

REGIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE PLANNING

A Manual for Local Officials

PART I Regional Criminal Justice Planning and Local Officials

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PART I: Regional Criminal Justice Planning and Local Officials

PART II: Developing A Regional Criminal Justice Plan

PART III: Organization and Support for Regional Criminal Justice Planning

PART IV: Relationships Between Regional Criminal Justice Planning and Other Regional and Local Planning Functions

PART V: Implementing Regional Criminal Justice Planning

REGIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE PLANNING: A Manual for Local Officials

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Part I: Regional Criminal Justice Planning and Local Officials

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foreword

In order to be responsive to the needs of their constituency and to more effectively allocate limited local resources, elected officials have come to recognize the potential benefits of regional planning in the field of criminal justice. While there are some who fear the movement toward regional planning, most have come to see regional cooperation as a means for strengthening their leadership position within the community through a maximization of existing resources, and through increased effectiveness. Regional planning, in other words, attempts to secure coordinated effort among political jurisdictions by fostering the establishment of regional goals and action programs.

A number of factors have induced local governments to look beyond their borders for realistic solutions to local criminal justice problems. Among the more compelling of these conditions is the sheer complexity of today's concerns, the increasingly mobile character of our society, the chronic fragmentation of services and the dissipation of resources within, between and among layers of government.

In 1968, Congress passed the *Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act* which authorized planning grants for the improvement of local criminal justice services. Grants may be made for 90 percent of the eligible planning costs of units of local government, or combinations thereof. In some States, virtually any governmental unit or combination is eligible for funding while in other instances the State has utilized its substate regions as the basic unit for planning funds. Existing multi-county planning organizations (e.g. Councils of Government, Economic Development Districts, Local Development Districts, etc.) are recipients in many cases, but elsewhere wholly new agencies have been created to receive funds. As a voluntary association, regional criminal justice planning agencies do not have the power to levy taxes or pass laws or even to bind members to its decisions. But they provide an organizational capability for bringing local governments together to explore and solve mutual problems.

The National Association of Counties Research Foundation, recognizing the important role of counties and other local governing units in the regional criminal justice planning process, undertook to develop this manual under a grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice.

I am confident the manual will be of help to local officials in effectively participating in the regional criminal justice planning process.

Bernard F. Hillenbrand
Executive Director

preface

The purpose of this manual is to describe local general elected officials as participants in the criminal justice system. It is an attempt to do for local officials what the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice and others have done for the components in the criminal justice system—to outline what we have learned about the way elected officials have brought their political influence to bear on the activities of the criminal justice process. The manual also attempts to synthesize and relate to the criminal justice system a new body of regional planning experience stemming from the provisions of the *Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968*.

Studies concerned with the components of the criminal justice system—tracing their historical development and discussing their desirability—or studies that have dealt with individuals—policemen, judges, district attorneys—examining the influences that molded their thoughts and judging their decisions—have made important contributions to our understanding of the criminal justice system. But these studies have not, except incidentally, provided a framework in which the activities of agencies within the system could be related to the responsibilities of the political decision makers of local governments. Local elected officials are in the criminal justice system, and their role is not a matter of choice but of function. Participation does not grow out of the official's personality or philosophy but out of his position. Local general elected officials, traditionally the men who, sooner or later, resolve local questions of policy, have not been treated as the pivotal participants they are. Thus, a gap has been left in the materials available to students of the criminal justice system.

Regional Criminal Justice Planning: A Manual for Local Officials represents an effort to fill that gap, to examine the criminal justice system from the perspective of the local policy making official and to strengthen the place of the local official in the regional criminal justice planning process. It is based on recent research into the process. It is also intended to be a step toward expanding our knowledge of the fundamental forces shaping the effectiveness of the process. The manual is divided into five parts. Part I sets the scene by reviewing the structure of the system in focus—the need for regional planning, the responsibilities of the local elected official in the system, and his central role of leadership—analyzed in the light of the community's needs and its effect on the decision making process.

The next three parts are devoted to developing a regional criminal justice plan; the administrative structure of the regional criminal justice planning agencies, in terms of community-wide participation; and the relationships between and among regional criminal justice planning programs and other functional regional and community planning programs. The final part tackles the thorny question of administrative responsibility for implementation. The manual is not intended to be complete. However, the authors have tried to convey a comprehensive picture of the "why" as well as the "how" of regional criminal justice planning. Examples from the field are used to illustrate successful practices in the area. If there is any single point the authors try to make it is that the process is—or, at its best, strives to be—a process

of accommodating and coordinating the components in the criminal justice system.

It will be clear to the reader that the authors value the regional approach to criminal justice planning and coordination, and the local elected official as an essential element in the process. Any reforms proposed by the manual are directed to improving the criminal justice system and to strengthening the place of local officials as important participants, and possibly as the keystones of the system. While the authors describe the system as it exists, it is also clear that one need not be a "hard" advocate of law and order to see the problems of narrow professionalism nor must one be a libertarian to understand the problems of inadequate protection of individual civil liberties. Both kinds of problems do exist, and if this manual does not explore them thoroughly enough, it is because the authors have chosen to devote the available space to first providing an understanding of the strengths of a regional approach to criminal justice planning, a process with far greater potential for reforming the system than the restructuring of the system into an alien and unknown form.

Although the manual attempts to provide the answers to important questions of local criminal justice policy, it also attempts to raise important questions of decision making responsibility. The authors would like to think that among those that read this manual there will be people who will be encouraged by this effort to seek and find better—or at least more comprehensive—answers than those suggested in the following pages.

Mel D. Powell

Washington, D.C.
May, 1971

The National Association of Counties Research Foundation (NACORF) was founded in 1957 for the purpose of applying social science research techniques to issues that concern local government.

NACORF was conceived as an intellectual yet pragmatic laboratory capable of approaching contemporary problems from an interdisciplinary perspective.

The NACORF research process attempts to solve problems through the development of innovative projects sensitive to the needs and nuances of local government. This is accomplished through a broadly organized and overlapping network of project staff teams. These staff teams combine and weigh theoretical and empirical data and develop practical program alternatives for community action. Roles and functions are adapted to ensure project continuity, to suit individual work preferences, and to maximize full utilization of staff talent.

NACORF also enjoys the benefits of its parent organization, the National Association of Counties (NACO). A membership organization created in 1935, NACO services approximately 20,000 elected and appointed policy-making officials from approximately 800 counties (representing some 130 million of the nation's population).

The expansive resources of NACO provide NACORF with a variety of excellent opportunities for cooperation from local government personnel in the implementation of research projects. In addition to supplying advice and insight to the process of problem-solving, local government personnel assist project staff teams in identifying communities with the necessary mix of experience and programs for on-site examination. As a result, NACORF has developed sound working relationships with local officials and gained considerable experience in problem-solving activities at the local level.

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PART I: REGIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE PLANNING AND LOCAL OFFICIALS

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SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

The present operation of criminal justice in the United States has failed to prevent and control crime. This failure is largely due to a criminal justice system which attempts to meet the burden of increasing criminal behavior through a diversity of uncoordinated and sometimes uncomplementary efforts. The chief components of the criminal justice system—the police, the judiciary, correctional institutions, and a number of social agencies that have varying degrees of responsibility with respect to eradicating the causes of crime—have responded to present crime conditions without adequate understanding of their mutual responsibilities and common objectives. This lack of understanding is characterized by failure of each component to engage in cooperative planning and action, by friction between the police and the courts, by isolation of the correctional process from the rest of the system, and by other problems of mutual strife and deficient communication. A second major failure of the existing criminal justice system is the almost complete lack of coordination among political jurisdictions, resulting in inefficient and ineffective fragmentation and overlapping of police, prosecutorial, judicial and correctional services.

The reasons for this lack of coordination among criminal justice functions and political jurisdictions are many and complex. Among the more prominent are a lack of resources (financial, educational, physical, etc.), especially at the local level; an inefficient allocation of what resources do exist; a lack of personnel with over-all criminal justice system orientation; a lack of administrative mechanisms within the criminal justice system to promote and enable mutual planning and coordination on a multijurisdictional basis among the components; and perhaps most significantly, a lack of involvement in such planning coordination by local elected officials. *Regional Criminal Justice Planning: A Manual for Local Officials* focuses on these circumstances.

The Manual proposes that criminal justice services can achieve optimum effectiveness only when the functional components of the criminal justice system realize their mutual responsibilities and goals. This realization can be achieved through a formal planning

process that involves both criminal justice officials (prosecutors, sheriffs, police, judges, probation officers, etc.) and general elected officials (mayors, county commissioners, councilmen, etc.).

It is important that this planning take place on a multi-jurisdictional basis. Because the agencies of the criminal justice system form an administrative and operational complex of state, regional, county and municipal responsibility, no one community retains authority over all components of the criminal justice system. Because interagency and multijurisdictional planning has been lacking, the effectiveness of criminal justice services is often hindered by needless duplication, harmful fragmentation and self-defeating activity. In addition, criminals do not respect political boundaries. Law breakers often function over areas encompassing several local jurisdictions, even several states. Efforts to curtail or eliminate their operations must consequently be coordinated, multijurisdictional undertakings.

In most states the mechanism for multijurisdictional cooperation exists in the form of regional criminal justice planning councils organized in response to the federal grant requirements of the *Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968*. These regional councils have planning responsibilities which often include several counties or entire metropolitan areas. In many cases these regions are coterminous or consistent with those established in response to other federal grant programs (e.g., "701" planning programs, comprehensive health planning, housing, and water resources) or with existing sub-state districts. A regional council may be concerned with many functional responsibilities in addition to criminal justice. However, in a number of states, special regions have been created for the sole purpose of conducting criminal justice planning.

Regional councils, whether their responsibilities lay in many areas or in the field of criminal justice alone, are generally multijurisdictional organizations supervised by governing boards of varying percentages of local program representatives, lay citizens, elected officials, and private interests, as well as representatives of minority groups. State representation may be in-

cluded. Regional bodies are ideally suited as focal points of discussion and coordination among the components of criminal justice because their nature and prime purpose is to increase cooperation among the local governments of a particular area.

Regional agencies and the interdisciplinary and multijurisdictional cooperation they are designed to bring about need the support and active involvement of local elected policy making officials. Local official participation on regional governing boards give the planning program a sense of legitimacy and encourages local acceptance of regional program proposals. With the participation of general elected officials, who have authority over many agencies of local government, regional agencies can become catalysts to inter-agency and multijurisdictional teamwork—the essence of a systemized operation of criminal justice services.

Regional Planning for Criminal Justice: A Manual for Local Officials is composed of five parts. The first part, "Regional Criminal Justice Planning and Local Officials," describes the nature of crime, the responsibilities of local elected and appointed officials in regional criminal justice planning and coordination, and criminal justice planning needs; and explains why regional comprehensive planning is necessary for effective action.

Part II, "Developing a Regional Criminal Justice

Plan," is designed to acquaint the local elected official with the steps involved in developing regional criminal justice plans. It explores why he should be involved in the process and the nature of that involvement.

Part III, "Organization and Support for Regional Criminal Justice Planning", describes the structure of existing regional criminal justice agencies and focuses on means of eliciting the participation of citizens, professionals, elected officials and other representatives of public and private agencies.

Part IV, "Relationships Between Regional Criminal Justice Planning and Other Regional and Local Planning Functions", discusses the relationships between criminal justice planning and other types of regional social planning, explaining the necessity of coordinating various types or functions of planning conducted in a single area.

Part V, "Implementing Regional Criminal Justice Planning", an action guide which focuses on the implementation of regional criminal justice plans. It discusses the need for establishing priorities; scheduling activities; coordinating capital budgeting, federal and state financial and technical support; fostering inter-agency and intergovernmental cooperating; evaluating plans; and updating plans.

THE NATURE OF CRIME IN TODAY'S SOCIETY

Criminal behavior includes the actions of individual law breakers, civil disorders and riots and the threat of organized crime. Such behavior ranges from highly emotional unexplainable and unpredictable acts to the carefully planned and organized activities of the professional criminal.

The amount and type of crime in a particular area is affected by a variety of conditions—social, human, and material—which distinguish the life style of the inhabitants. These conditions include the density, size, composition, economic status, mores and stability of the population; the climate; education, recreation and religious facilities; the effectiveness of the police force; policies of the prosecuting officials, the courts and corrections; and the attitude of the public toward those agencies and individuals responsible for providing criminal justice services.

Crime is also affected by the jurisdiction of the criminal law. Before an action can be considered a crime it must be designated as such by law. If the criminal law is applied to an expanding range of human activity, it is conceivable that the crime rate will grow accordingly. Today the theory of "overcriminalization" maintains that many problems of crime and criminal justice administration stem from excessive reliance upon the criminal law to perform tasks considered ill-suited to its capability. The criminal law, it is argued, should not be used to: (1) declare or enforce public standards of private morality, (2) provide social services in lieu of other public agencies, and (3) permit police to do indirectly what the law forbids them to do directly. Enforcement of morals relates to sex offenses, such as prostitution and homosexuality; abortion; gambling and narcotics. Laws against drug abuse, for example, have involved significant numbers of young persons in the criminal process who otherwise would not have been considered criminals. Providing social services includes the use of criminal procedures and facilities for alcoholics and others found drunk in public and enforcement of bad check and family-nonsupport laws. Disorderly conduct and vagrancy laws have been used to permit the police to intervene in a great range of minor conduct, difficult or impossible to specify in law.

Since 1960 there has been an extraordinary increase in reported criminal activity in the United States. During this period, the national crime rate has more than doubled. Violent crimes as a group increased 130 percent while crimes against property rose 151 percent.¹ This estimate does not include wrongdoings which were not reported to law enforcement agencies and which are consequently impossible to number accurately. But evidence suggests that total reported and unreported crime would be several times larger than the number of offenses reported annually.²

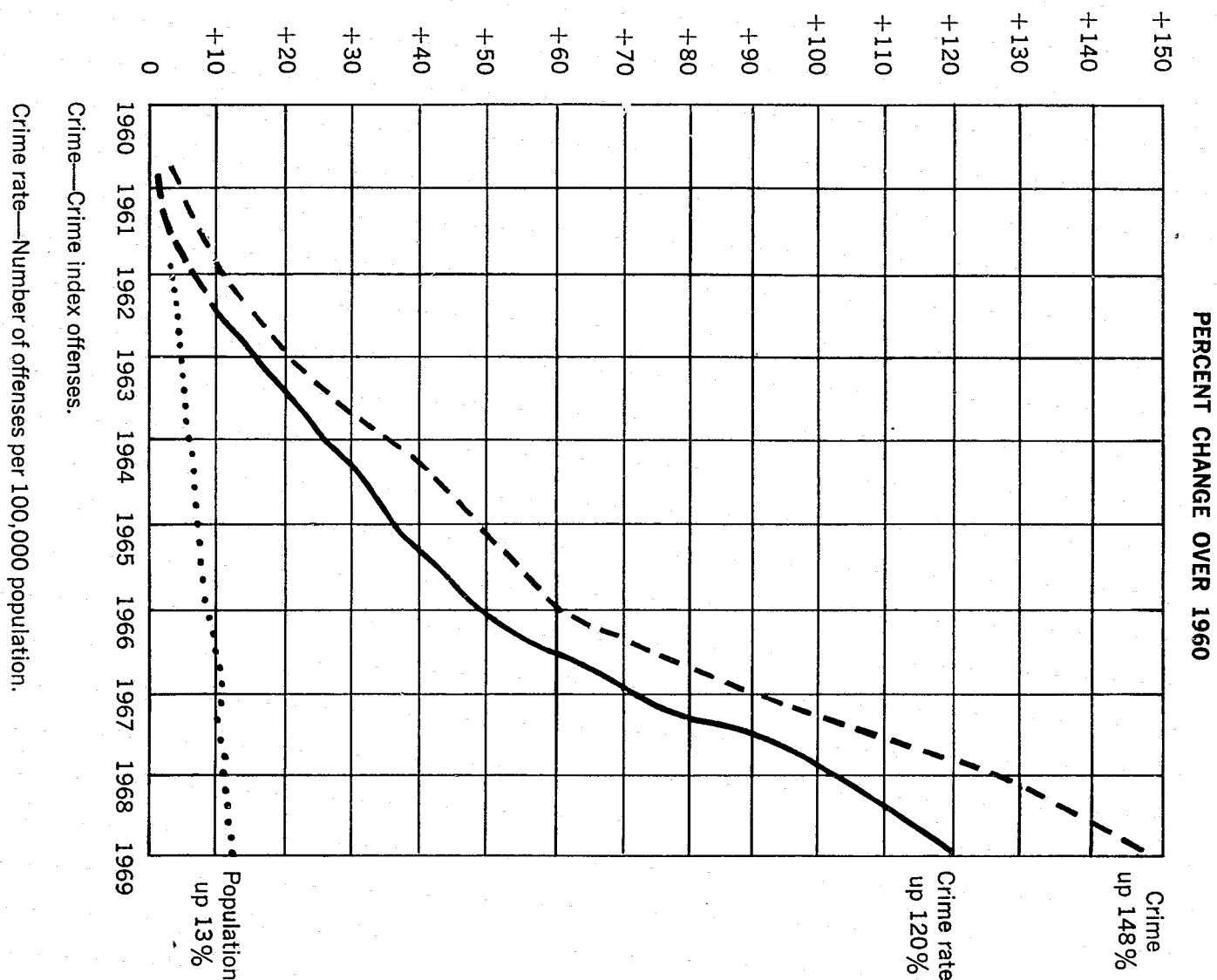
The statistical rise in crime has been explained by judgments that criminal activity has in fact risen; by arguments that reporting practices have substantially improved; by relating the crime increase to relative increases in the population, especially the 15 to 24 year old age group, the most crime prone segment; and by pointing to the large shifts in population to urban areas. Each of these factors probably has had some measurable effect on current crime levels in the United States.

The Costs of Crime

Regardless of what conditions have been used to explain the known extent of crime, it is certain that criminal behavior has threatened the peace, security and general welfare of the nation and its citizens.

Estimates of the yearly dollar cost of crime in terms of personal injury, stolen or damaged property, concomitant economic loss and government expense have climbed to the tens of billions. It is probable that medical costs and loss of earnings incurred by victims of crime against the person (murder, assault, rape) have alone reached several billion dollars per year. Few such victims receive compensation. One study found that only nine percent of violent crime victims receive any identification from insurance.³ Business losses from burglary, robbery, vandalism, shoplifting, employee theft, bad checks and other crimes affecting business totaled \$3 billion during the year 1967-

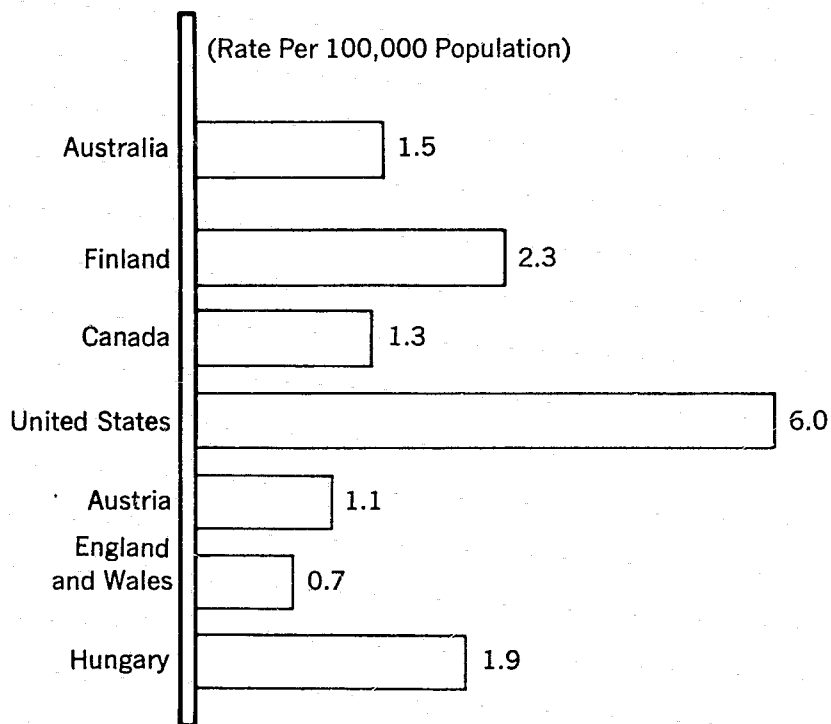
FIGURE A
CRIME AND POPULATION
1960-1969



Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation, *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

FIGURE B

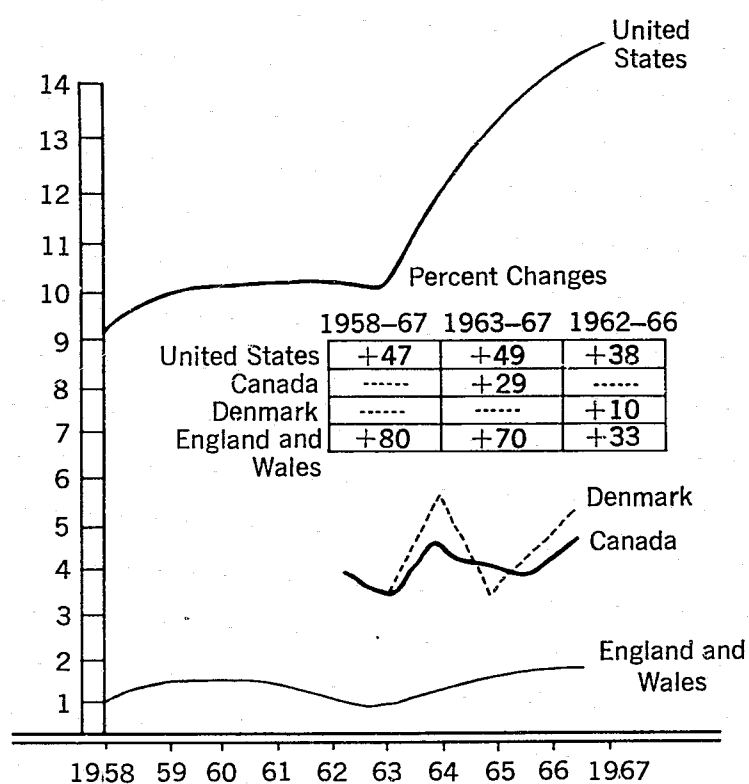
COMPARISON OF U.S. HOMICIDE RATES WITH THOSE OF
OTHER NATIONS, 1966



Source: National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, *To Establish Justice, To Insure Domestic Tranquility*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

FIGURE C

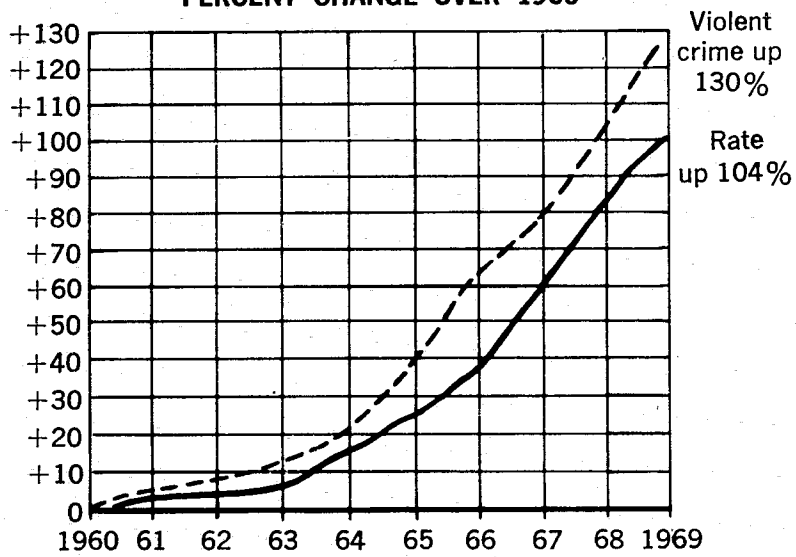
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UNITED STATES



Source: Donald Mulvihill, Melvin Tumin, and Lynn Curtis, *Crimes of Violence, Vol. II, A Staff Report Submitted to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

FIGURE D
CRIMES OF VIOLENCE
1960-1969

PERCENT CHANGE OVER 1960

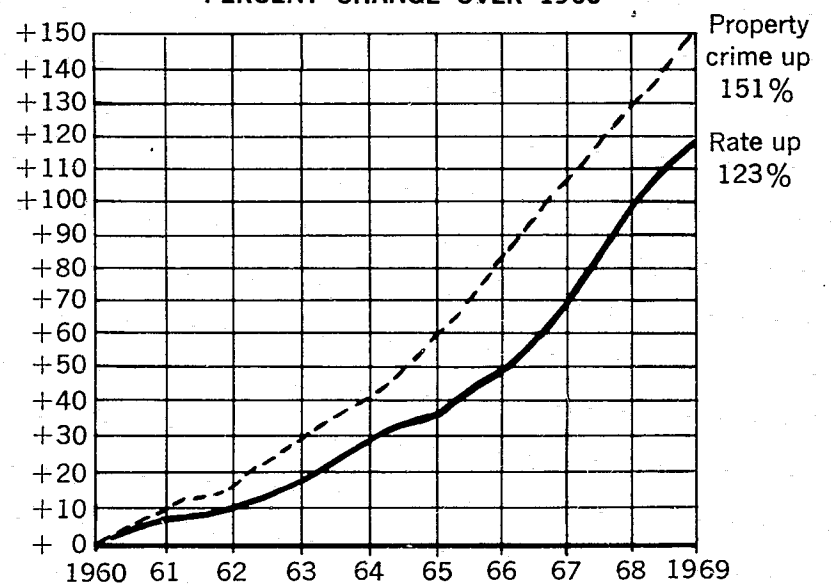


Limited to Murder, Forcible Rape, Robbery and Aggravated Assault.

Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation, *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

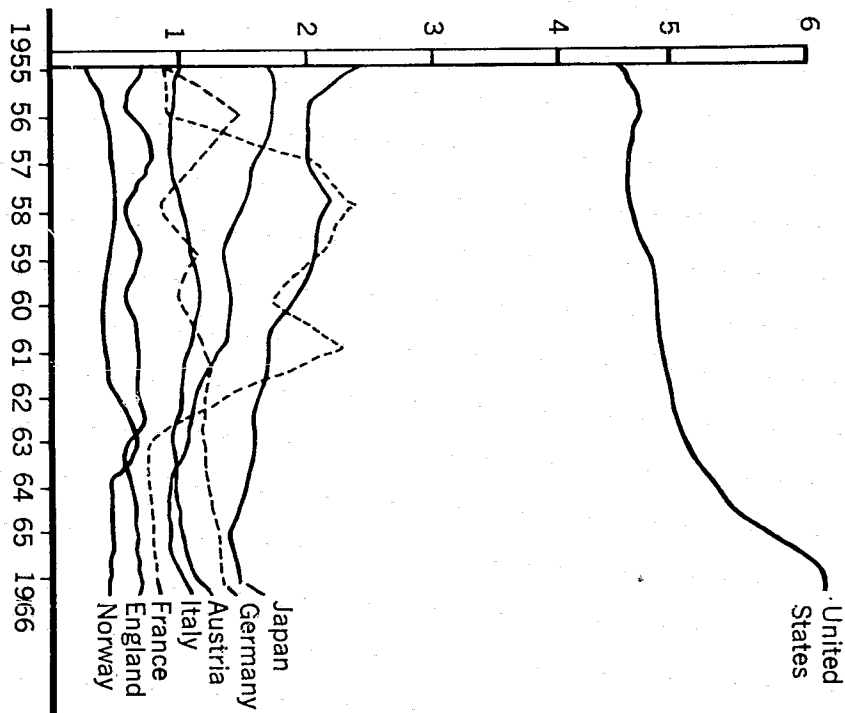
FIGURE E
CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY
1960-1969

PERCENT CHANGE OVER 1960



Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation, *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

FIGURE F
VARIATION IN REPORTED CRIMINAL HOMICIDE RATES
FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1955-1966



Source: Donald Mulvihill, Melvin Tumin, and Lynn Curtis, *Crimes of Violence*, Vol. II, A Staff Report Submitted to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

TABLE A
LOSSES BY THE TYPE OF CRIME AND BY SIZE AND LOCATION OF BUSINESS

Item (1)	Total (2)	Bur- glary (3)	Rob- bery (4)	Vanda- lism (5)	Shop- lifting (6)	Em- ployee theft (7)	Bad checks (8)
A. Losses							
1. Amount (in millions)	\$3,049	\$958	\$ 77	\$813	\$504	\$381	\$316
2. percent	100	31	3	27	17	12	10
B. Indexed ratios of losses to receipts by size of business:							
1. Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
2. Under-\$100,000	323	357	333	283	225	350	50
3. \$100,000 to \$1,000,000	205	200	167	167	250	300	200
4. \$1,000,000 to \$5,000,000	127	129	133	167	50	250	50
5. Over \$5,000,000	9	7	1	17	8	20	25
C. Percent of businesses burglarized or robbed by location:							
1. Total		14	2	15	15	8	37
2. Ghetto		28	9	37	24	11	30
3. Nonghetto central city		18	3	18	14	10	33
4. Suburbs		16	2	17	15	9	31
5. Rural		9	1	9	15	4	36

Source: Small Business Administration, *Crime Against Small Business*, A Report of the Small Business Administration Transmitted to the Select Committee on Small Business, U.S. Senate, 91st Congress, 1st Session, Doc. No. 91-14 Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

1968.⁴ Burglary and vandalism losses in ghetto areas were twice the average. In the ghetto there were 69 burglaries per 100 businesses and 97 per 100 of retail businesses. Each ghetto retail business on the average was burglarized once during the year.⁵ Business losses from employee thefts have caused prices to rise as much as 15 percent and have frequently resulted in business failure. Business loss occurs not only from the work of professional criminals and petty thieves but from supposedly law abiding, decent citizens who each year steal millions of dollars worth of hotel towels, eating utensils, drinking glasses and similar items.⁶

The activities of organized crime (illegal gambling, loan sharking, hijacking, narcotics trade and other forms of illegitimate operation) have also reportedly cost the nation billions of dollars each year, though no popularly accepted definite figure has been calculated.

It is generally agreed, however, that gambling constitutes the greatest source of income for organized crime. Researchers have speculated conservatively that \$20 billion changes hands every year in the United States as a result of organized illegal gambling. Organized crime also secures huge profits in legitimate business, albeit through illegal practices. One authority reports that organized crime controls one of the nation's largest hotel chains and dominates a bank with assets of from \$70 to \$90 million.⁸

The rise in criminal behavior in these and other areas has made necessary extensive crime fighting programs which absorb large portions of national wealth. According to the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, public crime control expenditures for police, courts and corrections alone have more than doubled since 1960 and now approximate \$7.4 billion per year. By the end of fiscal year 1969

TABLE B
ORDINARY CRIME LOSSES, NUMBER OF BUSINESSES, AND RECEIPTS BY SIZE OF BUSINESS

Size of receipts	Losses		Businesses		Receipts		Losses as per- cent of receipt	
	Amount				Amount			
	(in millions)	Percent		Percent	(in millions)	Percent	Percent	Indexed
Under \$100,000.....	\$ 862	28	6,890	85.7	\$121	9.0	0.71	32
\$100,000 to \$1,000,000.....	1,198	40	1,013	12.6	245	19.6	.45	20
\$1,000,000 to \$5,000,000....	644	21	113	1.4	223	16.5	.28	12
Over \$5,000,000.....	217	7	24	.3	740	54.9	.02	
No receipts information.....	128	4						
Total.....	3,049	100	8,040	100.0	1,349	100.0	.23	10

Source: Small Business Administration, *Crime Against Small Business*, A Report of the Small Business Administration Transmitted to the Select Committee on Small Business, U.S. Senate, 91st Congress, 1st Session, Doc. No. 91-14 Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

nearly 64 percent of this cost was being borne by local government. The bulk of local expenditure has gone for police protection with lesser amounts being appropriated for courts and jails. State governments bore over 25 percent of the cost with the major portion earmarked for prisons. The federal government, supplying the remaining percentage, spent \$828.9 million for criminal justice purposes. Over half of this amount was directed toward police activities.⁹

On a per capita basis the criminal justice system costs each man, woman and child in the United States an estimated \$37.00 a year. Approximations

of future expenditures needed to win the war against crime suggest that this cost will rise.

Resources for Controlling Crime

Despite these discouraging statistics, few critics of the system would dispute our nation's potential resource capability for meeting the problem of crime and its prevention. The real problem, however, cen-

TABLE C
PERCENT OF DIRECT EXPENDITURE FOR THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM
BY LEVEL OF GOVERNMENT: FISCAL YEAR 1969-69

Level of government	Total	Police Protection	Judicial activities	Prosecu- tion	Indigent defense	Correctional activities
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Federal	10.9	11.1	10.6	24.9	51.3	4.9
State	25.9	14.0	23.6	19.2	9.0	62.5
Local	63.9	74.9	65.9	56.1	39.7	32.6

Source: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and Bureau of the Census, *Expenditure and Employment Data for the Criminal Justice System 1968-1969*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970.

TABLE D

**NUMBER OF JAILS, EMPLOYEES, INMATE POPULATION AND CURRENT OPERATING AND
PLANNED CONSTRUCTION EXPENDITURES, FOR THE U.S. AND BY STATE**

State	Number of jails	Number of jail employees (full-time equivalent)	Inmate population Mar. 15, 1970	Ratio of inmates to full-time equivalent employees	Operating costs Fiscal Year 1969 (\$000)	Planned construc- tion expen- ditures Fiscal Year 1970 (\$000)
U.S. total	4,037	28,911	160,863	5.56	324,278	170,849
Cities with population of 25,000 or more, and counties	3,319	28,435	156,816	5.51	318,431	167,412
Cities with population under 25,000	718	476	4,047	8.50	5,787	3,437
Alabama	107	320	3,018	9.43	3,184	2,218
Alaska	8	40	171	4.28	477	1
Arizona	39	241	2,142	7.23	2,465	695
Arkansas	110	129	1,224	9.49	1,371	141
California	166	4,474	27,672	6.19	60,825	13,982
Colorado	78	311	1,481	4.76	2,894	1,642
Connecticut ¹						
Delaware ¹						
District of Col.	5	948	3,222	3.40	14,790	1,636
Florida	167	1,393	9,412	6.76	13,781	2,850
Georgia	240	1,109	6,726	6.06	10,249	2,158
Hawaii	4	74	97	1.31	614	
Idaho	61	41	436	10.63	468	172
Illinois	108	1,262	5,324	4.22	10,382	13,384
Indiana	97	470	2,686	5.71	4,850	7,265
Iowa	93	110	691	6.28	1,150	153
Kansas	123	133	1,100	8.27	1,449	1,222
Kentucky	148	319	2,693	8.44	2,880	3,795
Louisiana	95	522	4,039	7.74	4,417	4,500
Maine	16	74	242	3.27	624	1,277
Maryland	23	514	2,758	5.37	5,154	11,944
Massachusetts	18	788	2,126	2.70	9,221	9,074
Michigan	92	996	5,789	5.81	12,378	9,985
Minnesota	77	308	1,476	4.79	3,632	3,042
Mississippi	98	143	1,636	11.44	1,578	543
Missouri	144	489	2,958	6.05	4,598	1,109
Montana	68	51	367	7.20	554	1,134
Nebraska	99	87	823	9.46	769	339
Nevada	23	111	755	6.80	1,036	1,620
New Hampshire	11	97	333	3.43	703	42
New Jersey	32	1,210	4,436	3.67	12,308	10,569
New Mexico	44	128	961	7.51	1,147	2,067
New York	75	4,477	17,399	3.89	57,142	18,041
North Carolina	100	330	2,580	7.82	2,795	3,205
North Dakota	50	22	158	7.18	271	198
Ohio	160	1,093	5,920	5.42	11,826	7,433
Oklahoma	112	226	2,314	9.80	2,554	1,848
Oregon	69	245	1,487	6.07	3,279	1,567
Pennsylvania	77	1,774	6,900	3.89	19,467	7,419
Rhode Island ¹						
South Carolina	111	591	3,281	5.55	4,413	459
South Dakota	60	32	307	9.59	395	83
Tennessee	116	547	3,622	6.62	4,912	142
Texas	325	1,049	10,720	10.22	10,848	973
Utah	34	74	522	7.05	729	313
Vermont	6		22		19	
Virginia	96	636	3,416	5.37	4,723	3,542
Washington	83	348	2,277	6.54	4,218	14,210
West Virginia	61	140	1,094	7.81	1,290	206
Wisconsin	75	404	1,978	4.90	4,713	2,182
Wyoming	33	33	173	5.24	276	425

¹ Jails are not locally administered but rather are operated by the State government.

Source: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice, *National Jail Census 1970: A Report on the Nation's Local Jails and Type of Inmates*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971. p. 9.

ters around the issues of resource assignment and the systematic management of existing resources.

The tragic waste of resources, for example, is no where more evident than in the field of corrections where 95 percent of all expenditures are assigned for custodial purposes while only the remaining five percent is expended for rehabilitative education efforts: health and the development of employment skills.

In terms of total criminal justice resource allocations, local governments have assumed the lion's share of the total national commitment. This is by no means surprising since the administration of criminal justice is primarily a function of local government. In Fiscal Year 1968-1969, local governments spent 64 percent of all direct criminal justice expenditures, compared to 25 percent by state governments and 11 percent by the federal government. In terms of per capita outlays, local governments spent on an average \$23.33 per person. Of this amount \$16.49 was spent for police protection, \$3.28 for judicial activities, \$0.15 for indigent defense, \$1.03 for prosecution, and \$2.37 for corrections. In actual cash amounts the local share totaled \$4.7 billion or 11.8 percent of local governments' general expenditure (excluding education). During this same period state governments spent \$1.9 billion for criminal justice activities or 4.6 percent of their 1969 total general expenditure. Finally, the federal government spent \$828.9 million, somewhat less than 0.6 percent of their total general expenditure (excluding education) of \$150.7 billion.¹⁰

A similar relationship is apparent in assessing local, state and national criminal justice manpower resources. Thus, as of October 1969, local governments employed more than 70 percent of the full-

time equivalent personnel within the criminal justice system or a total full-time equivalent of 513,337 employees. In comparison, 160,339 state employees were engaged in criminal justice activities (22 percent) while the federal share totaled 44,485 (8 percent).¹¹

Beyond monetary and manpower resources local governments maintain a vast complex of police, prosecutorial, probation, judicial and correctional facilities. In 1970 there were 4,037 locally administered jails¹² and 14,185 local enforcement agencies.¹³ "Local administration handled about nine in every ten of the adult correction facilities and three in every four of the probation offices."¹⁴ Of the 13,421 state and local courts throughout the country only one-eighth or 1,689 were located at the state level. The remaining courts included 6,370 that were county administered and 5,362 administered at the township, city or special district level.¹⁵

The rise in known criminal activity has provoked new and increased demands that have caused numerous breakdowns in the criminal justice system. Police are overloaded with minor crimes and incidents while their serious crime clearance rate is far below acceptability. Court calendars are so congested that only the most extraordinary cases receive sufficient scrutiny. Of the several million serious crimes reported annually, barely one in nine results in a conviction.¹⁶ Correctional institutions often lack the capacity to restore those within their care to a law abiding way of life. Fewer than half of those in custody are rehabilitated. To appreciate why these conditions exist and to develop suitable remedies it is necessary to understand the criminal justice system.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

The administration of criminal justice is primarily a responsibility shared by local and state government with the functions of any given criminal justice system distributed throughout a maze of municipal, county, regional, and state agencies, often augmented by private services. This proliferation of agencies and responsibilities has produced fragmentation and separatism, institutional jealousies and has encouraged a lack of vital interagency and multijurisdictional

collaboration.

Because of their differing experience and values, failure to perceive common objectives, and general absence of formal interrelationships, the actors within each agency of any criminal justice system often lack understanding and appreciation of each other's problems and responsibilities.

The administration of criminal justice is the chief responsibility of the police (police, sheriffs, constables,

marshals), the courts (judges, prosecutors, defense counsels, bail system and juvenile courts) and correctional services and institutions (juvenile and adult probation, corectional institutions, parole, and alternatives to institutionalization). The services of other agencies such as departments of health, welfare, and recreation; systems of education; poverty programs; model cities projects; and similar social endeavors also have an affect on the control, removal of the causes, and the eradication of crime. The following text describes the components of the criminal justice system.

The Police

The police are responsible for the maintenance of social order within constitutional and ethical restrictions. Their mission generally includes:¹⁷

- Preventing crime through the maintenance of order, controlling situations which could result in conflict, and discouraging anti-social behavior
- Repressing crime through adequate patrol and reducing opportunities for criminal behavior
- Detecting crime as soon as possible after its occurrence
- Apprehending offenders as quickly as possible in order to discourage would be offenders and enable the punishment and rehabilitation of those convicted
- Recovering property in order to reduce the monetary cost of crime and lessen opportunity for criminals and others to benefit from the gains of crime
- Regulating noncriminal conduct through activities such as enforcing traffic and sanitary code provisions
- Performing miscellaneous services peripheral to basic police duties such as search and rescue operations, licensing, operating detention facilities, etc.
- Performing public relations and public education activities

TABLE E
NUMBER OF LOCAL POLICE AGENCIES

14823	Municipal Police Departments
76	County Police Department*
3066	Total Number of Counties (most have sheriffs)

Source: Data on municipal police departments was obtained from the individual state criminal justice planning agencies. Information on county police departments was obtained from NACO files, the F.B.I. and state criminal justice planning agencies.

The specific methods and operations used to fulfill these responsibilities will vary in individual communities according to the administrative policies of local law enforcement officials, how they perceive their role, the interest which elected officials have in their police agency, and social pressure within the community.

The nation contains approximately 14,823 local police departments, each responsible to the governing body of a city, county, borough, town, or village. It has been estimated that 80 percent of this local police strength is contained within five percent of the nation's local governments. Approximately 90 percent of local governments are served by police forces of less than ten full-time personnel.¹⁸ Approximately 76 counties operate county-wide police forces which often experience confusing jurisdictional overlap with municipal police functioning in the same county. In addition, there are over 3,000 county sheriffs who function not only as independent, elected police officers but as officials of the court and as correctional superintendents of county jails. Other police forces not represented in the above total include those established for the protection of parks, housing developments, sea and air ports, and toll roads; police special service districts created to protect residents or industry in unincorporated portions of urban areas; state police and other state law enforcement units and various federal police units.¹⁹ (See Table E*)

* For more complete information, see Appendix A, Table 1.

TABLE F
COURTS OF LAST RESORT INTERMEDIATE APPELLATE COURTS

Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate Courts of Last Resort and Intermediate Appellate Courts

44	Supreme Court	1	Commonwealth Court
2	Supreme Judicial Court	1	Superior Court
2	Court of Criminal Appeals	2	Court of Criminal Appeals
1	Supreme Court of Appeals	2	Court of Civil Appeals
3	Court of Appeals	14	Court (Courts) of Appeals
		1	District Courts of Appeal
		2	Appellate Court
		1	Court of Special Appeals
		1	Appellate Division of Superior Court
		1	Appellate Division of Supreme Court

Source: The Council of State Governments, *State Court Systems, A Statistical Summary*, Lexington: Council of State Governments, 1970, pp. 2-9.

The large number of police agencies operating within a given area makes it difficult for them to synchronize overlapping functions and hinders their capability to communicate with the court system, itself an intricate and often inefficient process.

The Courts

The courts serve as a focal point or pivot upon which the criminal justice system turns. The courts decide whether a person shall be convicted of a crime and what shall be done with him if he is convicted. They also perform an important educational and rehabilitative role with respect to the prevention of further criminal acts. As the judicial branch of government, the courts hold a position apart from

executive agencies such as the police or correctional departments, serving constitutionally as a check and balance upon them. Yet, ironically, the ideals of criminal justice call for the court to serve with the police and correctional officials as an integral part of a tripartite system. In addition, lower and middle level courts often depend on the executive branch for financial support.

The judiciary functions within federal and state court systems with each system roughly duplicating the other. Each system deals with criminal as well as civil litigation. Since most criminal cases come under the jurisdiction of state or local courts, this manual is limited to non-federal courts.

State judicial systems embrace courts of last resort (state supreme courts), intermediate appellate courts, courts of general jurisdiction and courts of limited jurisdiction (county or municipal court, justice, magistrate or police courts, probate court, others). (See

TABLE G

COURTS OF GENERAL JURISDICTION

Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate Courts of General Jurisdiction

- 18 Circuit Courts
- 15 District Courts
- 15 Superior Courts
- 3 County Courts
- 2 Courts of Common Pleas
- 5 Court of Chancery
- 1 Law & Chancery Courts
- 2 Law & Equity Courts
- 2 Criminal Courts
- 1 Corporation & Hustings Courts
- 1 Supreme Court
- 1 Records Court
- 1 Courts of Baltimore City

Source: The Council of State Governments, *State Court Systems, A Statistical Summary*, Lexington: Council of State Governments, 1970, pp. 2-9.

Tables F, G, H*) Most litigation of importance occurs in the courts of general jurisdiction. Sometimes cases from the minor courts come to these courts and a number of cases are appealed to higher courts for various reasons. The geographical jurisdiction of the courts of general jurisdiction is normally limited to a county or city, although rural areas with limited needs are often serviced by a judge who rides circuit among several counties.

Although traditional court jurisdictions have followed county lines, the growth and shifting of population have caused some states to supersede county divisions with judicial districts that may include several counties or cut across county lines. Efforts of modernization have been directed toward creating unified, simplified court structures within the states

* For more complete information, see Appendix A, Tables 2, 3 and 4.

and establishing clear, direct administrative responsibility within the state system.

Eighteen states have instituted substantially unified court systems with clearly assigned preeminent administrative responsibility placed in the highest court or its chief justice. In addition, 35 states have designated central court administrators.²⁰ Yet constitutions and statutes in most states have widely dispersed the responsibility for court operations among individual courts at the general trial and lower court levels. Consequently, these courts are often administratively independent of the state court administrator and have been characterized as "judicial kingdoms," which may or may not function as part of a system of state courts.

TABLE H

COURTS OF LIMITED JURISDICTION

Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate Courts of Limited Jurisdiction

- 30 Municipal Courts
- 5 City Courts
- 28 Justice Courts
- 17 County Courts
- 14 District Courts
- 10 Police Courts (Police Magistrates)
- 2 Mayor's Courts
- 5 Criminal Courts
- 20 Juvenile Courts and/or Domestic Relations Courts
- 7 Magistrate Courts
- 5 Courts of Common Pleas
- 5 Courts of Claims
- 1 General Sessions Court
- 3 Civil Courts
- 16 Probate Courts
- 11 Other Courts

Source: The Council of State Governments, *State Court Systems, A Statistical Summary*, Lexington: Council of State Governments, 1970, pp. 2-9.

TABLE I

**STATE PROSECUTORIAL SYSTEMS
(Local Prosecution Function Organization)**

Indicates number of states having particular systems of prosecution

- 3 State Prosecutor Systems
- 2 State Appointed Local Procedures
- 2 Local (Judicial District) Prosecutors with Criminal and Appeals Responsibilities
- 6 Local (Judicial District) Prosecutors with Solely Criminal Responsibilities
- 4 Local (Judicial District) Prosecutors with Civil and Criminal Responsibilities but no Appeals Duties
- 12 Local (County) Prosecutors with Criminal and Appellate Responsibilities
- 2 Local (County) Prosecutors with Solely Criminal Responsibilities
- 4 Overlapping County-Judicial District Prosecutors
- 15 Local (County) Prosecutors with Criminal and Civil, but not Appellate Responsibilities

Source: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, *A Commission Report—State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System*, Washington, D.C.: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, forthcoming, 1971.

State constitutional and statutory provisions also frequently vest individual courts at the same or different levels with concurrent jurisdiction over specified types of criminal cases. It is therefore possible for an offender to be charged with a specific crime by any one of three or more courts (municipal court, county court, or state trial court of general jurisdiction). Within state court systems, then, there is frequent jurisdictional overlap and confusion somewhat similar to that present among municipal and county police departments and county sheriffs' agencies.

The current state of disorganization within the police and court components does much to frustrate

necessary interrelationships between the two. Courts depend upon the police for arrest and investigation data and testimony. The police depend upon the courts for schedules for police testimony and disposition of arrestees, summons and arrest and search warrants. Yet this interchange, hindered by disorganization and lack of communication, does not function smoothly.

The Prosecutorial Process—Systems of prosecution vary among the 50 states from centralized appointive ones where the attorney general has charge of all local prosecutions, to decentralized systems where local prosecutors are elected by county and judicial district. Table I* presents nine distinct ways in which the states have organized the local prosecution function. Prosecutorial systems range from centralized operations (Alaska, Delaware and Rhode Island) in which the state attorney general has charge of all local prosecutions to very decentralized multi-tiered systems (Florida, Kentucky, Mississippi, Texas, and Utah) where local prosecutors are elected by county and judicial district, resulting in overlapping jurisdictions.

In Alaska, Delaware and Rhode Island all criminal prosecutions are handled by the state attorney general's office. By contrast, in Connecticut the attorney general has no power in the administration of criminal justice at the local level and therefore has relatively little relationship with local prosecutors. In Idaho, Tennessee and Wyoming attorneys general do not appear to exercise control over local prosecutors but they do handle criminal prosecutions at the appellate level. In the remaining states there are definite relationships between the attorneys general and local prosecutors. These include:

- States where the attorney general has some responsibility for enforcing criminal laws but does not initiate action within the jurisdiction of a local prosecutor
- States where local prosecutors, by statute, have the authority to act concurrently with the attorney general
- States where local prosecutors may call on the attorney general for direct assistance

* For more complete information, see Appendix A, Table 5.

TABLE J
NUMBER OF ADULT JAILS HOLDING JUVENILES
BY TYPE OF RETENTION, FOR THE U.S. AND BY STATE

State	Total number of institutions receiving juveniles	Number holding juveniles not yet arraigned or for other authorities	Number holding juveniles arraigned and awaiting trial	Number holding convicted juveniles awaiting further legal action	Number holding juveniles serving sentences of one year or less	Number holding juveniles serving sentences of more than one year
U.S. total	2,822	2,785	2,289	856	767	67
Cities with population of 25,000 or more, and counties	2,446	2,411	2,094	822	711	66
Cities with population under 25,000	376	374	195	34	56	1
Alabama	82	82	69	16	12	2
Alaska	4	4	2	2	2	...
Arizona	22	21	17	4	7	...
Arkansas	78	77	62	16	19	1
California	79	77	35	13	15	1
Colorado	58	55	51	23	25	4
Connecticut ¹
Delaware ¹
District of Columbia	1	1	1	1	1	1
Florida	77	75	57	24	23	2
Georgia	111	109	76	18	11	2
Hawaii	2	2	1
Idaho	50	50	42	20	26	2
Illinois	87	86	75	29	30	...
Indiana	87	85	79	33	29	...
Iowa	78	78	65	27	33	...
Kansas	97	95	83	36	35	1
Kentucky	107	103	90	16	17	1
Louisiana	68	68	47	11	12	3
Maine	15	15	13	6	4	...
Maryland	19	19	18	7	8	2
Massachusetts	7	6	7	2	2	...
Michigan	61	60	44	23	24	...
Minnesota	66	64	51	26	19	...
Mississippi	85	84	76	16	15	2
Missouri	107	107	90	42	31	2
Montana	50	50	70	23	22	1
Nebraska	80	80	70	36	31	...
Nevada	16	16	15	7	3	...
New Hampshire	4	4	3
South Carolina	20	20	19	11	4	...
New Jersey	36	35	30	8	6	...
New Mexico	44	39	38	25	31	4
New York	77	76	74	18	5	1
North Carolina	28	28	25	7	8	...
North Dakota	106	106	72	30	35	...
Ohio	75	75	63	19	20	1
Oklahoma	54	54	34	17	17	...
Oregon	55	55	43	13	14	8
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island ¹	48	48	42	8	4	...
South Dakota	49	49	42	21	14	1
Tennessee	87	86	76	8	8	2
Texas	250	249	197	63	44	21
Utah	20	20	15	3	4	1
Vermont	2	2	2	1
Virginia	81	78	76	41	28	2
Washington	41	41	28	11	9	...
West Virginia	50	50	45	18	9	...
Wisconsin	69	69	63	43	35	...
Wyoming	32	32	28	14	16	...

¹ Jails are not locally administered but rather are operated by the State government.
Source: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice, *National Jail Census 1970: A Report on the Nation's Local Jails and Type of Inmates*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971. p. 15.

- States which require local prosecutors to make a report to the attorney general so that the latter may effectively supervise local prosecutors
- States where the attorney general may intervene in the activities of local prosecutors
- States where the attorney general may supersede the local prosecutor
- States where the attorney general may exercise direct control over local prosecutors. Sometimes this control means the power to remove the prosecutor from office

Several of these classifications may apply to a single state.

The Defense Counsel—With regard to providing counsel to indigent defendants, state and local governments use either the assigned counsel system (used in most states) through which lawyers in private practice are appointed by the court (many times without pay or for a nominal fee) to represent individual needy clients; or the public defender system through which salaried lawyers devote all or part of their time to defending indigents. Public defenders are paid by the government, usually the county, although some states share the burden or assume it entirely. In some jurisdictions a private defender system is utilized where defenders are paid by a private organization. There are, in addition, instances of state or city-dependent legal aid clinics as well as a number of public-private defender offices supported by both private and public funds.

The Bail System—In the United States the bail system is designed to determine whether an accused person in a criminal proceeding will be released or jailed in the period between his arrest and trial. Theoretically the bail process suggests that bail will be sufficient to insure the appearance of the defendant at trial. The accused may be released before trial, if he is able to post bond or pay a bondsman to post it for him. If he is unable to afford bail, the accused is detained in jail.

For many years there has been disenchantment with the operation of the bail system in the United States. Each year thousands go free on bail. They are not released because they are innocent but because they can buy their liberty. The balance are detained not because they are guilty but because they are

poor. An accused, whose main motivation for showing up at trial may be his home, family and job, may be held due to inability to afford bail. On the other hand, a habitual offender of possible danger to the public but with sufficient financial resources, may gain his release. The Presidents Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice labeled the money bail system an unfair and ineffective device and suggested that it be imposed only when reasonable alternatives are not available.

Juvenile Courts—Although they are not a part of the criminal court system, juvenile courts should be mentioned in the context of the criminal justice court function for they deal with young people of certain designated ages who have been accused or convicted of delinquent or criminal behavior.

Juvenile cases include delinquency (e.g., violation of the criminal code, truancy, ungovernability, conduct illegal only for children), neglect, and dependency. Juvenile court judges normally employ broad discretion in the disposition of cases through warnings, fines, probation, referral to an agency or treatment facility, commitment to an institution or dismissal. Occasionally a juvenile accused of a major offense (e.g., capital crimes) is given over to the jurisdiction of the criminal court. In some states the jurisdictions of the juvenile court and criminal court are concurrent with respect to serious offenses.

Organizationally, the position of the juvenile court within the state court system differs among and within the states. A few juvenile courts are separate and independent agencies; a few are part of family courts which deal with child or domestic relations litigation. The majority, however, are part of a special branch of courts of general jurisdiction.

Corrections

Corrections, probably the least visible of the major criminal justice system components, has recently been the subject of a new sense of urgency. This urgency is guided by the principle that reformation, not incarceration or vindictive suffering, should be the purpose of penal treatment. Reform efforts have introduced ideas of rehabilitation, diagnosis and classification, probation and parole into the correctional process.

TABLE K

**NUMBER AND PERCENT OF CITY (OVER 25,000 POPULATION) AND COUNTY JAILS WITH
AND WITHOUT SELECTED FACILITIES, FOR THE U.S. AND BY STATE**

State	Total number of institutions	Educational facilities			
		Without		With	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	3,319	2,961	89.2	358	10.8
Alabama	80	78	97.5	2	2.5
Alaska	2	2	100.0
Arizona	17	15	88.2	2	11.8
Arkansas	81	78	96.3	3	3.7
California	134	95	70.9	39	29.1
Colorado	61	56	91.8	5	8.2
Connecticut ¹
Delaware ¹
District of Columbia	5	5	100.0
Florida	101	89	88.1	12	11.9
Georgia	205	170	82.9	35	17.1
Hawaii	4	3	75.0	1	25.0
Idaho	44	44	100.0
Illinois	103	97	94.2	6	5.8
Indiana	94	90	95.7	4	4.3
Iowa	89	80	89.9	9	10.9
Kansas	108	102	94.4	6	5.6
Kentucky	122	118	96.7	4	3.3
Louisiana	72	63	87.5	9	12.5
Maine	14	13	92.9	1	7.1
Maryland	23	17	73.9	6	26.1
Massachusetts	18	5	27.8	13	72.2
Michigan	90	76	84.4	14	15.6
Minnesota	70	60	85.7	10	14.3
Mississippi	91	90	98.9	1	1.1
Missouri	113	103	91.2	10	8.8
Montana	54	54	100.0
Nebraska	82	78	95.1	4	4.9
Nevada	19	19	100.0
New Hampshire	11	7	63.6	4	36.4
New Jersey	31	15	48.4	16	51.6
New Mexico	32	30	93.8	2	6.2
New York	74	35	47.3	39	52.7
North Carolina	96	90	93.7	6	6.3
North Dakota	45	41	91.1	4	8.9
Ohio	112	109	97.3	3	2.7
Oklahoma	82	80	97.6	2	2.4
Oregon	35	30	85.7	5	14.3
Pennsylvania	73	49	67.1	24	32.9
Rhode Island ¹
South Carolina	101	91	90.1	10	9.9
South Dakota	47	43	91.5	4	8.5
Tennessee	104	99	95.2	5	4.8
Texas	265	257	97.0	8	3.0
Utah	26	24	92.3	2	7.7
Vermont	5	5	100.0
Virginia	89	83	93.3	6	6.7
Washington	42	36	85.7	6	14.3
West Virginia	57	56	98.2	1	1.8
Wisconsin	75	66	88.0	9	12.0
Wyoming	21	20	95.2	1	4.8

¹ Jails are not locally administered but rather are operated by the State government.

Source: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice, *National Jail Census 1970: A Report on the Nation's Local Jails and Type of Inmates*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971. p. 19.

TABLE L

**PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR
ADMINISTERING MISDEMEANANT
PROBATION**

Indicates number of states using particular
nomenclature to designate particular
parent agency responsibility

- 22 Local
- 9 State Board (Commission)
Pardons/Paroles Probation
- 1 State Board of Corrections
- 1 State Commission on Adult Problems
- 1 State Department of Social Welfare
- 4 State Department of Corrections
- 5 State Department of Parole, Probation
- 1 State Department of Mental Health
Corrections
- 1 State Division of Youth
and Adult Authority
- 2 State Department of Welfare/Institutions
- 2 State Department of Public Works
- 11 None

Source: Presidents Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections*, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

Increasing numbers of responsible officials have seen that the key element in any program of prison reform is education—giving the inmates training, vocational or academic, to help keep them from returning to crime when they re-enter society. The correctional system includes the elements of probation, correctional institutions, parole, and alternatives to institutionalization.

Probation—In general, probation, the supervision of a criminal in the community subject to the authority of the court, is a state function with regard to adults (see tables L and M*) and a local function with regard to juveniles (see table N*). Some local

* For more complete information, see Appendix A, Tables 6, 7 and 8.

probation systems are directly supervised by a judge. Others are the responsibility of relatively independent agencies.

Conditions of probation and the policies of probation officers vary greatly. In many communities there is wide discretion in probation administration with little supervision by the courts.

Correctional institutions—Correctional institutions include institutions for long-term confinement (prisons and juvenile training schools), local jails and workhouses, and juvenile detention homes.

According to a recent study, about 70 percent of the 4,037 local adult jails also receive juveniles.²¹ Insti-

TABLE M

**PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR
ADMINISTERING ADULT PROBATION**

Indicates number of states using particular
nomenclature to designate particular
parent agency responsibility

- 20 Local
- 12 State Board of (Pardons, Paroles,
Probations)
- 1 State Division of Youth & Adult Authority
- 1 State Division of Parole
- 1 State Commission on Adult Problems
- 6 State Department of Correction, Mental
Health
- 3 State Commission on Probation, Parole
- 2 State Board of Correction
- 4 State Department of (Social Welfare,
Welfare Institutions)
- 5 State Department (Parole, Probation)
- 1 District Judges Association
- 1 Administrator's Office of Courts
- 1 State Board of Prison Terms and Parole
- 2 Department of Public Works

Source: Presidents Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections*, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

tutions for long term confinement generally operate under a central state agency (e.g., department of public welfare, board of institutions, or department of corrections). However, the degrees to which administrative autonomy of separate correctional institutions have been reduced differ among the states (see tables O and P*). Juvenile training schools have historically emphasized the protection and treatment of children but have often failed to offer appropriate welfare services.

TABLE N	
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE PROBATION	
Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate particular parent agency responsibility	
44	Local
1	State Department of Pensions and Security
1	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority
4	State Department of Public Works
2	State Juvenile Court
1	State Department of Family and Child Service
1	State Department of Health
1	State Department of Child Welfare
1	State Department of Mental Health and Corrections
1	State Department of Parole and Probation
1	State Probation Commission
2	State Department of Correction
1	State Department of Probation
2	State Department of Social Welfare
1	Administration Office of Courts
1	State Department of Public Assistance
Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, <i>Task Force Report: Corrections</i> , Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.	

Local jails and workhouses normally detain misdemeanants—those guilty of lesser crimes—for up to a year. Correctional programs for such offenders are

TABLE O	
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE INSTITUTIONS	
Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate particular parent agency responsibility	
4	Independent Boards
1	State Youth and Adult Correction Agency
3	State Board of Corrections/Reform/Charities
1	State Department of Juvenile Corrections
1	State Department of Mental Health and Corrections
2	State Department of Corrections
5	State Youth Council Commission/Board
3	State Department of Health/Welfare/Institutions
2	State Department of Education/Public Instruction
6	State Department of Institutions/Agencies
1	State Board of State Industrial Schools
1	State Commissioner of Public Institutions
1	State Board of Directors of State Institutions for Juveniles
2	State Division of Child Training Schools
3	State Board of Control/Administration
5	State Department of Public Works
2	State Board of Trustees
7	State Department of Family/Child/Social Service of Welfare
2	State Division of Youth Adult Authority
Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, <i>Task Force Report: Corrections</i> , Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.	

TABLE P	
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING ADULT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS	
Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate particular parent agency responsibility	
5	State Board of Correction
1	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority
1	Superintendent of State Prison
1	State Penitentiary Commission
1	State Youth and Adult Correction Agency
8	State Department of Institution/Agency/Welfare
1	Three Separate and Independent Board
14	State Department of Correction/Mental Health/Hygiene
2	State Department of Social (Service) Welfare
1	State Department of Public Safety
2	State Board of Control
1	Office of Director of Penal Institutions
1	Independent Board
1	Board of Trustees of State Prison
1	Board of Director of State Prison
1	State Board of Prison Commissioners
1	State Prison Department
1	State Board of Administration
1	State Board of Public Affairs
2	State Department of Justice
1	Department of Public Works
1	State Board of Charities and Reform
1	State Board of Charities and Corrections
1	Commissioner of Public Institutions
Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, <i>Task Force Report: Corrections</i> , Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.	

TABLE Q	
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING LOCAL ADULT INSTITUTIONS AND JAILS	
Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate particular parent agency responsibility	
45	Local
1	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority
1	State Jail Administration
2	Not Applicable
1	State Department of Social Welfare
1	State Department of Justice
Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, <i>Task Force Report: Corrections</i> , Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.	

TABLE R	
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE DETENTION	
Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate particular parent agency responsibility	
43	Local
1	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority
1	State Juvenile Court
1	State Youth Service Commission
1	State Department of Family and Child Service
1	State Department of Public Works
1	State Youth Service Board
1	State Board of Trustees
2	State Department of Social Welfare
1	State Department of Health
Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, <i>Task Force Report: Corrections</i> , Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.	

For more complete information, see Appendix A, Tables 9 and 10.

normally administered by city or county officials, though in a few states they are administered by state agencies (see table Q*).

Juvenile detention homes serve as housing for delinquent children as well as for the neglected and dependent. For the delinquent, the detention home serves as a holding place before court hearing or transfer to another jurisdiction or program. Juvenile detention homes are normally administered locally (see table R*).

Juvenile correctional institutions are often only storage facilities which isolate those under their care from the outside world. Problems include overcrowded conditions, lack of adequately trained staff, few educational or vocational training opportunities, little counseling and inadequate guidance upon release. Delinquent children are rarely segregated from those who are only neglected or dependent.

Parole—More than 60 percent of adult felons in the United States are released on parole prior to the termination of their sentence.²² Parole supervision is a basic way of assisting the offender in his readjustment to the community and of continuing the correctional program begun during his confinement. Adult parole supervision is the responsibility of an identifiable and separate parole authority in every state. In most states the parole board is an independent agency, but in others, it is a unit of a larger department of the state or is the same body that regulates correctional institutions (see table S*).

In most states, the agency that administers the state training schools and camps also provides parole supervision (juvenile aftercare) for juveniles released from those institutions. Juvenile parole supervision in the remaining states is the responsibility of local probation departments (with no official relationship to the agency administering the training schools) or other local agencies which have made special arrangements with the training schools.²³ Most states involve the staff of the training schools in releasing decisions. In others, boards and agencies, independent of the training school itself, are used²⁴ (see table T*).

Alternatives to Institutionalization—Related to the correctional phase of process of criminal justice are several special community programs. These include

* For more complete information, see Appendix A, Tables 11, 12 13 and 14.

TABLE S

PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING PAROLE SERVICES

Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate particular parent agency responsibility

20	State Board (Commission) of Pardons/Parole/Probation/Prison Terms
1	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority
1	State Youth and Adult Correction Agency
2	State Division of Parole
1	Three Separate Independent Boards
8	State Department of Correction/Mental Health
4	State Department of Social Service Welfare/Institutions
3	State Board of Corrections
1	State Department of Public Safety
3	State Department of (Public) Institutions/Agencies
1	Local
4	State Department of Probation/Parole/Pardon
1	State Board of Trustees of State Prison
1	State Department of Public Works
1	State Department of Justice

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections*, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

foster homes and group homes, guided group interaction programs, intensive community treatment programs, halfway houses (pre-release guidance centers) and reception center parole. In some jurisdictions states may well operate all the alternative programs; in others only part of them. Programs directed at parolees are normally state administered while alternative programs for probation are often county operated.

TABLE T

PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE AFTERCARE

Indicates number of states using particular nomenclature to designate particular parent agency responsibility

6	Local
1	State Department of Pension and Security
1	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority
1	Board of Directors of State Institutions for Juveniles
7	State Department of Public Works
1	State Youth and Adult Correction Agency
6	State Department of Institutions
1	Independent Board of Trustees
5	State Youth/Services Commission/Council
1	State Division of Child Training Schools
1	State Commission of Public Institutions
1	State Board of Pardons and Paroles
1	State Department of Education
7	State Department of Family/Child/Social Service of Welfare
4	State Board of Corrections
2	State Board of Control
1	State Board of State Industrial Schools
1	State Board of Trustees
1	State Department of Mental Health and Correction
2	State Department of Parole and Probation
2	State Department of Health/Welfare
2	State Department of Corrections
1	State Board of Training Schools

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections*, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

Social Agencies

Conditions of unemployment, health, poverty, housing delinquency, prejudice and discrimination, and social disorganization affect the level of crime. Agencies which function in these areas are therefore tangentially engaged in crime reduction and prevention.

Departments of public welfare, to a limited extent, act to relieve and prevent poverty, suffering and human insecurity. Welfare administration spans federal, state and local spheres. County and municipal school systems, under the guidance of state departments of education or public instruction, operate institutional and vocational training programs directed to youth dropout problems. Unfortunately, many of these programs are inefficient, inadequate, and irrelevant. Health departments maintained by states, municipalities and counties often provide diagnostic and rehabilitative services to the courts. They also engage in functions relating to mental health, environmental health, alcoholism, drug abuse and other health conditions which influence crime rates.

Summary

It is evident from the foregoing description that as a total system the functions of criminal justice do not operate within any single political jurisdiction. Rather, the system spans municipal boundaries, county boundaries and contains inherent links to state government. Although particular agencies within the system (e.g., a municipal police department) are jurisdictionally confined to one municipality, others function on a county-wide, multi-county or state basis. In many cases, therefore, efforts to improve the operational of criminal justice will necessitate a multijurisdictional approach.

The problems experienced by the agencies and services of criminal justice have grown out of their organizational and administrative fragmentation—fragmentation among the components of the criminal justice system, fragmentation within individual components, and fragmentation among political jurisdictions having various measures of authority over individual components. System-wide criminal justice planning on a regional basis is a practical attempt to bring effective operation to the complex pursuit of criminal justice goals.

LACK OF COORDINATION AMONG COMPONENTS

A general lack of coordination has been the bench-mark of our criminal justice system. Despite the fact that representatives of each of the major components within the system share the common goals of preventing and controlling crime, the tendency has been toward a narrow perception of responsibilities (along functional lines) without recognition of the mutual benefits and common linkages that could bind the participants together as partners in a close working and planning relationship. What have been some of the major consequences of this condition? Why has it developed? And what are the key stumbling blocks to change?

Within city and county governments a number of departments and public agencies have been organized to administer various aspects of the local criminal justice program. Frequently, such agencies function independently of each other and display a general lack of coordination between and among other official departments of government. This functional independence has resulted in needless duplication of effort, inefficient use of funds and rather substantial gaps and inequities in the administration of justice.

Separate record systems are kept by virtually all local criminal justice organizations, both public and private, and bear little reference to data collected by other departments of government. Police and sheriffs' departments operate separate communication facilities on different frequencies, maintain separate training facilities, and fail to share criminal intelligence. Comparable equipment varies widely in price as a result of single item purchasing in some agencies and centralized purchasing in others.

Coordination is often further obstructed as authority and responsibility assume multi-level dimensions. Thus, in some states, for at least certain classes of offenders, two elements within the criminal justice system—parole and adult probation—fall largely within the responsibility and control of the state, and outside the mainstream of local decision making.

The Concept of System and the Problem of Coordination

Perhaps the most basic problem that has retarded coordination arises from a general failure to perceive the true interdependence among the system components. This problem, largely one of conceptualization, can be traced to a lack of knowledge of the functional components. For example, due to a lack of daily exchange of pertinent information and a general misunderstanding of the other's function, the police often hold court personnel to be incompetent and think court procedures to be devices impeding the course of justice. Yet the courts often perceive the police as professionally untrained, especially in the art of building a case, and as unduly concerned with locking people up. The corrections officials often perceive the courts as meddlers, especially when sentences do not reflect sound rehabilitative principles. In turn, the correctional component is criticized as maintaining inhuman "warehouses of human degradation."

In part, the problem of misconceptualization originates with, or is aggravated by, widespread fragmentation, certain misconceptions with respect to the principle of separation of powers, competition for tax dollars, problems of role perception and tunnel vision, and most importantly, a basic lack of leadership.

Before briefly examining these factors, it might be worthwhile to illustrate how a change in procedure or capability in any one component significantly impacts on the other two. If, for example, police are ineffective in preventing crime, courts and correctional facilities may be flooded. Likewise, long court backlogs place an extra burden on the police who must deal with crime committed by accused offenders out on bail.

Fragmentation—Fragmentation does not, in and of itself, result in a lack of coordination, but it does make the job of coordination more difficult to achieve. There are more than 80,000 units of local government in the United States. Fewer than half of these units contain as many as 1,000 people, and fewer than 10 percent contain more than 10,000 people. Most of these units lack the financial capabilities to cope with the host of problems facing them. In addition, most of the problems including crime and public safety do not conform to the jurisdictional boundaries of the governmental agencies that have the responsibility for solving them. These problems are usually regional in scope.

Among the chief criminal justice components—police, courts and corrections—fragmentation is widespread at the local level. For example, there are presently, as noted earlier, some 17,000 local government police agencies (including sheriffs departments).

Separation of Powers—The separation of powers principle has at times been invoked to prevent or limit the involvement of the judiciary in the coordination of local criminal justice activities. Basically the principle of separation of powers holds that the legislative, executive and judicial powers are separate and distinct from each other. While members of the judiciary might maintain that this basic constitutional doctrine of legal separation prohibits their participation in coordinated criminal justice activities, few students of both modern constitutional



An inmate receives medical treatment from a registered nurse in the modern 300 bed hospital in the Los Angeles County Men's Central Jail.

law and public administration would agree. Indeed, a more persuasive argument can be made for involvement of judicial officers if only to preserve the independence of their judicial function.

Distortions in Perception—Criminal justice, as presently administered in the United States, suffers from a confusion on the part of its three major components about the role each is to play in protecting society from aberrant behavior. This confusion results in a lack of coordination of effort on the part of the components and stems from a general lack of communications which can bind the components together. These differing perceptions by the components point out the lack of an overall philosophy for the administration of criminal justice.

The courts as a rule view themselves as a separate entity with the ultimate responsibility of protecting society and upholding the integrity of the law while at the same time protecting the rights of the individual. This view is supported by the position given the courts by the federal and state governments. In each instance the court is the governmental branch that holds responsibility for reviewing the actions of other branches of government. As a result courts have tended to remain aloof from any ties which appear, from their point of view, to compromise their effectiveness.

Police perceive their role as that of enforcer of the laws. The role of the enforcer entails a variety of responsibilities, but the one most commonly held is that of apprehending criminals. The goal of apprehension may be carried to such an extreme that it conflicts with the courts' goal of insuring individual rights.

Corrections officials tend to perceive themselves as more than jailkeepers. They believe that some efforts to re-establish the violator's relationship with society be pursued, although this function has been given low priority by elected officials. Confinement techniques are not adequate to socialize the violator, and often bring about the opposite effect.

Tunnel Vision—"Tunnel Vision", or the inability to see beyond one's own responsibilities, is a further impediment to effective coordination. Only in isolated instances is any local criminal justice endeavor free from this malady. Generally the personnel of each component are so involved in their daily routine that they have no time or inclination to observe or learn of the happenings in another area.

Competition for Tax Dollars—Competition for tax dollars has also tended to retard coordination. This is especially true when local agency projects are funded in a vacuum ("the shopping list approach") without adequate recognition for community and regional needs. In many instances, the agency that cries the loudest or is more persistent in its requests for tax revenues, receives more than its fair share when measured against the total needs of the local criminal justice system. Local units continually find themselves in a constant struggle for revenue sources. The net result has been a serious weakening of local government's ability to handle critical community needs.

Lack of Leadership

Perhaps the most important factor behind the failure of criminal justice agencies and local governments to coordinate their activities can be traced to a general lack of leadership.

Among the actors within the criminal justice system are a number of elected "row officials": (i.e., judges, district attorneys, county clerks, coroners, sheriffs, etc.) whose legal responsibilities generally conform to narrow yet essential aspects of the total system. Thus, the job of the sheriff in some states is limited to serving court orders, investigating crimes, and maintaining the county jail. Similarly, judges are held accountable to the electorate for dispensing justice, for their fairness in sentencing convicted offenders, for deciding questions of law and fact, and for the administration of the courts within their authority. These same officials, however, are not, as a rule, held primarily accountable for the incidence of crime within their community, the performance of the police, or the rehabilitation of prisoners. Their legal responsibility does not extend beyond the performance of their own department.

The authority to manage criminal justice programs reflects this decentralization along functional lines. As a result, local programs have developed as fragmented, single-purpose efforts which are unable to transcend organizational or other boundaries to approach interrelated problems in any kind of a systematized manner.

Nevertheless, public accountability for the total performance of the local criminal justice system is largely shouldered by the elected representatives of general purpose governments, the mayors, city coun-

cilman and county commissioners, who stand election on the basis of broad policy questions that impinge on the larger social and economic issues of community welfare and development. Despite statutory limitations and a lack of legal control over certain elements within the criminal justice system, general elected officials, nevertheless can exercise their leadership role in bringing the system components together, and in lending the prestige of their office to coordination activities.

Lack of Citizen Support

Achieving a high degree of coordination within the criminal justice system is heavily dependent on an informed and energetic electorate. By transmitting their demands to those in power, citizens can significantly influence the official role of their elected and appointed representatives. Stated differently, citizen demands, repeated over time, contribute toward the shaping of expectations. In a real sense these demands not only help determine the role or roles of a particular office holder or agency operating within the system but they also serve to influence the level of coordination between and among departments as well as governments. Thus a mayor in a particular community may lend his support to a regional jail facility not because he has to, or even necessarily because he wants to, but because the people expect him to. Similarly, a lack of responsiveness and/or knowledge on the part of the local citizenry can serve to retard coordination.

This latter condition—a lack of citizen response and a general failure to appreciate the intricacies and interrelationships of criminal justice problems—has been a primary ingredient behind the lack of coordination and cooperation that exists. Faced with mounting crime rates, citizen reaction has tended to focus on police, the most visible component of the system, at the expense of courts, corrections and the various social welfare agencies that bear direct and indirect relationships to the criminal justice system.

The Confusion Between Public Safety and Civil Liberty Goals

Confusion between public safety goals and civil liberty goals has also hampered coordination. Such



Public support for criminal justice programs should be maintained through a continuing program of public information and education.

confusion in goal perception is unfortunate for the two types of goals need not be mutually exclusive nor for that matter can they always be easily distinguished. Indeed, many individuals have adopted a crime philosophy that contains elements from both schools of thought.

Essentially, the civil libertarians see crime as a collective responsibility, a socio-economic product of our society, the end result of poverty, racism, unemployment and other conditions of the environment. The plight of the poor and minority groups is of particular concern to the libertarian, not only because he recognizes that these groups constitute a major proportion of the offender population, but because history has shown a general disrespect for their constitutional rights. Injustice, he argues, breeds disorder. It constitutes a major cause of anti-social behavior. The libertarian's prescription for reform places stress on the rights of the accused, education, housing, medical care, and in general, an interdisciplinary approach to the problems of crime. Cautiously, he guards against any erosion in the rights of the individual.

In contrast, the public safety advocate views crime as an anti-social act that threatens the general welfare. He argues that crime, where ever it exists, must be stopped, and the individual lawbreaker must be held responsible for his actions. At times, he sees the rights of the accused in conflict with the rights of society.

Fear of Absorption

Further complicating attempts at effective coordi-

nation for criminal justice is the fear by small local police departments, courts and local governments that they will lose their independent status and authority, and possibly be consolidated out of existence. For those localities and agencies which operate, on meager budgets and can provide but minimal services, this fear has some justification in a time of rising costs and increasing demands for more and better services.

While small local criminal justice agencies and their respective governments may find legal obstacles to coordination of services in their respective state constitutions or local charters, the most formidable obstacle to coordination is reluctance on the part of local leaders to relinquish authority over interests they consider best administered by themselves. This reluctance is not just a desire to retain authority, but is a demonstrated belief that local problems and needs can be better served by local agencies than by institutions divorced from the area under consideration. It is upon this belief that much of our present form of government is based. Many local leaders feel that relinquishment of authority by smaller localities opens the door to drastic changes in all forms of our government.

Not all jurisdictions and their criminal justice agencies have objected to coordination of their criminal justice functions. More and more localities are coordinating a variety of criminal justice activities. Usually the agencies are coordinating technical activities which require a capital outlay greater than individual agencies can supply. In this way local authority is maintained while the cooperating agencies receive the benefits of pooled resources. For example, the police may coordinate selected functions through the development of multi-agency records systems, communications networks, intelligence squads and even coordinated recruiting. Some courts are initiating cooperative arrangements whereby an overcrowded docket load in one court can be transferred in part to another court of equal jurisdiction.

The reasons for this reluctance to engage in meaningful cooperation can be stated as fear of absorption, desire to retain authority, and belief that larger agencies do not meet specific local needs. However, there are effective alternatives to these concerns which do not contain seeds of destruction for local control. Although these alternatives may mean a loss of authority by specific individuals within a locality, this loss may be compensated through the provision of more effective services.

So long as fear of absorption remains, reluctance

to coordinate criminal justice activities will continue. But as effective alternatives are developed which allow for local control, and as the demand for better

criminal justice services increases, cooperative multi-jurisdictional and interdisciplinary efforts will become the rule rather than the exception.

OMNIBUS-CRIME CONTROL AND SAFE STREETS ACT OF 1968

General Thrust of the Act

The passage of the Safe Streets Act in June 1968 was important national acknowledgement that occurrences of criminal behavior had risen to a critical degree and that the traditional local criminal justice response could not successfully meet the challenge without substantial federal aid. The crime rate has been rising steadily in the United States since 1940. By the late 1950's it was increasing five times as fast as the population. The trend continued into the 1960's. In eight years (1960-1968), occurrences of forcible rape, aggravated assault, and robbery per 100,000 population rose 65 percent, 67 percent, and 119 percent respectively.²⁵ Criminal homicide increased 36 percent. Instances of homicide were marked by three political assassinations. President John F. Kennedy was killed in 1963 during a motorcade in Dallas, Texas. Five years later his brother, Senator Robert Kennedy, a presidential candidate, died after being shot in a Los Angeles hotel. Some weeks before, civil rights leader Martin Luther King had met a similar fate in Memphis, Tennessee.

America had entered an era of violence. Following a frustrating period of "cold war", the United States became mired in a seemingly endless and unpopular land war in Southeast Asia. Consequent student demonstrations often brought confrontation with the law. In addition to difficulties related to the war, in the major urban areas of America, there was a growing crisis between the police and minority groups. This is particularly true with regard to inner city blacks, Puerto Ricans and Mexican-Americans—groups experiencing an emergence of new militancy and racial pride. Reported police practices such as aggressive patrol, stop and frisk, delays in response to calls, enforcement of eviction notices as well as verbal slurs reflecting racial bias evoked bitter resentment towards the dominant white society. This situation was made more frustrating as minority

groups experiencing an emergence of new militancy man rights as members of American society. They saw these rights, bitterly won, being eroded and torn away by public fear and reaction to the crime wave in which they were the chief victims.

In 1963 disorders involving both blacks and whites broke out in Birmingham, Savannah, Chicago, and Philadelphia. The following year racial violence occurred in Jacksonville, Cleveland, St. Augustine, and New York. In 1965 the Watts section of Los Angeles suffered the country's worst civil disturbance since the Detroit riot of 1943. Civil violence continued into 1966 and 1967 with disturbances in Tampa, Cincinnati, Atlanta, Newark and Detroit. Domestic turmoil had become part of the American scene. A Harris poll in the summer of 1968 found that 81 percent of the American people believed that law and order had broken down.

By the mid-1960's it was evident that a broad federal effort was needed to respond to crime and violence. In a special message on crime delivered to the Congress in March 1965, President Lyndon Johnson called for the establishment of a Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice and recommended passage of the Law Enforcement Assistance Act. While he observed that it was necessary to identify and eliminate the social and economic causes of crime, the President emphasized that such efforts would not be enough. "Crime will not wait while we pull it up by the roots," he said. "We must arrest and reverse the trend toward lawlessness." The immediate goal would be to secure the public safety.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice reported in 1967 that a greatly increased effort against crime and violence was needed on the part of the federal government, the states, the counties, the cities, civic organizations, religious institutions, business groups, and individual citizens. The Commission called for basic changes in the operations of police, schools, prosecutors, employment agencies, defenders, social workers, pris-

ons, housing authorities, and probation and parole officers. These recommendations were given timely emphasis the next year by the report of a second Presidential commission, the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders. Shortly thereafter, Congress responded by passing the *Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968*.

The Safe Streets Act recognized that criminal justice efforts required better coordination, intensification and greater effectiveness at all levels of government. But the Congress emphasized that crime is essentially a local problem that must be dealt with by state and local governments. Local law enforcement is an inherent national characteristic. There are more New York City policemen than there are federal law enforcement officers. Los Angeles County has six times more deputy sheriffs than there are deputy United States marshals. Some counties have twice as many probation service officers as the entire Federal Probation Service. The Federal Bureau of Prisons has less than five percent of the prison population of the nation. The federal judiciary is only a fraction the size of the judiciary of the states.²⁶

The President's Crime Commission determined that state and local police, court and corrections agencies would require substantially more money if they were to control crime effectively. Increased resources were needed especially for higher salaries. While the Commission recommended that state and local governments continue to shoulder the major burden, it suggested a vastly enlarged program of federal assistance.

To this end, the Safe Streets Act provided that the federal government would assist states and localities in strengthening and improving criminal justice at every level through planning and action grants and through the encouragement of research and development. The Act established the first comprehensive federal block grant program for assisting state and local criminal justice administration. Block grants would be awarded to state with a required pass through to localities.

How the Safe Streets Act Applies to Local Government

In its declared policy of assisting state and local governments to strengthen and improve law enforce-

ment at every level, the Safe Streets Act proposed three general objectives:

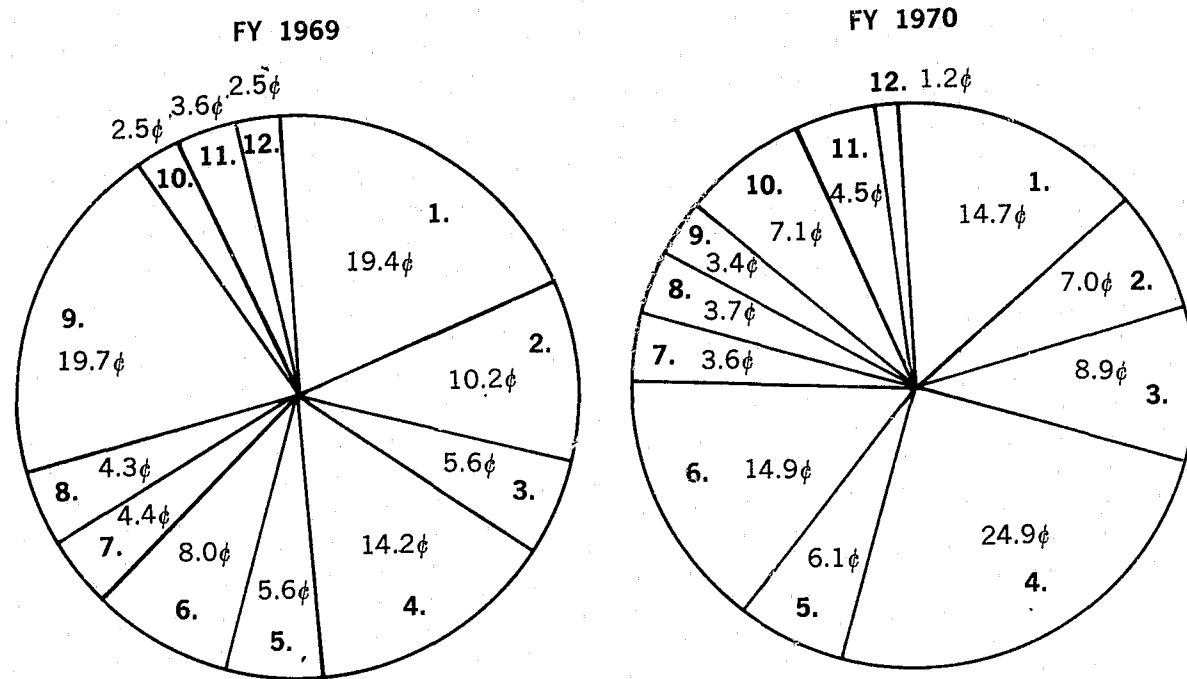
- 1) [to] encourage States and units of general local government to prepare and adopt comprehensive plans based upon their evaluation of State and local problems of law enforcement; 2) [to] authorize grants to States and units of local government in order to improve and strengthen law enforcement; and 3) [to] encourage research and development directed toward the improvement of law enforcement and the development of new methods for the prevention and reduction of crime and the detection and apprehension of criminals.

Federal funds are distributed to the states by a block grant approach as opposed to a system of direct grants to state and local agencies on a project-by-project basis. Funds are awarded for planning and for implementation of plans. Under the Act the governor of each state is required to establish within his authority a state law enforcement planning agency (SPA) that will function as a permanent decision making and administrative body to receive the federal block grants and disburse subgrants to local governments. Each state receives a minimum of \$100,000 for planning. Additional planning grants are based on population.

Planning Grants—State planning agencies are required to make available 40 percent of all federal planning funds to units of general local government or combinations of such units for use in developing local components of the state comprehensive plan; conducting studies and collecting data for formulating, revising or expanding the plan; and creating and supporting continuing planning units or capabilities. The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), established by the Act to administer the grants, has the authority to waive the 40 percent pass through requirement if it is inconsistent with the development of the state comprehensive plan. Major cities and counties, though, must receive planning funds to develop input to the state plan.

States are directed to make planning funds available to local units of government by direct grant or other type of fund allocation or transfer. Priority in funding local planning is given to major urban and metropolitan areas, to other areas of high crime incidence and potential, and to efforts involving com-

FIGURE G
THE ACTION GRANT DOLLAR



Source: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Justice Department, LEAA 1970, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970.

binations of local units. Planning efforts on a regional, metropolitan or other combined interest basis are therefore encouraged.

Action Grants—Action grants are made to state planning agencies only after state comprehensive plans have been submitted to and approved by LEAA. Plan submission and review is an annual process. The Act specifies that state planning agencies must make available 75 percent of their action block grants to units of general local government or combinations thereof. (In Fiscal Year 1973 this requirement will be modified to require that states pass through the percentage of action funds equal to their expenditures in relation to the total non-federal expenditures for law enforcement during the previous fiscal year.) Federal action grants may be used for the following purposes specified in the Act:

- Public protection
- Recruitment and training of criminal justice personnel
- Public education relating to crime prevention and respect for law and order
- Construction of buildings or facilities
- Prevention and control of organized crime, riots, and civil disorders
- Recruitment and training of community service officers
- Establishment of criminal justice coordinating councils for local units of government over 250,000 in population
- Establishment of community based delinquency prevention programs

Local Matching—The Act requires that jurisdictions (state or local) receiving federal planning money provide at least 10 cents for every federal 90 cents. For action money, recipient jurisdictions are to provide 25 cents for every 75 cents in federal funds. Exceptions to this rule include 50-50 matching for construction projects. By Fiscal Year 1973 local matching must be at least 40 percent money as opposed to goods or services. Not more than one-third of any grant may be expended for compensation of police or regular law enforcement personnel.

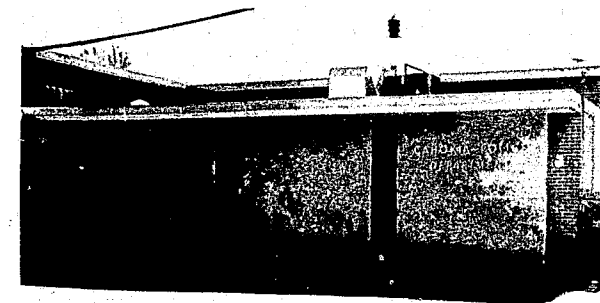
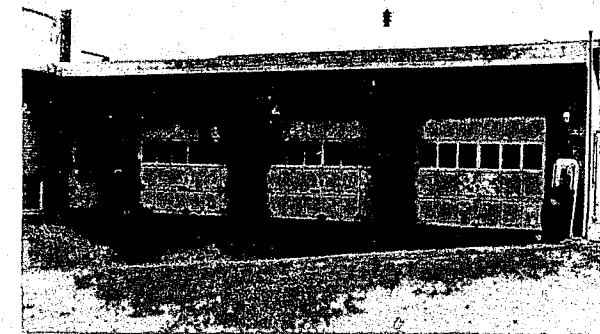
Action Fund Distribution—Eighty-five percent of the total action funds appropriated by Congress to the annual budget of LEAA must be allocated to the states in block grants. The amount each state receives is based solely on population. Applications for action grants must be based on the state's approved comprehensive plan. The procedures for distribution

of action funds varies. Some states, such as Massachusetts, distribute the 75 percent local funding directly to local units for projects cleared through regional and state planning mechanisms. Others, such as North Carolina, distribute action funds to regional planning agencies for regional programs or for redistribution to local programs approved by the state agency.

Discretionary Grants—The remaining 15 percent of LEAA's action budget constitutes a pool of "discretionary funds" which the Administration may use to advance national priorities, draw attention to programs not emphasized in state plans, and provide special impetus for reform and experimentation within the total law enforcement improvement structure created by the Act. Discretionary funds are used for experimentation, special emphasis and supplementation rather than to meet the massive or widespread need that state plans and block grant action funds must address.

Discretionary grants can be made to states, to local units of government, or combinations of local units. Applications can be made by individual government agencies, private agencies or universities through and with the approval of their local or state government. The discretionary grant program, though, retains enough flexibility to encourage and give preference to multi-state, regional, or cooperative projects involving multiple units of state or local government. Unless otherwise indicated, discretionary grant applications must be submitted to each state planning agency to permit confirmation that the proposed project is consistent with the state's comprehensive plan. Most grants are made through state planning agencies for fund administration and monitoring purposes. If a state planning agency withholds or is unable to furnish certification, LEAA may make a final determination as to the application and reserve the right to make direct awards to qualified applicants. Matching requirements for discretionary grants are similar to those for action block grants.

Other grants—The Safe Streets Act also provides that additional federal grants be made available through the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (part of LEAA) for training, education, research, demonstration and special grants. Such grants may be for up to 100 percent of the total cost of approved projects. Eligible applicants may be public agencies, institutions of higher



The Village of Cahokia, Illinois received federal law enforcement action grant assistance for construction. The funds were used to expand the police department's headquarters by transforming an existing garage structure into office space, locker facilities, questioning rooms and other work areas.

education, private organizations and qualified individuals. Research activity focuses on priority problems concerned with the incidence of crime and society's response to criminal activity. In addition the Act provides that a Law Enforcement Education Program, administered by LEAA's Office of Academic Assistance, will provide financial assistance in the form of student loans and grants to enable in-service personnel to continue their education at the college or university level. Grants are limited to police, corrections and court personnel.

Major Benefits of the Act

For local government the major benefits of the Safe Streets Act include the provision of much needed federal financial aid to cities, towns and counties with a demonstrated need for more resources to improve the state of their criminal justice systems. During the fiscal year 1970, LEAA's budget was \$268 million. Of this, \$184,522,420 was distributed to the states as block action grants. Discretionary grant expenditures totaled \$31,999,760 and planning grant allotments reached \$20.9 million. Eighteen million dollars went for academic assistance and \$7.5 million was budgeted for the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. In addition, \$1,200,000 went for technical assistance to help states and cities plan and implement their criminal justice programs (See Table T). For Fiscal Year 1971, although \$650 million was authorized, \$480 million was appropriated to LEAA, and amounts of \$1.15 billion and \$1.75 billion have been authorized for Fiscal Years 1972 and 1973 respectively.

In addition to the monetary benefit which local governments have derived from the Safe Streets Act, they have also obtained a measure of motivation and guidance toward the establishment of comprehensive coordinated criminal justice programs based on broad goals and specific objectives formulated locally. Local jurisdictions at the direction of state planning agencies are asked to develop multi-faceted and innovative plans and project proposals for crime control. Such activity has become a catalyst in bringing together previously isolated components of the criminal justice system.

TABLE U

DISTRIBUTION OF LEAA FUND

FY 1970 Budget: \$268,000,000
LEAA Administration

\$4,300,000	Technical assistance
\$1,200.00	
\$1,000,000	
Office of Academic Assistance	National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service
\$18,000.00	
\$7,500.00	National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice

Planning grants	21,000,000
Discretionary grants	32,250,000
Action grants	\$182,750.00

Office of Law Enforcement Programs

Source: Law Enforcement Assistant Administration LEAA 1970, Washington, D.C. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970.

TABLE V

ORGANIZATION AND FINANCING OF SUB-STATE CRIMINAL JUSTICE PLANNING REGIONS

State	Are regions set up	Number of regions	Eligibility for 40 percent planning funds Only regions funded*	Both regions and localities funded
Alabama	Yes	7	X	
Alaska	No		X	
Arizona	Yes	6	X	
Arkansas	Yes	5	X	
California	Yes	13	X	
Colorado	Yes	14	X	
Connecticut	Yes	6		X
Delaware	No			
Florida	Yes	7	X	
Georgia	Yes	19	X	
Hawaii	Yes	4	X	
Idaho	Yes	3	X	
Illinois	Yes	36		X
Indiana	Yes	8	X	
Iowa	No			
Kansas	Yes	6		X
Kentucky	Yes	16	X	
Louisiana	Yes	7	X	
Maine	Yes	7	X	
Maryland	Yes	5	X	
Massachusetts	Yes	12		X
Michigan	Yes	11	X	
Minnesota	Yes	7	X	
Mississippi	Yes	4	X	
Missouri	Yes	18	X	
Montana	Yes	5	X	
Nebraska	Yes	26	X	
Nevada	Yes	3	X	
New Hampshire	Yes	12	X	
New Jersey	No			
New Mexico	Yes	3		X
New York	Yes	15		X
North Carolina	Yes	21	X	
North Dakota	No			
Ohio	Yes	15		X
Oklahoma	Yes	13	X	
Oregon	Yes	14	X	
Pennsylvania	Yes	8	X	
Rhode Island	Yes	9	X	
South Carolina	Yes	10	X	
South Dakota	Yes	7	X	
Tennessee	Yes	4		X
Texas	Yes	24	X	
Utah	Yes	9	X	
Vermont	Yes	5	X	
Virginia	Yes	22		X
Washington	No			
West Virginia	Yes	2	X	
Wisconsin	Yes	9	X	
Wyoming	Yes	7	X	

* Many regional planning units pass some of their planning funds on to units of local government.

Source: Office of Law Enforcement Program, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration "Analysis of Fiscal Year 1971 State Planning Agency Statistics," February 10, 1971.

Requirements for Local Planning and Coordination

After declaring crime to be "essentially a local problem" Congress, in Title I of the Safe Streets Act (Public Law 90-351) stressed the importance of planning in developing sound and viable criminal justice programs. The law states, "It is the purpose of this title to . . . encourage States and units of general local government to prepare and adopt comprehensive plans based upon their evaluation of State and local problems. . . ." To insure local involvement the Act specified that the state planning agency, in order to qualify for funds, must, among other requirements, be representative of "units of general local government" and each state plan was required not only to "permit" but also to "encourage units of general local government to combine or provide for cooperative arrangements with respect to services, facilities and equipment".²⁷ (emphasis added)

The federal guidelines for planning grants encourage planning on a regional, metropolitan or other "combined interest" basis. They suggest consideration be given to the utilization of existing planning regions which are consistent or coterminous with other "Federally-supported programs or with existing State planning districts. . . ." The importance of local representation and acceptability of "regional combinations" is also made clear in the guideline requirements; "State planning agencies should recognize that under the Act, regional combinations must be more than State imposed geographic units and need to enjoy a base of local unit acceptability and representation."²⁸

Prior to the issuance of the fiscal year 1971 *Guide for Comprehensive Law Enforcement Planning and Action Grants*, federal guidelines did not address the representative character of members of substate regional planning bodies. The states were thus left free to formulate their own policies consistent with the Act. It appeared implicitly clear, however, judging by the general tone of the Act, that local regional representation should relate to and be consistent with the representation requirements applicable to the state supervisory boards.²⁹ Thus many states acting on their own initiative sought to apply, when applicable, a number of federal requirements that were directed to state supervisory boards.

With the passage of the 1970 amendments to the Safe Streets Act, the same standards of representation applicable to state planning agencies were for

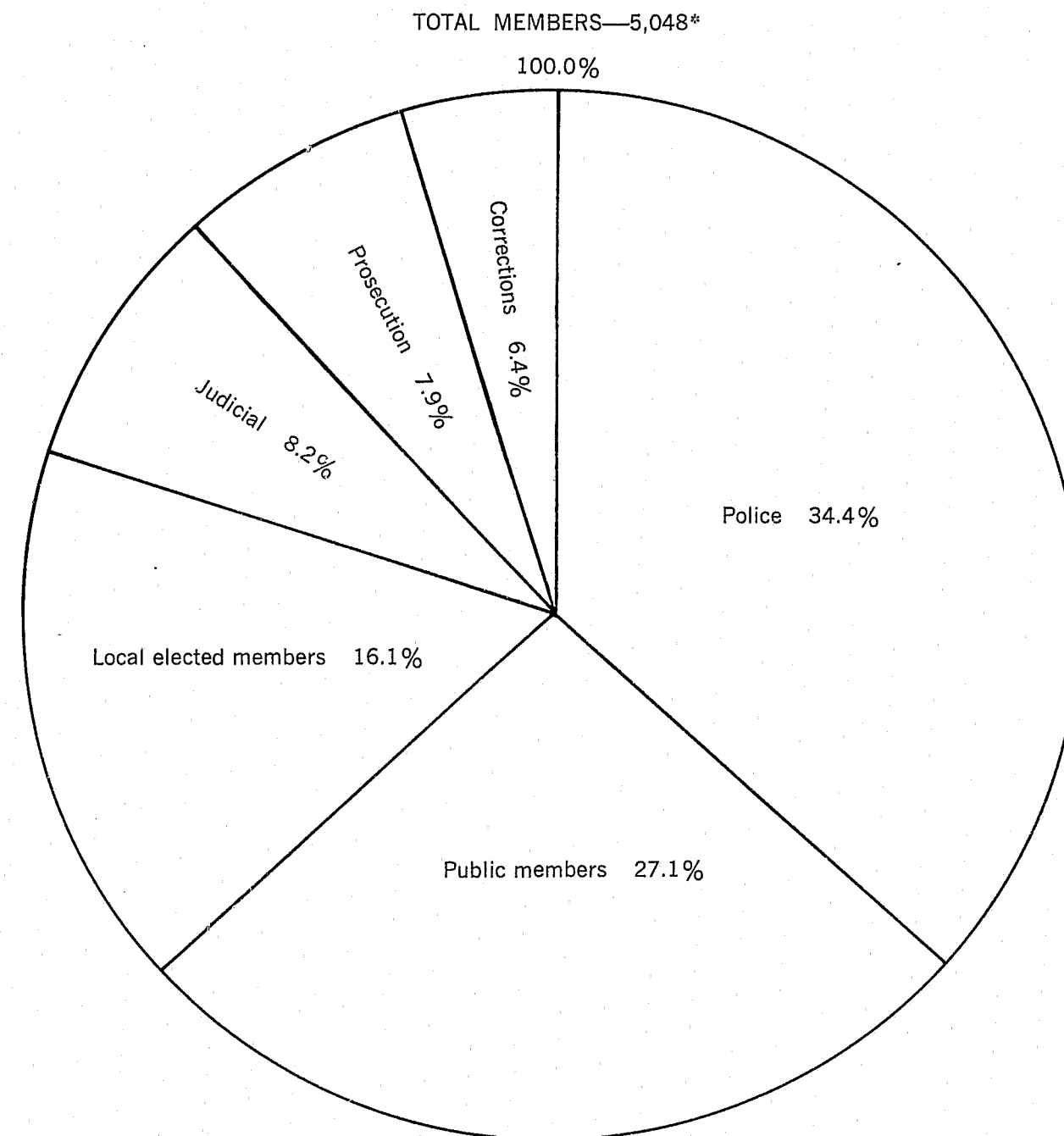
the first time applied to "regional planning units."³⁰ The Act, as amended, states that "the state planning agency and any regional planning units within the states shall, within their respective jurisdictions, be representative of the law enforcement agencies, units of general local government, and public agencies maintaining programs to reduce and control crime. Recognizing the need to make certain guideline adjustments, "for inherent differences in the character of regional units as compared to the State planning agency," the 1971 guidelines did not bind regional planning units to all of the state requirements.

Guideline interpretations of the new requirements included the following:

- There is recognition that if a regional unit does not, within its governmental entities, provide significant services in any dimension of law enforcement (e.g., a parole system totally administered at State level) and thus cannot plan meaningfully for that dimension, the regional unit need not include this type of representation
- Standards to insure general elected or appointive official representation by all large governmental units within a planning region are mandated
- The representation accorded to a region's major components shall be "fair and adequate"

Other significant elements of the 1970 amendments included the provision that LEAA may waive the 40 percent planning fund pass through requirement, in whole or in part, upon the finding that the requirement is inappropriate in view of the respective law enforcement planning responsibilities exercised by the state and its units of general local government, and that adherence to the requirement would not contribute to efficient development of the state plan. But special provision is made that major cities and counties within the state to receive planning funds to develop comprehensive plans and coordinate functions at the local level. The amendments also include the provision that state plans may provide for the establishment of criminal justice coordinating councils for any unit of general local government or combinations of such units having a population of 250,000 or more. These would have the purpose of assuring improved planning and coordination of all criminal justice.

FIGURE H
COMPOSITION OF THE AVERAGE LEAA SUBSTATE POLICY BOARD
BY FUNCTIONAL BACKGROUND
1970



*Figure based on survey of 291 substate regions listed in 1970 LEAA plans for 31 states.

Source: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations.

NEED FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE PLANNING

Effective criminal justice reform can only be achieved through the employment of an effective planning process. Planning is the basis of any successful action program which seeks to integrate local needs with those of the state and to coordinate the fragmented segments of the criminal justice system within, between and among local governments. Within this broad purpose a practical strategy for action must be developed.

The scope of criminal justice planning will often transcend jurisdictional and individual agency responsibilities. Goals derived from a successful planning program will help delineate the relationships among the individual components of the criminal justice system and related public and private programs. These goals can frequently be directed toward regional programs in an effort to reduce duplication of effort and attack crime on a more comprehensive front.

Realistic criminal justice goals can best be formulated through a structure of state, regional and local officials who are representative of criminal justice agencies (police, courts and correctional agencies); units of general local government (elected mayors, county commissioners, county managers, city councilmen); public agencies maintaining programs to reduce and control crime (agencies dealing with social services, welfare, housing, health and recreation); and representatives of community and citizen interests, especially minority group representatives. Contributions should also be invited from the scientific and technological communities who will provide for or receive the resulting services (private industry, non-profit organizations, professional groups and volunteer organizations). In short, all elements of the community should be included in the planning process in order that the resulting goals and plans will be realistically related to the needs of the community.

Benefits of Planning

Generally, planning for criminal justice will en-

courage each component to better identify problem areas, to provide a framework for determining priorities, to consider alternative actions, and to anticipate problems, thereby becoming goal, rather than system maintenance, oriented.

More specifically, planning for criminal justice activities facilitate the following:

Greater Unity of Purpose Among Criminal Justice Components—The objective of each criminal justice component should be complementary to that expressed for each of the other components. However, the current expressed objectives of criminal justice components often conflict. Police often view their primary purpose as "get the criminal off the street", yet corrections officials may see their role as one of rehabilitation, in which locking up a criminal has little positive value for the individual or for society. Between these extremes are the courts, which try to insure that the law is fairly applied to all who are measured against it. However, when recognizing the rights of groups and individuals as opposed to society at large, the courts have sometimes worked at cross-purposes to both police and corrections. A cooperative comprehensive effort by all criminal justice components will help to identify their common interests and establish the direction in which the administration of local criminal justice should proceed.

Greater Coordination of Effort Among Political Jurisdictions—Many local governments, finding themselves besieged on one side for a reduction or leveling off of the tax rate, and on the other with citizens' desires for more and better services, are approaching insolvency. Comprehensive criminal justice planning, while not directly providing tax relief, can promote coordination among local jurisdictions which may in turn lead to more efficient allocation of local resources (such as streamlining unnecessary duplication of services) and thereby reduce public expenses.

More Positive Citizen Involvement—Involvement of the citizenry at certain stages of the planning process serves, in addition to educating the public,



Deplorable jail conditions contributes to a high rate of recidivism. Instead of rehabilitating prisoners, many local jails provide an environment that not only reinforces but creates patterns of anti-social behavior.

to provide a more constructive community relationship with criminal justice agencies. Citizen involvement which serves to point out problems and issues, and to review and suggest action programs, can lead to improved citizen cooperation for both preventing and controlling crime.

Strategic and Tactical Planning Defined

The overall goal of the criminal justice system is to control and prevent crime. In order to carry out this mission, both strategic (long-range) and tactical (short-range) planning is essential. Strategic planning is the enunciation of policies, goals and broad plans for the enhancement of public safety and justice. Strategic planning, with a long-range focus, is predicated on the identification of general criminal justice problems such as reducing the crime rate or the rate of recidivism. On the other hand, tactical planning, or short-range planning, focuses on the development of programs designed to achieve the objectives of strategic planning.

Strategic planning identifies the broad actions nec-

essary to overcome complex problems which cannot be solved by short-term, narrowly conceived programs. The effect of formulating long-range goals is to insure that the community's sights are set high enough. Thus, a long-range goal does not have to reflect the current state of the art, or budgetary or legislative constraints.

Identifying criminal justice problems and establishing long-range goals are the elements of strategic planning. Tactical planning, on the other hand, is the identification of specific short-term actions or programs needed to achieve specific objectives. Tactical planning relates to strategic planning by reiterating and refining the elements of strategic planning and by adding appropriate short-range operational objectives. Tactical planning also furnishes a description of the mechanisms and resources to be used in reaching these objectives.

Tactical planning involves the establishment of program objectives for the current and perhaps next year of operations. Strategic plans are designed for a given number of years in the future (usually five or more). At the end of each year, annual programs and strategic plans would be projected one additional year into the future.

Establishing Long-Range Criminal Justice Goals for the Community

The strategic phase of the planning process sets the long-range design and overall direction of the work activity. It serves to unite the participants on distant targets or broad gauged goals toward which planning is directed. By striving to achieve this common ground, or perspective, agreement can eventually be reached on the attainment of a desired set of general conditions. These distant conditions can be termed the strategic goals.

Strategic planning, therefore, as opposed to tactical planning, is an attempt to isolate the long-range from the more immediate. It provides direction to data collection, the identification of long range problems, the selection of priorities, formulation of a plan, and the consequent evaluation of implemented programs.

Strategic or long-range goals tend to establish boundaries around the complex problem of crime and its control, and make it easier to:

- Determine the kinds of questions which have to be answered or understood more fully before meaningful short-range goals can be formulated
- Select among alternative proposed programs
- Accommodate the diverse views and missions of the various elements of the criminal justice system. Agreement on a broad set of goals provides an opportunity for alleviating principal areas of difference
- Provides a reference to avoid specific projects from conflicting with each other

Resolving Conflicting Claims By Policy Consensus—Strategic planning facilitates the attraction and involvement of a more representative grouping in planning deliberations. Designed to provide for the long-range needs of the community rather than for the more immediate concerns of any one particular agency or department, strategic planning provides the opportunity for diverse interests to express views and exercise influence on the development of broad gauged goals for improving criminal justice. Admittedly, group consideration of long-range goals will not by itself lead to consensus. Value differences, to

some extent, will probably always exist. Nevertheless, strategic planning can significantly enhance the understanding, knowledge and general awareness of the participants, at least to the point where differences will not be rooted in ignorance, misunderstanding and the like.

The Need for Comprehensiveness—Broken down into a number of disciplines and orientations, the field of criminal justice comprises a maze of highly technical and specialized missions and procedures. Strategic planning provides a method for overcoming the general tendency of viewing criminal justice activities in isolation, serves to discourage the delineation of fixed and sacred program boundaries and the apparent propensity, on the part of some, to reject an interdisciplinary approach in resolving common problems.

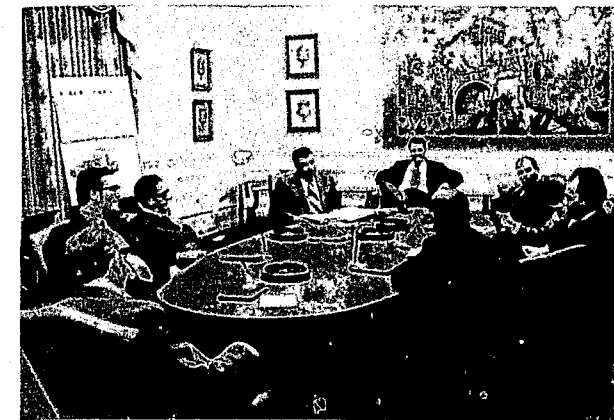
When criminal justice is conceptually viewed as a system, the missions of the police, courts, prosecution and corrections can be reflected in the over-all goals. The goals, therefore, must be designed to be broad enough to encompass the diverse missions of the various component elements.

Establishing Short-Range Criminal Justice Goals

Short-range or tactical goals are merely refinements of strategic goals. Their purpose is to bring about a certain condition in a more limited period of time. Whereas strategic goals project a desired set of conditions far into the future, tactical goals are more immediate in nature and normally should not exceed two years.

Short-range goals can provide a framework for transforming the preliminary or general statement of goals into more specific goal statements. They identify and present alternative programs for achieving these goals and they set constraints for evaluating, selecting and implementing programs.

Political Impact of Planning—Criminal justice goals, like all local issues, are political in that they address the execution as well as the choice of specific policies. They involve immediate questions dealing with the division of power and economic



Close coordination between the professional planning staff of the regional planning organization and local government officials is an essential aspect of the planning process.

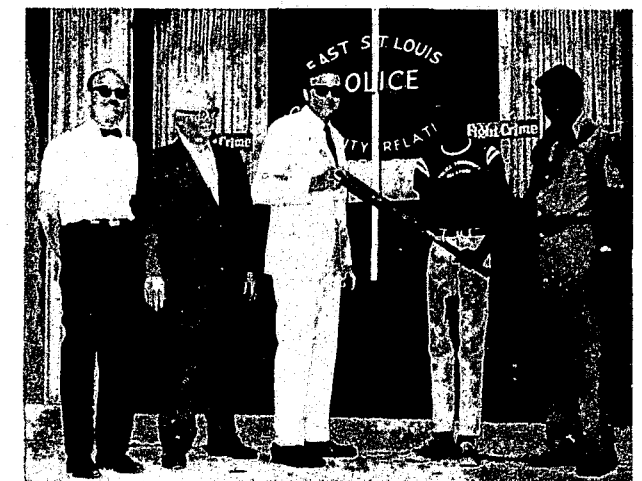
benefit among different groups. Whereas strategic plans focus on broad gauged goals for which there is at least more potential for agreement, the tactical phase narrows in on programs, and lays out the short-range blue-print for action. Considering questions of resource distribution, tactical planning tends to evoke more controversy than its strategic counterpart.

Priority Selection—Once the potential goals are identified, the next major step in the planning process is the setting of priorities among those goals.

The concept of value and goal hierarchies represents a basic aspect of the priority selection process. Since many individuals rank values (as well as goals) in different orders of priority, criminal justice planning provides a framework in which the conversion of values into goals can be accomplished.

Priority selection is a technique to develop targets toward which programs may be directed; it is a procedure which ranks goals in order of importance so that appropriate emphasis can be placed on selected criminal justice efforts. The setting of priorities, however, should be flexible. The criminal justice system should not be rigidly bound to a priority system. Emphasis on certain long-range projects, not to mention resources, may change.

Considerations in Planning—It is generally agreed that a massive outlay of funds is presently needed to reorganize and reform the criminal justice sys-



A police community relations program in East St. Louis, Illinois, designed to improve understanding between the police and the community, is part of a comprehensive criminal justice program developed by the Southwestern Illinois Law Enforcement Commission.

tem. This fact is reinforced by the steadily increasing federal appropriations for law enforcement assistance. Planning at the community level will necessarily consider the availability of federal monetary resources as an important asset to the condition of local criminal justice financial support. But federal resources are assistance, not subsidy. Criminal justice planning at the local level should acknowledge this principle—that major federal law enforcement reform programs will eventually end—and local governments must look toward the day when local resources, hopefully with the assistance of state funds, will finance local programs.

Local fiscal planning should take into consideration the fact that the public will possibly resist increased costs demanded by the criminal justice system. The local citizen may demand a high quality of public services for his tax dollar but he may resist tax increases. This conflict may limit opportunities for generating additional local revenues. It will then be necessary for localities to become more flexible and innovative. Many substantial improvements made by local governments in their criminal justice systems may be achieved with limited additional costs. Significant improvements can often be achieved through a more effective utilization of existing resources.



The Regional Law Enforcement Advisory Committee of the Middle Georgia Area Planning Commission has developed a number of regional criminal justice programs including a regional communications network, training academy and information system.

Local criminal justice planning should take into consideration that many criminal justice services, especially in the area of corrections, are carried out at the state level, and that comprehensive criminal justice financial planning must be performed in close cooperation with state representatives. The criminal justice system transcends local boundaries and by nature involves the state. Financial planning should reflect this fact. It should also explore the possibility of cooperative financial efforts between or among adjacent local political jurisdictions where the proper functioning of criminal justice services causes them to interrelate. The resources of the private sector should not be overlooked. The private sector has much to gain by an improved criminal justice system.

Coordination of Planning Efforts Among Local Jurisdictions—In view of the number of social, eco-

nomie and physical forces that bind communities together, the coordination of local planning efforts is an essential aspect of both the strategic and tactical phases. Most local units in this country lack the size, strength and wealth to effectively deal with their problems. Virtually all of our present criminal justice problems directly affect more than one community. They require the combined attention of several governmental jurisdictions, the police, courts and corrections as well as various local, social, health and educational agencies.

Coordination of local planning efforts is needed not only to insure an integration of the plans themselves but to synchronize procedures and mechanisms which underlie their creation. Thus record systems need to be correlated among jurisdictions to insure the widest application of existing data.

Another factor that is essential in coordinating planning efforts is regular staff contact. There are two major relationships in this process, the first occurs at the community level, the second at the regional level.

The regional criminal justice planning agency provides a forum for discussion, a place where common problems can be discussed and where solutions can be found. It is an organizational device for bringing local governments together to stimulate inter-jurisdictional agreement and cooperation.

Solutions to the problems of crime and its prevention will require a new more generalized orientation that can meaningfully bridge the gap between the various disciplines and spheres of interest. In short, the great challenge facing criminal justice planners, elected officials and program specialists will be met only through a convergence of concern and competence. Strategic planning is comprehensive in its design and scope. It seeks to reach consensus on broad goals in order to facilitate a common effort by concerned groups and individuals to bring about needed changes within the criminal justice system.

THE AREAWIDE APPROACH TO CRIMINAL JUSTICE PLANNING

Why Multijurisdictional?

A number of factors have induced local governments to look beyond their borders for realistic solutions to local criminal justice problems. Among the more compelling of these conditions is the sheer complexity of today's concerns, the increasingly mobile character of our society, the chronic fragmentation of services and the dissipation and misapplication of resources within, between and among layers of government.

More money alone is not the real solution. Much of what is wrong with the system can be traced to the failure of local government to apply the techniques of modern public administration, including the concept of regional cooperation and coordination. The serious failure of the corrections system to rehabilitate prisoners, for example, is compounded by the number of locally administered jails (more than 4,037 in 1970). This fragmentation has severely dissipated existing resources to the point that, in 1970, in cities or counties with populations of 25,000 or more, nearly nine out of ten jails were

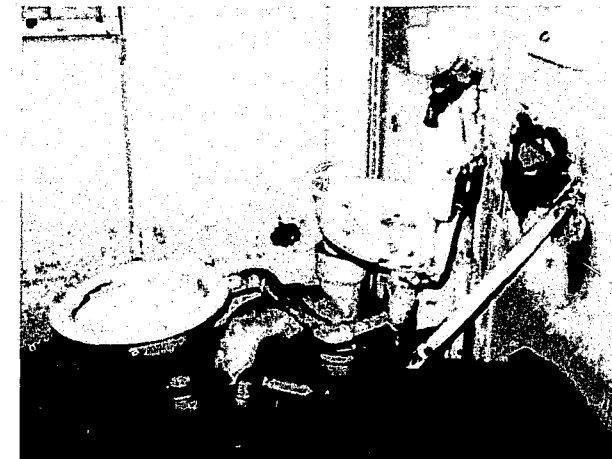
without any kind of education facility, and 86 percent lacked facilities for exercise or other means of recreation. Forty seven jails throughout the country did not even have "an operating flush toilet", and 49 percent were without medical facilities. More than one-quarter of all large urban county jail cells were built more than a half-century ago.³¹ Four jails still in daily use were constructed before George Washington's inauguration.

In order to be responsive to the needs of their constituencies and to more effectively allocate limited local resources, elected officials have come to recognize the potential benefits of regional planning. Far from weakening their position within the community, regional cooperation serves to strengthen their leadership position by streamlining effort and expense, and increasing effectiveness. Unnecessary duplication of energy and expenses can be avoided.

Most Criminal Justice Problems Fit More Than One Jurisdiction—Like so many of our domestic concerns, problems associated with crime and its prevention cannot always be solved by applying the resources of a given community. Resources avail-



A Regional Criminalistics Laboratory has been established to serve law enforcement agencies in five Missouri counties and three Kansas counties which comprise the Metropolitan Kansas City Area.



The National Jail Census of 1970 found forty seven local jails that did not have an operating flush toilet.

able to cope with crime are often scattered among jurisdictions. The components of local criminal justice systems, moreover, are not always coterminous with existing political boundaries. Frequently, authority and responsibility is dispersed between and among layers of government, and at times communication is not only limited, it is non-existent.

Crime Does Not Respect Boundaries—Problems associated with crime cross jurisdictional lines. They have no respect for political boundaries. A drug problem in Boston may also create problems in Waltham, Newton and Concord. A bank robbery in Brooklyn may have repercussions in the Bronx and Staten Island. An organized crime syndicate in the central city can no longer be treated lightly in the county, or in neighboring counties or even in neighboring states.

The highly mobile nature of our society has created new demands for local governments to cooperate and work together in developing joint programs for the protection of their citizens. No longer do the lives of our citizens center exclusively in any one community. Modern transportation has enabled Americans to move freely from one community to another, to simultaneously live, work and play in a number of jurisdictions. To quote one city councilman, "We cannot allow local governments to falter because of our indifference to each others problems. The strength of local government is in its flexibility, understanding and responsiveness to individual human needs."

Effective and Efficient Delivery of Services—The pooling of resources by local governments provides a method for the improved delivery of services. It enables two or more local units to provide certain types of services more efficiently and effectively than individual governments acting alone. Beyond consideration of basic financial limitations, sophisticated programs for combating and preventing crime often require elaborate equipment and the utilization of highly trained manpower. A multijurisdictional program increases the potential for providing these resources and makes increased specialization economically feasible. By offering full time employment and better benefits a regional program, for example, is often able to attract better personnel.

Regional programs also provide balance to programs of much wider dimension. Many communities, for example, are more or less compelled to send their local police officers to state training academies

in order to fulfill state requirements. This practice has posed serious hardships and expense for many local police departments who operate on small budgets and with a limited number of personnel. A regional training academy, however, would, among other benefits, reduce the pressures caused by temporary manpower shortages. Attendance at a regional academy would enable officers to return home in the evening and to be available in case of a local general emergency.

The participating governmental units of the Southeast Michigan Council of Governments (SEMCOG) are realizing new economies of scale through joint purchasing agreements. SEMCOG saves more than \$50,000 each year through such agreements. Each local government has enjoyed substantial savings on unit prices through consolidated wholesale buying. Recognizing that savings will arise in proportion to the total volume of purchases, SEMCOG has devoted considerable energy to increasing membership in the region's cooperative purchasing arrangements.

Funding Is More Readily Available in Sufficient Quantity at this Level—We have already discussed the role of regional planning agencies in conserving public resources through the development of more efficient and effective multijurisdictional programs. As a catalytic agent for reform, regional agencies provide a planning capability for the development of joint programs. Beyond this basic function, they also provide mechanisms for identifying, attracting and integrating new sources of support.

There are a number of practical and theoretical factors that serve to enhance the role of regional agencies in the identification and integration process. These often include greater staff capability, a greater breadth of vision and increased capability to meet responsibilities that are multi-functional and regional in nature.

Thus a regional criminal justice agency that also has related planning responsibility in comprehensive health, transportation, or economic development is in a particularly advantageous position to develop attractive, innovative and inter-functional programs based on multiple sources of funding.

Representing units of local government, regional planning agencies perform an important function in transmitting to the state and federal government joint funding requests of member governments. With the backing of these governments the regional agency is able to present a far stronger case for financial aid than any one unit acting alone.

Applications of the Areawide Approach

The areawide or regional approach can be applied to many phases and operations of the criminal justice system and often brings greater effectiveness through coordination and improved efficiency. Examples of regional criminal justice projects are described below:

Training—Employees of all police agencies in a region require comprehensive training normally available through police academies, but there is a minimum organizational size below which the establishment of a police academy becomes unrealistic. Regional criminal justice training academies, though, offer local police staffs a practical opportunity for a high level of law enforcement instruction within a short distance of their headquarters. Such academies make it unnecessary for communities to bear the expense of sending a few officers to distant metropolitan or university police academies. An accelerated program of instruction is available locally to all personnel at less expense. What cost there is can be shared by all participating local governments. Regional academies can also permit mobile in-service training to area police.

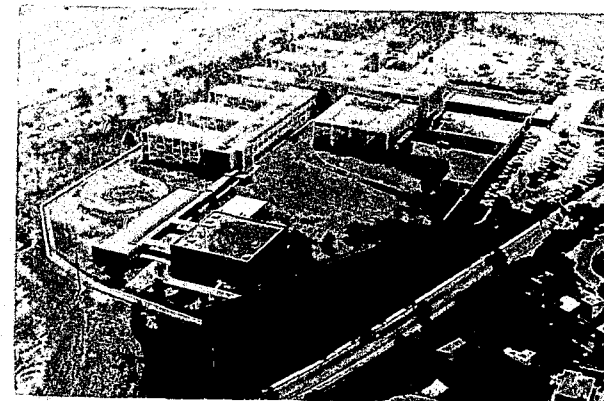
Before the establishment of its regional police training academy, police departments within the jurisdiction of the Southwestern Illinois Law Enforcement Commission (SILEC) would ordinarily send officers to Champaign-Urbana, DeKalb or Carbondale, Illinois for training. These were distant points, however, and the training offered was not particularly tailored to the needs of the moderate and smaller-

sized police agencies within the Commission's region—a seven county suburban/rural area—within the St. Louis metropolitan area. These smaller agencies would never have a sufficient number of employees requiring training within their own structure to warrant a formal training program, but the cumulative needs of all the area departments could make such an operation feasible. Interviews conducted by the Commission staff among criminal justice personnel in the region revealed that there was a need and strong support for such a regional training academy.

Ready made facilities were obtained by converting the former Madison County Home for the Aged into offices and classroom space. Administratively, the academy was placed within the Belleville Area College, a local two year community college offering a program in criminal justice. Police who attend the academy may enter the College's Associate of Arts degree program and receive instruction from the college faculty, as well as from other experts. The Academy was established at minimal expense and did not require the assistance of a federal grant. However, state assistance was received.

Records Systems—A coordinated system of providing law enforcement information to all criminal justice agencies within a particular region has many advantages. The courts require police information and vice versa. Prosecutors and juvenile authorities need information developed by police agencies. The advent of computer systems has made it possible to devise a computerized criminal justice information service with terminals in each of the agencies capable of making meaningful inputs to the system.

An expanded regional criminal justice informa-



At the Los Angeles Council Sybil Brand Institute for Women, inmates make dolls for underprivileged children.



tion system has been planned for the area of the Northwest Missouri Law Enforcement Assistance Council—a five county region. The plan calls for expanding the present Automated Law Enforcement Response Team (ALERT) of the Kansas City Police Department. ALERT is a computerized data file on crime incidence, known criminals, wanted persons, etc. in the Kansas City area. Data is updated by terminal users making the file "live" and reflective of up-to-the-minute conditions.

Expanding the service to outlying areas will permit judicial, parole, and juvenile agencies to record their own data on the system. This will make comprehensive criminal justice records available on an up-to-date, quick access basis.

Planning for the expanded system included an analysis of common information needs of all police, judicial, and corrections agencies within the region; their ability to contribute to a common information data bank; the volume and kinds of information to be maintained; the kinds of equipment required; ability to interface with state and federal systems; and an analysis of timing, cost and complexity in developing the system.

Communications—Antiquated communications facilities intended for police and other law enforcement units and sometimes serving a large number of agencies, experience overcrowded conditions during routine periods and are subject to collapse during emergencies. Regional programs can bring modern integrated communications as well as information retrieval systems to law enforcement agencies operating within a given area.

In the Cleveland-Cuyahoga County, Ohio, area, antiquated and overcrowded police radio communications were serving 30 police departments. Each vied for air time on one shared frequency. The Law Enforcement Communications Committee of the Cleveland Criminal Justice Coordinating Council consequently instituted a three year modernization program to establish facilities for integrated communication and information retrieval. The communications plan was part of a comprehensive regional criminal justice plan formulated in response to the Safe Streets Act.

Metro Police Agreements—Regional agreements among police agencies within a metropolitan area have established mechanisms for multijurisdictional response to current cases with area wide impact. These mechanisms, such as planning conferences

and training exercises, have developed strategies and procedures to handle the multijurisdictional aspects of crime.

A police mutual aid agreement, which makes it possible for police to cross jurisdictional lines to aid neighboring cities and counties during emergencies, was signed into effect in the fall of 1970 in Washington, D.C. The agreement was developed by a committee of the Washington area police chiefs working through the Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments. The Washington area is believed to be one of the first interstate areas in the country with such an agreement providing police assistance across state lines.

Initially designed to cover emergency assistance in situations involving civil disturbances, natural disasters, or other major calamities, the agreement is being expanded to encompass other day-to-day police operations situations.

Mutual Aid Pacts—Mutual aid agreements among local governments and emergency facilities within a region have established comprehensive response mechanisms capable of handling almost any emergency quickly and efficiently be it related to law enforcement or to some other incident.

Such a mutual aid program operates in a region of Southwestern New Hampshire. The Southwestern New Hampshire District Mutual Aid System is an association of public service departments representing cooperation among 45 towns and the city of Keene. The System provides mutual assistance to communities within the District not only when a fire emergency arises but also for personal injury traffic accidents, law enforcement needs, disasters, or minor problems. Its basic objective is to coordinate the System's available resources so that proper assistance can be rendered in the most optimum fashion.

The Mutual Aid System operates an Emergency Communications Center 24 hours per day year round. The Center coordinates fifteen ambulance services with a total of 26 vehicles, the Cheshire County Sheriff's Department, 22 town police departments and some 150 fire departments. Membership includes seven neighboring towns in Vermont and Winchendon, Massachusetts.

Communications and regional assistance agreements are also maintained with neighboring area-wide mutual aid systems neighboring Vermont police departments and four New Hampshire Sheriff's Departments.

Among the advantages resulting from the mutual



Governing officials from nine cities and counties in Metropolitan Washington recently signed an area-wide police mutual aid agreement. The pact, worked out through the efforts of the Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments, enables police to cross city and county lines to render assistance in time of an emergency.

aid areawide approach are stimulated cooperation among member fire, ambulance, rescue, and police services. This cooperation has erased tendencies toward reluctant mutual support among neighboring communities and has, in fact, spurred local officials to request outside help when needed. It has provided more efficient service while obviating the need for communities to charge each other for support services.

Regional Jails—Due to the disrepair and inadequacy of jails throughout the nation, there has been an expressed need for updating old facilities or constructing new ones that would be safe, sanitary, adequately equipped, centrally located and available for use by several counties in a given area. Ideally, the design for a proposed jail with these features would not only provide for the detention of prisoners, but would also have facilities to be used for the rehabili-



A modern Rural Regional Detention Center that will serve primarily criminal justice agencies located within the Atlantic Judicial Circuit is now under construction in Hinesville, Georgia. This judicial circuit is composed of six Georgia counties (Evans, Tattnal, Bryan, Liberty, Long and McIntosh) however, the regional jail will also serve criminal justice agencies in adjacent counties. The project, supported by Federal funds, was made possible when the citizens of Liberty County approved a bond issue of \$175,002.

tation of long-term prisoners. It might also be used for training law enforcement officials in and around the region.

An example of a modern jail facility, the first rural regional detention center, is now under construction in the Coastal Area Planning and Development District of Georgia (CAPDC). The center will be used for long-term detention of those awaiting trial while local jails will detain those of shorter duration. It will serve local governments in eight counties in and around the Atlantic Judicial Circuit. The CAPDC is now developing a prisoner rehabilitation program and a law enforcement training program at the center.

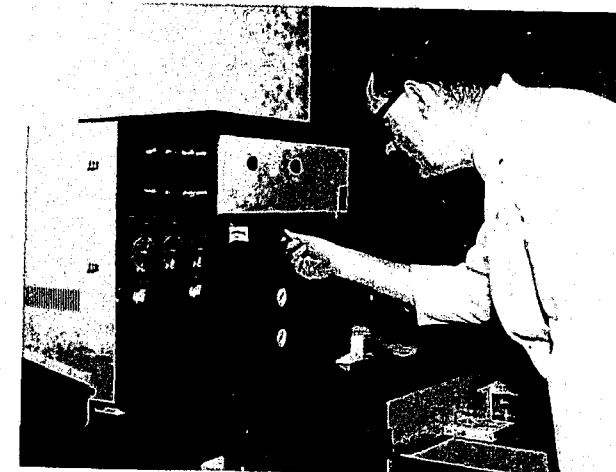
Juvenile Delinquency Programs—Progressive communities have long been diverting juvenile cases out of the care of traditional official agencies into alternative channels. In fact, diversion of cases out of the official system is rapidly emerging as a national priority. Clearly, communities which divert cases reduce official delinquency rates by the simple method of meeting the problem by alternative unofficial means.

A way of diverting youths from the juvenile justice system is offered by the concept of Youth Services Bureaus. An example of this concept is the regional program initiated by the Concho Valley Council of Government to prevent juvenile delinquency. The COG established a Youth Services and Resources Bureau for the entire San Angelo, Texas, area to provide proper diagnostic, counseling and other services to predelinquents who were not being processed through the existing criminal justice system.

Through use of volunteer experts, this bureau is responsible for holding other social service agencies in the region accountable for rendering professional services for delinquent youth. In essence, the bureau is the central coordinating agency for all youth services providing direct counseling, 24 hour referral and information services, and follow through until each child's case is properly met.

Crime Labs—The lack of adequate and accessible crime laboratory facilities at the local level may slow the functioning of the criminal justice system to a crawl. First, the problems of local police and sheriff's departments in acquiring evidence may be compounded by time delays of several months in having reports on evaluation and analysis of evidence returned from existing crime laboratories. These facilities are in centers which are often remote from the local community. Second, court dates may be regularly postponed because of the delays in receiving crime lab reports. Third, court cases may be dismissed due to inadequate, faulty, or non-existent evidence. And fourth, the need to rely on distant facilities leads to less crime lab applications than that desired.

An example of a recently developed regional crime laboratory is the lab for the Greater Egypt region of Illinois. This laboratory handles all but the most complex crime services including evidence collection; fingerprint processing and photography; blood, hair and fibre examination; soil, glass and fingerprint comparison; determination of arson; and identification of narcotics.



A Regional Crime Laboratory developed through the efforts of the Greater Egypt Regional Planning and Development Commission serves the five county region composed of Franklin, Jackson, Jefferson, Perry and Williamson counties. In photo at top a crime scene technician examines fingerprints with magnifier. In background, a criminalist is conducting microscopic crystal test on drugs. In lower photo criminalist prepares to conduct gas chromatograph test that requires a controlled temperature. Machine separates organic compounds and is useful in arson investigation.

Intelligence Squads—The police component of criminal justice is presently providing some of the most visible and least controversial instances of multijurisdictional cooperation. This occurrence is shown in the increased use of area wide intelligence squads. Area wide intelligence squads are usually formed in major metropolitan areas to solve major violations

of the law. These squads are provided personnel from several of the individual law enforcement agencies to be served. The direction and facilities for the squad are provided by some form of cooperative agreement between the participating agencies. Because of the lack of trained personnel in any one department, the cost of maintaining technical staff, and the disregard by law violators of local government boundaries, law enforcement agencies are utilizing the intelligence squad as a technique to effectively combat crime. The urgency of the criminal justice situation and the recognized need for agency collaboration have led this form of cooperation to be accepted with relative lack of controversy.

Within the St. Louis Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA), the law enforcement departments have formed a bi-state (Missouri-Illinois) major case squad. This squad pools the resources of the various police agencies when a crime of areawide import requires investigation. In conjunction with this activity the squad utilizes a mobile crime laboratory to carry out periodic training programs and areawide conferences. The administration and coordination of the major case squad is carried out by voluntary agreement among the departments involved. The major law enforcement agencies of the SMSA are represented as are many of the individual police departments in the area.

Drug Programs—Multijurisdictional and interdisciplinary cooperation and coordination have been increasingly utilized to combat many of the deleterious side-effects of drug abuse. The illicit trade of non-prescription drugs respects no geographical, jurisdictional or social boundary, and leaves the individual community or agency unable to cope with the situation. The past few years have witnessed an increase in the abuse of drugs by specific segments of society. As most drug use is illegal, criminal justice agencies have an increased burden to shoulder. Police must apprehend the violators of drug laws, courts must make the proper determination of justice and corrections must provide for the convicted. This is not an expansion of duties for criminal justice agencies but is an increase in the volume of people passing through an already congested process.

Criminal justice agencies are not always prepared to process any major increase in general volume let alone an increase in such a specific area. Police have not had the physical hardware nor the trained personnel to determine the "pusher" from the "occa-

sional user", courts have had difficulty establishing different sentencing procedures for the various types of drug abuse, and corrections has been totally unprepared for the new type of drug user introduced into the system.

Efforts to deal with this situation on a regional basis are becoming more frequent now that criminal justice components have greater awareness of the complexities of the problem. Police are forming specialized squads that can locate the individuals responsible for sale and distribution of illegal drugs, analyze those drugs confiscated, and infiltrate the organizations controlling drug traffic. Courts are often benefitting by changes in state laws and local ordinances which prescribe a variety of penalties for drug abuse, thereby allowing the sentencing official the opportunity to consider the individual merits of each case. Correctional facilities permit alternatives to incarceration. The most notable are those which allow for probation or parole in halfway houses, methadone centers, etc.

In these instances more than one criminal justice agency and more than one local jurisdiction have established necessary cooperation to meet the needs of this problem.

Metropolitan Atlanta is establishing a squad of highly trained specialists to combat the increase in narcotics violations which that urban area is experiencing. These specialists will have jurisdiction throughout the Metropolitan Atlanta region. This authority is vested in a governing board which consists of the heads of local law enforcement agencies and their respective local government leaders. The squad received two weeks of basic training from the Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs and has an established liaison officer with that same agency. The enforcement program covers five basic areas: assumption of primary jurisdiction, discovery, tracing of suppliers, identifying suppliers, and prosecution.

Recruitment—Recruitment of qualified staff is a perennial problem for criminal justice agencies as it is with most public agencies. For criminal justice

components, replacement of personnel who have left the service for whatever reason is an acute problem. Some of the problems individual criminal justice agencies face are low recruitment budgets, varying qualification policies, low wages, and a lack of skilled recruitment personnel. These deficiencies, though not directly visible to the public, accentuate problems in criminal justice which have a very high public visibility—the "results" or "lack of results" an understaffed enforcement agency can produce.

Multijurisdictional recruitment is a method of alleviating part of this problem though very few agencies have utilized it as yet. This method can provide a cheaper and more efficient means of drawing new and better qualified manpower into the criminal justice system. In order for more than one local jurisdiction to establish effective cooperation in recruitment of personnel they must first decide on the basic uniform qualifications they desire for their applicants. Problems may arise in this procedure from the varying concepts of what makes a good law enforcement officer and the respective law enforcement needs of various localities.

Advantages of regional recruitment far outweigh the disadvantage of differing entrance qualifications. A more extensive and wide-ranging program can be mounted by group cooperation than by individual agencies. Recruitment personnel can be sent to localities other than those cooperating in the hiring effort. Smaller jurisdictions can be materially assisted by larger ones. Better entrance screening techniques can also be developed if a group of law enforcement agencies pool their resources.³²

To date, few agencies have taken advantage of the benefits of this form of multijurisdictional cooperation. This reluctance stems from the intense parochialism which permeates most local law enforcement agencies in the form of differing qualifications and entrance procedures which local agencies set as standards for recruitment. The existing regional criminal justice agencies could be utilized as discussion centers to establish cooperation and agreement on recruitment standards for participating agencies.

ROLE OF LOCAL ELECTED OFFICIALS

Functional Elected Officials Who Have Roles in the Criminal Justice System

There are several "functional" elected officials that play major roles in the criminal justice system. Most operate independently and at times their functions overlap. This overlap and independence exposes the need for coordination and leadership. Before discussing this need, a brief description of the roles of functional officials is found below.

The Judge—The fairness, impartiality and efficiency of justice depends, in large measure, on the quality of judges. Judges are the central figures in the court and court proceedings. They are necessary for settling all types of legal controversies in the criminal as well as the civil field. Their primary responsibility is to maintain a proper balance between efficiency and fairness. But the judge's responsibility in the criminal law is unique. Here, judicial power involves decisions relating to an individual's liberty or life.

The determination as to who will become a judge is significantly influenced by the selection process. The process should therefore be designed to seek the best potential talent. It should insure identification and rejection of those not qualified for the bench. It should operate with dignity so as to attract capable candidates. It should provide tenure in order to encourage the best performance possible within a full-time responsibility. It should deserve and receive respect and trust from the public.

In three-fourths of the states judges are chosen by popular election. In a few states judges are elected by the legislature or appointed by the governor with confirmation by the legislature, senate, or commission. Among the selection plans in use throughout the states, the Missouri Plan has been acclaimed as one of the most successful. In brief, it contains four elements:

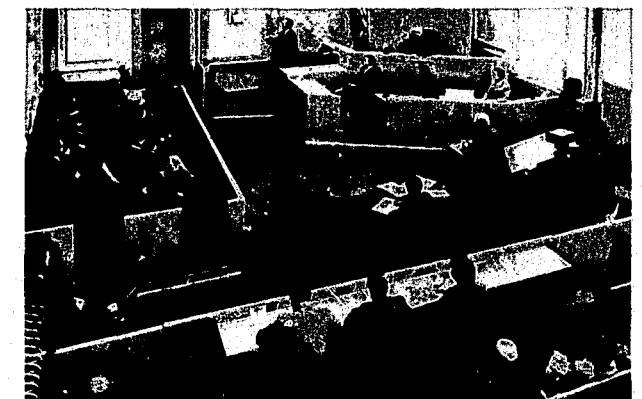
- A panel of judicial candidates are nominated by a non-partisan commission of qualified

laymen and lawyers

- The executive may appoint as judges only those from the panel submitted by the commission
- The voters review the appointment after a short probationary period. The only question put to them is, "Does the judge's record warrant his retention?"
- The voters periodically review the appointment at the end of each term of office by answering the same question again

Judges may be removed for sufficient cause or with sufficient demand. In most states, though, removal is uncommon. Methods of impeachment are slow. In some states recall of judges occurs by popular vote. Removal is by the governor at the request of the legislature. In others, removal requires a joint resolution by the two houses of the state legislature. Occasionally a judge has lost his position by legislative manipulation of his jurisdiction.

Judges and the courts they command are presently undergoing a long overdue period of modernization. One serious deficiency which hinders the perform-



Developing innovative court programs designed to reduce case backlogs is of major importance in improving the administration of justice.

ance of many judges and ought to be quickly remedied is the lack of a full time court administrator to handle problems of finance, personnel, equipment supply, etc., thereby freeing the judge to devote his main energies to judicial decisions. Court administrators should establish continuing communications with general local elected officials upon whom courts, especially at the limited jurisdiction and general jurisdiction levels, may depend for their entire financial support. It is the lack of awareness among mayors, county commissioners and councilmen of what the court really needs in the way of funds, personnel, equipment, that has seriously impeded the courts from performing their judicial duties. In one state some county superior courts cannot hold sessions during the summer months because county commissioners have not been made aware of the need for courtroom air conditioners. The only elements of the court with which most general elected officials are familiar is the courtroom, the judge and a few supporting staff. There are numerous court administrative responsibilities of which the elected official is unaware.

The Prosecutor—The prosecutor is responsible for presenting the government's case in court and often acts as an investigator and initiator in the criminal process.

In the majority of the states prosecutors are selected by popular election and may be removed from office only by cumbersome methods of impeachment or recall. Most serve a single county or several small rural counties (riding circuit). Only a few states provide for the appointment of local prosecutors and a few others have vested criminal prosecution authority with the attorney general. In larger communities prosecutors have a staff of assistants but the great majority of the country's prosecutors serve with, at most, one or two assistants and are often part time officials. Salaries are often low and talented attorneys usually do not remain long in such a position.

Programs to improve the prosecutorial system should encourage the selection of individuals with some experience in the criminal process and an appreciation of criminal justice as a system of several components. Prosecutors, for example, should be able to participate in the instruction of police in regard to police investigative and data collection responsibilities vis-a-vis the prosecutors' needs in court.

Court Clerk—The court clerk is normally attached

to the main trial court of a county and is a popularly elected official in many states. The court clerk collects fines, forfeitures, penalties and costs in criminal cases. He is commonly responsible for record keeping of court proceedings and actions and may sometimes prepare formal writs and process papers issued by the court. Court clerks usually receive a salary but some are paid on a fee basis. Sometimes the position of court clerk is combined with that of county clerk, an elected office in several states.

Efforts to modernize the administration of the state court system will most certainly effect the status of court clerks since their duties are close to those of court administration.

Sheriff—Sheriffs are county officials chosen by the electorate in every state but Rhode Island, where they are selected by the state legislature. Sheriffs function not only as police officials but also as officers of the court and as correctional superintendents of county jails. As agents of the state court system they serve papers (warrants, subpoenas, processes, property attachments). They often collect delinquent taxes. As court officers they function in the criminal as well as the civil field. The sheriff may often collect a fee for the serving of papers. The sheriff has traditionally been the chief law enforcement officer in the county, though in some urban counties he has lost this police function. They frequently provide support, training and coordination facilities to municipal police agencies in the same county. As correctional officials they guard prisoners in court and at the county jail; administer and supervise jail quarters; provide food for prisoners; and arrange for escorting convicted prisoners to the penitentiary.

The office of sheriff, like other offices and positions within the criminal justice system, is undergoing modernization. The sheriff is a key figure in efforts to establish regional programs to improve police training and coordination, court administration, and prisoner rehabilitation.

The Constable—Constables function as the town or village counterpart of the sheriff. They are largely elected officials but in some states they are appointed. Their responsibilities span the area of their electoral subdivision, though in some states their authority is county-wide. They function as keepers of the peace (in some towns they act as one man police departments), executive officers and process servers in courts of limited jurisdiction, and collectors of delinquent taxes. Normally they are part time

officials compensated through fees. The office of constable is tending to disappear.

The Coroner—In the majority of states, the coroner is a popularly elected county official whose chief function is to investigate the cause of death which occurs in the absence of witnesses, under suspicious circumstances, or where there is evidence of possible violence.

He may assemble a jury to conduct an inquest, render an official report on the findings and occasionally issue a warrant for arrest. Many elected county coroners lack medical training and in a few states, such as Massachusetts, he has been replaced by a local medical examiner. Under such a plan the coroner's legal responsibilities are vested in the county prosecuting attorney and medical responsibilities are vested in an appointed medical examiner. Much of the work formerly performed by the local coroner is now handled by central state agencies.

Why the General Elected Official Must Play an Increasing Role in Criminal Justice Systems

Local elected policy making officials representing general purpose governments (e.g., mayors, city councilman, county commissioners) bear heavy responsibilities for the overall performance of criminal justice programs in their communities. Unlike elected "Row Officials" whose duties generally conform to narrow functional divisions of responsibility, the chief elected representatives of general purpose governments have the task of developing a broad strategy that will ensure for the safety and welfare of the entire community. They alone shoulder the official burden of viewing problems in the context of the community's overall posture. They alone have the official responsibility for balancing community resources and for implementing a community plan.

A recognition of the linkages among the many varied and diverse functions operating within the local criminal justice system by these elected representatives is essential before an effective regional planning program can be established. Without a clear conceptual framework built upon an accurate perception of relationships, no meaningful reform within the criminal justice system will be achieved. As the chief spokesman for his community, the generally elected representative must assume responsibility for



The Young Lawyers Section of the American Bar Association has undertaken a nationwide prison visitation program to help bring about improved correctional services and conditions.

clarifying and articulating relationships to help insure that each component within the system contributes to the same set of goals.

Despite statutory limitations and a lack of legal control over some elements within the criminal justice system, these elected officials have a unique opportunity to make the system work, to exert their leadership in bringing all of the components together into a truly unified system. For these officials are, after all, the chief spokesman for their communities and otherwise function as chief negotiators in developing cooperative and/or legal arrangements between and among neighboring jurisdictions. They possess the leadership potential and influence within the community to open channels of coordination among and within official departments. They have the public platform and visibility to sway opinion, to overcome local jealousies, and to cross swords with the advocates of special interests, and they are in a position to make public policy.

The purpose of regional planning, as previously explained, is to coordinate local efforts to solve problems which cannot be solved as efficiently or as effectively by individual local governments acting alone. As a voluntary association, regional criminal justice planning agencies do not have the power to levy taxes or pass laws or even bind members to its decisions, but they provide an organizational capability for bringing local governments together to explore and solve mutual problems.

The involvement of local elected officials in this process cannot be overemphasized. Implementation, the action step in the planning process, will require the coordination of various local departments and

agencies within the system. Implementation will depend, to a considerable degree, on the involvement and cooperation of local elected policy-making officials. The extent of public official involvement, either directly in the planning process or with continuous coordination, will often determine the degree of success in implementing a regional criminal justice program. Too many plans have been derailed because the local elected official was not involved from initiation through completion of the planning process. This will be particularly true in criminal justice planning, a process which cuts across so many established activities of functional and political boundary.

Without the close cooperation of elected officials within and among contiguous jurisdictions, the protection of the public may be placed in jeopardy. Not even a good municipal police department, for example, can effectively control crime when neighboring jurisdictions fail to crack down on gamblers or drug offenders. Crime has no respect for political boundaries. An understanding of the planning process by elected officials, as well as an understanding

of the realities of the local situation by the planner and by other participants, gained when all are involved in common effort, gives each an appreciation of the others responsibilities.

During the 60's, Congress initiated a number of grant-in-aid programs directed to the creation of local coordinating structures. Many of these structures had as a principle purpose the development of plans to be employed as guidelines in the administration of action programs by operating departments of local governments. That many of these planning bodies found their basic objectives frustrated is documented fact. The principal difficulty encountered was an inability to integrate their comprehensive plans with the actual process of local decision making. Successful implementation of local comprehensive regional criminal justice programs requires that more attention be given to the dichotomy between the planning process and those elected representatives who must bear the heavy responsibility for the administration of criminal justice programs in their communities.

SUMMARY

Local general purpose governments are responsible, to an ever increasing degree, for making policy and allocating limited local resources. The decisions of locally elected officials should, in the American democratic tradition, express the interests, desires, and needs of their constituents. By virtue of their being elected, local officials should accept the responsibility for meeting the needs of the people who elect them. Most of our problems, including crime and its prevention, do not conform to the jurisdictional boundaries of the governmental agencies that have the responsibility for solving them. These problems are usually regional in scope. Virtually all of our present criminal justice problems directly affect more than one community. They require the combined attention of several government jurisdictions, the police, courts and corrections, as well as various local social, health and welfare agencies. Local governments must find ways to cooperate with their neighboring governments to solve problems which are not confined to one locality but which inflict the en-

tire area if the public is to be adequately protected.

The Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 encourages local initiative. It is designed to tailor new patterns to local problems. A major objective of this program is to help bring technical excellence in criminal justice to where the needs are.

To achieve the objectives of the Safe Streets program, major emphasis must be given to the development of state, regional, and local planning structures that will develop and implement practical new approaches to solving regional criminal justice problems. Environmental, economic and social considerations that affect the safety of the population of an area and the related public services, facilities, and manpower are factors that can best be dealt with on an areawide level.

Many counties and municipalities are joining together in a common effort to cope with mutual criminal justice problems. Their experience is indicating that regional cooperation has been of significant help for two major reasons.

First, a multi-jurisdictional criminal justice program offers the potential for streamlining the amount of effort and expense of planning and implementation while at the same time increasing effectiveness. Unnecessary duplication of energy and expenses can be avoided. Second, multi-jurisdictional organization represents a more effective method by which local areas can obtain financial and technical assistance from state and federal agencies. Several jurisdictions speaking with one voice can exert more leverage than one government acting alone.

Regional planning will solve few problems if recommendations are not accepted and implemented at the community level. For it is here that regional plans change form and emerge as concrete undertakings. It is at the community level that the objectives of the plan are transformed into activities and projects. And it is here that goals and priorities are refined and adjusted to local conditions.

To the end of reducing crime and rehabilitating offenders, local elected officials must take advantage of every reasonable opportunity to solve the problem of organization for the provision of adequate services before this responsibility passes by default to higher authority and thereby becomes even more removed from the will of the people. Cooperating with neighboring governments to pool their resources is one way in which many local governments are building a capacity for getting things done.

Local elected officials can effectively participate in the criminal justice planning process, as active partners, if they understand the need for cooperation with their neighboring governments, their state governments, and with the providers of criminal justice services. If their respective regional criminal justice planning councils (where such agencies exist) have reliable data, qualified personnel, and local government support, a meaningful analysis of regional criminal justice problems and needs can be accomplished. Participation by local elected officials is also important in terms of coordinating criminal justice planning with planning for various other interrelated human needs.

Criminal justice plans ideally should be interrelated with plans for land use, transportation, health, welfare, education, economic development, and many more factors that affect the well-being of the population of an area.

The frequent failure of local governments to effectively insure for the safety of its citizens is a sad record of confusion over a complex of factors that are conceptual, technical and administrative in origin. A major aspect of this failure is the fragmentation and lack of coordination of criminal justice programs at the local level. A number of agencies, departments and individuals administer a variety of programs and deliver a myriad of services. The resulting fragmentation of program administration has frequently produced needless duplication of effort, inefficient use of funds, and rather substantial gaps and inequities in the administration of justice.

Criminal justice planning has commonly developed along functional lines. As a result, programs tend to emerge as fragmented, single purpose efforts instead of serving as integrated units of a total, comprehensive program.

An organizational framework is a basic need. Choices will have to be made and priorities established. Given the present fragmentation within the system of criminal justice, organization can only be achieved by incentive and consent on a community by community basis. The organizational solution to alleviating the fragmented nature of the criminal justice system must be found in development of such traditional and multi-functional management functions as planning, coordination and evaluation. But an organizational framework is not the total answer. The most essential requirement is the development of a policy that ensures for the close coordination of services and programs and for the sharing of a common set of goals by the many participants within the system.

Rather than holding to a simple faith that institutional building or re-structuring will lead to solutions to our criminal justice problems, there must first be a consensus on what the questions are, what the goals should be, and an idea of what the basic means for achieving these goals are. If a sufficient consensus on the broad objectives of a comprehensive criminal justice program can be achieved by the many actors in the pluralistic and operationally non-system of criminal justice then it follows that common policies can be agreed upon, and priorities established. Only then can effective coordination be achieved.

FOOTNOTES

¹ Federal Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Justice Department, *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969) p. 4.

² President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Crime and Its Impact—An Assessment* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967) p. 17-18.

³ Herbert S. Denenberg, "Compensation for Victims of Crime: Justice for the Victim as Well as the Criminal", *The Insurance Law Journal*, November 1970, No. 574, p. 262.

⁴ Small Business Administration, *Crime Against Small Business*, A Report of the Small Business Administration Transmitted to the Select Committee on Small Business, U.S. Senate, 91st Congress, 1st Session, Doc. No. 91-14 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969) p. 1.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 1, 25, 26.

⁶ M.P. Smodish, "But What About the Victim? The Forsaken Man in American Criminal Law", *University of Florida Law Review*, Vol. XXII, Summer 1969, p. 3.

⁷ Earl Johnson, Jr., "Organized Crime: Challenge to the American Legal System", *The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science*, Volume 53, No. 4 December 1962, p. 402.

⁸ Chamber of Commerce of the United States, *Deskbook on Organized Crime*, (Washington, D.C.: Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1969) p. 11.

⁹ Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Justice Department, and Bureau of the Census, *Expenditure and Employment Data for the Criminal Justice System, 1968-1969*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970) p. 1-2.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ *Ibid.*

¹² Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Justice Department, *1970 National Jail Census*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971) p. 1.

¹³ Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Justice Department, *Criminal Justice Agencies in the United States: 1970*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971) p. 5.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

¹⁶ Ramsey Clark, "Criminal Justice in Times of Turbulence," *Saturday Review*, 19 September 1970, p. 21.

¹⁷ *Municipal Police Administration*, The Municipal Management Series, George Eastman, ed. (Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association) p. 3.

¹⁸ Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, *A Commission Report—State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System*, (Washington, D.C.: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, forthcoming, 1971).

¹⁹ A recent statistical summary of criminal justice agencies in the United States (issued March 1971 as a pre-publication copy) prepared by the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, LEAA, U.S. Justice Department, indicated that there are 9,384 law enforcement agencies at the municipal level in cities and towns of over 1,000 population. At the county level the summary reported 4,801 law enforcement agencies, including sheriff's departments, police departments and agencies of coroners, medical examiners and county detectives. At the state level the summary reported only 161 law enforcement agencies. The summary was compiled from the 1970 National Criminal Justice Directory Survey conducted by the Bureau of the Census under LEAA design specifications.

²⁰ Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, *A Commission Report* (forthcoming).

²¹ Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, *1970 National Jail Census*, p. 1.

²² President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967) p. 60.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 70.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 65.

²⁵ National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, *To Establish Justice, To Insure Domestic Tranquility*, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969) p. 18.

²⁶ U.S. Congress, Senate, Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee on Criminal Laws and Procedures, Statement by Ramsey Clark, U.S. Attorney General, *Controlling Crime Through More Effective Law Enforcement, Hearings*, 90th Congress, 1st Session, p. 148.

²⁷ U.S. Congress, *Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968*, P.L. 90-351, 90th Congress, 1968, H.R. 5037, p. 1.

²⁸ Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Justice Department, *Guide for Comprehensive Law Enforcement Planning and Action Grants*, fiscal year 1970, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office) p. 7.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 5-6:

- (1) representation of State law enforcement agencies;
- (2) representation of units of general local government by elected policy making or executive officials;
- (3) representation of law enforcement officials or administrators from local units of government;
- (4) representation of each major law enforcement function—police, corrections, and court systems—plus, where appropriate, representation identified with the Act's special emphasis areas, i.e., organized crime and riots and civil disorders;
- (5) representation of juvenile delinquency as well as adult crime control competencies;
- (6) representation of community or citizen interests;
- (7) representation that offers reasonable geographical and urban-rural balance and regard for the incidence of crime and the distribution and concentration of law enforcement services in the State;
- (8) representation, as between State law enforcement agencies on the one hand and local units of government and local law enforcement agencies on the other, that approximates proportionate representation of State and local interests.

³⁰ Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Justice Department, *Memorandum for State Planning Directors*, No. 10 (Supplement No. 1).

³¹ Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, *1970 National Jail Census*, p. 1, 4.

³² David L. Norrgard, *Regional Law Enforcement: A Study of Intergovernmental Cooperation and Coordination*, (Chicago, Public Administration Service, 1969) p. 13-15.

APPENDIX A

TABLE 1
LOCAL POLICE AGENCIES

	Municipal police departments	County police departments	Total number of counties		Municipal police departments	County police departments	Total number of counties
Alabama	279		67	Nebraska	438		93
Alaska	21		9	Nevada	18		17
Arizona	63		14	New Hampshire	245		10
Arkansas	350		75	New Jersey	532	2	21
California	400		57	New Mexico	92		32
Colorado	157		62	New York	570	2	57
Connecticut	85			North Carolina	283	2	100
Delaware	33	1	3	North Dakota	268		53
Florida	290	1	67	Ohio	912		88
Georgia	550	20	159	Oklahoma	280		77
Hawaii	1	4	3	Oregon	153		36
Idaho	126		44	Pennsylvania	1400	1	66
Illinois	720	1	102	Rhode Island	37		
Indiana	457		92	South Carolina	257	2	46
Iowa	480		99	South Dakota	150		64
Kansas	320		105	Tennessee	180	1	94
Kentucky	255	4	120	Texas	630		254
Louisiana	267		62	Utah	130		29
Maine	100		16	Vermont	44		14
Maryland	100	7	23	Virginia	192	6	96
Massachusetts	280		12	Washington	167		39
Michigan	542		83	West Virginia	175		55
Minnesota	513		87	Wyoming	35		23
Mississippi	196		82	Wisconsin	356	20	72
Missouri	612	1	114	Puerto Rico			
Montana	82		56	Total	14823	75	3049

Sources: Data on municipal police departments was obtained from the individual state criminal justice planning agencies. Information on county police departments was obtained from NACORF files, the F.B.I. and State criminal justice planning agencies.

¹ 5 campus police departments.

² Traffic control.

TABLE 2

COURTS OF LAST RESORT

INTERMEDIATE APPELLATE COURTS

	Supreme Court	Supreme Judicial Court	Court of Criminal Appeals	Supreme Court of Appeals	Court of Appeals	Commonwealth Court	Superior Court	Court of Criminal Appeals	Court of Civil Appeals	Court (Courts) of Appeals	District Courts of Appeal	Appellate Court	Court of Special Appeals	Appellate Division of Superior Court	Appellate Division of Supreme Court
Alabama	X							X	X						
Alaska	X														
Arizona	X									X					
Arkansas	X														
California	X									X					
Colorado	X									X					
Connecticut	X														
Delaware	X														
Florida	X										X				
Georgia	X									X					
Hawaii	X														
Idaho	X														
Illinois	X											X			
Indiana	X											X			
Iowa	X														
Kansas	X														
Kentucky					X										
Louisiana	X									X					
Maine		X													
Maryland					X									X	
Massachusetts		X													
Michigan	X									X					
Minnesota	X														
Mississippi	X														
Missouri	X									X					
Montana	X														
Nebraska	X														
Nevada	X														
New Hampshire	X														
New Jersey	X													X	
New Mexico	X									X					
New York					X										X
North Carolina	X									X					
North Dakota	X														
Ohio	X									X					
Oklahoma	¹ X		X							X					
Oregon	X									X					
Pennsylvania	X					X	X								
Rhode Island	X														
South Carolina	X														
South Dakota	X														
Tennessee	X							X		X					
Texas	¹ X		X						X						
Utah	X														
Vermont	X														
Virginia				X											
Washington	X									X					
West Virginia				X											
Wyoming	X														
Wisconsin	X														
Puerto Rico	X														
Total	44	2	2	2	3	1	1	2	2	14	1	2	1	1	1

Source: The Council of State Governments, *State Court Systems, A Statistical Summary* Lexington: Council of State Gov'ts. 1970 pp. 2-9.

¹ Civil only.

TABLE 3
COURTS OF GENERAL JURISDICTION

	Circuit Courts	District Courts	Superior Courts	County Courts	Courts of Common Pleas	Courts of Chancery	Law & Chancery Courts	Law & Equity Courts	Criminal Courts	Corporation & Hustings Courts	Supreme Court	Recorders Court	Courts of Baltimore City
Alabama	X												
Alaska			X										
Arizona			X										
Arkansas	X				¹ X								
California			X										
Colorado		X											
Connecticut			X										
Delaware			X		X								
Florida	X												
Georgia			X										
Hawaii	X												
Idaho		² X											
Illinois	² X												
Indiana	X		X						X				
Iowa		X											
Kansas		X											
Kentucky	X												
Louisiana		X											
Maine			X										
Maryland	X												X
Massachusetts			X										
Michigan	X										³ X		
Minnesota		X											
Mississippi	X					X							
Missouri	X												
Montana		X											
Nebraska		X											
Nevada		X											
New Hampshire			X										
New Jersey			X	X									
New Mexico		X											
New York													
North Carolina													
North Dakota		X											
Ohio					X								
Oklahoma		X											
Oregon	X												
Pennsylvania					X								
Rhode Island			X										
South Carolina	X												
South Dakota	X												
Tennessee	X					X		X	X				
Texas		X											
Utah		X											
Vermont				X									
Virginia	X					X	X	X					
Washington			X										
West Virginia	X												
Wyoming		X											
Wisconsin	X			X									
Puerto Rico			X										
Total	18	15	15	3	2	5	1	2	2	1	1	1	1

¹ + Probate.
² w/magistrates.
³ Detroit.

TABLE 4
COURTS OF LIMITED JURISDICTION

	Municipal Courts	City Courts	Justice Courts	County Courts	District Courts	Police Courts (Police Magistrates)	Mayor's Courts	Criminal Courts	Juvenile Courts and/or Domestic (Family) Cts	Magistrate Courts	Courts of Common Pleas	Court of Claims	General Sessions Court	Civil Court	Probate Courts	Other Courts
Alabama			X	X											X	¹ X
Alaska					X											
Arizona			X													
Arkansas	X		X	X						² X						
California	X		X			X					X					
Colorado	X			X												
Connecticut									³ X						⁴ X	⁵ X
Delaware	X		X						X		X				X	⁶ X
Florida	X		X	⁷ X					⁸ X		X					⁹ X
Georgia			X						X	X	X	¹⁰ X		¹¹ X		¹² X
Hawaii					X											¹³ X
Idaho																
Illinois																
Indiana	X	X	X									X				
Iowa	X		X						X	X					X	
Kansas		X	X	X					X							
Kentucky			X	X					X						X	
Louisiana	X	X	X													
Maine					X				¹⁴ X							¹⁵ X
Maryland	¹⁶ X														X	
Massachusetts	¹⁷ X				X				¹⁸ X	¹⁹ X						²⁰ X
Michigan	X				X				X		X				X	²¹ X
Minnesota	X		X												X	²² X
Mississippi			X	X		²³ X			²⁴ X						X	
Missouri	X															
Montana	X		X						²⁵ X		X				X	
Nebraska	X		X	X					X							
Nevada	X		X						X							
New Hampshire	X				X											
New Jersey	X				X										X	
New Mexico	X								²⁶ X							
New York	²⁷ X		X	X					²⁸ X	²⁹ X		³⁰ X		³¹ X	X	³² X
North Carolina					X											
North Dakota	X		³³ X	³⁴ X												
Ohio	X															
Oklahoma	³⁵ X								³⁶ X							
Oregon	X		X	X	X											
Pennsylvania	³⁷ X	³⁸ X														
Rhode Island					X	³⁹ X			X							⁴⁰ X
South Carolina				X					⁴¹ X						X	
South Dakota	X		X						⁴² X	X					X	⁴³ X
Tennessee	X			X					⁴⁴ X							
Texas			X	X					⁴⁵ X	⁴⁶ X			X			
Utah		X	X						X						X	
Vermont			X													
Virginia	X			X					⁴⁷ X						X	
Washington	X		X													
West Virginia	X		X	X	X			X	⁴⁸ X		X					⁴⁹ X
Wyoming	X	X														
Wisconsin	X								X							
Puerto Rico			X													
Total	31	5	28	17	14	10	2	5	22	7	5	4	1	2	16	12

¹ Recorders court
² City and town
³ Denver
⁴ Superior court—
Circuit Court
⁵ Family court
⁶ Small claims
⁷ + County judges court

⁸ Of record + felony courts
⁹ Of record
¹⁰ Courts of record
¹¹ Courts of ordinary
¹² + Family courts
¹³ Traffic court
¹⁴ Baltimore
¹⁵ Orphans court

¹⁶ Trial magistrates
¹⁷ Peoples' court
¹⁸ Boston
¹⁹ Land court
²⁰ City police court
²¹ Family Court,
Harrison County
²² Court of Criminal
Correction, St. Louis

²³ + Domestic relations
²⁴ City, town, village
²⁵ New York City
²⁶ Surrogate Court
²⁷ County
²⁸ + County courts
²⁹ w/increased jurisdiction
³⁰ Cuyahoga County
³¹ Of record and non record

³² Philadelphia
³³ Justice of the peace
³⁴ Traffic court, Philadelphia
³⁵ —Providence
³⁶ City recorders court
³⁷ + Domestic relations
³⁸ District and county
³⁹ Intermediate courts

TABLE 5
STATE PROSECUTORIAL SYSTEMS
Local Prosecution Function Organization

	State Prosecutor Systems	State Appointed Local Prosecutors	Local (Judicial District) Prosecutors with Criminal and Appeals Responsibilities	Local (Judicial District) Prosecutors with Solely Criminal Responsibilities	Local (Judicial District) Prosecutors with Civil and Criminal Responsibilities but no Appeals Duties	Local (County) Prosecutors with Criminal and Appellate Responsibilities	Local (County) Prosecutors with Solely Criminal Responsibilities	Overlapping County-Judicial District Prosecutors	Local (County) Prosecutors with Criminal and Civil, but not Appellate Responsibilities
Alabama					X				
Alaska	X								
Arizona								X	
Arkansas				X					
California									X
Colorado			X						
Connecticut		X							
Delaware	X								
Florida								X	
Georgia			X						
Hawaii						X			
Idaho									X
Illinois						X			
Indiana				X					
Iowa									X
Kansas						X			
Kentucky								X	
Louisiana				X					
Maine									X
Maryland									X
Massachusetts			X						
Michigan						X			
Minnesota						X			
Mississippi								X	
Missouri							X		
Montana									X
Nebraska									X
Nevada									X
New Hampshire									X
New Jersey		X							
New Mexico			X						
New York						X			
North Carolina			X						
North Dakota						X			
Ohio						X			
Oklahoma				X					
Oregon						X			
Pennsylvania						X			
Rhode Island	X								
South Carolina				X					
South Dakota									X
Tennessee			X						
Texas							X		
Utah								X	
Vermont						X			
Virginia									X
Washington						X			
West Virginia									X
Wisconsin									X
Wyoming									X
Total	3	2	2	6	4	12	2	4	15

Source: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations.

TABLE 6
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING MISDEMEANANT PROBATION

	Local	State Board (Commission) Pardons/Paroles/Probation	State Board of Corrections	State Commission on Adult Problems	State Department of Social Welfare	State Department of Corrections	State Department of Parole Probation	State Department of Mental Health Corrections	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority	State Department of Welfare/Institutions	State Department of Public Works	None
Alabama	X	X										
Alaska									X			
Arizona												X
Arkansas												X
California	X											
Colorado	X											
Connecticut				X								
Delaware						X						
Florida		X										
Georgia	X	X										
Hawaii	X											
Idaho												X
Illinois	X											
Indiana	X											
Iowa												X
Kansas	X											
Kentucky						X						
Louisiana												X
Maine								X				
Maryland	X						X					
Massachusetts	X	X										
Michigan	X											
Minnesota	X					X						
Mississippi												X
Missouri	X	X										
Montana												X
Nebraska	X											
Nevada							X					
New Hampshire	X						X					
New Jersey	X											
New Mexico	X	X										
New York	X											
North Carolina		X										
North Dakota							X					
Ohio	X											
Oklahoma												X
Oregon	X	X										
Pennsylvania												X
Rhode Island					X							
South Carolina		X										
South Dakota												X
Tennessee						X						
Texas	X											
Utah			X									
Vermont												
Virginia									X			
Washington	X								X			
West Virginia											X	
Wisconsin											X	
Wyoming							X					
Puerto Rico												X
Total	22	9	1	1	1	4	5	1	1	2	2	11

Source: Ibid.

TABLE 7

PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING ADULT PROBATION

	Local	State Board of (Pardons, Paroles, Probations)	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority	State Division of Parole	State Commission on Adult Problems	State Department of (Correction, Mental Health)	State Commission on (Probation, Parole)	State Board of Correction	State Department of (Social Welfare, Welfare, Institutions)	State Department (Parole, Probation)	District Judges Association	Administrator's Office of Courts	State Board of Prison Terms and Parole	Department of Public Works
Alabama		X												
Alaska			X											
Arizona	X													
Arkansas		X												
California	X													
Colorado	X			X										
Connecticut					X									
Delaware						X								
Florida	X						X							
Georgia	X	X												
Hawaii	X							X						
Idaho														
Illinois	X													
Indiana	X													
Iowa		X												
Kansas		X												
Kentucky						X			X					
Louisiana														
Maine						X								
Maryland	X									X				
Massachusetts							X							
Michigan	X					X								
Minnesota	X					X								
Mississippi		X												
Missouri		X												
Montana		X												
Nebraska											X			
Nevada										X				
New Hampshire	X													
New Jersey	X													
New Mexico		X												
New York	X													
North Carolina							X							
North Dakota										X				
Ohio	X													
Oklahoma	X													
Oregon	X	X												
Pennsylvania	X								X					
Rhode Island														
South Carolina		X												
South Dakota		X												
Tennessee						X								
Texas	X													
Utah								X						
Vermont									X					
Virginia									X				X	
Washington														X
West Virginia	X									X				
Wyoming														X
Wisconsin												X		
Puerto Rico														
Total	20	12	1	1	1	6	3	2	4	5	1	1	1	2

Source: *Ibid.* p. 201.

TABLE 8

PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE PROBATION

	Local	State Department of Pensions & Security	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority	State Department of Public Works	State Juvenile Court	State Department of Family & Child Service	State Department of Health	State Department of Child Welfare	State Department of Mental Health & Corrections	State Department of Parole & Probation	State Probation Commission	State Department of Corrections	State Department of Probation	State Department of Social Welfare	Administration Office of Courts	State Department of Public Assistance
Alabama	X	X														
Alaska			X													
Arizona	X															
Arkansas	X			X												
California	X															
Colorado	X															
Connecticut					X											
Delaware	X															
Florida	X															
Georgia	X					X										
Hawaii	X															
Idaho	X						X									
Illinois	X															
Indiana	X															
Iowa	X															
Kansas	X															
Kentucky	X							X								
Louisiana	X			X												
Maine	X							X								
Maryland	X									X						
Massachusetts	X										X					
Michigan	X															
Minnesota	X											X				
Mississippi	X															
Missouri	X															
Montana	X															
Nebraska	X															
Nevada	X															
New Hampshire	X												X			
New Jersey	X															
New Mexico	X															
New York	X															
North Carolina	X															
North Dakota				X												
Ohio	X															
Oklahoma	X															
Oregon	X															
Pennsylvania	X															
Rhode Island																
South Carolina	X															
South Dakota	X															
Tennessee	X											X				
Texas	X															
Utah					X											
Vermont																
Virginia	X															
Washington	X															
West Virginia	X															X
Wyoming	X															
Wisconsin	X			X												
Puerto Rico															X	
Total	45	1	1	4	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1

Source: *Ibid.* p. 201.

TABLE 9
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE INSTITUTIONS

	Independent Boards	State Youth and Adult Correction Agency	State Board of Corrections/Reform/Charities	State Department of Juvenile Corrections	State Department of Mental Health & Corrections	State Department of Corrections	State Youth Council/Commission/Board	State Department of Health/Welfare/Institutions	State Department of Education/Public Instruction	State Department of Institutions/Agencies	State Board of State Industrial Schools	State Commissioner of Public Institutions	State Board of Directors of State Institutions for Juveniles	State Division of Child Training Schools	State Board of Control/Administration	State Department of Public Works	State Board of Trustees	State Department of Family/Child/Social Service of Welfare	State Division of Youth Adult Authority
Alabama	X																		X
Alaska																			X
Arizona																			
Arkansas		X																	
California			X																
Colorado																			
Connecticut			X																
Delaware																			
Florida																			
Georgia																			
Hawaii																			
Idaho																			
Illinois																			
Indiana																			
Iowa																			
Kansas																			
Kentucky																			
Louisiana																			
Maine																			
Maryland																			
Massachusetts																			
Michigan																			
Minnesota																			
Mississippi																			
Missouri																			
Montana																			
Nebraska																			
Nevada																			
New Hampshire																			
New Jersey																			
New Mexico																			
New York																			
North Carolina																			
North Dakota																			
Ohio																			
Oklahoma																			
Oregon																			
Pennsylvania																			
Rhode Island																			
South Carolina																			
South Dakota																			
Tennessee																			
Texas																			
Utah																			
Vermont																			
Virginia																			
Washington																			
West Virginia																			
Wyoming																			
Wisconsin																			
Puerto Rico																			
Total	4	1	3	1	1	2	5	3	2	6	1	1	1	1	2	3	5	2	2

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Corrections (Wash. D.C.: U.S. Gov't Printing Office, 1967)

TABLE 10
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING ADULT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

	State Board of Correction	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority	Superintendent of State Prison	State Penitentiary Commission	State Youth & Adult Correction Agency	State Department of Institutions/Agencies/ ^a Welfare	Three Separate and Independent Boards	State Department of Correction/ ^a Mental Health/Hygiene	State Department of Social (Service)/Welfare	State Department of Public Safety	State Board of Control	Office of Director of Penal Institutions	Independent Board	Board of Trustees of State Prison	Board of Director of State Prison	State Board of Prison Commissioners	State Prison Department	State Board of Administration	State Board of Public Affairs	State Department of Justice	Commissioner of Public Institutions	Department of Public Works	State Board of Charities and Reform	State Board of Charities and Corrections
Alabama	X																							
Alaska		X																						
Arizona			X																					
Arkansas																								
California																								
Colorado																								
Connecticut																								
Delaware																								
Florida																								
Georgia																								
Hawaii																								
Idaho																								
Illinois																								
Indiana																								
Iowa																								
Kansas																								
Kentucky																								
Louisiana																								
Maine																								
Maryland																								
Massachusetts																								
Michigan																								
Minnesota																								
Mississippi																								
Missouri																								
Montana																								
Nebraska																								
Nevada																								
New Hampshire																								
New Jersey																								
New Mexico																								
New York																								
North Carolina																								
North Dakota																								
Ohio																								
Oklahoma																								
Oregon																								
Pennsylvania																								
Rhode Island																								
South Carolina																								
South Dakota																								
Tennessee																								
Texas																								
Utah																								
Vermont																								
Virginia																								
Washington																								
West Virginia																								
Wyoming																								
Wisconsin																								
Puerto Rico																								
Total	5	1	1	1	1	8	1	14	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1

TABLE 11
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING LOCAL ADULT INSTITUTIONS AND JAILS

	Local	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority	State Jail Administration	Not Applicable	State Department of Social Welfare	State Department of Justice
Alabama	X					
Alaska		X				
Arizona	X					
Arkansas	X					
California	X					
Colorado	X					
Connecticut			X			
Delaware				X		
Florida	X					
Georgia	X					
Hawaii	X					
Idaho	X					
Illinois	X					
Indiana	X					
Iowa	X					
Kansas	X					
Kentucky	X					
Louisiana	X					
Maine	X					
Maryland	X					
Massachusetts	X					
Michigan	X					
Minnesota	X					
Mississippi	X					
Missouri	X					
Montana	X					
Nebraska	X					
Nevada	X					
New Hampshire				X		
New Jersey			X			
New Mexico			X			
New York			X			
North Carolina		X				
North Dakota		X				
Ohio		X				
Oklahoma		X				
Oregon		X				
Pennsylvania		X				
Rhode Island					X	
South Carolina		X				
South Dakota		X				
Tennessee		X				
Texas		X				
Utah		X				
Vermont		X				
Virginia		X				
Washington		X				
West Virginia		X				
Wyoming		X				
Wisconsin		X				
Puerto Rico						X
Total	45	1	1	2	1	1

TABLE 12
PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE DETENTION

	Local	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority	State Juvenile Court	State Youth Service Commission	State Department of Family and Child Service	State Department of Public Works	State Youth Service Board	State Board of Trustees	State Department of Social Welfare	State Department of Health
Alabama	X									
Alaska		X								
Arizona	X									
Arkansas	X									
California	X									
Colorado	X									
Connecticut			X							
Delaware				X						
Florida	X									
Georgia	X				X					
Hawaii	X									
Idaho	X									
Illinois	X									
Indiana	X									
Iowa	X									
Kansas	X									
Kentucky	X									
Louisiana	X									
Maine	X									
Maryland	X					X				
Massachusetts							X			
Michigan	X									
Minnesota	X									
Mississippi	X									
Missouri	X									
Montana	X									
Nebraska	X									
Nevada	X									
New Hampshire								X		
New Jersey	X									
New Mexico	X									
New York	X									
North Carolina	X									
North Dakota	X									
Ohio	X									
Oklahoma	X									
Oregon	X									
Pennsylvania	X									
Rhode Island									X	
South Carolina	X									
South Dakota	X									
Tennessee	X									
Texas	X									
Utah	X									
Vermont									X	
Virginia	X									
Washington	X									
West Virginia	X									
Wyoming	X									
Wisconsin	X									
Puerto Rico										X
Total	43	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement & the Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Corrections (Wash. D.C.: U.S. Gov't Printing Office, 1967)

PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING ADULT PAROLE SERVICES

TABLE 13

[illegible]

PARENT AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMINISTERING JUVENILE AFTERCARE

	Local	State Department of Pensions and Security	State Division of Youth and Adult Authority	Board of Directors of State Institutions for Juveniles	State Department of Public Works	State Youth and Adult Corrections Agency	State Department of Institutions	Independent Board of Trustees	State Youth/Service Commission/Council	State Division of Child Training Schools	State Commission of Public Institutions	State Board of Pardons and Paroles	State Department of Education	State Department of Family/Child/Social Service of Welfare	State Board of Corrections	State Board of Control	State Board of State Industrial Schools	State Board of Trustees	State Department of Mental Health & Correction	State Department of Parole and Probation	State Department of Health/Welfare	State Department of Corrections	State Board of Training Schools
Alabama	X	X	X																				
Alaska																							
Arizona				X																			
Arkansas																							
California	X																						
Colorado							X																
Connecticut								X															
Delaware									X														
District of Columbia																							
Florida										X				X									
Georgia													X	X									
Hawaii														X									
Idaho																							
Illinois									X														
Indiana															X								
Iowa																X							
Kansas																	X						
Kentucky													X	X									
Louisiana																							
Maine							X												X				
Maryland		X			X															X			
Massachusetts									X											X			
Michigan														X									
Minnesota																							
Mississippi		X			X																		
Montana																							
Nebraska							X																
Nevada																							
New Hampshire																							
New Jersey							X												X				
New Mexico	X																						
New York																							
North Carolina													X										
North Dakota													X										
Ohio									X														
Oklahoma					X																		
Oregon																							
Pennsylvania																							
Rhode Island													X										
South Carolina																							
South Dakota												X											
Tennessee																							
Texas									X														
Utah																							
Vermont						X																	
Virginia							X																
Washington		X																					
West Virginia							X																
Wyoming						X																	
Wisconsin																				X			
Yukon																							
Puerto Rico																					X		
Total	6	1	1	1	7	1	6	1	5	1	1	1	1	7	4	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1

Source: President's Commission on Law Enforcement & the Administration of Justice, *Task Force: Corrections* (Wash. D.C.: U.S. Gov't Printing Office, 1967) p. 200

TABLE 15

COUNTY CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES BY SECTOR AND STATE: JANUARY 1970

State and population size group	Total agencies	Enforcement agencies	Courts	Prosecutor's offices	Defender's offices	Adult corrections	Juvenile corrections	Probation offices	All other agencies
All states	19,543	4,801	6,370	2,777	236	3,027	306	1,705	321
States with populations of 10,000,000 or more	5,751	915	2,343	726	173	660	160	618	156
California	958	84	378	94	36	106	90	71	99
Illinois	557	205	3	100	33	97	10	99	10
New York	611	122	170	113	48	64	9	63	22
Ohio	727	132	235	90	0	87	22	152	8
Pennsylvania	932	104	495	96	56	70	16	88	7
Texas	1,966	268	1,061	233	0	236	13	145	10
States with populations of 3,000,000 to 9,999,999	8,421	2,243	2,620	1,253	31	1,301	110	759	104
Alabama	401	83	143	34	3	67	5	63	3
Connecticut	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Florida	608	80	283	72	1	81	23	60	8
Georgia	1,189	337	417	197	4	192	6	33	3
Indiana	525	183	52	89	9	90	4	97	1
Kentucky	698	157	276	118	3	115	6	21	2
Louisiana	254	121	55	0	0	64	2	11	1
Maryland	198	38	78	28	3	22	1	13	15
Massachusetts	221	19	88	11	0	15	3	81	4
Michigan	541	111	122	86	0	78	14	120	10
Minnesota	591	173	211	86	2	68	4	43	4
Missouri	756	226	264	116	1	105	9	30	5
New Jersey	293	60	101	32	0	27	14	21	38
North Carolina	447	204	19	100	0	96	6	21	1
Tennessee	500	121	205	68	2	98	0	5	1
Virginia	495	116	158	95	0	74	3	48	1
Washington	236	57	74	40	0	35	7	22	1
Wisconsin	468	156	74	81	3	74	3	70	6
States with populations of 1,000,000 to 2,999,999	3,893	1,188	1,031	511	18	815	32	240	58
Arizona	169	17	97	14	3	15	2	19	2
Arkansas	332	142	89	2	0	76	2	20	1
Colorado	260	120	63	13	2	56	1	5	0
Iowa	481	198	18	97	0	84	1	31	52
Kansas	631	136	238	107	1	103	6	40	0
Mississippi	321	132	21	62	0	86	0	20	0
Nebraska	393	111	95	85	4	81	1	14	2
New Mexico	160	40	82	1	0	28	2	6	1
Oklahoma	172	83	3	1	4	75	2	4	0
Oregon	242	46	87	36	0	33	5	35	0
South Carolina	356	63	155	11	2	97	1	27	0
Utah	103	32	10	27	2	26	5	1	0
West Virginia	273	68	73	55	0	55	4	18	0
States with populations of less than 1,000,000	1,478	455	376	287	14	251	4	88	3
Alaska	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Delaware	23	5	16	1	0	0	0	1	0
Hawaii	10	4	0	3	0	3	0	0	0
Idaho	311	89	107	44	8	42	0	21	0
Maine	62	16	16	15	0	14	0	1	0
Montana	207	69	19	47	3	51	0	16	2
Nevada	121	25	44	16	3	16	2	15	0
New Hampshire	67	15	31	10	0	11	0	0	0
North Dakota	254	79	74	52	0	43	1	5	0
Rhode Island	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Dakota	230	92	1	61	0	47	1	27	1
Vermont	66	14	33	14	0	5	0	0	0
Wyoming	126	47	35	23	0	10	0	2	0

This chart was prepared by the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, LEAA, U.S. Department of Justice, as part of a statistical summary of criminal justice agencies in the United States conducted by the Bureau of the Census under LEAA design specifications. The summary was issued in March 1971 in pre-publication form.

APPENDIX B

LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION REGIONAL OFFICES

Region #1—Boston

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U. S. Department of Justice
Post Office and Court House Building, Room 1702
Boston, Massachusetts 02109

Region #2—Philadelphia

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U. S. Department of Justice
928 Market Street (2nd floor)
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107

Region #3—Atlanta

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U. S. Department of Justice
730 Peachtree Street, N.E. (Room 985)
Atlanta, Georgia 30308

Region #4—Chicago

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U. S. Department of Justice
O'Hara Office Center (Room 121)
3166 Des Plaines Avenue
Des Plaines, Illinois

Region #5—Dallas

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U. S. Department of Justice
500 S. Ervay Street
Dallas, Texas 75201

Region #6—Denver

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U. S. Department of Justice
1961 Stout Street
Denver, Colorado 80202

Region #7—San Francisco

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
Department of Justice
Suite 111, 1831 El Camino Real
Burlingame, California 94010

As of this writing, LEAA plans to expand the number of its regional offices to ten.

APPENDIX C

STATE LAW ENFORCEMENT PLANNING AGENCIES

Alabama

Alabama Law Enforcement Agency
State Capitol
Room 117, Public Safety Building
Montgomery, Alabama 36104

Alaska

Criminal Justice Commission
Office of the Governor
Pouch AJ
Juneau, Alaska 99801

Arizona

Arizona State Justice Planning Agency
2985 West Osborn Street
Phoenix, Arizona 85107

Arkansas

Commission on Crime and Law Enforcement
1009 University Tower Building
12th at University
Little Rock, Arkansas 72204

California

California Council on Criminal Justice
1108 14th Street
Sacramento, California 95814

Colorado

Colorado Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
600 Columbine Building
1845 Sherman
Denver, Colorado 80203

Connecticut

Governor's Planning Committee on
Criminal Administration
75 Elm Street
Hartford, Connecticut 06115

Delaware

Delaware Agency to Reduce Crime
1208 King Street
Wilmington, Delaware 19801

District of Columbia

Criminal Justice Planning Agency
Room 1200
711 14th Street, N. W.
Washington, D.C. 20005

Florida

Inter-Agency Law Enforcement
Planning Council
Tallahassee Bank Building, Suite 608
Tallahassee, Florida 32301

Georgia

State Planning Bureau
270 Washington Street, S. W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30304

Guam

Law Enforcement Planning
Office of the Attorney General
P.O. Box DA
Agana, Guam 96910

Hawaii

Law Enforcement and Juvenile Delinquency
Planning Agency
1010 Richard Street, Room 412
Honolulu, Hawaii 96813

Idaho

Law Enforcement Planning Commission
State House
7th and Washington Streets
Boise, Idaho 83707

Illinois

Illinois Law Enforcement Commission
Room 204
134 North La Salle Street
Chicago, Illinois 60601

Indiana

Indiana State Criminal Justice Planning Agency
State House
Indianapolis, Indiana 46204

Iowa

Iowa Crime Commission
State Capitol
Des Moines, Iowa 50319

Kansas

Governor's Committee on Criminal Administration
525 Mills Building
Topeka, Kansas 66603

Kentucky

Commission on Law Enforcement and
Crime Prevention
Room 130, Capitol Building
Frankfort, Kentucky 40601

Louisiana

Louisiana Commission on Law Enforcement
and Administration of Criminal Justice
P. O. Box 44337, Capitol Station
Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70804

Maine

Maine Law Enforcement Planning
and Assistance Agency
295 Water Street
Augusta, Maine 04330

Maryland

Governor's Commission on Law Enforcement
and Administration of Justice
Executive Plaza One, Suite 302
Cockeysville, Maryland 21030

Massachusetts

Committee on Law Enforcement and
Administration of Justice
Little Building—Room 1230
80 Boylston Street
Boston, Massachusetts 02116

Michigan

Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement
and Criminal Justice
352 Hollister Building
Lansing, Michigan 48933

Minnesota

Governor's Commission on Crime
Prevention and Control
Capitol Square Building
550 Cedar Avenue
St. Paul, Minnesota 55101

Mississippi

Division of Law Enforcement Assistance
345 North Mart Plaza
Jackson, Mississippi 39206

Missouri

Missouri Law Enforcement Assistance Council
500 Jefferson Building
Jefferson City, Missouri 65101

Montana

Governor's Crime Control Commission
Capitol Building
Helena, Montana 59601

Nebraska

Governor's Crime Commission
State Capitol Building
Lincoln, Nebraska 68509

Nevada

Commission on Crime, Delinquency
and Corrections
Suite 53, State Capitol Building
Carson City, Nevada 89701

New Hampshire

Governor's Commission on Crime
and Delinquency
3 Capitol Street
Concord, New Hampshire 03301

New Jersey

State Law Enforcement Planning Agency
447 Bellevue Avenue
Trenton, New Jersey 08618

New Mexico

Governor's Policy Board for Law Enforcement
302 East Palace Avenue
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87501

New York

New York State Crime Control Council
100 Church Street
New York, New York 1007

North Carolina

Law and Order Division
North Carolina Department of Local Affairs
422 North Blount Street
Raleigh, North Carolina 27601

North Dakota

Law Enforcement Council
State Capitol Building
Bismarck, North Dakota 58501

Ohio

Department of Urban Affairs
Room 3200
50 West Broad Street
Columbus, Ohio 43215

Oklahoma

Oklahoma Crime Commission
1111 North Walker Street
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73105

Oregon

Law Enforcement Planning Council
302 Public Service Building
Salem, Oregon 97310

Pennsylvania

The Pennsylvania Crime Commission
Federal Square Station
P. O. Box 1167
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania 17108

Puerto Rico

Puerto Rico Crime Commission
G.P.O. Box 1256
Hato Rey, Puerto Rico 00936

Rhode Island

Governor's Committee on Crime, Delinquency,
and Criminal Administration
265 Melrose Street
Providence, Rhode Island 02907

South Carolina

Governor's Committee on Criminal Administration
and Juvenile Delinquency
915 Main Street
Columbia, South Carolina 29201

South Dakota

State Planning and Advisory
Commission on Crime
State Capitol
Pierre, South Dakota 57501

Tennessee

Tennessee Law Enforcement Planning Agency
216 Capitol Boulevard
Suite 604
Nashville, Tennessee 37219

Texas

Criminal Justice Council, Executive Department
810 Littlefield Building
Austin, Texas 78711

Utah

Law Enforcement Planning Council
327 State Capitol Building
Salt Lake City, Utah 84114

Vermont

Governor's Commission on Crime Control
and Prevention
43 State Street
Montpelier, Vermont 05602

Virginia

State Law Enforcement Planning Council
Supreme Court Building
Richmond, Virginia 23219

Virgin Islands

Virgin Islands Law Enforcement Commission
Charlotte Amalie
St. Thomas, Virgin Islands 00801

Washington

Law and Justice Office
Planning and Community Affairs Agency
1306 Capitol Way
Olympia, Washington 98501

West Virginia

Governor's Committee on Crime,
Delinquency and Corrections
1704 McClung Street
Charleston, West Virginia 25311

Wisconsin

Wisconsin Council on Criminal Justice
110 East Main Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53702

Wyoming

Governor's Commission on Criminal Administration
600 East 25th Street
Cheyenne, Wyoming 82001

America Samoa

Management Analysis Officer
Government of American Samoa
Pago Pago, American Samoa 96902

END