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U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics





Application of the National Crime Survey Victimization and Attitude Data



# **Restitution to Victims** of Personal and Household Crimes

Focus:

To assess the feasibility of restitution to victims by offenders

Data Base: National Crime Survey data on six types of theft:

- Unarmed robbery
- Purse snatching/ Pocket picking
- Burglary
- Larceny from home
- Larceny elsewhere
- Vehicle theft

### Finding:

Relatively few theft losses are so high as to preclude restitution to victims by offenders, despite the very low incomes of offenders.



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# **Restitution to Victims**

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owner

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**Application of** Victimization Survey Results Project

ANALYTIC REPORT VAD-9

# of Personal and Household Crimes

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### U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE Bureau of Justice Statistics

Benjamin H. Renshaw, III Acting Director

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THE BUREAU OF JUSTICE STATISTICS (formerly the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration) has been sponsoring the collection of victimization statistics through the National Crime Survey (NCS) since 1973. The NCS publication program has two major components. The first provides the timely release of victimization rates and trends; such data are published within 6 months of the end of data collection. The second component of the NCS publication program involves special reports, such as this report on victim restitution, which examine a particular subject matter in depth. Because such detailed analysis involves a number of developmental phases, the data used in the report may be several years old by the time the report is published. In these cases, the report has been carefully reviewed to insure that the statistical relationships described in the report are not significantly different from those seen in data that have become available more recently. The reader should exercise caution, however, in interpreting data involving dollar amounts because of recent inflationary factors. NCS data that might be affected include income, value of loss due to victimization, and cost of medical treatment.

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## CONTENTS

Foreword	
Highlights of the Findings	111 ***
Introduction	VII
Restitution: An Overview	1
A Definition	1
A Brief History	1
General Use in the United States	2
Formal Restitution Programs	2
The Problem	3
Aims of the Analysis	3
Six Focal Offenses	4
Questions Addressed	4
The National Crime Survey	4
Data Analysis and Discussion	ָר בי
Type of Loss	) : -
Gross Amounts of Loss	) \
Recovery from Insurance, Police, and Other Sources, 10	9: 
Net Theft Losses	s •
Determining Ability to Pay	
Victim Characteristics	
Extraneous Limits on Restitutive Programming	
Crime Reporting Behavior	
Limiting Effect of the Criminal Justice System	
Summary and Conclusion	
Appendix A: National Crime Survey Questionnaire	
References 27	
3/	

### **TABLES AND FIGURES**

Figure 1	Estimated number and relative fre- quency of victimizations resulting in loss, damage, and personal injury; six focal offenses, United States, 1974.	7	Table 6	Estimated number which something amount stolen, per focal offenses, U
Table 1	Estimated number of victimizations resulting in loss and damage, by type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974	8	Table 7	Estimated number which something recovered throug amount stolen and focal offenses, Ur
Table 2	Estimated number of victimizations resulting in loss and damage, by amount of loss and damage and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974	10	Table 8	Estimated number which something theft loss and type offenses, United S
Table 3	Estimated number of victimizations resulting in theft of cash, by amount and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974	11	Table 9	Income earned b during the 12 mo ceration, by confir and sex, 1972
Table 4	Estimated number of victimizations in which something was stolen, by method of value assessment and type of offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974	12	Table 10	Estimated number involving a net the family income of offense; six foca States, 1974
Table 5	Estimated number of victimizations in which something was stolen, by type of offense and extent of recovery; six		Figure 2	Proportions of Uni index crimes agai against property t

focal offenses. United States, 1974 . 13

ofvictimizations in was stolen, by rcent recovered; six Inited States, 1974 15

of victimizations in was stolen and gh insurance, by type of offense; six nited States, 1974 . 16

of victimizations in was stolen, by net of offense; six focal States, 1974 ..... 18

by inmates of jails onths prior to incarnement status, race, ..... 19

er of victimizations neft loss, by annual victim and type of al offenses, United ..... 21

iform Crime Reports inst the person and against property that were cleared by arrest, 1974..... 24

7

### Highlights of the Findings

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

# **RESTITUTION TO VICTIMS OF PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD CRIMES**

### Introduction

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

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

The focus of this report is on a third development in criminal justice, which suggests a unifying link between concern for the victim and the call for offenserelated penalties: *restitution* by offenders. Data available from victimization surveys sponsored by the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (now the Bureau of Justice Statistics) and carried out by the U.S. Bureau of the Census will be presented. The National Crime Survey (NCS), its design, and relevant data elements, will be discussed below. The NCS data will be used to examine issues such as the amount of loss suffered by victims, recovery of losses, and the failure to report victimizations to the police, as these issues relate to restitution programs. Before the data are presented, however, the next section discusses the concept of restitution in more detail.

## Restitution: An Overview A Definition

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

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

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

### **A** Brief History

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

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

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

The ancient historical evolutionary process thus consisted of several stages: (1) private vengeance; (2) collective vengeance; (3) the process of negotiation and composition; (4) the adoption of codes containing pre-set compensation amounts which were to be awarded the victim in the composition process; (5) the gradual intervention of lords or rulers as mediators, and payment to them of a percentage of the complete take-over of the criminal justice process and the disappearance of restitution from the criminal law.... During this process the interest of the state gradually overshadowed and supplanted those of the victim. The connection between restitution and punishment was severed. Restitution to the victim came to play an insignificant role in the administration of the criminal law. The rights of the victim and the concepts of composition and restitution were separated from the criminal law and instead became incorporated into the civil law of torts.<sup>1</sup>

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

#### **General Use in the United States**

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

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

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

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

### **Formal Restitution Programs**

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

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

Beginning in 1976, a concerted effort to develop and test restitution programs was begun by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. As part of a continuing national experiment, programs for adult offenders have received federal funding in 11 States. The point in the criminal process at which these programs were implemented ranges from pre-trial diversion to parole release (Harland, Warren, and

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

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

Brown, 1979). Much more sweeping efforts are also underway in the juvenile justice system, where over forty programs were recently funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (National Office for Social Responsibility, 1979).

#### The Problem

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

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

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

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

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

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

## Aims of the Analysis

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

### Six Focal Offenses

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

### **Questions Addressed**

Within each offense category, the analysis mirrors the procedures followed by restitution program staff

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

when they determine the restitution amount(s) that each offender will be expected to pay.

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

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

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

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

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

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

## The National Crime Survey

In 1972, the Bureau of the Census, under contract to the Department of Justice, begai. the systematic collection of a wealth of information about the circumstances and consequences of criminal victimization in the United States. Known as the National Crime Survey (NCS), the data collection program includes personal interviews with about 132,000 individuals in a national stratified probability sample of approximately 60,000 households annually. The respondents are asked questions to determine whether they had been the victims of a selected set of crimes during the six months preceding the interviews. Detailed questions are used to elicit from respondents the nature and consequences of any victimizations uncovered in the course of the interviews.<sup>6</sup>

The survey involves a rotating panel design consisting of six panels of 10,000 households each; all persons 12 years of age and older in each household are interviewed twice a year-the interviews being six months As noted, National Crime Survey data are derived

apart-for three years, after which time, new households are introduced into the panel. The panel feature was designed to provide information not only on the nature of criminal victimization, but also on the change over time in victimization incidents and patterns. Although issues of panel design, sampling frame, questionnaire construction and administration, are by no means insignificant (indeed, they are quite complex), their treatment is beyond the scope of this inquiry. Detailed discussion of the design, methodology, and administration of the National Crime Survey is provided elsewhere (Garofalo and Hindelang, 1977). from a sample of households; the crimes reported, therefore, constitute a sample, not a universe of victimizations. The nature of the sampling technique and the large number of cases included in the sample, how-

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

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

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

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

From the discussion so far, it should be obvious that some kinds of incidents about which there might be keen interest are simply not included in the NCS. For example, vandalism and arson-important crimes for which restitution could be made-are not included. Because of such restrictions, it must be remembered that the present analysis can deal only with the potential for restitution in those crimes covered by the survey; the potential for restitution cannot be evaluated across a fuil range of crimes. Despite the restrictions of the NCS, its probe of the nature and consequences of criminal victimization has yielded an unprecedented amount of information about the nature, costs, and consequences of certain types of victimization. This report organizes those data into a succinct analysis of the potential of restitution programs for those types of victimization.

### **Type of Loss**

A threshhold concern in the administration of a restitution program is, of course, whether the criminal incident led to some form of loss for which restitution can be made. Most statutes and legal decisions that explicitly address the issue require that the restitution be directly related to the financial loss resulting from the offense (Harland, 1979; Laster, 1970). Other forms of restitution, discussed above as "symbolic" and also called "creative" restitution (Eglash, 1975), must be dealt with on a case-by-case basis and will not be addressed in any detail in the present analysis.

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

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

### Data Analysis and Discussion

which something was stolen (14 percent). Because of the largely non-violent nature of the offenses chosen, the low incidence of injury (less than 1 percent of the total cases) is to be expected.

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

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

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

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



TABLE 1	Estimated numbers and	percentages of victimization	ns resulting in loss and
	damages, aby type of offer	nse: six focal offenses. United	States, 1974

		Type of offense									
Outcome	Total	Unarmed robbery	Purse snatching/ pocket picking	Burglary	Larceny from home	Larceny elsewhere	Vehicle theft				
Something	3,876,838	48,930	13,548	1,465,881	534,378	1,531,968	282,133				
stolen and	100%	1.3%b	0.3%	37.8%	13.8%	39.5%	7.3%				
property damages	11.8%	9.0% C	2.6%	22.0%	6.0%	10.3%	21.0%				
Something	24,291,962	253,341	435,097	2,855,456	7,754,272	12,420,236	573,550				
stolen: no	100%	1.0%	1.8%	11.8%	31.9%	51.1%	2.4%				
property damages	74.1%	46.4%	85.1%	42.9%	87.5%	83.5%	42.7%				
Property	2,336,915	44,000	4,733	1,457,180	160,575	364,404	305,161				
damages but	100%	1.9%	0.2%	62.6%	6.9%	15.7%	13.1%				
nothing stolen	7.1%	8.2%	0 9%	21.9%	1.8%	2.4%	22.7%				
Nothing	2,293,620	199,043	58,100	876,556	416,835	562,038	181,048				
stolen:	100%	8.7%	2.5%	38.2%	18.2%	24.5%	7.9%				
nothing	7.0%	36.4%	11.4%	13.2%	4.7%	3.8%	13.5%				
damaged											
Total	32,799,325	546,176	511,478	6,655,073	8,866,060	14,878,646	1,341,892				
	100%	1.7%	1.6%	20.3%	27.0%	45.4%	4.1%				
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%				

<sup>D</sup>Row percent.

<sup>C</sup>Column percent.

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

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

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

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

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

On the whole, the outlook for restitution seems relatively straightforward when type of loss is considered. In a large majority of the six types of victimization, property is either stolen or damaged; far fewer victimizations in any crime category involve more than one type of loss.

#### **Gross Amounts of Loss**

Throughout much of the literature concerning restitution in the criminal justice system, a constantly recurring reservation appears: most offenders are impecunious "men of straw" for whom substantial monetary penalties are unrealistic (Polish, 1973). However, examination of Table 2 indicates that such a reservation can be accepted by restitution advocates without seriously compromising their position or detracting from the viability of restitution programming. For the six offenses as a whole, almost one-half (48 percent) of the victimizations in which loss or damage occurred involved amounts of less than \$25 in 1974. Following this heavy clustering of cases in the lowest end of the dollar range there is immediately a sharp decline in the number of victimizations in the higher cost categories. Fears that offenders will not be able to afford restitution should be somewhat dissipated when it is realized that approximately threequarters (73 percent) of the 1974 victimizations resulted in gross loss/damage costs of less than \$100.7 Although the overall pattern is once more defined by the dominant larceny categories, it is nevertheless an accurate reflection of each of the individual offenses-with one exception. In the vehicle theft category, more than one-quarter (28.3 percent) of the 1974 victimizations resulting in loss/damage involved between \$1,000 and \$5,000. Three-fifths of the auto theft victimizations (61.3 percent) involved at least \$250. As will be seen below, because a large proportion of stolen vehicles are recovered (see Table 5), and because remaining major expenses are frequently offset by insurance (see Table 7), the situation becomes complex for restitution purposes. This aspect of restitution programming will be dealt with in more detail as analysis turns to recovery and insurance questions. However, even though this crime category does not follow the general cost pattern, more than one-quarter (27.9 percent) of these victimizations resulted in

losses/damages of less than \$250 in 1974.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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	IOTAI	value	\$1 10 \$24	\$25 10 \$45	\$20 10 \$99	\$100 10 \$249	\$250 10 \$499	200 10 222A	\$4,999	or more													
Unarmed robbery	347,134 100%	21,062 6.1%	140,885 40.6%	40,513	36,711	39,372 11.3%	21,305 6.1%	2,764 0.8%	8,461 2.4%	2,384 0.7%	33,677 9.7%												
Purse snatching/	453,378	2,507	192,401	86,799 19 1%	66,049 14.6%	57,667	15,486	5,326	1,188	0	25,955	ł											
Burglary	5,778,517	542,891	1,438,053	547,348	645,967	823,338	. 454,725	393,948	288,627	32,474	611,146												
	100%	9.4%	24.9%	9.5%	11.2%	14.2%	7.9%	6.8%	5.0%	0.6%	10.6%					1							
Larceny from home	8,449,226 100%	130,842 1.5%	4,365,479 51.7%	1,164,964 13.8%	1,151,418 13.6%	877,778 10.4%	211,921 2.5%	81,149 1.0%	46,075 0.5%	7,040 0.1%	412,560 4.9%												
Larceny	14,316,608	173,398	7,510,545	2,110,565	1,684,742	1,479,542	451,595	196,081	72,351	12,857	624,931												
Vehicle	1 160 844	62 049	52.5% 77.073	48.184	43.394	94.065	123.245	1.4%	329.078	59,350	4.4% 123 428*	-											
theft	100%	5.3%	6.6%	4.2%	3.7%	8.1%	10.6%	17.3%	28.3%	5.1%	10.6%				÷ , *								
Total <sup>b</sup>	30,505,706 100%	932,749 3.0%	13,724,436 45.0%	3,998,373 13,1%	3,628,281 11.9%	3,371,762 11.0%	1,278,277 4.2%	880,246 2.9%	745,780 2.4%	114,105 0.4%	1,831,697 6.0%												
aExcludes losses r	resulting from	injuries.												**************************************									
<sup>b</sup> Includes only vic	timizations in	which loss	or damage of no dollar v	occurred.																,			
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Type of offense	<b>Total</b> <sup>a</sup>	\$1 to \$24	\$25 to \$49	\$50 to \$99	\$100 to \$249	\$250 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 to \$4,999	\$5,000 or more	Not ascertained
Unarmed robbery	77,050	48,164	3,946	5,966	5,115	2,337	0	2,459	0	9,063
	100%	62.5%	5.1%	7.7%	6.6%	3.0%	0%	3.2%	0%	11.8%
Purse snatching/	120,143	60,131	19,264	15,163	12,813	2,583	1,253	1,188	0%	7,748
pocket picking	100%	50.0%	16.0%	12.6%	10.7%	2.1%	1.0%	1.0%		6.4%
Burglary	388,906	187,935	54,204	54,525	58,524	12,444	4,550	2,143	0	16,581
	100%	48.3%	13.9%	14.0%	15.0%	3.2%	1.2%	0.6%	0%	3.7%
Larceny from home	277,193	155,294	35,751	44,651	18,072	1,081	2,818	3,516	1,272	14,639
	100%	56.1%	12.9%	16.1%	6.5%	0.4%	1.0%	1.3%	0.5%	5.3%
Larceny elsewhere	1,177,824	921,412	107,621	59,387	34,632	7,288	3,636	1,101	0	42,748
	100%	78.2%	9.1%	5.4%	2.9%	0.6%	0.3%	0.1%	0%	3.6%
Total <sup>a</sup>	2,041,116	1,373,036	220,786	179,692	129,156	25,733	12,257	10,407	1,272	88,779
	100%	67.3%	10.8%	8.8%	6,3%	1.3%	0.6%	0.5%	0,1%	4.3%

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**TABLE 3** Estimated number of victimizations resulting in theft of cash, by amount and type of offense

 focal offenses, United States, 1974

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

					Method	of assessmen	t			
Type of offense	Total <sup>a</sup>	Cash only	Original cost only	Replacement cost only	Personal estimate of cash value	Insurance report	Police estimate	Don't know	Other (includes combination)	Not ascertained
Unarmed	302,271	77,050	108,347	28,005	63,372	2,441	1,131	6,351	10,976	4,600
robbery	100%	25.5%	35.8%	9.3%	21.0%	0.8%	0.4%	2.1%	3.6%	1.5%
Purse snatching/	448,645	120,143	133,682	45,222	92,895	0%	0	11,739	34,714	10,250
pocket picking	100%	26.8%	29.8%	10.1%	20.7%		0%	2.6%	7.7%	2.3%
Burglary	4,321,337	388,906	1,585,155	498,493	1,156,446	81,085	20,949	91,146	415,564	83,593
	100%	9.0%	36.7%	11.5%	26.8%	1.9%	0.5%	2.1%	9.6%	1.9%
Larceny	8,288,650	277,193	3,267,577	1,607,423	2,135,693	57,096	12,378	197,529	595,779	137,983
from home	100%	3.3%	39.4%	19.4%	25.8%	0.7%	0.1%	2.4%	7.2%	1.7%
Larceny	13,952,203	1,177,824	5,476,121	2,894,896	2,832,061	124,819	19,424	180,516	1,027,046	219,495
elsewhere	100%	8.4%	39.2%	20.7%	20.3%	0.9%	0.1%	1.3%	7.4%	1.6%
Motor vehicle theft	855,683 100%	0 0%	196,927 23.0%	66,706 7.8%	390,733 45.7%	94,041 11.0%	2,450 0.3%	13,428 1.6%	77,477 9.1%	13,923 1.6%
Total <sup>a</sup>	28,168,789	2,041,116	10,767,809	5,140,745	6,671,200	359,482	56,332	500,709	2,161,556	469,844
	100%	7.2%	38.2%	18.2%	23.7%	1.3%	0.2%	1.8%	7.7%	1.7%

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

### **Recovery from Insurance, Police, and Other** Sources

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Clearly, the ultimate scope of restitutive programming is not determined by a knowledge, no matter how by means other than insurance. precise, of the immediate losses resulting from per-However one elects to explain these recovery patsonal victimizations. Identifying gross losses is merely terns, the potential for a financial restitutive disposithe first, though often a complex step in a restitutive tion diminishes as recovery becomes more extensive. investigation. Stolen property is sometimes recovered; Nevertheless, in cases of partial recovery, restitution of damaged property is repaired; and the victim may the balance remains a possibility, and forms of resticarry insurance to cover both types of loss as well as tution are not unknown even in cases where complete medical expenses due to crime-related injuries. For recovery has occurred prior to disposition of the offender. In cases involving joyriding by youths, for unrecovered or unrepaired portions or for expenses beyond those paid by insurance, the offender's liability example, a juvenile judge may grant probation on for restitution directly to the victim remains relatively condition that the offender(s) wash the victim's car simple. However, for those losses in which recovery is over a certain period; similar forms of symbolic or made or insurance is paid, the use of restitution as a "creative restitution" are well documented in the literacriminal sanction becomes less straightforward. ture (Eglash, 1975), although research is needed to

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

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

	Type of offense												
Total <sup>a</sup>	Unarmed robbery	Purse snatching/ pocket picking	Burglary	Larceny from home	Larceny elsewhere	Vehicle theft							
2,657,619	61,218	37,480	335,849	836,192	1,008,134	378,746							
9.4% b	20.3%	8.4%	7.8%	10.1%	7.2%	44.3%							
1,196,949	31,005	99,420	167,864	154,982	537,043	206,630							
4.3%	10.3%	22.2%	3.9%	1.9%	3.8%	24.1%							
24,314,222	210,048	311,740	3,817,624	7,297,476	12,407,027	270,307							
86.3%	69.5%	69.5%	88.3%	88.0%	88.9%	31.6%							
28.168.790	302,271	448,645	4,321,337	8,288,650	13,952,204	855,683							
100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%							

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

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

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

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

14

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

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

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

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

					Total value of th	eft loss		1
l'ype of offense	Total <sup>b</sup>	No value	\$1 10 \$24	\$25 to \$99	\$100 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 or more	Not ascertained
Jnarmed robbery	302.271	2.295 <sup>C</sup>	i30.812	74,489	59,758 <sup>C</sup>	3.939 <sup>C</sup>	11.105 C	19.874 <sup>C</sup>
Full recovery	20.3	100.0	12.7	13.4	18.0	0	35.7	88.6
Partial recovery	10.3	0	7.2	15.0	15.4	29.8	0	0
No recovery	69.5	0	80.1	71.6	66.6	70.2	64.3	11.4
Purse snatching/								
ocket picking	448,645	2,507 C	188,772	154,081	71,920	5,326 C	1,188 <sup>C</sup>	24,851 <sup>C</sup>
Full recovery	8.4	100.0	9,9	1.7	5.0	0	0	40.9
Partial recovery	22.2	0	20.1	24.9	26.4	76.5	0	0
No recovery	69.5	0	70.0	73.4	68.7	23.5	100.0	59.1
Burglary	4,321,337	25,581 <sup>C</sup>	1,043,055	1,095,657	1,260,231	400,310	331,141	165,361
Full recovery	7.8	94.6	4.0	5.2	4.8	2.7	2.4	80.5
Partial recovery	3.9	0	2.0	3.6	3.7	7.7	8.8	0.7
No recovery	88.3	5.4	94.0	91.2	91.4	89.7	88.9	18.8
arceny from home	8,288,650	96,800	4,375,100	2,312,042	1,077,528	81,731	49,448 <sup>C</sup>	296,001
Full recovery	10.1	97.5	4.2	8.3	4.8	11.3	4.8	92.4
Partial recovery	1.9	· 0	1.2	2.8	3.7	6.7	2.6	0
No recovery	88.0	2.5	94.6	88.8	91.5	82.0	92.6	7.6
arceny elsewhere	13,952,203	92,565	7,533,391	3,819,079	1,871,384	182,030	82,947	360,807
Full recovery	7.2	100.0	4,4	4.6	5.5	4.4	5.6	83.0
Partial recovery	3.8	0	3.0	5.5	4.1	6,2	4.3	1.3
No recovery	88.9	0	92.5	89.9	90.4	89.4	90.2	15.7
ehicle theft	855.683	1,183 <sup>C</sup>	3,650 <sup>C</sup>	13,379 <sup>C</sup>	208,022	204,462	401,519	23,558 <sup>C</sup>
Full recovery	44.3	100.0	30.0	55.0	53.7	42.6	39.4	52.1
Partial recovery	24.1	0	2.5	8.7	18.2	22.9	30.0	0
No recovery	31.6	0	67.5	36.3	28.1	34.5	30.6	47.0
otal b	28,168,789	210,931	13,294,780	7,468,717	4,548,843	877,798	877,302	890,452
Full recovery	9.4	98.2	4.5	6.0	8.1	13.1	20.2	83.8
Partial recovery	4.3	1.8	2.6	4.9	4.9	11.3	19.6	0.6
No recovery	86.3	0	92.9	89.1	87.0	75.6	60.2	15.6

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<sup>b</sup>Includes only victimizations in which something was stolen. <sup>C</sup>Base on which percentage was computed contains 50 or fewer sample cases and may be statistically unreliable.

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### TABLE 7 Estimated number of victimizations in which something was stolen and percent with some recovery through insurance, by amount stolen and type of

offense; six focal offenses, United States, 1974

	Total value of theft losses										
Type of offense	Total	\$1 to \$24	\$25 to \$99	\$100 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 or more	Not ascertained				
Unarmed	299,976 <sup>a</sup>	130,812	74,489	59,758 C	3,939 <sup>C</sup>	11,105 <sup>C</sup>	19,874 <sup>C</sup>				
robbery	3.6% b	0%	1.6%	13.6%	34.3%	0%	0%				
Purse snatching/	446,138	188,722	154,081	71,920	5,326 <sup>C</sup>	1,188 <sup>C</sup>	24,851 <sup>C</sup>				
pocket picking	2.2%	0%	2.3%	8.4%	0%	0%	0%				
Burglary	4,295,756	1,043,055	1,095,657	1,260,231	400,310	331,141	165,361				
	11.4%	1.0%	4.4%	17.1%	26.3%	31.4%	4.4%				
Larceny	8,191,850	4,375,100	2,312,042	1,077,528	81,731	49,448 <sup>C</sup>	296,001				
from home	4.5%	0.7%	5.9%	15.5%	22.9%	14.1%	1.7%				
Larceny	13,869,638	7,533,391	3,819,079	1,871,384	182,030	82,947	360,807				
elsewhere	6.0%	1.1%	7.8%	20.5%	23.1%	14.5%	3.0%				
Vehicle	854,500	3,650 <sup>.C</sup>	13,379 <sup>G</sup>	208,022	204,462	401,519	23,558 <sup>C</sup>				
theft	27.6%	0%	0%		24.4%	42.3%	5.1%				
Total	27,957,858	13,294,780	7,468,717	4,548,843	877,798	877,302	890,452				
	6.9%	0.9%	6.5%	17.5%	24.8%	33.3%	2.7%				

<sup>a</sup>Number of victimizations in cell; base on which percentage was computed.

<sup>b</sup>Percent of cell victimizations in which something was stolen that resulted in recovery through insurance.

<sup>C</sup>Base on which percentage was computed contains 50 or fewer sample cases and may be statistically unreliable.

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

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

As would be expected, the vehicle theft victimizations are those most frequently covered by insurance, with 27.6 percent involving some insurance recovery. Also, it will be remembered from Table 6 that 44.3 percent of auto theft victimizations resulted in complete recovery from non-insurance sources, and 24.1 percent resulted in partial recovery. It would seem, therefore,, that although auto thefts represent some of the larger initial victim losses, direct and insurance recoveries will frequently bring the net losses within the restitutive capacity of many offenders.

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

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

#### Net Theft Losses

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

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

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

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

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

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

### **Determining Ability to Pay**

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

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

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

Statistic Statistics

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

		Total value of theft loss										
Type of offense	- Total <sup>a</sup>	No loss/ no value	\$1 to \$24	\$25 to \$49	\$50 to \$99	\$100 to \$249	\$250 to \$499	\$500 to \$999	\$1,000 to \$4,999	\$5,000 or mor		
Unarmed robbery: Gross Net	100% (282,397) 100% (281,245)	0.8% b 16.4% b	46.3% 43.5%	13.0% 11.6%	13.4% 11.6%	14.8% 10.4%	6.3% 3.0%	1.4% 0.9%	3.1% 1.7%	0.8% 0.8%		
Purse snatching/ pocket picking: Gross Net	100% (423,794) 100% (421,392)	0.6% 6.5%	44.5% 42.3%	20.5% 19.9%	15.9% 15.3%	13.3% 12.0%	3.7% 2.8%	1.3% 1.0%	0.3% 0.3%	0% 0%		
Burglary: Gross Net	100% (4,155,976) 100% (4,127,452)	0.6% 6.9%	25.1% 25.3%	11.4% 11.1%	14.9% 15.3%	19.4% 18.6%	10.9% 9.7%	9.6% 7.3%	7.3% 5.4%	0.7% 0.4%		
Larceny from home: Gross Net	100% (7,992,649) 100% (7,926,916)	1.2% 8.3%	54.7% 53.5%	14.6% 13.5%	14.3% 12.6%	10.8% 8.9%	2.6% 2.0%	1.0% 0.7%	0.5% 0.5%	0.1% 0%		
Larceny elsewhere: Gross Net	100% (13,591,396) 100% (13,507,656)	0.6% 8.0%	55.4% 54.3%	15.5% 14.2%	12.6% 11.3%	10.6% 8.3%	3.1% 2.4%	1.4% 1.0%	0.6% 0.4%	0.1% 0.1%		
Vehicle theft: Gross Net	100% (832,125) 100% (822,084)	0.1% 54,9%	0.4% 1.8%	0.2% 1.3%	1.5% 4.3%	9.1% 8.0%	15.9% 8.4%	24.6% 11.1%	41.3% 9.3%	7.0% 0.9%		
Total: Gross Net	100% (27,278,337) 100% (27,086,745)	0.8% 9.4%	48.7% 47.7%	14.2% 13.2%	13.2% 12.1%	12.1% 10.1%	4.6% 3.7%	3.2% 2. <i>2</i> %	2.8% 1.5%	0.4% 0.2%		

<sup>b</sup>Row percents.

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I ABLE 9	Income e incarcera
Total	
Confinement Awaiting trial only	status:
Sentenced only	
Race: White	
Black	
Sex: Male	
Female	
<sup>a</sup> The small di from the an <sup>b</sup> Subcategor	iscrepancy b alysis (less t ies may not
Source: LEA	A, 1975

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

For every group of inmat\_\_ in Table 9, more than half had incomes of less than \$3,000 for the 12 months prior to incarceration, and for female offenders in particular, 72.9 percent fall into this income category.<sup>10</sup> Consequently, it seems that even though the present analysis has shown the majority of victimization losses to be manageable by an offender in regular employment, the success of adult restitution programs may

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

## arned by inmates of jails during the 12 months prior to ation, by confinement status, race,<sup>a</sup> and sex, 1972<sup>b</sup>

	P	revious income	
Total	Less than \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$7,499	\$7,500 or more
 100.0	56.7	32.3	11.0
137,333	77,902	44,354	15,077
100.0	59.2	32.1	8.7
42,528	25,177	13,669	3,682
100.0	58.1	31.2	10.7
55,796	32,402	17,398	5,996
100.0	54.2	31.9	13.9
77,722	42,119	24,827	10,776
100.0	59.2	33.3	7,5
56,990	33,765	18,964	4,261
100.0	55.7	32.9	11.3
129,484	72,179	42,623	14,682
100.0	72.9	22.1	5.0
7,849	5,723	1,731	395
 Missing cas	es = 4,272		

etween the sum of black and white percentages is due to the exclusion of the "other" category han 2 percent of ali jail inmates).

sum to 100 percent due to rounding.

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

#### **Victim Characteristics**

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

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

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

From Table 10 it appears that restitution to very wealthy victims of the six focal offenses would be a relatively rare event. Only 7 percent of victimizations resulting in a net theft loss involved families with annual incomes, in 1974, of more than \$25,000.<sup>11</sup> The largest overall category (45 percent) incorporates those families reporting 1974 incomes of \$10,000 to \$25,000 with the two personal crimes, unarmed robbery, and purse snatching/ pocket picking, occurring more frequently in the lower income ranges. The under \$10,000 income groups, which encompass the legitimate earning capacity of many offenders (see Table 9 above), account for 43 percent of the victimizations, suggesting at least a rough financial equality in many cases between the parties to a restitutive arrangement.

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

### Extraneous Limits on Restitutive Programming

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

### **Crime Reporting Behavior**

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

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

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



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>Although this excludes iosses attributable solely to damage, the general picture of the victim remains unaltered because of the proportionately few victimizations reported in which only damage occurred (7.1 percent). Questions about vandalism damage were not asked in the survey. The loss data reported here are for victimizations that occurred in 1974. Inflation has affected loss amounts, but not as much as might be expected. For example, in 1974, 68 percent of the nonviolent personal crimes of theft in which some loss occurred involved amounts less than \$50; by 1978 this had dacreased to 59 percent; for household theft, 55 percent involved amounts less than \$50 in 1974, compared with 48 percent in 1978.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup>This is the conclusion reached by Hawkins (1970) in his study of non-reporting in Seattle.

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

Time of all		Annual family income of victim								
lipermed	Total <sup>a</sup>	Less than \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$7,499	\$7,500 to \$9,999	\$10,000 to \$14,999	\$15,000 to \$24,999	More than \$25,000	Not		
robberv	235,121	40,833	70,252	20 454	07 570		+,000	ascertaine		
	100%	17% <sup>D</sup>	30%	20,404	37,579	34,897	10,596	20 510		
	1%	2%C	1%	570	16%	15%	4%	20,010		
Purse			• 70	1%	1%	1%	1%	9% 0%		
snatching/	204 101	1 A 1 A 1 A 1 A 1 A 1 A 1 A 1 A 1 A 1 A					170	2%		
nocket	394,191	61,221	110,345	52 930	67.004					
picking	100%	16%	28%	100	67,081	59,767	22,997	10 050		
picking	2%	2%	20/6	13%	17%	15%	,001	19,000		
Burglan	204004		£70	2%	1%	1%	0%	5%		
- signaly	3,842,047	590,894	981.316	406 110		• •	1%	2%		
	100%	15%	26%	400,118	783,284	627,452	256 240	100 7 11		
	16%	25%	20%	10%	20%	16%	200,240	196,741		
310000	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		19%	14%	13%	120/	1%	5%		
arceny	7,267,312	721,519	1 688 002	057 407		1370	15%	15%		
rom home	100%	10%	000,353	857,105	1,960,439	1,282,243	290 045	<b>.</b>		
	30%	30%	23%	12%	27%	190/	309,045	367,968		
	~~ / J	30%	32%	30%	32%	1070	5%	5%		
arceny	12,429,185	928 512	0.070.004			20%	22%	28%		
Isewhere	100%	70/	2,213,004	1,427,220	3,174,796	2 802 451				
	510/	1 %0	18%	11%	26%	2,033,431	1,069,500	662,702		
	J 1 70	39%	43%	51%	E0/0	23%	9%	5%		
ehicle	370 587	18 010	400		52%	58%	61%	51%		
eft	100%	10,913	105,060	50,791	85 726	60.404		5170		
	10070	5%	28%	14%	00,720	09,424	17,726	22.947		
	1%	1%	2%	2%	23%	19%	5%	6%		
otal <sup>a</sup>	24 538 442	0.001 000		2.70	1%	1%	1%	0.40		
	27,000,440	2,361,892	5,228,970	2.814 618	6 109 007			2%		
	100%	10%	21%	120/	0,100,907	4,967,234	1,766,104	1 290 719		
	100%	100%	100%	1000/	25%	20%	7%	- 1-00,1 10 E0/		
a second s				100%	100%	100%	100%	5%		

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

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

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

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

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

This latter line of reasoning would most certainly be valid for those victims who failed to report because they felt that "the police would not want to be bothered" (7.3 percent), and an improved police image might also influence those victims who simply "did not want to get involved" (less than 1 percent). For the latter group, the possibility of receiving restitution might also be sufficient incentive for at least some of the victims to decide to become involved, especially in those cases where amounts of loss are not totally trivial. This may also be so where the victim viewed the offense as "not important enough" to report (28.1 percent) or where the victim felt that there was "no time" or it was "too inconvenient" to report (3 percent), or where victims stated that they "did not want to report" because it was a "private or personal matter" (ranging from 12.4 percent in the unarmed robbery category to only 2.4 percent for larceny elsewhere).

## Limiting Effect of the Criminal Justice System

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

Although the number of arrests for each offense is far below the number of victimizations reported in the NCS survey, the rank ordering for each offense remains the same. The largest number of arrests falls in the larceny-theft category and diminishes through burglary, motor vehicle theft, down to the lowest number of arrests for unarmed robbery. However, a further limiting factor exists for programs in which the primary aim is full recovery by the victim. The distributions of victims and losses may be rather different in the official statistics than in the more complete reporting in NCS data. Average losses in cases cleared by the police, for example, may be higher than those in the total population of cases, because of non-reporting and less intensive investigative practices in the less serious cases.<sup>13</sup>

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

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

The victim's claim to recovery and the use of restitution as a rehabilitative tool both must assume their places among the hierarchy of traditional punitive goals such as deterrence, deserts, and incapacitation. If these alternative goals mandate a penalty involving incarceration, as they often do in more serious cases,

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the offender's ability to pay restitution is usually deferred or destroyed because of the very low wages paid for inmate labor. As a result, restitution has come to be looked upon as primarily a diversionary disposition, suitable only when an offender is returned to the community (Cohen, 1944).

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

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

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

### Summary and Conclusion

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

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





Against property



Source: Kelley, 1975

tice system are shown to restrict the use of restitution; particularly important are the low wages paid to incarcerated offenders, low arrest rates, and the effects from processing cases through the criminal justice system. The analysis and discussion in this report are suggestive of the potential scope of restitutive programming. Tracing the operating procedures of a restitution investigator, the report shows that a large majority of victimizations, in the six crime categories discussed. result in losses that seem readily manageable for restitution purposes. Even when all of the factors besides amount of loss are considered, the expanded use of restitutive dispositions seems feasible.

A Standard Standard

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

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

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

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

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

APPENDIX A National Crime Survey Questionnaire	ponu RCS-3 and NCS-4	Form Approved: O.M.B. No. 41-R2
APPENDIX A National Crime Survey Questionnaire	Ponu MC3-3 and NC3-4 (6-0-74)	Form Approved: O.M.B. No. 41-R2
National Crime Survey Questionnaire	[6- <b>6-7</b> 4]	NOTICE - Your report to the Census Bursau is confidential by law (Public
Questionnaire	U.S. OEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE SUCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATISTICS ADMINISTRATION BUREAU OF THE CENSUS ACTING AS COLLECTING ASENT FOR THE LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION	Law 93-83). All identifiable information will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of the survey, and may not be disclosed or released to others for any purpose. Control number
	NATIONAL CRIME SURVEY CENTRAL CITIES SAMPLE	PSU Serial Panel HH Sogment
	FORM NCS-3 - BASIC SCREEN QUESTIONNAIRE FORM NCS-4 - CRIME INCIDENT REPORT	
	1. Interviewer identification Code Name (910)	6. Tenure (cc 7) 1 Owned or being bought 2 Rented for cash 3 No cash rent
	2. Record of interview Line number of household respondent (cc 8)	7. Type of living quarters (cc   ) Housing Unit 1
	(01) 3. Reesen for noninterview (cc 26d) TYPE A (Enter reason and race) Pennon	s HU – Permanent in transient hotel, motel, etc. ₄ HU in rooming house s Mobile home or trailer s HU not specified above – Describe <sub>-7</sub>
		CTHER Unit 7 Diguarters not HU in rooming or boarding house
	► Race of head (1) 1 White 2 Negro 3 Other	8 Uhit hat permanent in transient hotel, motel, etc. Vacant rent site or trailer site 10 Not specified above - Describe 7
	TYPE B 1 Uacant - Regular 2 Vacant - Storage of HH furniture 3 Temporarily occupied by persons with URE 4 Units or to be demolished	8. Number of housing units in structure (cc 23) 1 1 5 5-9 2 2 6 10 or more
	s Under construction, not ready 6 Converted to temporary business or storage 7 Unoccupied tent sife or mailer site 8 Permit granted, coastruction not statred 9 Other = Secrify	ASK IN EACH HOUSEHOLD; (Other than the busines) does anyone in this household operate a business from this address?
	TYPE C (0) 1 Unused line of listing sheet	(23) 1 □ No 2 □ Yes - What kind of business is that? 7
	2 Demoished 3 House or trailer moved 4 Outside segment 5 Converted to permanent business or storage 6 Merged 7 Condemned 8 Built after April 1, 1970 9 Other - Specify-	10. Family income (cc 24)         a         b         b         cc 24)           1         Under \$1,000         b         cc 27,500         co 9,999           2         \$1,000         to 11,999         cc 10,000         to 11,999           3         2,000         to 2,999         to 10,1000         to 14,999           4         3,000         to 3,999         to 11,5,000         to 19,999           5         4,000         to 4,999         tz         20,000         to 24,999           6         5,000         to 5,999         ta         ta         25,000         and over
	TYPE Z Interview not obtained for 7	11. Household members 12 years of age and OVER 7 027 Total number
	Line number  Line number  NOTE: Complete  14-21 for each line  number listed	12. Household members UNDER 12 years of age 7 (028) Total number o [] None 13. Crime decident Reports filled
	4. Household status 1 Same household as last enumeration 2 Replacement household since last enumerati	0279 Total number
	3  Previous noninterview or not in sample befor 5. Special place type code (cc 6c)	ce         CENSUS USE ONLY           (30)         (31)         (61)         (01)
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VER - BEGIN EW RECORD		(cc 8)	(cc 9b)	DAY (cc 13)	(cc 14)	(cc 15)	(cc 16)	(cc 17)	(cc 18)	(cc 19	9)	(cc 20)			
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30. (Other then the incident(s) ju Did you find a deor jimmied, or any other signs of an ATT break in? 31. Wes enything at all stalen the outside your hame, or happen out, such as a bicycle, a gord lawn furniture? (other than an already mentioned) 36. The following questions rafe that heppened to you during between\_\_\_\_1, 197\_\_\_and Did you have your (pocket pi snatched)? 37. Did enyone take something ( from you by using force, such stickup, mugging or threat? 38. Did enyone TRY to rob you b er threatening to harm you? ( eny incidents already mentio 39. Did anyone beat you up, atta you with something, such as (other than any incidents alre 40. Were you knifed, shot at, or some other weapon by anyon than any incidents already m 41. Did envene THREATEN to b THREATEN you with a knife other weepon, NOT including threaters? (other than any incid mentioned) 42. Did anyone TRY to attack ye other way? (other then any in mentioned) 43. During the lost 12 months, di things that belonged to you f or truck, such as packages o 44. Was anything stalen from you ware sway from home, for ins a theater or restaurant, or wh

FORM NCS-3 (8-8-74)

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CONTRACTOR OF COMPACT

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	HOUSEHOLD SCR	EEN QUESTIONS	
29. New I'd like to ask some questions about crime. They refer only to the last 12 months - between	] Yes - How many times?	32. Did anyone take something belonging to you or to any member of this household, from a place where you or they were temporarily staying, such as a friend's or relative's home, a hotel or motel, or a vacation home? 33. What was the statel number of mater.	C. Yes - How many times?
(operiment: neme), gerage, or enormer suitaing on your property?	Var - Haw start	yeu or any other member of this household during the last 12 member of this household	057 None -
Did you find a door jinmied, a lock forced, or any other signs of an ATTEMPTED break in?	times?		1 [] ] 2 [] 2 3 [] 3 4 [] 4 or more
31. Wes enviting at all stolen that is kept	Yes - How many times?	34. Did anyone steel, TRY to steal, or use (it/any of them) without permission?	Yes - Hew many times?
out, such as a bicycle, a garden hose, or lawn furniture? (other than any incidents already mentioned)	[] No 	35. Did anyone steal or TRY to steal part of (it/any of them), such as a bottery, hubcaps, tape-deck, etc.?	Yes-How many times?
	INDIVIDUAL SCI	REEN QUESTIONS	<u> </u>
36. The following questions rater only to things that happened to you during the last 12 months - between1 197 and, 197 Did you have your (packet picked/purse snatched)?	Yes - How many times?	46. Did you find any evidence that someone ATTEMPTED to steal something that belonged to you? (other than any incidents already mentioned)	Yes - How many times?   No
37. Did enyene take something (else) directly from yeu by using force, such as by a stickup, mugging or threat?	Yes - Hew many times?	47. Did you call the police during the last 12 months to report something that happened it you which you though was a crime? Do not count any calls made to the police concerning the Incidents you have jubr told me about.	
38. Did anyone TRY to rob you by using force er threatening to harm you? (other than any incidents already mentioned)	C) Yes - How yearly	No - SKIP to 48	
39. Did anyone beat you up, attack you or hit you with something, such as a rock or bonle? (other than any incidents already mentioned)			
40. Were you knifed, shot at, or disached with some other weepon by anyone beall? (other than any incidents already meationed)	Yes - How many times?	CHECK ITEM C CHECK C C CHECK C CHECK C C CHECK C C CHECK C C CHECK C C CHECK C C CHECK C C CHECK C C C CHECK C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	Yes - How many times?
<ol> <li>Did anyone THREATEN to beet you up er THREATEN you with a knife, gun, or seme other weepon, NOT including telephony threats? (other than any incidents already mentioned)</li> </ol>	TYes - How mony times?	48. Did enything happen to you during the last 12 months which you thought was a crime, but did NOT report to the police? (other then are insident already marking))	           
<ol> <li>Did anyone TRY to attack you in some other way? (other than any incidents already mentioned)</li> </ol>	Yes - New many times?	No - SKIP to Check Item E	
43. During the lost 12 months, did anyone steel things that belonged to you from inside any cas or truck, such as packages or clothing?	Yes - Now many		
44. Was enything stolen from you while you ware sway from home, for instance at work, in a theater ar restaurent, or while traveling?	Yes - New many Lines?	CHECK Look at 48. Was HH member 12 + attacked or threatened, or was something stolen or an attempt made to steal something that belonged to him?	Yes-New many Limes?
45. (Other than any incidents you've already mantioned) was anything (else) at all stalen from you during the last 12 months?	Yes - New many times?	Do any of the screen questions cor for "How many times?" CHECK ITEM E ITEM E Yes - Fill Crime Incident Rebo	ntain any entries r. ondent, orts.

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4.	15.	16. 1	17.	18.	19.	20a.	206.	21.	22.	23. What is the	highest	24.
NAME	TYPE OF	LINE NO.	RELATIONSHIP TO HOUSEHOLD HEAD	AGE LAST BIRTH-	MARITAL STATUS	RACE	ORIGIN	SEX	ARMAD FORCES WEMDER	grade (or year) o school you have attended?	f regular ever	Did you complete that year
NEW RECORD	-	(cc 8)	(cc 9b)	(cc 13)	(cc 14)	(cc 15)	(cc 16)	(cc 17)	(cc 18)	(cc 19)		(cc 20)
st	(034)	(035)	(036)	(037)	(038)	(039)	1	()	(041)	(042)		(04)
	1 Per Self-resp.		1 🗋 Head		1 🖂 M.	I) [] W.		I DM	I [] Yes	00 [] Never atte	nded	1 () Ye
	2 [] Tel Self-resp.	[]	2 []] Wife of head	1	2 🗌 ₩d.	2 [_] Neg		2 [_] F	2 🛄 No	of kinderg	arten v (n1_nav	2 🗋 No
rs(	3 Per Proxy	1 - 1	3 Own child		3 [] D.	1 [] OI.				H.S. (09~1	2)	
	s["]NI-FIII 16-21		5 Non-relative	°	S NM	1				College (2	1-26+)	
CHECK ITEM A	Look at item 4 of household as las Yes SKIP t ive in this house of	n cover t enume o Check n April 1	page. Is this th ration? (Box I i Item B I, 1970?	ne same morked) [] No	(6)	6 <b>d. Have</b> ) 1	you bee Yes	n teeki No	ng for w When ( 2 []] L 3 [] 5 4 [] N	ork during the lid you last wo less than 5 years or more years lever worked	post 4 wi rk? s ago - SM ago - SM	•eks? (IP to 28) (IP to 36
•) <u>1 □ Yes</u>	- SKIP to Check I	tem B	2 🗌 No			27. Is the	re any		why you	could not take	a job LAS	T WEEK
b. Where die U.S. poss	l you live on April ession, etc.)	1, 1970?	(State, foreign	country,	/ (652	) 'Ľ	No	Yes	- 2 🗋 /	Iready has a j	ob	
			<u>.</u>							Cemporary illne	\$5	
State, etc	•	Cau	ntcy		=1				500	Other - Specify	·	
c. Did you l	ive inside the limit	s of a c	ity, town, villag	ge, etc.? Re. etc		$\square$					· .	
<u>س</u> ن و	۰، دع ، د <u>ب</u> ۱۹					80. E 01 4	Nom die	l you (l	ast) wor	? (Name of co	mpany,	
46) L.L.L						DUSIN	ess,/07	onizati	ion or ot	her employer)		
d. Were you	in the Armed Force	s on Ap	ril 1, 1970?		5		<u> </u>				·	
			Id.a			╲ <u>≚</u> ⊒	Never v	vorked	- <u>SKIP</u>	to 36		· · · · · ·
TEM B	is this person 16	years o RA	T Yes			b. Whiat	ki <b>nd of</b> Idio mfs	busine retai	ss or ind I Shoe s	ustry is this?   tore, State 1 ak	(For exan or Dent	nple: TV farm)
760. What was	L doing mast of	LACT	VEFK - (work)		26	T (	۲- T					
keeping i	ouse, going to sch	ool) or s	omething else?		$\sim 1^{\circ}$	c. Were	you -					
Worl	king - SKIP to 280	ő 🔤	Unable to work	–SKIP û	>>~ ~	) = 1 🗀	An emp	oyae o	f a PRIV	ATE company	busines	s or
2 [_] With	a job but not at w kine for work	ork 7 [	j Retirea 1 Other – Speci		$\sim$	· •	A COVI	ONNE	wages, s NT omol	alary or commi avec /Endeval	SSIONS!	
4 🗍 Kee	ping house			N		<u>د</u> ا	or local	)?	rei empi	oyee (reserci,	5101 <b>0</b> , co	ounty,
s 🛄 Goii	ng to school	ŪĹ A	Armed Forces,	HELP IN	286)	з 🗔	SELF-E	MPLO	YED in (	WN business,	professio	lona
b. Did you a	lo any work at all L	AST WE	EK, not counti	ing work	<del>,</del>	·	practice Washing	or tari Wittur	m? 		•	•
around th	e house? (Note: If	farm or l	business operat	or in AH	. ]		working	WITH	JUI FA	in family bus	iness or	form?
	Yes - How mony	hours?.	SKIP .	o 28a	1	engin	eer, sto	ck cier	k, typist	, farmer)	imple: el	ectrical
c. Did you l	ave a job or busin	ess from	which you were	<u>,                                     </u>	656							
temporari	ly absent or an lay	off LAS	T WEEK?			e. What	were yo	ur most	importa	nt activities of	duties?	(For
050) I 🗌 No	2 Yes - Abser		to 280		- Į −	exum	ле, түр	IIIE, KC	eping ac	Count DOOKS, S	ening ca	rs, etc.)
				DUAL S	CREEN C	UESTION	s					
6. The following	auestions refer on	ly to thi	nos that	Nr Haw	-	K. Did v	ou find a	ny evi	dence th	at someone	4 1-1 Vet -	. Now man
happened to y	you during the last 1, 197and r (nocket picked/pu	12 monti , 197	Did	times	?	ATTE belon incide	MPTED jed to y ints alre	to ste ou? (or ady me	al somet ther than intioned)	hing that any	[_] No	times?
7. Did anvone te	ake something (else	) direct	V 1774	- How	NARY 1	17. Did y	e call (	he poli	ice durin	g the last 12 m	onths to	report
from you by u	sing force, such as	by a st	ickup,	times	?	somet crime	hing the ? (Do n	it happi of cour	ened to y it any ca	ou which you t Is made to the	hought w	<b>65 G</b>
mugging or th	neatr DV to set to the	in the second second			= 69	) conce	rning th	e incid	ents you	have just told	me abou	h)
or threatening incidents alr	g to harm you? (oth ady mentioned)	sing tori er than a		es How times	" "		s – Who	e to 48 at happ	ened?			
39. Did anyone b	eat you up, attack	you or hi	it you	es – How times	many 🔲	_l ~				······································	~	k
(other than a	ny incidents alread	y mentio	ned)	o			Look a	nt 47 -	Was HH	member 12 +	11-1 Yes -	How man
10. Were you knii some other w than any inci	led, shot at, or atta eapon by anyona at deats already ment	cked wi all? (ot ioned)	h   ['Yu her   [] N	es – Hew times	many IT		attack thing s steal s	ed or th stolen c somethi	ireatened ir an atte ng that b	l, or was some- mpt made to elonged to him	[]]No	times?
11. Did anyone T THREATEN other weapon (other than a	HREATEN to beat you with a knife, g , NOT including te ny incidents alread	you up o un, or so lephone y mentio	or [] Yi ome threats? [] Ni nad)	es – How times	nany 7 (059	18. Did ai you th (other	uything ought w than an - SKIP	happen las a ci ly incid to Ch	to you d ime, but ents alri eck Item	uring the last did NOT report ady mentioned E	12 month t to the p )	s which police?
42. Did anyone T other way? ( already ment	RY to attack you in other than any inci- ioned)	n some dents		es – How times o	many		s Who	at happ	ened?		······································	
43. During the lo things that be or truck, such	st 12 months, did a longed to you from h as packages or cl	nyone si inside othing?	ieal   [] Yi any car   [] N	es – Hew times	Pany Cl		attack thing steal	ed or the stolen of somethics	mas HH preatened or an atte ng that I	member 12 t d, or was some empt made to belonged to him	[ ] Yes -   [ ] No	How man times?
44. Was anything	stolen from you wi me, for instance at	work, ir	were i i vi	es – Now times D	many		Do any for "H	of the	screen ny times	questions cont	ain any e	ntries
theater or res	induitanii, di wiinte n	averning.			<u></u> U		AI	1			Cart	



HALLS IN THE STATE OF THE STATE

	Form Approved: O.M.B. No. 41-R266
tes	NOTICE - Your report to the Census Bureau is confidential by law (Public Law 93-83). All identifiable information will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of the survey, and may not be
	disclosed or released to others for any purpose.
	FORM NL3-4 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE 16-3-74 SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATISTICS ADMINISTRATION ACTING AS FOLLECTING ASENT FOR THE
	LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
	CRIME INCIDENT REPORT
	NATIONAL CRIME SURVEY
10 11 10 1	
n for description of crime).	Sa. Were you a customer, employee, or oneer?
d the first) incident happen?	
ry. Encourage respondent to	
	A [] Other - Specify
12)	b. Did the presents) steel or TRY to steel environ belonging
	to the store, restaurant, office, factory, etc?
SKIP to 2	(114) 1 [] Yes
- (Note: series must have 3 or	2 No SKIP to Check Item B
more similar incidents which	
respondent can t recall separately)	ba. Und the effender(s) live there or have a right to be there, such as a quest or a workman?
incidents take place?	(A) I Yas SKIP in Charle line B
May)	AL MO
August)	
ober, November)	
nuary, February)	<ul> <li>b. Did the offender(s) actually get in or just TRY to get in the building?</li> </ul>
nvolved in this series?	1 Actually got in
$( \land )$	2 [ ] Just tried to get in
	3 [ ] Don't know
$\langle \nu, \mu \rangle$	c. Was there any evidence, such as a broken lock or broken
, the following questions refer	window, that the offender(s) (forcad his way in/TRIED
ident.	(117) 1 No
the most recreat	Yes - What was the evidence? Anything else?
$\sim$	(Mark all that apply)
n. Toy6 p.m.)	2 Broken lock or window
active)	(or tried) SKIP
	4   Slashed screen to Check
	s [ ] Other - Specify 7 Item B
ce inside the limits of this	
	d. How did the offender(s) (get in/try to get in)?
city - SKIP to 4	1 Through unlocked door or window
tates - END INCIDENT REPORT	2 [] Had key
id this incident occur?	3 [_] Don't know
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	4 [ <sup>+</sup> ] Other - Specify
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Was respondent or any other member of
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	(119) CHECK this household present when this incident occurred? (11 not sure ASC)
imits of a city, town, village, etc.	ITEM B I IND _ SKIP In 170
	2 [] Yes
city, town, etc. 7	
ومن به من با من من با من من من م	7a. Did the person(s) have a weapon such as a gun or knife,
e place?	or something he was using as a weapon, such as a bottle, or wrench?
, in garage or	
break-in)	2 [ ] Don't know
	Yes What was the weapon? (Mark all that apply)
ne, hotel/motel	
ne, hotel/motel J ilding such as	3 [ ] Gun
he, hotel/motel ilding such as hk, gas station.	3 Gun 4 1 Knife
he, hotel/motel ilding such as hk, gas station, station or warehouse	s [_] Gun 4 [_] Knife s [_] Cher - Speci//
ne, hotel/motel iilding such as rstas station, or warehouse , sidewalk,	s Gun 4 [ _] Knife s Other - Specify
ne, hotel/motel hilding such as kk, gas station, station , or warehouse , sidewalk, ertment hall	s _ Gun 4 [ ] Knife s _ Other - Specify b. Did the person(s) hit you, knock you down, or octually attack you in some other way?
ne, hotel/motel i/iding such as nk, gas station, r station r, or warehouse , sidewalk, is'tment hall suk-in or	3 [] Gun 4 []] Knife 5 [] Other - Specify b. Did the person(s) hit you, knock you down, or actually attack you in some other way?
ne, hotel/motel i/iding such as nk, gas station, r, station r, or warchouse , sidewalk, sortment hall sok-in or srk, field, play- to Check	3 [] Gun 4 []] Knife 5 [] Other - Specify b. Did the person(s) hit you, knock you down, or actually attack you in some other way? (12) 1 [] Yes - SKIP to 7f 1 [] Yes - SKIP to 7f
ne, hotel/motel ilding such as nk, gas station, r, station r, or warehouse , sidewalk, sidewa	s [] Gun 4 []] Knife s [] Other - Specify b. Did the person(s) hit you, knock you down, or actually attack you in some other way? (12) 1 [] Yes - SKIP to 7f 2 [] No
ne, hotel/motel ilding such as nk, gas station, r, station r, or warehouse , sidewalk, setment hall eux-in or ark, field, play- ds or parking lot	s [] Gun 4 [] Knife s [] Other - Specify b. Did the person(s) hit you, knock you down, or actually attack you in some other way? 12) 1 [] Yes - SKIP to 7f 2 [] No c. Did the person(s) threaten you with horm in any way?
ne, hotel/motel ilding such as hk, gas station, r, station r, or warehouse , sidewalk, settment hall suck-in or ark, field, play- ds or parking lot	s [] Gun 4 [] Knife s [] Other - Specify b. Did the person(s) hit you, knock you down, or actually attack you in some other way? (12) 1 [] Yes - SKIP to 7f 2 [] No c. Did the person(s) threaten you with harm in any way? 1(12) 1 [] No - SKIP to 7e





34

Contraction of the second second

And the second se

and the second			Contraction of the second s
CRIME INCIDENT Q	UEST	ONS - Continued	
on there besides the offender(s)?			Was a car or other motor vehicle taken?
3a		CHECK	
		ITER D	No - SKIP to Check Item E
rsons, not counting yourself, were 🗢 eatened? Do not include persons			L Yes
	14	a. Had permission	to use the (car/motor vehicle) ever been
13a	(141)	given to the per	rson who took it!
er of persons	9	2 🗂 Don't kno	SKIP to Check Item E
ns members of your household now?	-	3 🗌 Yes	-
ara members under 12 years of age.	Î	b. Did the person	return the (car/motor vehicle)?
, not counting yourself?	(162)	1 [T] Yes	
" in Check Item I on base 12)		2 C ] No	
or taken without permission that	ļ,	<u>د الارام</u>	
ers in the household?	Í		is Box I or 2 marked in 13f?
ss in respondent's home.		ITEM E	No - SKIP to 15a
g stolen from a recognizable t's home or another business, such	1	7	Tes .
h from o register. N		c. Was the (purse)	/wallet/money) on your person, for instance,
<b>4</b>	6	in a packet ox t	oning neid by you when it was taken?
EMPT to take something that	6	IL Tes	$\searrow$
ers in the household?			
		CHECK	mas only cash taken: (Box U marked in 13)
ke? Anything else?	KΩ	)ITEM F	T Tes - SKIP to 160
	$\square$	<u>&lt; '</u>	
	l)	Altogether, who	at was the value of the PROPERTY
	$\wedge$	INTERVIEWER	: R — Exclude stolen cash. and enter \$0 for
	$\mathbb{N}$	stolen checks	and credit cards, even if they were used.
ap, tape-deck, etc.	164	<u></u>	
	-	b. Hisw did you de	cide the value of the property that was
hey by to take a purse, waller.	-	stalen? (Mark	all that apply)
ney! (box Lor 2 marked in 13c)	<b>1</b>	1 [] Original c	
- SKIP 10 100)	-	3 [] Personal	estimate of current value
	( · ·	4 🔲 Insurance	report estimate
rmaney) on your person, for r being held?		5 🔲 Police es	timate
84		6 Don't kno	w
ov		, L'' Ottiet = 2	
k all that apply)	h	······································	
	14	ba. Was oll or part except for anyti	of the stalen money or property recovered, hing recহায়রd from insurance?
k into house or garage	166	1 🛄 None 🧎	
nk into car		2 ☐ Ali } S	KIP to 17a
ent, abusive lates rage		3 🗌 Part	
oyed property		b. What was recov	ered?
atened to demage of	(167)	Cash; S	
		and/or	
	ŵ	Property: (Mark	all that apply)
lenged to you or others in		1 [] Purse	recovered - JNIF (0 1/a
ise?		2 🛄 Wallet	
		3 🔲 Car	
t apply)		4 Other moto	or vehicle
- SKIP to 14c		sirantor Ca	(liubcep, tape-beck, etc.)
		s 🛄 Other – Sj	>ecify
ile		c. What was the ve	lue of the property recovered (excluding
ap, tape-deck, etc.)	_	recovered cash)	
	6	\$	Ž
9	age 11		

35

		QUESTIONS - Continued
1	7e. Was there any insurance against theft?	20a. Were the police informed of this incident in any way?
6	1 [] No ] evil a los	2 Don't know - SKIP to Check Item G
	z [] Don't know	Yes Who told them?
	3 [_] Yes	A Someone else SKIP to Check Item G
	b. Was this lass reported to an insurance company?	s 🛄 Police on scene
ത	1 [] No	<ul> <li>b. What was the reason this incident was not reported to</li> <li>the police? (Mark all that apply)</li> </ul>
	SKIP to ISa	12 1 Nothing could be done - lack of proof
		2 Did not think it important enough 3 Police wouldn't want to be bothered
	a Was new of this laws measured should be used?	4 Did not want to take time - too inconvenient
<b>_</b>	2. Her day of this less recovered inidigin insurance;	5 [] Private or personal matter, did not want to report it 6 [] Did not want to get involved
9	SKIP to 18a	7 []] Afraid of reprisal
	2 🔲 No J	B Reported to someone else 9 [7] Other - Specify
	3 [] Yes	CHECK Is this person 16 years or older?
	d. How much was recovered?	ITEMS
	INTERVIEWER - If property replaced by insurance company instead of cash settlement, ask for estimate	230. Did you dry a tak at the sime ship insident former d?
	of value of the property replaced.	1 1 No 4 SKAP to Check Item H
		2 [] Yes
(7 <b>3</b> )	s 🛄	(126) the What was the job?
<u> </u>	8c. Did any household member lose any time from work	Check Item H
_	because of this incident?	2 Druitterent than described in NCS-3 items 28a-e
<u></u>	0 NO - SKIP to 190	organization or other employer)
	Yes - Hew many members? 7	$ \rangle$
		d. What kind of business or industry is this? (For example: TV
	h How much store part of the store	ana radio mig., retali shoe store, State Labor Dept., jarm)
0	D. Frow much time was lost difegether!	•. Were you -
3	I Less than I day	(188) 1 [] An employee of a PRIVATE company, business or
•	2 🗋 1 – 5 days	individual for wages, salary or commissions?
	s []-10 days	3 [] SELF-EMPLOYED in OWN business, professional
	a [] Over 10 days	prectice or form?
	s Don't know	t. What hind of work were you doine? (For example, electrica)
•	For example, was a lock or window broken, clothing	engineer, stock clerk, typist, farmer)
	damaged, or damage dune to a car, etc.?	
6		g. What were your most impurtant activities or duties? (For example:
	E Luj : Co     K     (Was /wave) the demand iter (a) resting as an in- <sup>1</sup>	spring, recepting occount works, serving cors, finishing concrete, etc.)
$\sim$	ne famet and the samples stew(2) tabeliss of tabiged;	Summarize this incident or series of incidents
	1 Yes - SKIP to 19d	CHECK
	2 [] No	ITËM H
	c. How much would it cost to repair or replace the	
	nawaAga LIAW/211	
<b>~</b>		
9	S SKIP to 20a	
à	s. now much was the feptine of replacement cost?	
9	X LINO COST OF GON'T KNOW - SKIP to 200	for "How many?"
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	CHECK Y No
		HH member 12 years of age or over who was
	where paid or will pay for the repairs or replacement? (Mark all that apply)	le this the last Incident Denart to be filled for this meldent.
å	1 THousehold member	CHECK No - Go to next Incident Report.
	a 🖂 Landlard	ITEM J Yes - Is this the last HH member to be interviewed?
		Yes - END INTERVIEW, Enter total
	a 📑 insurance	number of Crime Incident Reports
		Inteo for this nousehold in

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