Survey (NCS). The NCS—
• provides the Nation's only systematic measurement of crime rates and the characteristics of crime and crime victims based on national household surveys
• measures the amounts of rape, robbery, assault, personal larceny, household burglary and larceny, and motor vehicle theft that have touched a representative sample of the U.S. population, whether or not the crimes were reported to the police
• provides details about the characteristics of victims, the victim-offender relationship, and the criminal incident, including the extent of loss or injury and whether the offense was reported to the police
• conducts interviews at 6-month intervals in about 49,000 U.S. households, asking 101,000 persons age 12 and older what crimes they experienced since the last interview
• provides a vehicle for periodic supplements to collect important data that are too costly to collect or are not needed annually.

In March BJS released preliminary victimization rates for 1987. Basically unchanged from 1986, they remained at the lowest level in the 14-year history of the NCS. This report was released on the accelerated schedule, adopted in fiscal 1985, that has reduced the time between the reference year and the release date by 5 months. This earlier release results from methodological work aimed at expediting publication of the data. The American Statistical Association evaluated the preliminary method during the year and endorsed the statistical methodology on which the estimates are based. In October final results confirmed the preliminary estimates. For example, the final rate for crimes of violence was 28.6 per 1,000 persons vs. the preliminary rate of 28.0. The October report did show a 1.8% increase in the overall volume of crime, a change that was not large enough to affect the rates.

In fiscal 1988, for the eighth year, BJS released Households touched by crime, 1987 (BJS Bulletin, May 1988). This NCS indicator showed that victimization by crime—one of the most common negative life events a family can suffer—touched 24% of U.S. households in 1987.

As shown by both the rate and the households-touched-by-crime indicators, persons and households in the northeastern United States were the least and those in the West were the most vulnerable to crime.
In fiscal 1988 BJS developed plans for obtaining information on school crime through an NCS supplement. Data collection on school crime began in January 1989 and will continue for 6 months. Topics covered include extent of school crime, drug use in schools, fear of becoming a crime victim at school, and self-protective measures used by students at school. The NCS supplement program is discussed in the "New initiatives" section of this report.

During the year BJS continued with the National Crime Survey redesign. In July 1986 interviewers began using a new questionnaire with several questions designed to elicit victims' post-victimization experiences with the criminal justice system. Preliminary data from the new questionnaire were analyzed for a fiscal 1989 report; information from the NCS will then be available for the first time on victims' experiences with the criminal justice system.

National pretests of the redesigned questionnaire were conducted in February/March and August/September 1988 and February/March 1989. This questionnaire is expected to better screen for, and therefore yield, greater numbers of difficult-to-measure crimes such as rape and family violence. Major redesign changes to the NCS were introduced in 5% of the sample in fiscal 1989, with full implementation planned for 1991.

Seven reports on criminal victimization were produced in fiscal 1988. Topical NCS reports included—
- **Elderly victims** (BJS Special Report, November 1987)
- **Violent crime trends** (BJS Special Report, November 1987)
- **Motor vehicle theft** (BJS Special Report, March 1988)
- **The seasonality of crime victimization** (May 1988).

Several of these reports combine data over a number of years to allow greater in-depth analysis than possible with a single year's data.

Also released during the year were final 1986 NCS estimates in *Criminal victimization 1986* (BJS Bulletin, October 1987) and *Criminal victimization in the U.S., 1986* (BJS Final Detailed Report, August 1988).

In addition to annual NCS reports, these topical NCS studies are planned for fiscal 1989:
- Hispanic victims
- black victims
- injuries in criminal victimization
- self-protection
- an overview report and a detailed report on the NCS redesign
- new data from the redesigned NCS such as offenders' use of alcohol and drugs, protective actions taken by victims and bystanders, and actions taken by the criminal justice system when a crime is reported.
BJS continued to play a crucial role in the redesigned Uniform Crime Reporting program during fiscal 1988. BJS invited States not already recipients of BJS cooperative agreement awards to apply for redesign funding. Seven States were selected for funding, and awards ranging from $100,000 to almost $390,000 were processed. BJS expects that 10 to 15 States will apply for fiscal 1989 funding to begin the redesign in the State. It appears that by June 1989 BJS will be supporting the redesign in at least 30 States.

BJS also continued its work with the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) in defining data specifications of the new program — now officially identified as the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS). The specifications, released in September 1988, set the stage for substantial activity in the States over the next several years.

In May BJS published its first report on international crime rates. The study focused on homicide, rape, robbery, larceny, burglary, and automobile theft — the crimes most likely to be understood and defined in the same general way from country to country. The data were obtained from the United Nations, the International Police Organization (Interpol), and the World Health Organization (WHO).

This is the first time comparative crime data from the three sources have been compiled in one report. It includes statistics from 41 countries, with emphasis on nations in Europe and the Western Hemisphere.

Most of the statistics are based on crimes reported to law enforcement authorities in each nation. However, differences in criminal justice systems, definitions of offenses, recordkeeping, and methods of reporting statistics make it impossible to compare precisely crime rates in different countries.
Crime trends

About 1.8% more crimes were committed in the United States in 1987 than in 1986. The BJS National Crime Survey estimated that 34.7 million personal and household crimes were committed throughout the Nation during 1987 vs. 34.1 million in 1986.

This rise in personal crimes (rape, robbery, assault, and theft) and household crimes (burglary, household larceny, and motor vehicle theft) ended a 5-year trend of falling crime rates. In 1986 personal and household crimes had fallen to their lowest levels in the survey's 15-year history.

Even with the 1987 increase there were 16% fewer crimes in 1987 than in 1981.

In crimes per 1,000 residents and per 1,000 households few types of offenses showed statistically significant changes from 1986 to 1987. The only violent crime to change significantly was aggravated assault with injury, which fell by 15%.

In 1987 an estimated 29 violent crimes were committed per 1,000 persons age 12 and older; this was 19% lower than the peak of 35 such offenses per 1,000 persons during 1981.

Regionally, between 1986 and 1987 the personal crime rate grew only in the West, where it rose by 8.6%. In the South it fell by 4.8%. In the Northeast and in the Midwest it did not change significantly.
The proportion of households affected by a theft or a violent crime has never shown a year-to-year increase since 1975, the first year for which BJS estimated the number of households touched by crime.

About 1 million fewer households were touched by crime last year than during 1975, even with 18 million more homes now than then.

The improvement was greater among white than among black households. From 1975 to 1987 crime fell by 25% against white households but only by 15% against black households. The main difference was that household thefts from black homes failed to decline.

Black and white households had similar declining trends for violent crimes, personal thefts, and burglaries.

According to several characteristics that measure their severity, violent crimes, especially ones committed by strangers, were no more violent in 1985 than in 1973. Each year during 1973-85—
* about 40% of the people attacked by strangers faced an armed offender
* about 25% of the people attacked by strangers were injured
* the percentage of persons attacked by strangers who were seriously injured or required some medical care did not change significantly.

BJS reports on . . .

The volume and rate of crime

The National Crime Survey reported 34.7 million victimizations for 1987:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal crimes of violence</th>
<th>Number of victimizations</th>
<th>Victimizations per 1,000 population age 12 and older</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>141,000</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>1,030,000</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>4,489,000</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggravated assault</td>
<td>1,543,000</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple assault</td>
<td>2,946,000</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of theft</td>
<td>13,344,000</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household crimes</th>
<th>Number of households</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>5,623,000</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larceny</td>
<td>8,824,000</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle theft</td>
<td>1,479,000</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

People living in the West were significantly more likely to have been victims of personal and household crimes in 1987 than those in other U.S. regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal crimes per 1,000 persons, 1987</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northeast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household crimes per 1,000 households, 1987</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northeast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1987 crime touched 22.3 million households — 24% of all households:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal crimes of violence</th>
<th>Number of households</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>108,000</td>
<td>.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>884,000</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>3,378,000</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggravated assault</td>
<td>1,258,000</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple assault</td>
<td>2,374,000</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of theft</td>
<td>10,074,000</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household crimes</th>
<th>Number of households</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>4,717,000</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larceny</td>
<td>7,236,000</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle theft</td>
<td>1,379,000</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Violent crime

In 1987 a member of almost 5% of all households was a victim of a violent crime.

Violent crime rates are—
• highest against black males overall
• higher against blacks than whites or members of other minority groups
• higher against unemployed persons — whether male, female, white, or black — than employed persons in their respective groups
• higher against males than females
• lowest against white females.

Rates for crimes of violence and theft are highest for young persons age 12 to 24.

Homicide is the second greatest cause of death among men and women between age 15 and 34 (the leading cause is accidents).

At current homicide rates, the lifetime chance of being a murder victim is —
• 1 in 30 for black males
• 1 in 179 for white males
• 1 in 132 for black females
• 1 in 495 for white females.

The violent crime rate rose in the 1970's, but it fell sharply in the 1980's.

Violent victimizations per 1,000 residents age 12 and older were —
• 36 in 1973
• 39 in 1981
• 38 in 1982
• 32 in 1985.

Victims of crime

1986 victimizations per 1,000 persons or households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Personal crimes</th>
<th>Household crimes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Violence Theft</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34 72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21 63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Personal crimes</th>
<th>Household crimes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Violence Theft</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-15</td>
<td>52 110</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-19</td>
<td>61 118</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>59 116</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>34 77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-49</td>
<td>20 61</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-64</td>
<td>6 37</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and older</td>
<td>5 18</td>
<td>78</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Personal crimes</th>
<th>Household crimes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Violence Theft</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>28 68</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>33 62</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>26 62</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Personal crimes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>26 64</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Hispanic</td>
<td>28 68</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Personal crimes</th>
<th>Household crimes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Violence Theft</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than $7,500</td>
<td>49 69</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$7,500-$9,999</td>
<td>34 58</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$10,000-$14,999</td>
<td>36 60</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$15,000-$24,999</td>
<td>26 67</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$25,000-$29,999</td>
<td>26 64</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,000-$49,999</td>
<td>20 70</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50,000 or more</td>
<td>20 87</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>Personal crimes</th>
<th>Household crimes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central city (total)</td>
<td>36 80</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000 or more</td>
<td>27 69</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500,000-999,999</td>
<td>42 90</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250,000-499,999</td>
<td>42 84</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50,000-249,999</td>
<td>37 81</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suburban</td>
<td>24 67</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>26 54</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*For household crimes, age, race, and ethnicity are for the head of household; income is the annual family income.

Victimization rates for crimes of violence and theft—

- were highest for youths age 12 to 24
- decreased as age increased for persons over age 24
- were lowest for the elderly (age 65 and older).

The chance of being a victim of assault is much greater than of being a victim of robbery. The chance of being a victim of robbery is much greater than of being a victim of rape.

Overall, household crime victimization was highest for black households.

Based on the number of vehicles owned, motor vehicle theft rates were higher against heads of black households than against whites or members of other minority groups.

Household victimization rates increase with the size of the household. The total victimization rate was higher for persons in households of six or more persons than for individuals in smaller households.

Elderly victims

Americans age 65 and older are much less likely to become crime victims than are younger people, but when they do occur, crimes against the elderly tend to be more serious.

Between 1980 and 1985 the elderly were crime victims less often than people in any other age group in the United States.

Offsetting their lower victimization rate is that, in a number of respects, crimes against the elderly are more serious than are crimes against younger people. For example—
- elderly violent crime victims are more likely to face offenders with guns than are younger victims (16% vs. 12%)
- 20% of violent crime victims age 75 and older required medical treatment after a completed or an attempted rape, robbery, or assault, compared to 11% of violent crime victims who were age 65 to 74 and 13% of violent crime victims younger than age 65.

Elderly and young victims differ in other ways:
- The elderly are more likely than younger violent crime victims to be attacked by strangers (62% vs. 47%).
- Violent crimes against the elderly are more likely to occur at or near their homes than are such offenses against younger victims (45% vs. 22%).

The only crime that the elderly suffered at about the same rate as other age groups was personal larceny with contact, that is, nonforcible purse snatching and pocket picking.

Among men and women of at least age 65, males, blacks, the divorced, the separated, and residents of central cities had the highest rates of being crime victims.

Source: Elderly victims.
International crime rates

Violent crimes were far more common in the United States than in Europe during the early part of this decade. Murders, rapes, and robberies were reported to the police at rates 4 to 9 times higher in the United States than in Europe during the early 1980's.

Rates for other crimes also were higher in the United States, but the difference in property crime rates was not as great. For example, in 1984, the most recent year with comparative data, the U.S. burglary rate was 20% higher than in Europe, and U.S. rates for auto theft and larceny were about double the average in Europe.

U.S. rates for violent crime also were higher than in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, but the differences were smaller than those with Europe. For burglary and auto theft the U.S. rates were similar to those for the three countries.

Between 1980 and 1984 the rate for crimes reported to the police in the United States fell for each offense studied, except rape. The decreases ranged from 12% for auto theft to 24% for burglary. In contrast, the average crime rates for Europe and for Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, collectively, increased for all crimes except for murder, for which there was insufficient data to make reliable comparisons.

Source: International crime rates.

Seasonality of crime

Seasonality in the occurrence of crime has been noted by many observers. It is seen, for example, in National Crime Survey data. Some NCS crimes show greater seasonal fluctuation than others, and some show different seasonal patterns than others.

The usual seasonal pattern is for high-crime months to occur in summer and low-crime months in winter. Among significant exceptions to this pattern are robbery, purse snatching, and pocket picking, which peak in December.

Crimes that show the most seasonal patterns are household larceny, rape, and unlawful entry.

Crimes that show the least seasonal patterns are personal larceny without contact (of $50 or more), motor vehicle theft, robbery, forcible entry, and simple assault.
Violent crime victimization rates, 1973–84

Number of victimizations per 1,000 population age 12 and over

Rape

Robbery

Aggravated assault

Simple assault

Note: Victimization rates for rape are displayed on a different scale from the other crimes.

Source: The seasonality of crime victimization.
Motor vehicle theft

The National Crime Survey estimates that 12,338,000 motor vehicles were stolen from 1973 through 1985 and that 7,097,000 more such thefts were attempted. About 62% of the stolen vehicles were recovered.

Total losses from motor vehicle thefts from 1973 through 1985 were about $52 billion in 1985 dollars — before vehicle recoveries and reimbursements by insurance companies. The net loss to owners after vehicle recoveries was almost $29 billion. After insurance payments it was $16.1 billion.

Half the incidents involved a loss of $2,455 or more before recoveries and insurance payments. About 10% involved losses of $10,000 or more. After insurance reimbursements and recoveries, half the incidents involved a net loss of $242 or more.

The vehicle stolen in 76% of the thefts was an automobile. The rest included trucks, vans, and motorcycles. Boats, airplanes, snowmobiles, and all-terrain vehicles were excluded from the study.

In 7% of the completed and 4% of the attempted thefts, the vehicle was in a garage at home. In 3% to 4% of completed or attempted thefts the vehicle was in a commercial parking lot.

The thefts, whether attempted or completed, most often occurred at night and most often near the victim's home, in a noncommercial parking lot, or on the street.
About 87% of the completed and 36% of the attempted motor vehicle thefts were reported to the police. Reporting rates increased with the value of the stolen property. The National Crime Survey estimates that 37% of all crimes in the survey are reported to police, as are 50% of all violent crimes.

The most likely victims of completed or attempted motor vehicle theft were blacks, Hispanics, households headed by people under age 25, people living in multiple-dwelling units, central city residents, and low-income households.

People age 55 and older, people who own their own homes, and rural households were less likely than others to be victims of motor vehicle theft.

Source: Motor vehicle theft.
Drugs

Many BJS programs produce data on drug law enforcement, drug offenders, and drugs and crime. For example —

* court processing studies compare sentences given to drug offenders with those given to other offenders;
* reports on State prisoners, jail inmates, and incarcerated youth include data on their histories of drug use and drug offenses;
* the second edition of Report to the Nation on crime and justice adds drug statistics not covered in the first edition;
* the annual BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics presents data on drug use in the general population and on public opinion toward drugs and enforcement of drug laws;
* the National Conference on Punishment for Criminal Offenses, November 1987, released findings from a BJS public opinion poll of American attitudes on the seriousness of various drug and non-drug crimes and on appropriate punishment for persons committing them.

During fiscal 1988 BJS published five Special Reports and one Bulletin with information on drug use and crime and on drug law enforcement:

* Time served in prison and on parole, 1984 (BJS Special Report, December 1987) compared the amount of time served by drug offenders vs. other offenders;
* Profile of State prison inmates, 1986 (BJS Special Report, January 1988) revealed that more than a third of State prison inmates had been under the influence of a drug at the time of their offense;
* Tracking offenders, 1984 (BJS Bulletin, January 1988) presented Offender-Based Transaction Statistics (OBTS) data on crimi-
The Data Center & Clearinghouse for Drugs & Crime has two major components: Data user services and data analysis and evaluation.

Data user services include —
• determining the specific needs of policymakers, government officials, and others in need of drug data
• assembling drug enforcement data reports and announcing their availability through the clearinghouse
• maintaining a toll-free 800 number staffed with qualified statistical personnel
• filling requests for specific drug enforcement data reports
• advising users of the availability of the data they seek and suggesting alternative sources when the requested data are not available.

Data analysis and evaluation include —
• evaluating existing drug data for statistical quality and utility for policymaking and reporting on methodological flaws
• identifying gaps in drug data
• preparing special analyses of existing drug data to inform Federal policymakers on topics of immediate Federal drug policy concern
• preparing a comprehensive report (modeled on the BJS Report to the Nation on crime and justice) that will assemble drug data from various sources into a single, easy-to-understand, comprehensive, and readily available reference volume.

During fiscal 1988 the Data Center & Clearinghouse —
• prepared Drugs and crime: A guide to BJS data (February 1988); it presents existing BJS data on the subject from diverse BJS reports
• developed a conference display for use at professional meetings
• produced and widely distributed a brochure describing the Data Center & Clearinghouse
• developed and widely distributed a Rolodex card with the clearinghouse address and toll-free telephone number
• mailed personalized letters announcing the opening of the clearinghouse to all governors, State attorneys general, State criminal justice planning and statistical agencies, criminal justice editors, and public interest groups
• held meetings of potential clearinghouse users and researchers and statisticians working with drug and crime data
• made courtesy calls to Federal drug agencies
• developed an outline for the Report to the Nation on drugs and crime, selected authors and reviewers, and began research and writing.

The Data Center & Clearinghouse began operations on October 1, 1987, and is currently funded for 2 years. The toll-free line, 800-666-3332, became operational in January 1988.

Other BJS drug-data initiatives include:
• the National Crime Survey (NCS) redesign (discussed in the "BJS reports on ... crime and its characteristics" section) added a question during fiscal 1986 on apparent drug use on the part of the offender; these data will be released in fiscal 1989
• the National Judicial Reporting Program (discussed in the "New initiatives" section) collected data on drug offenders and is preparing a report for fiscal 1989 publication on the sentences handed down to these and other felony offenders.
Drug use and criminal offenders

Data from BJS surveys show the extent of drug and alcohol use by State prisoners, jail inmates, and youth in long-term, State-operated juvenile facilities at the time of the offense for which they are incarcerated and at other times in their lives. These incarcerated adults and youth report high levels of drug use:

- 75% of jail inmates, 79.5% of State prisoners, and 82.7% of youth in long-term public juvenile facilities had used drugs at some point in their lives.
- A third of State prisoners, a quarter of convicted jail inmates, and two-fifths of the incarcerated youth said they had been under the influence of an illegal drug at the time of their offense.

Most State prison inmates (54%) in 1986 reported that they were under the influence of drugs or alcohol or both at the time they committed the offense for which they were currently sentenced — 17% were under the influence of drugs only; 18% were under the influence of drugs and alcohol. More than half (52%) of the State prisoners said they had taken illegal drugs during the month before committing the crime, and 43% said they had used drugs on a daily basis in that month.

Three-fourths of all jail inmates in 1983 reported using illegal drugs at some time in their lives —
- 72% used marijuana
- 38% used cocaine
- 32% used amphetamines
- 27% used barbiturates
- methaqualone, LSD, and heroin each had been used by more than a fifth of the inmates.

Nearly 83% of youth in long-term, State-operated juvenile facilities in 1987 reported use of an illegal drug in the past, and 63% had used an illegal drug on a regular basis. The most commonly mentioned drugs were marijuana, cocaine, and amphetamines. Almost 40% of the incarcerated youth said they were under the influence of drugs at the time of their offense.

Among State prisoners —
- drug offenders and burglars were the most likely to have been under the influence of drugs at the time of the offense
- 19% had used a major drug (heroin, cocaine, PCP, or LSD) daily in the month before the offense for which they were imprisoned, and 70% of these (13% of all inmates) were convicted of a crime for gain (including robbery, burglary, drug trafficking, and larceny)
- half of those sentenced for robbery, burglary, larceny, or a drug offense were daily drug users, and about 40% were under the influence of an illegal drug when they committed the crime — a higher proportion than for inmates convicted of other crimes
- male inmates were somewhat more likely than female inmates to use drugs
- the proportion who used heroin was somewhat greater among women than men.
The convicted jail inmates most likely to have used drugs just prior to the offense were drug offenders and property offenders.

In 1986, 28% of prison inmates reported a past drug dependency. The drugs most often mentioned were heroin (14%), cocaine (10%), and marijuana or hashish (9%).

In 1986, 30% of prison inmates reported that they had participated in a drug treatment program at some time — 12% more than once. About half the inmates who had participated in a program had received their most recent treatment while incarcerated.


Trends in offender drug use

Between 1978 and 1983 the proportion of all jail inmates —
* who reported using illegal drugs at some time in their lives grew from two-thirds to three-fourths
* who ever used heroin fell
* who ever used cocaine and marijuana grew.

Between 1974 and 1986 the proportion of State prisoners —
* under the influence of an illegal drug at the time of the offense for which they were incarcerated grew from 32% to 35%
* under the influence of cocaine at the time of the offense grew from 1% to 11%
* under the influence of heroin fell from 16% to 7%.

More than half the State prisoners who had ever used a major drug (heroin, methadone, cocaine, PCP, or LSD) reported that they had not done so until after their first arrest. Nearly three-fifths of those who had used a major drug regularly said such use began after their first arrest — 51% not until more than a year after.

For the typical State prisoner who used drugs —
* first use of any drug occurred at age 15
* first use of a major drug occurred at age 17
* first regular use of a major drug began at age 18.

First use and first regular use of major drugs began an average of 2 years earlier among white than among black inmates.
Among drug-using youth in long-term, State-operated juvenile facilities, 19% said they first used drugs before age 10; 38% reported their first use was before age 12.


Arrests and seizures

Federal, State, and local agencies share responsibility for enforcing the Nation's drug laws. Most drug arrests are made by State and local authorities (more than 690,000 such arrests were reported in 1986), but 21,188 drug suspects were arrested by the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) and the FBI during the Federal fiscal year ending September 30, 1986. Federal agents took part in joint Federal/State efforts leading to the arrest of suspects by State or local officials.

As reported in the BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics, 1987—
• the Federal Government seized 3,365 clandestine drug laboratories between 1975 and 1987
• in 1987, 682 labs were seized; 561 of them were used to manufacture methamphetamines
• in 1987, DEA's program for eradicating domestic marijuana resulted in the destruction of 113 million plants.

Prosecution and sentencing of drug law violators

Of all persons or organizations referred to U.S. Attorneys during the Federal fiscal year ending September 30, 1986, 20% were suspected of drug law violations. Among the suspected drug offenders —

- 87% were alleged to have distributed or illegally manufactured drugs
- 9% were suspected of importing drugs
- 4% were suspected of simple possession.

During the period, criminal charges were filed against 80% of all suspected drug offenders in matters referred to U.S. Attorneys. This was a higher rate than for any other crime category.

The number of persons convicted of violating Federal drug laws rose to 12,285 in 1986 from 5,244 in 1980. This 134% increase exceeded the 27% growth in U.S. court convictions for other Federal crimes during the same years.

More than three-fifths of the Federal drug law offenders convicted during 1986 had been charged with heroin or cocaine violations. Such convictions rose 190% between 1980 and 1986.

The percent of convicted Federal offenders charged with drug violations who were sentenced to jail or prison terms rose from 71% to 77% during the 6-year period, and the average sentence length grew 33% from less than 4 years to more than 5 years.

The average prison sentence for convicted offenders charged with Federal drug violations was longer than for all other offenses except violent crimes.

Average sentence length for persons sentenced to Federal prisons for drug and non-drug offenses, 1986

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Average Length of Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-drug offenses</td>
<td>44 mos.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General property</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraudulent property</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulatory</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public-order</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug offenses</td>
<td>61 mos.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution/ manufacture</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importation</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General trafficking/ miscellaneous</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Federal sentences for drug offenses are longer than in the past. The average Federal prison sentence for drug offenses rose from 3 years 10 months in 1980 to 5 years 1 month in 1986 — a rise of 33%, a higher percent increase in average sentence length than for all offenses combined (24%).

A study of 28 local jurisdictions found that 67% of the persons convicted of drug trafficking were sentenced to some kind of incarceration — 27% of them to incarceration for at least 1 year. This may reflect the small amounts of illegal drugs (sometimes only ounces) needed to allow a defendant to be charged with "possession with intent to sell" rather than possession only. This could mean that relatively minor cases are pulling down the percentage sentenced to incarceration.
BJS reports on ...

Percent of convicted felons sent to prison in 28 local jurisdictions, 1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Convicted Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggravated assault</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larceny</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug trafficking</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the 28 jurisdictions the average prison sentence lengths were—
- 157 months for rape
- 104 for robbery
- 81 for aggravated assault
- 65 for burglary
- 56 for drug trafficking.

Average minimum time to be served by persons admitted to prison in 33 States, 1984

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Time Served (mo.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All offenses</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficking</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other drug</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public-order</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Disposition of felony arrests in 11 States, 1984

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arrest offense</th>
<th>Prosecuted</th>
<th>Convicted</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>For more than 1 yr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Violent</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public-order</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1984, of adults arrested for felony drug offenses in 11 States—
- 78% were prosecuted
- 54% were convicted
- 35% were sentenced to incarceration — 10% for more than 1 year.

Time served in prison by drug offenders

Typically, only part of the sentence handed down by the court is actually served in prison.

Median time served by persons released from State prisons, 1984

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Time served in prison</th>
<th>Percent of sentence in confinement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>17 mos.</td>
<td>45.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficking</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public order</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average time served by Federal prisoners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Average time served</th>
<th>Percent of sentence served</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>43.3 mos.</td>
<td>59.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>49.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weapons</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monetary crimeb</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>63.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 38.5-month average time served by Federal drug offenders was about 59% of their court-ordered maximum sentences. Offenders who received sentences of between —

- 1 and 5 years served an average of 2 years 1 month (70% of their sentences)
- 15 and 20 years served an average of 7 years 4 months (39% of their sentences).


* Federal prison inmates who were sentenced to more than 1 year in prison, who had their first parole hearing during the year prior to June 30, 1980, and who were released or scheduled for release as of January 1, 1987.

b Monetary crime includes counterfeiting, forgery, fraud, mail theft, embezzlement, interstate transportation of stolen securities, and receiving stolen property with intent to sell; it excludes burglary and robbery.
Drug offenders in correctional populations

Drug law violators make up a growing share of Federal prison admissions:
* 22% of all admissions in fiscal 1980
* 34% in fiscal 1986.

Between 1979 and 1986 the percent of inmates in prison for —
* any drug law offense rose from 6.4% to 8.6%
* drug possession rose from 1.6% to 2.9%
* drug trafficking rose from 4.4% to 5.4%.

In 1986 persons sentenced for drug trafficking made up 26.1% of State prison inmates with no known prior sentence to probation or incarceration. This was a larger proportion than for any other offense.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current offense</th>
<th>Percent of inmates under age 18</th>
<th>Age 18 and older</th>
<th>Percent of all inmates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Violent</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>54.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public order</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other *</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Includes juvenile status offenses in State institutions.

The proportion of drug offenders in local jails was about the same in 1978 and 1983:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current offense</th>
<th>1978</th>
<th>1983</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Any drug offense</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficking</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession/use</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other drug</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1983, among drug offenders in local jails —
* 64% had been convicted and were awaiting sentencing, awaiting transfer to a State or Federal prison, or serving the sentence in jail
* 36% were on trial, awaiting trial, or not yet arraigned.

Drug offender profiles

The typical accused Federal drug law offender —
• is male
• is about age 30
• is most likely to be white
• has a 7% chance of opiate use or addiction and a 14% chance of current or past abuse of other drugs.

Persons charged with drug possession tend to be younger than those charged with the sale of drugs and to be less well educated, less often married, less wealthy, and less often repeat offenders than persons charged with other drug offenses.

Illegal drug producers tend to be the oldest of all.

Source: Federal drug law violators.
Public opinion about drugs

As presented in the BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics, 1987, the number of Gallup Poll respondents describing drug abuse as the most important problem facing our country today has grown steadily over the past several years:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date of poll</th>
<th>Drug abuse most serious problem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January 1985</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 1985</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 1986</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 1987</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents to a 1986 ABC News/Washington Post Poll were asked if they agreed or disagreed with these statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drug abuse will never be stopped because a large number of Americans will continue to want drugs and be willing to pay lots of money for them</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Convicted heroin dealers should get the death penalty</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>People should be allowed to take any drug they want so long as they don't hurt someone else</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The current fears of an illegal drug crisis are bigger than the crisis itself</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illegal drug use has become a central part of American society</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The best place for most drug users is a drug treatment program and not jail</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All drugs should be made legal</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 1987 BJS Survey of Public Attitudes on Punishment and the Seriousness of Crime asked what types of punishment should be received by persons selling cocaine to others for resale and by persons using cocaine. The answers were —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cocaine —</th>
<th>Most severe punishment preferred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sold for resale</td>
<td>Prison or jail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocaine —</td>
<td>89.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The BJS survey also found that the public thinks selling cocaine to someone who will resell it is very serious. The respondents ranked it ninth in seriousness of the crimes they were asked about, higher than assault with injury and breaking into a home and stealing $1,000. The higher ranking offenses involved death, rape, shooting a robbery victim, and intentional arson with $500,000 damages. Use of cocaine ranked 18th out of the 24 offenses, higher than larceny of $1,000 or less, assault with no injury, and burglary of $10.

People with first-time convictions for selling cocaine or crack should be punished as follows, according to respondents to a 1986 New York Times/CBS News Poll:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>More than 1 year in jail</th>
<th>42%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 year in jail</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 days in jail</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine and probation</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death (response volunteered)</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When asked about spending for various social problems, 65% of the respondents to a 1987 National Opinion Research Center (NORC) Poll said we are spending too little to deal with drug addiction.

NORC has asked adults (age 18 and older) about legalization of marijuana since 1973. During that time those who say marijuana should be made legal — * peaked at 30% in 1978 * fell to 16% in 1987.

High school seniors have been surveyed each year since 1975. In 1986 — * 15% felt using marijuana should be entirely legal, down from 34% feeling that way in 1977 * 69.2% reported worrying often or sometimes about drug abuse.

1986 high school seniors reporting they could obtain drugs fairly easily or very easily

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana/Hashish</td>
<td>85.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amphetamines</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocaine</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tranquilizers</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbiturates</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Heroin         | 22.0  

The students were asked about the harmfulness of drug use. The percent of those who answered by saying people are taking a "great risk" of harming themselves in regularly using the following were — * marijuana/hashish, 71%, up from a low of 35% in 1978 * cocaine, 82%, up from a low of 68% in 1977 and 1978 * LSD, 83%, and heroin, 87%, both virtually stable across the 12-year period.
BJS reports on . . .

In 1986 a New York Times/CBS News Poll asked respondents to consider the effectiveness of various proposals to reduce illegal drug use in this country. The responses are shown in this box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposals</th>
<th>Effect of proposal on illegal drug use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduce a great deal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stiffer penalties for persons caught selling drugs</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stiffer penalties for persons caught using drugs</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More educational programs about drug abuse</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More drug treatment programs</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requiring drug testing in the workplace</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having celebrities come out against drugs</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having the United States military make raids into other countries to destroy drugs produced there</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Response volunteered.

When asked in 1986 if they thought most officeholders were serious when they made proposals for Federal programs to deal with drug abuse —
- 24% thought they were serious
- 60% thought most of them were using the issue for publicity.

Drug use in the general population

As presented in the 1987 BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics—
• 50.9% of 1986 high school seniors reported having ever used marijuana/hashish
• 16.9% reported having ever used cocaine
• 1.1% reported having ever used heroin.

Reported illegal drug use of high school seniors, 1986

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Used within the last:</th>
<th>Used cocaine within the past:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 months*</td>
<td>30 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana/hashish</td>
<td>38.8%</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhalants</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hallucinogens</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocaine</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heroin</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other opiates</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sedatives</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tranquilizers</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Including the last 30 days.

Reported marijuana use by high school seniors in the previous 12 months fell to 38.8% in 1986, the lowest level since the survey began in 1975; similarly, the 23.4% reporting such use in the past 30 days was also the lowest in the period.

Self-reports of drug use among high school seniors underrepresent drug use among youth of that age group because high school dropouts and truants are not included, and these groups are expected to have more involvement with drugs than those who stay in school.

Reported recency of marijuana and cocaine use among college students, 1980-86

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily in past month</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past month</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past year</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cocaine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily in past month</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past month</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past year</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As reported in the 1987 BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics, data from the 1985 National Household Survey on Drug Abuse show that marijuana and cocaine use are related to age:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Age of respondent</th>
<th>18-25</th>
<th>26-34</th>
<th>35+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana</td>
<td>Past month</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past year</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lifetime</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocaine</td>
<td>Past month</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past year</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lifetime</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

—Less than .5%.
... Not available.

The cost of crime

One question that policymakers, the media, and the public often ask BJS is, "What is the total cost of crime to society?"

For many reasons, there will never be a simple answer to this seemingly simple question:
- Many costs of crime to society cannot be measured directly. They include monies that might have been used for legal purchases if they had not been diverted for such illegal purposes as gambling, drugs, and prostitution. Organized crime, drug trafficking, and illegal immigration result in economic losses to society, but these defy direct measurement. Also difficult to measure are the losses from fraudulent activities that victims are embarrassed to report.
- Some costs of crime to society cannot be measured. These include nonmonetary costs to victims, such as pain and suffering from injury, psychological distress, fear, and similar effects on victims and their families and friends.

Yet, BJS does measure some costs of crime. One source is the National Crime Survey, which measures —
- the value of property stolen or damaged through criminal incidents
- the cost of medical care resulting from victimization
- time lost from work because of crime.

Another major cost of crime is that of operating the criminal justice system. Chapter 5 of the Report to the Nation on crime and justice: Second edition, published in fiscal 1988, addressed —
- the many and varied costs of crime
- how much government spends for justice
- the different responsibilities and costs of different levels of government
- private sector involvement in providing justice services
- trends in justice spending
- factors related to justice spending
- what justice dollars buy.
Economic cost of crime to victims

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of crime</th>
<th>Gross loss (millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All crimes</td>
<td>$13,039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal crimes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of violence</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of theft</td>
<td>2,592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal larceny:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with contact</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>without contact</td>
<td>2,521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household crimes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>3,442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household larceny</td>
<td>1,372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle theft</td>
<td>4,633</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Details may not add to totals shown because of rounding. Economic losses include those from property theft or damage, cash losses, medical expenses, lost pay because of victimization (including time spent with the police in investigation and in court and time spent in replacing lost property), and other crime-related costs.


Cost of the justice system

Federal, State, and local spending for all civil and criminal justice activities in fiscal 1985 was $45.6 billion. This was less than 3% of all government spending in this country.

Government spending by activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social insurance payments</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National defense and international relations</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on debt</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing and the environment</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public welfare</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitals and health</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justice</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space research and technology</td>
<td>.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Government spending (including direct and intergovernmental expenditures):

- Local, $25.4 billion
- State, $16.0 billion
- Federal, $5.8 billion.

Of each justice dollar —

- 48¢ was spent for police protection
- 22¢ for the courts and other legal activities
- 29¢ for prisons and other correctional costs.

Less than 1¢ of every dollar spent by Federal, State, and local governments was spent on the Nation's correctional system (including jails, prisons, probation, and parole).
Total government spending for civil and criminal justice was $191 per person in 1985. State and local per capita spending varies greatly by State:

- It is lowest in West Virginia, Mississippi, and Arkansas (less than $90 per person).
- It is highest in New York ($293), Nevada ($244), Alaska ($592), and the District of Columbia ($613).

Different levels of government spend varying percents of their total outlays for justice functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Federal</td>
<td>.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cities and towns</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State and local combined</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional spending data are presented in the "BJS reports on . . . corrections" section of this report.

Trends in justice system spending

During 1960-85, in constant dollars, State and local per capita spending for —

- corrections grew by 218%
- police protection grew by 73%
- public welfare grew by 216%
- hospitals and health care grew by 119%
- education grew by 56%
- highways declined by 21%.

Since 1979, spending rose faster for corrections than for any other justice function, while spending for police fell. Between 1979 and 1985, in constant dollars, per capita spending for —

- corrections grew by 34.1%
- public defense grew by 24.7%
- prosecution grew by 6.8%
- courts grew by .2%
- police protection fell by 1.5% overall, but it grew for cities with populations of more than 50,000
- other justice functions fell by 40.2%.

During this century, the police and corrections shares of State and local spending have not fluctuated as radically as the shares for some other government functions.
Per capita spending by State and local governments for police and corrections increased more rapidly than for some other government functions during the past quarter century.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>$517</td>
<td>$588</td>
<td>$710</td>
<td>$807</td>
<td>$824</td>
<td>$807</td>
<td>+ 56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public welfare</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>+ 216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitals and health care</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>+ 119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highways</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>- 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police protection</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>+ 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrections</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>+ 218</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The public response to crime

The public response to crime includes —
• individual victims deciding whether to report the crime to the police
• actions by victims (and their family and friends) in response to crime (such as trying to minimize the risk of future victimizations by changes in behavior, purchase of burglar alarms, and use of guard dogs)
• similar actions by strangers who read or hear of crime from media accounts or other sources
• a rise (or fall) in the fear of crime
• changes in opinions on the effectiveness, efficiency, and fairness of the criminal justice system.

The National Crime Survey (NCS) measures the extent to which victims have reported crimes to the police and their reasons for reporting or not reporting; each year BJS releases these major justice indicators.

Public opinion polls by Gallup, ABC News, the National Opinion Research Center (NORC), and other organizations ask about how fearful people are of crime and about their confidence in criminal justice agencies. Each year, data from these polls are assembled in the BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics.

During fiscal 1988 BJS released results of a public opinion poll about Americans' attitudes on the seriousness of various crimes and the appropriate punishment for persons who commit them. This survey was conducted in preparation for the National Conference on Punishment for Criminal Offenses held in November 1987. BJS presented the poll's results in a press release, November 8, 1987, and in the 1987 BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics.

In using public opinion data, special care should be taken when comparing data from different polls where different wording or ordering of questions could influence results.
**Reporting crime**

Less than 40% of all NCS crimes (rape, robbery, assault, personal and household larceny, household burglary, and motor vehicle theft) are reported to the police:

- The crimes most serious in terms of injury or economic loss are the ones most likely to be reported; nearly half the NCS violent crimes are reported, but only about a fourth of the personal crimes of theft and two-fifths of household crimes are reported.

- The crimes (excluding murder) most frequently reported are motor vehicle theft (73% in 1987), aggravated assault (60%), and robbery (53%).

NCS respondents saying they reported the incident to the police grew from 32% in 1973 to 37% in 1987.

Generally, the sex, age, or race of victims makes less difference in reporting rates than does the type of crime.

"To keep the crime from happening again" was the reason most often given for reporting a violent crime to the police. The desire to recover property was the reason most often given for reporting personal theft and household crimes.

"The crime was not important enough to be reported to the police" was the reason most often given for not reporting it. "The matter was private or personal" was the reason most often given for not reporting violent crimes.

Sources: Criminal victimization, 1987; Reporting crimes to the police.

**Fear of crime**

As presented in the 1987 BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics, 79% of high school students surveyed in 1986 said they worried "often" or "sometimes" about crime and violence. More females (87%) than males (71%) reported such worries.

More high school students were worried about crime (79%) than about —

- drug abuse, 69%
- chance of nuclear war, 69%
- hunger and poverty, 66%
- economic problems, 61%
- pollution, 44%
- race relations, 43%
- energy shortages, 29%
- using open land for housing or industry, 27%
- population growth, 24%
- urban decay, 17%.

The Sourcebook presented the results of a 1986 Media General/Associated Press Poll. In that poll —

- 72% said they generally feel their home is secure against crime
- 88% said they lock their doors regularly
- 78% said they felt it was safe to walk on the street where they lived after dark
- 64% said that it was safe to go walking most places in their community after dark.
The Sourcebook also presented the results of National Opinion Research Center polls for 1973 to 1987. Respondents were asked if there was an area within a mile around their home where they would be afraid to walk alone at night. They responded:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>56</td>
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<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Lloyd D. Johnston, Monitoring the future; Media General/Associated Press Poll; National Opinion Research Center data made available through the Roper Public Opinion Research Center; all as presented in the BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics, 1987.

Public confidence in the criminal justice system

As presented in the 1987 BJS Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics, 88% of the respondents to a 1985 Gallup Poll rated the honesty and ethical standards of policemen as average or higher than average. Similar ratings were given when the same question was asked in 1977, 1981, and 1983.

The 1987 Sourcebook presented the results of a 1987 poll of the National Opinion Research Center (NORC). It asked respondents to a national survey, "In general, do you think the courts in this area deal too harshly or not harshly enough with criminals?" They responded as follows:

- Too harshly: 3%
- Not harshly enough: 79%
- About right: 12%
- Don't know: 6%

The percent of high school students who said they believe there are "considerable" or "great" problems of dishonesty and immorality in the —

- courts and justice system declined from 30% in 1975 to 23% in 1986
- police and other law enforcement agencies declined from 38% in 1975 to 23% in 1986.

Public opinion on crime and punishment

Americans overwhelmingly support incarceration as the most appropriate punishment for serious offenders.

In a national survey of 1,920 U.S. residents, 71% said jail or prison was the most suitable penalty for a group of 24 specific crime scenarios that included rape, robbery, assault, burglary, theft, property damage, drunk driving, and drug offenses committed in different ways.

Punishment views among survey respondents did not vary significantly by their age, race, sex, or regional background.

Survey participants generally approved of probation, fines, and restitution when combined with rather than substituted for imprisonment.

For instance, in robberies of $1,000 or more during which the offender uses a gun and the victim must be hospitalized for injuries, 92% of those asked said incarceration was the right penalty, and the average prison term selected was more than 10 years; 48% of the respondents also selected restitution as an appropriate penalty for this type of robbery, but almost all of them chose it in combination with a jail or prison term.

For rapes in which there was no added injury to the victim, 94% of the respondents chose a jail or prison sentence with an average term of more than 15 years.

For assaults resulting in victim hospitalization, 82% selected jail or prison for an average term of almost 8 years.

For household burglary and losses of $1,000 or more, 81% chose incarceration for an average term of 4.5 years.

The sale of cocaine to others for resale was viewed as more serious than an assault resulting in hospitalization or a robbery with a weapon in which the victim was not injured; 90% of the respondents selected prison or jail terms for an average term of 10.5 years.

Respondents were more likely to select imprisonment and to give longer prison terms to offenders who had prior convictions for violent crimes or prior prison sentences. In general, the seriousness of the crime was the major factor in the various choices.
When asked why they selected a certain type of punishment, the respondents said the reason was "very important" or "somewhat important" according to the following percentages:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To deter the offender from doing it again</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To make a public statement that such behavior will not be tolerated</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To rehabilitate the offender</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To give the offender what he or she deserves</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To deter others from crime</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To incapacitate the offender from committing more crimes</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To respond as my religion or my morality requires</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To get even with the offender by making him or her suffer for what he or she has done</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjudication and sentencing

Policymakers and the public are concerned about—
• what happens to accused offenders when charges are brought against them and their cases are heard in court
• whether they are released on "technicalities"
• whether they are allowed to plead guilty to lesser charges, thus not receiving the full measure of legal sanctions due to them for the crimes they have committed
• whether they delay court proceedings through legal maneuverings that discourage witnesses and victims from continued participation in the prosecution
• whether the sentences received and served by convicted offenders reflect the seriousness of the crimes.

Of major importance in fiscal 1988 were—
• the development of the National Judicial Reporting Program, which completed data collection for the first national survey of felony sentencing in the United States
• continued methodological development of national data on pretrial release
• a study of burglars and robbers brought to the attention of local prosecutors in 16 of the Nation's largest counties.

Each of these efforts is described in detail in the "New initiatives" section of this report.

One source of data on local prosecution is the management information systems maintained by prosecutors throughout the country. The BJS-sponsored Prosecution of Felony Arrests Project obtains case-processing data from such systems in some jurisdictions:
• It collects data on case attrition, guilty pleas, final dispositions, and case-processing time.
• In fiscal 1988, it published The prosecution of felony arrests, 1982, which gives full details on felony case-processing data for 37 jurisdictions.
• It underwent a redesign effort that will yield more current data; instead of tracking arrests forward, the project started with cases disposed in 1986.
• It launched a new sample design that will provide representative data on the Nation's 200 largest counties.
• Its first report under the new design, The prosecution of felony arrests, 1986, was submitted in fiscal 1988 and will be published in fiscal 1989.

In fiscal 1988 BJS published Felony laws of the 50 States and the District of Columbia, 1986 (December 1987). The report presents results of the 1986 National Survey of State Felony Laws. The main function of the survey is to provide a condensed list of felony statutes and the sentencing and classification data needed for their interpretation. The report lists all felonies in the criminal codes of the 50 States and the District of Columbia. For certain crimes—homicide, arson, rape and sexual assault, robbery, assault, burglary, larceny, and drugs—nonfelonies also are reported.
Results of the second BJS national survey of indigent criminal defense programs were published in *Criminal defense for the poor, 1986* (BJS Bulletin, September 1988). This report contains detailed tables on the costs and caseloads of indigent defense programs in the 50 States and the District of Columbia. It also examines the changes, since the last national survey (1982), in how States have implemented public defense systems, how they are organized, and how they are funded.

*State court organization, 1987* updates the 1980 survey of court organization. It was submitted to BJS in fiscal 1988 and was published by the National Center for State Courts during the fiscal year. This report describes in detail the organizational settings of trial and appellate courts throughout the country.

Topics covered in the report include—
* characteristics of felony jurisdiction in State trial courts
* capital and noncapital sentencing procedures
* methods of selection and terms of State trial court judges
* types of appeals in trial courts
* jury size and required votes for verdict
* use and availability of sentencing commissions
* the budget and fiscal authority of the judiciary.

In fiscal 1988 BJS continued its recently expanded program of analyzing Offender-Based Transaction Statistics (OBTS) data from States having such systems:
* OBTS follows offenders from arrest through final disposition.
* Eleven States supplied data for the report: Alaska, California, Delaware, Georgia, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. These States account for 38% of the Nation's population and 37% of the reported crime.
* A previous OBTS report covered white-collar crime.
* OBTS is part of the BJS State Statistical Program discussed elsewhere in this report.

*Pretrial release and detention: The Bail Reform Act of 1984* (BJS Special Report, February 1988) was published in fiscal 1988. Data for the report were provided by the Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, which collected the records of almost 17,200 defendants tried in U.S. district court in August through December of 1983 and 1985. The report was produced under the BJS Federal Justice Data Program discussed elsewhere in this report. A previous Federal Justice Data Program report covered the prosecution and sentencing of Federal white-collar offenders.
Felony courts

The United States has 3,128 counties and county equivalents (parishes, boroughs, independent cities, and the District of Columbia). Nearly all of them have State-level courts that conduct trials for all types of felonies. These courts have various names. They are called—
• circuit courts in 16 States
• district courts in 15 States
• superior courts in 13 States and the District of Columbia
• other names in 2 States
• a combination of names in 4 States.

Collectively, these circuit, district, and superior courts form the Nation's State felony courts.

Almost all counties have a court for deciding cases that involve alleged violations of State felony laws.* Only 19 jurisdictions have no felony court:
• 15 independent cities in Virginia
• 3 counties in South Dakota and Wisconsin that are largely Indian reservations
• 1 county in Rhode Island.

Felonies committed in these 19 jurisdictions sometimes are tried in nearby counties.

Courts vary in the way they define a case. In two-thirds of all courts, each defendant equals one case. In the others, each charge or each indictment equals one case without regard to the number of defendants. Therefore, the number of cases reported does not equal the number of persons who appeared or were convicted in felony courts.

Felony courts in 326 counties (10% of all counties) reported that the misdemeanor court accepts guilty pleas to felony charges. The felony court in 300 of these 326 counties reported that their misdemeanor courts also sentence all felons whose guilty pleas they accept.

*The term court, as used here, should not be confused with courthouses or courtrooms. For example, a single State may include many individual judges, courtrooms, or courthouses.

Source: State felony courts and felony laws.
Civil and criminal cases filed and disposed

In 1985, 1.5 million felony cases were filed in the Nation's 3,235 State felony courts—an average of nearly 500 per county:
- 18 counties each had more than 10,000 felony filings
- half the counties in the Nation had fewer than 100 filings each
- no felony cases were filed in 32 sparsely populated counties.

The 75 largest counties (those with about 600,000 or more persons) accounted for about half the reported crime and 43% of all arrests in the United States but only about 28% of all felony court filings and convictions. These counties averaged about 5,500 felony case filings each.

The 2,650 smallest counties (each with fewer than 100,000 persons) accounted for—
- 16% of reported crime
- 23% of all arrests
- 38% of all felony court filings and convictions.

After cases are filed with the court, it takes action to dispose of them. Felony courts dispose of cases by conviction, acquittal, dismissal, or other means. In 1985 about 1.5 million felony cases were disposed by the Nation's felony courts. Nationwide in 1985, 69% of felony cases were disposed through conviction. Not all these convictions were for felonies. Nearly 80% of the courts reported felonies reduced to misdemeanors in their statistics on felony court dispositions.

Arrests were more likely to result in prosecution and conviction in a felony court in the South than in other regions. The number of felony court convictions per 1,000 arrests was—
- 143 in the South
- 78 in the Midwest
- 60 in the Northeast
- 58 in the West.

Civil cases filed in U.S. district courts (Federal courts) reached 254,828 in the 12 months ending June 30, 1986, or 6 times as many as criminal cases filed in these courts (41,490).


Sources: State felony courts and felony laws. The Federal civil justice system.
Prosecution of felony offenders

Differences in local laws, agencies, resources, standards, and procedures result in varying responses to crime. For example, among 10 jurisdictions supplying data for 1986—
• one rejects no cases prior to filing because the police file cases directly with the court
• the rejection rate ranged from 2% to 37% in the other jurisdictions.

A high rate of rejections at screening occurs when the prosecutor’s policy is to weed out weak cases before they enter the court system. In general—
• jurisdictions with high rejection rates at screening have lower dismissal rates
• those with low rejection rates at screening have higher dismissal rates.

Most felony arrests do not result in a trial:
• From a third to almost half of all arrests are rejected at screening or dismissed.
• Most of the others result in a guilty plea.

Evidence-related deficiencies and witness problems—
• account for more than half the rejections at screening
• are also common reasons for dismissals.

The use of guilty pleas in felony cases varies greatly among jurisdictions:
• Some have policies that result in a high rate of guilty pleas.
• Others are more apt to go to trial.

However, few cases are brought to trial. Only 3 of every 100 arrests went to trial in 1986, whereas 52 resulted in a guilty plea.

Most trials by jury result in conviction:
• Based on 1986 data from 24 jurisdictions, an average of 71% of the felony cases that went to trial resulted in conviction.
• Jurisdiction rates ranged from 46% to 86%.

Indigent defense

The Constitution grants a right to an attorney to a person accused of a crime punishable by incarceration. The courts have ruled that the defense of accused persons must be provided without regard for the defendant's ability to pay for such counsel. Therefore, the public bears the costs of indigent defense services.

The Nation spent almost $1 billion in 1986 for indigent criminal defense services in an estimated 4.4 million State and local court cases.

In 20 States these defense services are supported by State funds, in 10 States they are paid for with county funds, and in the other States they are financed by a combination of the two methods.

Spending for indigent defense in 1986 was 60% greater than the estimated $625 million spent during 1982.

The average cost of an indigent defense case nationwide was $223 — ranging from $63 in Arkansas to $540 in New Jersey.

Assigned counsel systems that require appointment of private attorneys dominate service delivery patterns. They are used in 52% of all counties, whereas 37% use public defender systems, and 11% use contract systems.

Source: Criminal defense for the poor, 1986.

Federal pretrial release and detention

During a 6-month period in 1985, about 29% of the defendants awaiting trial on Federal criminal charges were incarcerated until they appeared in court. This was an increase from the 24% who were held during the same period in 1983 — before the Bail Reform Act.

The act amended a 1966 statute to permit Federal judges and magistrates to consider public safety when making release and detention decisions. Under the 1984 act Federal courts may deny bail altogether — that is, impose pretrial detention — if the government proves that no conditions of release will reasonably assure either the safety of the community or the appearance of the defendant at his or her trial.

Among defendants held until trial after the new Federal bail law took effect in November 1984 —

- 40% were charged with drug offenses
- 19% with immigration law violations
- 14% with violent crimes
- 27% with other offenses, such as property crimes, fraud, and regulatory violations.
The chances of being incarcerated while awaiting trial after the Bail Reform act vs. before the act were—

- 20% higher for persons charged with drug law violations carrying 10-year prison terms
- 26% higher for persons charged with other drug crimes
- 63% higher for persons who had caused injuries
- 23% higher for persons who had used firearms
- 17% higher for persons classified as dangerous during pretrial interviews.

Both before and after the Bail Reform Act, about 54% of all pretrial defendants were released without bail. However, among those held until trial after the new law took effect, almost two-thirds were on pretrial detention. Before the act, almost all were held for failure to make bail.


**Sentencing practices**

States vary in the degree of judicial and parole board discretion in the sentencing and release decisions provided by law. Today, the range of State sentencing systems involves the following:

- **Indeterminate sentencing.** The judge has primary control over the type of sentence given (such as prison, probation, or fine and the upper and lower bounds of the length of prison sentences within statutory limits), but actual time served is determined by the parole board.
- **Determinate sentencing.** The judge sets the type and length of prison sentences within statutory limits, but the parole board may not release prisoners before their sentences have expired, minus time off for good behavior, or "good time."
- **Mandatory prison terms.** Legislation requires imposition of a prison sentence, often of specified length, for certain crimes and/or certain categories of offenders.
- **Presumptive sentencing.** The judge is required to impose a sentence whose length is set by law for each offense or class of offense. When there are mitigating or aggravating circumstances, however, the judge is allowed to shorten or lengthen the sentence within specified boundaries.

Some States have other practices that affect sentencing and the actual time served:

- **Sentencing guidelines.** The courts set sentences by using procedures designed to structure sentencing decisions, usually based on offense severity and criminal history.
Parole guidelines. Parole boards use procedures designed to structure release decisions based on measurable offender criteria.

Good-time policies. In nearly all States legislation allows for reduction of a prison term based on the offender's behavior in prison.

Emergency crowding provisions. These are policies that relieve prison crowding by systematically making certain inmates eligible for early release.

In recent years many States have been moving away from sentencing systems that allow judges and parole boards wide discretion in sentences and time served. They are moving toward more certain and fixed punishments for crimes through mandatory sentences, sentences of fixed length (determinate sentencing), and the abolition of parole boards.

As a result of these shifts in sentencing and release policies, the percent of persons discharged from State prison as a result of a parole board decision fell from nearly 72% in 1977 to 41% in 1987.

Sentence length varies by whether the system is determinate or indeterminate. Of 28 jurisdictions studied in 1985—

- the average (mean) prison term imposed by determinate sentencing jurisdictions was 40% to 50% shorter than those imposed by indeterminate sentencing jurisdictions
- a narrower range in sentences was imposed for each selected crime category studied in the determinate than in the indeterminate sentencing jurisdictions.

Mandatory sentencing also has gained wide acceptance as almost all State legislatures have specified offenses or offender types for which imprisonment sentences must be given (probation is not an option):

- These offenses generally focus on specific violent crimes, offenses involving the use of weapons, or drug crimes.
- Repeat offenders also have been targeted by many States with mandatory enhancements given for a prior felony conviction or the inclusion of new offense categories for repeat offenders in State criminal codes.

Sentencing felony offenders

Felons convicted of the more serious offenses are more likely to go to State prison.

Percent of convicted felons sent to prison in 28 local jurisdictions, 1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crime</th>
<th>Sent to Prison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggravated assault</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larceny</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug trafficking</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Straight probation accounted for more than a fourth of felony sentences in the 28 jurisdictions studied; about another fifth were to a term in a local jail (usually 1 year or less) followed by probation.

Subgroups of general crime categories revealed big differences in imprisonment rates and average prison terms. For example—

- 56% of those convicted of residential burglary were sentenced to prison (average term 67 months)
- 47% of those convicted of nonresidential burglary were sentenced to prison (average term 46 months).

Of every 10 persons convicted of a serious felony, 7 were age 30 or younger.

Of the 2,561 persons convicted of homicide in 1985 in 28 large court systems throughout the country, 84% were sentenced to prison; 1% received jail terms; 7% received combined jail and probation sentences; and 8% were given straight probation.

Typical outcome of 100 felony arrests that result in indictment, 1986 (24 jurisdictions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>100 arrests that are indicted</th>
<th>4 diverted or referred</th>
<th>83 carried forward</th>
<th>13 dismissed in court</th>
<th>11 trials</th>
<th>3 acquitted</th>
<th>8 found guilty</th>
<th>80 convicted</th>
<th>22 sentenced to incarceration of 1 year or less</th>
<th>25 sentenced to incarceration of more than 1 year</th>
<th>33 sentenced to probation or other conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Typical outcome of 100 felony arrests brought by the police for prosecution in 11 jurisdictions, 1986

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>100 arrests brought by the police for prosecution</th>
<th>5 diverted or referred</th>
<th>55 carried forward</th>
<th>3 trials</th>
<th>1 acquitted</th>
<th>2 found guilty</th>
<th>54 convicted</th>
<th>18 sentenced to incarceration of 1 year or less</th>
<th>12 sentenced to incarceration of more than 1 year</th>
<th>24 sentenced to probation or other conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

BJS Data Report, 1988 53
Felons convicted of multiple charges receive longer sentences:
• 39% of those convicted on a single charge in the 28 jurisdictions received prison sentences averaging 73 months
• 80% of those convicted on four or more charges received prison terms averaging 150 months.

According to a BJS study of felony case dispositions in 1984, of 532,000 people arrested on felony charges in 11 States—
• 84% were prosecuted
• 62% were convicted
• 36% were sent to a jail or a prison—13% for more than 1 year.

About 18% of those arrested for a violent felony were convicted and sent to prison for more than 1 year vs. 13% for felony property arrests, 10% for felony drug arrests, and 9% for felony public-order arrests.

The chance of being sentenced to more than 1 year in prison for those arrested for—
• homicide was 49%
• rape was 29%
• robbery was 28%
• burglary was 20%
• motor vehicle theft was 10%
• a felony weapons violation was 7%.

Of the men and women prosecuted—
• 74% were convicted
• 23% had their cases dismissed
• 2% were acquitted following a trial.

Of those convicted, 42% were not incarcerated but received sentences such as probation, fines, or mandatory community service.

The risk of imprisonment for serious crime has risen in recent years, but it has not yet reached the levels of 20 to 25 years ago.

Court commitments to State prisons relative to offenses and arrests, 1960-86

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Reported offenses</th>
<th>Adult arrests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>170</td>
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<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>185</td>
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<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>219</td>
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<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Selected offenses include murder, nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, and burglary. Data for crimes reported to the police and adult arrests are from FBI, Crime in the United States, 1978-86 (Washington: USGPO). Commitments to prison are inmates admitted from sentencing courts.

Of Federal offenders convicted between July 1, 1985, and June 30, 1986—
• 51% were sentenced to prison terms
• 37% were sentenced to probation only
• the rest received fines or other sentences.

The average Federal prison sentence for offenders receiving regular prison sentences was slightly less than 5 1/2 years.

Between 1979 and 1986 the average length of a regular Federal prison sentence increased by 32%.

Prosecution and sentencing of white-collar offenders

Of those arrested for the white-collar crimes of forgery/counterfeiting, fraud, and embezzlement in eight States and one territory in 1983, 88% were prosecuted — a somewhat higher proportion than those arrested for felonies involving property crimes (86%), violent crimes (82%), or public-order crimes (81%).

The conviction rate was —
• 74% of those arrested for white-collar crimes
• 76% of those arrested for property crimes
• 66% of those arrested for violent crimes
• 67% of those arrested for public-order offenses (nonviolent sexual offenses, commercialized vice, drug offenses, disorderly conduct, and weapons offenses).

Persons arrested for white-collar crimes and subsequently convicted (although not necessarily for white-collar crime) in State and local courts were —
• much less likely to be sentenced to incarceration for more than 1 year (18%) than violent offenders (39%) and property offenders (26%)
• sentenced to incarceration less often than violent offenders and property offenders (60%, 67%, and 65%, respectively) but more often than public-order offenders (55%).

About 30% of persons investigated by U.S. attorneys in the 12 months prior to September 30, 1985, were suspected of white-collar offenses; most of them were investigated for fraud.

U.S. attorneys filed criminal cases against —
• 55% of the white-collar suspects — the same filing rate as for non-white-collar offenses
• 79% of the tax fraud suspects — the highest rate
• 65% of the regulatory offense suspects.

In 1985, 10,733 persons were convicted of Federal white-collar crimes, an increase of 18% over 1980. The conviction rate was —
• 85% for white-collar defendants
• 78% for all other Federal criminal defendants.

About 40% of the Federal white-collar offenders convicted in 1985 were sentenced to incarceration vs. 54% for nonwhite-collar offenders.

Persons convicted of —
• Federal white-collar crimes received shorter average sentences of incarceration (29 months) than other Federal offenders (50 months)
• non-white-collar crimes were more than twice as likely as white-collar offenses to receive a sentence of more than 5 years; white-collar offenders were more likely to be sentenced to probation or fined.

Among Federal white-collar offenders, persons convicted of counterfeiting were the most likely to be sentenced to incarceration (59%). They received the longest average sentence (40 months) and were the most likely to be sentenced to more than 5 years.


BJS Data Report, 1988 55
Corrections

Few aspects of criminal justice have been subject to more intense debate over the past several years than corrections policy. As a result of public demand for stiffer sentences, increased use of mandatory sentencing, and demographic changes that have enlarged more "prison-prone" age groups in society, prisons have filled above capacity, leading to greater demands on correctional systems.

BJS corrections statistics provide systematic data on correctional populations and agency workloads. They cover probation, local jails, State and Federal prisons, parole, and persons under sentence of death.


The quinquennial survey interviewed nearly 14,000 State prisoners throughout the Nation. This representative sample of prisoners was asked to describe their criminal histories, demographic characteristics, family situations, use of alcohol and drugs, and, for violent offenders, characteristics of their victims. Other reports using data from the survey are being prepared.

Early in fiscal 1988 BJS conducted a nationally representative survey of 2,621 juvenile offenders in 50 State-operated youth correctional institutions. As in the adult prison survey, these juvenile offenders were queried about their criminal and drug-use histories. The first report from this survey, Survey of youth in custody, 1987 (BJS Special Report, September 1988), contributed new information on the backgrounds of the most serious offenders dealt with by the juvenile justice system.

During fiscal 1988 data collected during the 1983 quinquennial National Jail Inmate Survey received further analysis. A major study of driving while intoxicated (DWI) offenders in local jails was published in Drunk driving (BJS Special Report, February 1988). The study examined the amount and type of alcohol consumed by DWI offenders held in local jails throughout the Nation.

Jail Inmates 1986 (BJS Bulletin, October 1987) released data from the annual jail sample survey that provides basic counts of jail populations in years when the quinquennial jail census is not conducted.


56 Bureau of Justice Statistics
Also released during the year was the detailed report, *Correctional populations in the United States, 1985* (BJS Final Report, December 1987). A third major NPS report, *Historical statistics on prisoners in State and Federal institutions, yearend 1925-86* (May 1988), provided the first full compilation of prisoner counts by State over the 60-year history of the program.

The National Probation Reports series provides annual data, by State, on the number of admissions to probation supervision and the yearend total of persons under such supervision. The Uniform Parole Reports Program, begun in 1965, provides data on the populations and characteristics of persons admitted to and released from parole supervision. This program also gathers information from States on legislative and administrative changes likely to affect length of sentences and time served in correctional institutions.

The annual *Probation and parole 1987* (BJS Bulletin) was released in December 1987. At yearend 1987, more than 2.2 million adults were on Federal or State probation and more than a third of a million were on parole.

The National Corrections Reporting Program (NCRP) gathers data on the characteristics of offenders admitted to or released from prisons. It has been integrated with Uniform Parole Reports to provide a complete overview of sanctioning across the States — from prison entry through termination of parole for each offender.

In fiscal 1988 NCRP data on time served in prison were analyzed and published in *Time served in prison and on parole, 1984* (BJS Special Report, December 1987). This report provides, for the first time, the total time an offender serves on a court sentence and the proportion of time actually spent in confinement and under supervision in the community. Overall, persons released from prison in 33 States in 1984 served a median term of 17 months, or 45% of their original court-ordered, maximum sentence.

During fiscal 1988 BJS published *Our crowded jails: A national plight*. This booklet, using a variety of sources and statistics, defines jail crowding and discusses the contributing factors and consequences of the problem. On average, in 1986 local jails were operating at 96% of capacity, and those jails with an average daily population of 100 inmates or more reported operating at 108% of capacity — 18% over the capacity recommended by the American Correctional Association.

Jail crowding, a complex problem pervasive throughout the Nation, affects all levels of government. This booklet briefly examines the impact of court decisions, legislation, and public opinion on jail crowding, efforts to deal with the problem, and the resulting consequences to public safety.

In fiscal 1988 work continued on an international study of time served in prison in five countries. Results will be published in fiscal 1989. BJS international crime statistics are discussed in greater detail in the "New initiatives" section of this report.
During fiscal 1988 BJS continued work on recidivism of criminal offenders. Under the BJS National Recidivism Reporting System (NRRS), BJS links criminal history information from the FBI and participating States to build data bases on selected groups of offenders. In the previous fiscal year the initial NRRS data base was developed with results published in *Recidivism of young parolees* (BJS Special Report, May 1987). The report analyzed local arrest records kept by the FBI of a representative sample of almost 4,000 of the 11,347 persons from 17 to 22 years old who were paroled from prisons in 22 States during 1978 and examined their postprison rearrest experience.

In fiscal 1988 BJS designed and built a second NRRS data base containing more than 300,000 criminal-history records on a representative sample of 16,355 persons released from prison in 11 States in 1983. This data base—
* represents more than 100,000 prison releasees in these 11 States — about 60% of the Nation's State prison population released during the year
* includes criminal-history data on individual offenders before their release in 1983 along with their subsequent criminal justice activities through 1987
* represents all persons released from prison in the 11 States regardless of whether they were released on parole or released unconditionally
* includes records on single- and multistate offenders, enabling a more comprehensive analysis of recidivism than possible with single-State records

- allows evaluation of the completeness and accuracy of these Computerized Criminal History (CCH) records, which recent studies have shown to be often incomplete and ambiguous
- is being analyzed for a report on the recidivism of these prison releasees, which will be published in fiscal 1989.

Also during the year BJS began development of a third NRRS recidivism data base on persons arrested for the first time in 1978 and 1984, regardless of whether they were convicted or incarcerated. Previous NRRS data bases have been limited to persons who had been sentenced to prison and subsequently released.

This arrest cohort data base is a three-phase project:
* Phase I designed the system, established data elements to be collected, estimated costs, and contacted States that had previously participated in NRRS to determine the feasibility of collecting data on persons first arrested in 1978 and 1994.
* Phase II will accept and process automated criminal-history records from 11 States. Existing computer software and processing procedures will be used to reduce costs and ensure accurate data conversion.
* Phase III will analyze the data.
Data collection and conversion will occur in fiscal 1989 with analysis starting in fiscal 1990. Anticipated issues and measures to be addressed include —

• estimates of lifetime prevalence of arrest for two points in time
• estimates of arrest recidivism for two points in time for a fixed 4-year period
• estimates of the fraction of all arrests represented by first-time offenders
• estimates of the age at the onset of a criminal career by type of offense
• estimates of the number of first-arrestees with prior arrests in other States (multistate offenders)
• determining patterns of criminal careers.

The Corrections Statistics Program also reports separately on State prisoners sentenced to execution. *Capital punishment 1987* (BJS Bulletin, July 1988) provided a detailed overview across the States, a review of related Supreme Court activity during the year, and information on persons sentenced to death and executed during the year. It reported that 93 executions had taken place in 12 States since January 1977, and 1,984 persons were under sentence of death in 34 States at yearend 1987.

The Corrections Statistics Program issued 12 reports in fiscal 1988. In addition to the annual corrections reports, these topical reports are planned for fiscal 1989:

• victims of prison inmates
• prison disciplinary violations
• census of local jails, 1989
• prison admissions and releases, 1985
• criminal histories of persons released from prison in 11 States in 1983.

**Adult correctional populations**

An estimated 3.4 million adult men and women were under some form of correctional supervision at yearend 1987 — equivalent to 1 in 52 U.S. residents age 18 and older. This total adult correctional population is 6.8% larger than in 1986 and 40% larger than in 1983.

Of the 3.4 million adults in correctional care or custody at yearend 1987, 3 of 4 were being supervised in the community:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>3,460,960</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>2,242,053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parole</td>
<td>362,192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prison</td>
<td>562,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jail</td>
<td>294,092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From 1983 through 1987 the number of men and women under community supervision grew faster than the number of incarcerated adults:

• parolees increased by 47%
• probationers by 42%
• prisoners by 33%
• jail inmates by 33%.

In the first 6 months of 1988 the Nation's Federal and State prison population grew by 4%. This creates a continuing demand for about 900 new prison beds every week.

During 1925-86 the average annual growth rate for the prison population was 2.8%; from 1980 to 1986, the average annual percent increase was 8.8%.
BJS reports on...

Number of sentenced State and Federal prisoners, yearend 1925-87

Note: Prior to 1977, prisoner reports were based on the custody populations. Beginning in 1977, focus is on the jurisdictional population.
On June 30, 1988, 5.1% of all prison inmates were women, the highest percent since recordkeeping began in 1926. In the first half of 1988 the female prison inmate population grew by 6.7% vs. 3.9% for males. Since 1980 the number of female inmates grew from 13,420 to 30,834, a 130% increase. The number of male inmates grew from 316,401 to 573,990, an 81% increase.

In the past decade the percent of offenders who left prison as a result of a parole board's discretionary decision declined from almost 72% of persons released in 1977 to 41% of those released in 1987. This is the result of an increased use of determinate sentencing in which each prisoner serves the full sentence the court hands down minus credits earned for good behavior or meritorious conduct.


Prison and jail crowding

Crowding is a serious problem for many localities and States:
• The Nation's prisons are operating at between 7% and 24% above capacity.
• Most State prison systems and the Federal system are filled beyond reported capacity.
• To relieve crowding many States have provisions for sentence reductions, rollbacks, early releases, and other mechanisms to reduce prison populations.
• 16 States said that 12,220 prisoners were backed up in local jails because their prisons have no room for them.

Total inmate living space in State prisons throughout the country grew by 29% between 1979 and 1984. In the same period the number of prisoners grew 45%, resulting in an 11% decline in the average amount of living space per inmate. Over the same period the number of employees in State prisons grew as rapidly as the number of inmates.

There is little evidence that prison population density levels were directly associated with elevated inmate death rates, inmate-on-inmate assaults, or other disturbances. Such events occurred more frequently in maximum security facilities, irrespective of their population densities.

Nearly three-fourths of the Nation's jail population in 1986 was housed in the jails of 361 jurisdictions, each with an average daily population of at least 100 inmates.

In 1986 about 26% of these jails held inmates for State, Federal, or other local
Of State prison inmates in 1986—
• 66% were convicted violent offenders
  (either the current offense or a previous conviction)
• 95% were convicted violent offenders
  or previously had been sentenced to
  probation, jail, or prison.

In 1988 about 5% of the Nation's Federal
and State prisoners were women. They
numbered 30,834 among the Nation's pris-
oners at midyear 1988, increasing at a
faster rate during the first half of the year
(6.7%) than males (3.9%). Yet, the incor-
carceration rate for males (462 per 100,000
resident males) was about 20 times higher
than for sentenced females.

In 1986 the estimated jail population was
made up of—
• 58% whites
• 41% blacks
• about 1% other races (Native Americans,
  Aleuts, Asians, and Pacific Islanders).

Among local jail inmates in 1986—
• 53% were awaiting trial or on trial
• the others were convicted offenders
  who will either serve their sentence in
  jail (usually for less than 1 year) or will
  be transferred to a State prison.
Unconvicted offenders held in local jails
In 1983 were charged with these offenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public-order offenses (including DWI)</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murder/attempted murder</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larceny</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug offenses</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraud/forgery/embezzlement</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape/sexual assault</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other property crimes</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other violent crimes</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of all inmates under sentence in a local jail, 10% were confined for drunk driving. The most common offense of jail inmates age 45 and older was driving under the influence (20% of the inmates in that age group).

Bail had been set for almost 9 of 10 unconvicted jail inmates. Most of those who had not had bail set were probationers or parolees whose release had been revoked or persons charged with offenses (such as first-degree murder) for which bail may not be set in certain jurisdictions.


Characteristics of juveniles in long-term facilities

An estimated 39% of the 18,226 juveniles held in long-term State youth correctional institutions throughout the United States during 1987 had been incarcerated for violent crimes. Another 24% were incarcerated for burglary, the most common specific offense.

Almost 60% of these juveniles (boys and girls under age 18) reported that they used drugs regularly, and more than 25% said they had regularly used a major drug, such as heroin, cocaine, PCP, or LSD.

Half the juveniles who had used any drug said they had begun at age 12 and younger. Half who had used a major drug said they started at age 14 and younger. An estimated 48% said they were under the influence of drugs or alcohol at the time of the offense that led to their incarceration.

An estimated 72% of the juveniles said they had not grown up with both parents. Most of these juveniles — about half the juveniles in long-term confinement — said they had lived primarily with their mothers. And more than half of them reported that a family member also had been imprisoned at least once. About 26% said their fathers had been incarcerated.

Of the juveniles —

* 93% were male
* 52.5% were white
* 41.4% were black
* 6.1% were American Indians, Asians, Alaska Natives, or Pacific Islanders
* 14.5% were Hispanic.
About 2% of the juveniles were confined for a status offense, such as truancy, running away, or incorrigibility, which would not be criminal if committed by an adult.

Many of these juveniles had long criminal histories:
* Almost 43% had been arrested more than 5 times.
* More than 20% had been arrested more than 10 times.
* Almost 60% said they had been committed to a correctional institution at least once before their current confinement.

Among juveniles confined for a violent offense, 41% said they had used a weapon while committing their crime—almost 20% said they had used a gun.

Among all the juveniles, 57.5% said they had a current violent offense or had previously been on probation or had been incarcerated for a violent crime.


Persons in jail for drunk driving

On June 30, 1983, more than 13,000 men and women were serving drunk driving sentences in local jails, and about 1,800 unconvicted defendants were being held on such charges. That is, about 7% of all people held in local jails on that date were charged with drunk driving or convicted of the crime, and almost 13% had a current drunk driving charge or conviction or an earlier conviction for such an offense.

Half the jail inmates convicted of drunk driving had consumed the alcoholic equivalent of at least 12 bottles of beer or 8 mixed drinks before being arrested, and more than a quarter of such inmates had consumed the equivalent of at least 20 beers or 13 mixed drinks.

Of the convicted drunk drivers—
* 54% reported drinking only beer prior to their arrest
* 2% reported drinking only wine
* 23% reported drinking only liquor
* 21% said they had been drinking two or more kinds of alcoholic beverages (this last group consumed the most alcohol, about 3 times more than those who had consumed only beer)
* half had been drinking at least 4 hours before being arrested.

Almost half the people held in jail on drunk driving charges or serving a sentence for that offense had been sentenced for the same offense at least once before, and three-quarters had a prior sentence for any crime, including drunk driving.
Almost half had previously been involved in an alcohol abuse treatment program, and about 1 in 11 were in treatment at the time of their most recent drunk driving arrest.

For drunk drivers ordered to serve time in jail, half were sentenced to at least 5 months. Those with prior drunk driving sentences received jail terms about twice as long as those for first-time offenders.

The median age of persons in jail for drunk driving was 32—about 5 years older than the median age for all jail inmates. About 95% were male, and almost 80% were unmarried, separated, divorced, or widowed. Their racial distribution was similar to that of the Nation as a whole.

Between 1970 and 1986 —

- arrests for driving under the influence of alcohol or drugs increased by almost 223%
- the number of licensed drivers increased by 42%.

In 1986 an estimated 1.8 million people age 16 and older were arrested for driving under the influence of alcohol or other intoxicants. In 1983, the peak year —

- there were an estimated 1.9 million such arrests (1 for every 80 drivers)
- the arrest rate was highest for persons age 21 (1 arrest for every 39 licensed drivers of that age).

Since 1983 most States have raised the minimum age for drinking to 21, and the arrest rate for persons from age 18 through 20 has fallen by 14%—more than twice the rate of decrease for persons age 21-24.

Source: Drunk driving.

**Corrections funding**

The Nation spent $13 billion on all forms of Federal, State, and local corrections during fiscal 1985. The activities included building and operating jails and prisons as well as administering probation and parole programs.

This $13 billion amounts to less than one penny of every dollar spent by Federal, State, and local governments.

State and local governments bear the greatest burden of correctional expenses. An average of 1.9% of their spending was devoted to corrections in 1985.

State governments alone devoted 3% of their total spending to corrections — mostly to operate, maintain, or build prisons or other correctional facilities. Counties spent 4% on corrections, mostly on jails.

Of the almost $8.9 billion that States spent on corrections in 1985, 84% was for operating or building prisons or other correctional facilities (up from 76% in 1977). (Other corrections spending includes probation and parole.) County spending on corrections was almost $3.3 billion, of which 80% was for operating and building jails (up from 70% in 1977).

For all governments combined, spending for corrections from 1979 to 1985 increased at a greater rate (116%) than for any other justice function. For State governments the increase was 129%; for the Federal Government, 100%; and for local governments, 97%.
Data have been available on the construction of State prisons since 1977. Since then State governments increased the percent of total corrections expenditure for prison construction from a low of 7.7% in 1977 to 11.2% in 1985.

Between 1977 and 1985 State and local governments split the distribution of their corrections spending (including capital and operating costs) between institutions on the one hand and probation, parole, and pardon on the other.

Between 1977 and 1985—
* State governments raised the proportion of their corrections spending for institutions from 76.3% to 83.9%, thereby lowering the percent for probation
* county governments raised their spending for institutions from 70.1% to 79.8%
* municipalities raised their spending for institutions from 76% to 91.9%.

Similar data for the Federal Government are available only for 1985; in that year 75.8% of direct Federal spending for corrections was for Federal institutions; 16.2% was for probation, parole, and pardon.

Time served in prison and on parole

Typically, only a part of the sentence handed down by the court is actually served in prison.

In 1984 the median sentence served by 64,089 persons released from prison in 33 States was 17 months (including prior jail credits); this was 45.4% of their original court-ordered sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Time in confinement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>17 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent offenses</td>
<td>28 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>78 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manslaughter</td>
<td>32 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>44 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sexual assault</td>
<td>26 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>30 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>22 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidnaping</td>
<td>31 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other violent</td>
<td>16 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Property offenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Time in confinement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burglary</td>
<td>17 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arson</td>
<td>19 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle theft</td>
<td>14 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraud</td>
<td>13 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larceny/theft</td>
<td>12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stolen property</td>
<td>13 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other property</td>
<td>12 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Drug offenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Time in confinement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Possession</td>
<td>12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficking</td>
<td>16 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other drug</td>
<td>13 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Public-order offenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Time in confinement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weapons</td>
<td>15 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other public-order</td>
<td>7 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other offenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offense</th>
<th>Time in confinement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>15 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Includes prior jail credits.
Violent offenders with a history of felony incarcerations served about 6 months longer in prison than those with no such history; property offenders served about 3 months longer than those with no such history; drug offenders served 1 month longer than those with no such history.

The median time served for all first releases in 1984 was 2 months less than for those released in 1983. This decrease in time served may be partially attributable to the lower percentage of violent offenders released in 1984 and to changes in the composition of States reporting to the program.

On average, offenders had served 45.4% of the maximum length of their court-ordered prison sentences. Violent offenders served the greatest percentage of their maximum sentences, followed by property offenders, public-order offenders, and drug offenders. Murderers received the longest sentences to prison, and they served the longest time.

Black offenders released from prison in 1984 had served a median of 18 months. The median was 1 month longer than for whites. This racial difference is attributable largely to the higher percentage of blacks imprisoned for violent offenses.

Source: Time served in prison and on parole, 1984.

Capital punishment

At yearend 1987, 1,984 persons were under a sentence of death in 34 States. Of these —

• all but one had been convicted of murder
• one had been convicted of capital rape of a child
• 99% were males
• 57% were white
• the median age was nearly 33
• two-thirds had prior felony convictions
• more than 1 in 10 had a prior homicide conviction
• a fifth were on parole at the time of their capital offense
• nearly another fifth had pending charges, were on probation, or were prison inmates or escapees when they committed their capital offense
• excluding those with pending charges, a third of those awaiting execution were under sentence for another crime when the capital offense was committed.

BJS Data Report, 1988 67
About 2.9% of the persons who have been on death row in a State prison between 1977 and 1987 have been executed.

### Criminal history profile of prisoners under sentence of death, yearend 1987

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persons under sentence of death</td>
<td>1,984</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior felony conviction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With</td>
<td>1,257</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior homicide conviction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without</td>
<td>1,524</td>
<td>88.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>267</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal status at time of capital offense</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charges pending</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probation</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parole</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prison escapee</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prison inmate</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other status</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>1,024</td>
<td>60.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>290</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percent are based on offenders for whom data were reported.

At yearend 1987 —

• laws in 37 States authorized the death penalty
• 34 States held prisoners under sentence of death
• 8 States had conducted a total of 25 executions during that year.

Lethal injection (18 States) and electrocution (14 States) were the most common methods of execution permitted by State law. Lethal gas was permitted in 7 States, hanging in 2 States, and a firing squad in 2 States. Six States provided for more than one method of execution — lethal injection or an alternative method — generally at the election of the condemned prisoner.

In 1987 —

• 299 persons were added to State death rows
• 79 persons had their death sentences vacated or commuted
• 11 died while awaiting execution
• 25 offenders (13 white males and 12 black males) were executed in 8 States: Louisiana, 8; Texas, 6; Georgia, 5; Mississippi, 2; Alabama, Florida, Virginia, Utah each had 1.

The 25 persons executed in 1987 brought the total to 93 persons executed since 1976, when the Supreme Court affirmed the death penalty.

The oldest person on death row was age 76; the youngest was 17. Laws of 11 States do not specify the minimum age at which a capital sentence may be imposed. The age most often set by statute is age 18 (11 States).

Source: Capital punishment 1987.
Federal justice data

A major activity during fiscal 1988 was to continue to maintain and expand the Federal Justice Data Base. The data base, which includes data from the Executive Office for United States Attorneys, the Administrative Office of the United States Courts, the Bureau of Prisons, and the United States Parole Commission, describes case processing from prosecution through adjudication, sentencing, and corrections. This is the first time that Federal data have been brought together in a single resource.

During 1988 two reports based on Federal data were issued. The first, *Pretrial release and detention: The Bail Reform Act of 1984* (BJS Special Report, February 1988) analyzed the impact of the Bail Reform Act with emphasis on numbers of defendants detained pretrial and time of pretrial detention. (Data from this study are presented in the "BJS reports on . . . adjudication and sentencing" section of this report.)

The second report, *Drug law violators, 1980-86: Federal offenses and offenders* (BJS Special Report, June 1988), updated an earlier report on Federal drug violators and described rates of prosecution, conviction, and reincarceration for drug violators. (Data from this study are presented in the "BJS reports on . . . drugs" section of this report.)

The first compendium of Federal criminal justice statistics was prepared during fiscal 1988. It includes tables and text that describe all aspects of Federal criminal case processing at the national and district court levels. It will be issued annually beginning in fiscal 1989.

Further investigation of Federal civil case processing continued in fiscal 1988 looking toward preparation of reports on civil data during fiscal 1989. BJS work in the area of Federal civil justice statistics is described in the "New initiatives" section of this report.

In addition to these ongoing activities, major plans were initiated to expand the Federal program to produce more up-to-date data for use by Department of Justice and other criminal justice practitioners. Initial steps were taken during 1988 to obtain more current data, and formats were designed for quarterly reports to be issued regularly starting in early 1989. To increase the comprehensiveness of the Federal Justice Data Program, efforts were initiated to obtain data from more Federal criminal justice agencies.
Privacy, security, and confidentiality of criminal justice data and criminal histories

Increased reliance on criminal justice data for public and private sector uses has highlighted the need for accurate, complete, and timely criminal justice records. Policies that govern the collection and maintenance of such data and laws that regulate the release of such data for different purposes are also of prime concern to the criminal justice community. In response to these concerns a major part of BJS action during the year in the area of privacy, security, and confidentiality focused on the issue of data quality.

During fiscal 1988 BJS funded a major national conference on juvenile justice records. The conference was the most recent on information policy questions of national significance. Speakers addressed the use of juvenile records in the adult system, the quality of juvenile records, and problems of access to juvenile data. Conference proceedings were prepared for release early in fiscal 1989. An overview of existing State and local juvenile justice systems was also prepared for publication in fiscal 1989: Juvenile records and record-keeping systems.

During fiscal 1988 BJS also prepared to publish in fiscal 1989 the proceedings of an earlier conference on open-record policies and procedures. The report explores all aspects of the open vs. confidential record debate with emphasis on practical implications of legislative requirements for preemployment screening and licensing. The proceedings include presentations by Senator Patrick Leahy and former BJS Director Steven R. Schlesinger.

Recognizing the key role that courts play in developing complete criminal-history records, a special effort was made to ensure higher levels of court disposition reporting. Specifically, during fiscal 1988 discussions were begun with national court organizations to further explore the legal, technical, and policy issues relating to disposition reporting.
BJS also funded efforts to review the basic policies and assumptions underlying Department of Justice Regulations (28 CFR Part 20), which implement the privacy and security requirements set out in Section 812 of the Omnibus Crime Control Act, as amended. Recommended revisions to basic policies reflected in the regulations also were completed.

Another document in the Information Policy Series, Public access to criminal-history record information, was prepared during fiscal 1988. The report describes legislation, regulations, and case law defining the public's right to obtain criminal-history record information and identifies issues relevant to such policies.

Recognizing the problems associated with fraudulent identification documents (which constitute the basis for all operational and statistical record systems), a report was prepared on identification fraud and the possible approaches to and implications of developing national standards in this area.

The Compendium of State privacy and security legislation: 1987 overview, summarizing State privacy legislation, was published in August 1988 for general distribution. Complete texts of State privacy statutes were sent to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS) for users who need access to the full text of such legislation.

To assist criminal justice agencies in upgrading data quality, a report was prepared that describes specific techniques that can be used to increase record accuracy and completeness. The report, designed for use by record managers and policymaking personnel, is scheduled for publication in 1989.

BJS continued to oversee activities to ensure the confidentiality of statistical and research data. These activities included development and review of appropriate data maintenance and transfer procedures in support of the BJS Federal, State, and national programs.
Source notes

Single copies of any report with an NCJ number can be obtained free from the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS), P.O. Box 6000, Rockville, MD 20850; toll-free 800-732-3277 (local number 301-251-5500).

BJS data report, 1986, October 1987, NCJ-106679

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Criminal defense for the poor, 1986 (BJS Bulletin), September 1988, NCJ-112919

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Data center & Clearinghouse for Drugs & Crime (brochure), February 1988, BC-000092

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<thead>
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<th>Publication Date</th>
<th>Report Number</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historical statistics on prisoners in State and Federal institutions, year end 1925-86</td>
<td>May 1988</td>
<td>NCJ-111098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to gain access to BJS data (brochure)</td>
<td>September 1984</td>
<td>BC-000022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International crime rates (BJS Special Report)</td>
<td>May 1988</td>
<td>NCJ-110776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jail inmates 1986 (BJS Bulletin)</td>
<td>October 1987</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>June 1988</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>November 1988</td>
<td>NCJ-113948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>January 1988</td>
<td>NCJ-109926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>November 1988</td>
<td>NCJ-111458</td>
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<td>May 1987</td>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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Violent crime trends (BJS Special Report), November 1987, NCJ-107217

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