

■ Objectives

- To define victimology and criminology
- To describe victims of violence and trends in crime
- To outline the costs and consequences of criminal victimization
- To describe the advances in forensics in solving crimes

■ Key Terms

Cold case
Costs of victimization
Crime victim
Crime victims' rights
Criminology
Forensic victimology
National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS)
Victimology

CASE

The November 2, 2007, murder of British exchange student Meredith Kercher in Perugia, Italy, set into motion an investigation that resulted in the arrest, trial, and conviction of her roommate, Amanda Knox, an exchange student from Seattle, Washington. Knox's boyfriend, university student Raffaele Sollecito, and a neighbor of Kercher, Rudy Guede, described as a drifter, were also convicted for the murder. The prosecution's theory was

that the victim was forced to participate in a sex game, fueled by drugs, which spiraled out of control. Testimony focused on telephone records, text messages, DNA evidence, bloody fingerprints, and shoe prints. However, 23-year-old Knox, who served 4 years of a 26-year prison sentence, consistently denied any participation in the murder. An appeal of Knox's conviction began in 2010. Independent experts claimed that the collection of evidence fell below international standards and that because of the errors made by police during the original investigation, the evidence against Knox and Sollecito should not be admissible (Vargas & Natanson, 2011).

This case raises four important points with respect to the field of victimology. First, who are the victims? Clearly, Meredith Kercher was a rape-murder victim. But what about the status of Knox and Sollecito, who denied the prosecution's theory and have steadfastly maintained their innocence? Second, forensic evidence, if present, is critical to link a person to the crime. Does the strength of this evidence justify conviction? Third, this case involves the trial of an American citizen in a foreign jurisdiction. How might differences in international justice procedures and American law procedures influence the case? Fourth, in addition to Kercher as the primary victim in this case, were Knox and Sollecito also victims of the system?

The lack of physical evidence, specifically DNA, to implicate Knox and Sollecito in the murder was not the only problem with this case. There were complaints of incompetent police work and investigators not familiar with working homicide cases. Knox and Sollecito both asked for attorneys but were denied counsel. There was a failure to establish motive or intent for the rape and murder. Knox could barely speak or read Italian. She was interrogated 41 hours over 4 days, did not realize that she was a suspect in the case, was pressured into signing a confession that wrongly accused her employer, and held a naive belief in the Italian justice system.

Both she and Sollecito continued to plead their innocence despite serving 4 years in prison. The appeal process for both Knox and Sollecito was favorable, and they were acquitted of the murder charges. The defense said the evidence unequivocally pointed to a single attacker, Guede, a drug dealer who fled to Germany after the murder. He was arrested there, brought back to Italy, and tried and convicted of the killing. His conviction was upheld on appeal, and he remains in prison.

After the acquittal Amanda Knox returned to her home in Seattle, Washington. The case, one of the most-watched trials in Italy, tapped into an intense debate over Italy's justice system ("As Amanda Knox Heads Home," 2011). See **Figure 1-1**.

■ Introduction

The unsettling reality regarding crime in the world today is that it is widespread, very often violent in nature, and completely disregards all boundaries. There is no home, no community, and no region in North America that can consider itself "safe" from the risk of criminal assault. With recent estimates of the number of crime victims, including violent, personal, and property crime, in the United States reaching as high as 22 million, it behooves all of us, both individually and collectively, to support emerging



FIGURE 1-1 The Amanda Knox Case

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efforts aimed at two distinct but related areas: crime prevention and crime victim assistance. To be sure, averting criminal behavior altogether is the more preferable of the two. Given the improbability of accomplishing this in the immediate future, however, it becomes all the more urgent to be prepared to assist those who are victimized. **Table 1-1** illustrates the numbers of victims of violent crime for the years 2008 and 2009.

Unprecedented numbers of victims are turning to victim assistance programs, mental health centers, domestic violence shelters, and victim compensation programs. Research, as well as experience, has shown

TABLE 1-1 Victims of Violent Crime in the United States, 2008 and 2009

	2008	% of total population	% of violent crime	2009	% of total population	% of violent crime	% change 2009 from 2008
Total population	304,374,846			307,006,550			0.86%
Violent crime	1,392,629	0.46%	100.00%	1,318,398	0.43%	100.00%	-5.33%
Murder and nonnegligent manslaughter	16,442	0.01%	1.18%	15,241	0.00%	1.16%	-7.30%
Forcible rape	90,479	0.03%	6.50%	88,097	0.03%	6.68%	-2.63%
Robbery	443,574	0.15%	31.85%	408,217	0.13%	30.96%	-7.97%
Aggravated assault	842,134	0.28%	60.47%	806,843	0.26%	61.20%	-4.19%

Data from Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), 2011. Victim Rights. Retrieved from http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/victim_assistance/victim_rights.

that these individuals frequently suffer from significant emotional pain and trauma, physical injuries, and/or financial loss, whereas “secondary victims”—relatives and close friends of victims—also endure both mental anguish and economic hardship. Emergency medical care, mental health counseling, social services, financial aid, victim compensation, and law enforcement protection must be readily available for those injured as a result of either violent or property-related offenses. Unfortunately, despite remarkable advances made in terms of our understanding of the nature of crime victimization and our awareness of the need for victim support, to date most victim assistance policies and programs need to be expanded and updated. This chapter describes the victims of crime, the cost of victimization, trends in crime, and the application of forensic victimology in solving cases.

■ Discipline of Victimology

Criminology, defined as the scientific study of non-legal aspects of crime, arose in the 18th century out of concerns about the use of what was perceived to be cruel and arbitrary means of justice. Through the use of scientific methods, criminologists sought to refocus approaches to crime on prevention of criminal activity and reformation of offenders. Edwin H. Sutherland (1947) defined the objectives of criminology as the development of general and verified principles and knowledge regarding the process of law, crime, and treatment of prevention. The etiology of crime and the characteristics of the criminal became the focus of criminological study. Drawing on diverse fields such as sociology, psychology, economics, human geography and statistics, present day criminologists use a variety of research and analysis methods to better understand crime and criminal activity (DeFlem, 2006, Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2012).

In contrast, **victimology** is the study of the victim, including the offender and society. Victimology is a social-structural way of viewing crime and the law and the criminal and the victim. Victimology, characterized by Fattah (2000) as a young and promising discipline and old as humanity itself, did not emerge as a scientific subject for study until after World War II. In the 1940s and 1950s, based on the research of Benjamin Mendelsohn and Hans Von Hentig (1948), victimology began to emerge as a distinct and viable field of study. Historically, victimology was a branch of criminology, and as such the early criminologists and victimologists focused their analyses and writings on typologies of crime victims, assessing the ways in which a victim may contribute,

knowingly or unknowingly, to his or her own victimization. Von Hentig's work (1946) identified categories of individuals who were to be prone to becoming crime victims. Marvin Wolfgang's doctoral dissertation at the University of Pennsylvania in the 1950s built on Von Hentig's theories and led to Dr. Wolfgang's research conclusions that the majority of criminal homicides in the city of Philadelphia were victim precipitated because the victim either provoked the perpetrator or the victim was motivated by an unconscious desire to commit suicide (Wolfgang, 1958). As one might expect, such findings inevitably resulted in a gross misunderstanding of the plight of crime victims and categorical dismissal of the validity of their rights and needs.

Because the victim component of crime represented a serious theoretical void, a struggle developed as to the independence of this new discipline in relationship to the established field of criminology. Many, including Fattah, continue to view victimology as an integral part of criminology, whereas others, especially those who work directly with victims, see the field as separate and independent. Fattah (2000) argues that the study of crime victims and of criminal victimization has the potential of reshaping criminology and that it may be the paradigm shift that criminology needs. Recent developments in victimology have undergone a transformation through major achievements in the applied field. This remarkable phase in the evolution of victimology, continues Fattah, was one of consolidation, data gathering, theory formulation, victim legislation, and sustained efforts to improve victims' lot and alleviate their plight.

Advances in the various theoretical victimology models explain the variations in victimization risks, the clustering of victimization in certain areas and certain groups, and the phenomenon of repeat victimization. Many countries have passed victim bill of rights legislation, including the adoption of the UN Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power by the General Assembly of the United Nations (1985). There has been the creation of state compensation to victims of violent crime, the reemergence of restitution by offender, and the establishment and proliferation of victim-offender mediation programs. Victim therapy has become an acknowledged way of dealing with the traumatic aftereffects of victimization.

Fattah predicts the future developments in victimology will include an emphasis on scientific research, particularly qualitative research, and that the need for advocacy, partisanship, and therapy will decline. In its place will rise the restorative justice paradigm with victimology developing into a truly scientific discipline with a truly humanistic practice (Fattah, 2000).

■ Victims of Violence

People are fascinated by crime. Crimes, and the legal proceedings that surround them, excite the public's interest for a variety of reasons: some, according to Fletcher (1988), because they involve celebrities, some because they are gruesome, some because they raise important social or legal issues, some because of their racial character, some because of the bizarre behavior of the parties, and some because of the plight of the victim. Cases that have received wide media attention for specific reasons include murdered children, professionals as victims, and victims of workplace violence.

Murdered Children

In 1996 almost 2,000 children were murdered in the United States, but none of those murders fascinated the American public and attracted the mass media like that of JonBenét Ramsey, a child beauty pageant contestant. Although the spotlight has dimmed over the years, the case has been reopened, and public bias regarding the parents as suspects, similar to the Caylee Anthony case, remains.

In the early morning of December 26, 1996, in Boulder, Colorado, Patsy Ramsey reportedly found a ransom note on the family's back staircase demanding \$118,000 for her 6-year-old daughter, JonBenét. The Ramseys quickly realized that JonBenét was missing from her bedroom and called 911. Later that day John Ramsey discovered JonBenét's body covered in her special white blanket in the wine cellar. She had been strangled with a garrote made from a piece of cord and the broken handle of a paintbrush; to add to the horror there was evidence of sexual assault. The official cause of death was asphyxiation due to strangulation associated with blunt force head trauma.

The early investigation focused on the three-page ransom note, and police took hair and blood samples from members of the Ramsey family. The district attorney's office strongly supported a family member theory to the murder, whereas a private investigator, Lou Smit, and Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) profiler, John Douglas, supported an intruder theory. A Boulder County grand jury was convened on September 16, 1998, and for a year heard testimony, forensic evidence, analysis of handwriting, DNA evidence, and hair and fiber evidence. No indictment was returned by the grand jury because of conflicting testimonies and theories.

In 2002 the Ramseys filed and defended a series of libel lawsuits against media outlets who tried to implicate them in their daughter's murder.

In 2003 an Atlanta federal judge dismissed a civil lawsuit against John and Patsy Ramsey, stating there was no evidence showing the parents killed JonBenét and abundant evidence that an intruder killed the child. The judge criticized the police and the FBI for creating a media campaign designed to make the family look guilty. That same year, Mary Keenan, recently elected district attorney, agreed to look at all the evidence in the case, including foreign, male DNA that was found in JonBenét's underwear that had never been tested. In 2006 Patsy Ramsey died of a recurrence of ovarian cancer. Nevertheless, in February 2010 the Boulder Police Department took the case back from the district attorney to reopen the investigation

Over the years several theories have been raised regarding the death of JonBenét. One theory suggests Patsy Ramsey injured her child in a burst of anger over bedwetting, proceeded to kill her either in rage or to cover up the original injury and wrote the ransom note. Another speculated that John Ramsey had been sexually assaulting his daughter and murdered her as a cover. Third, the brother of JonBenét was suspected of being jealous of his sister and murdered her. A final theory suggested that an intruder sexually assaulted and murdered the child. To complicate the family murder theory, DNA evidence did not match the mother, father, or brother and failed to find a match in the FBI CODIS database. This **cold case** remains focused on a forensic evidence match to JonBenét Ramsey or the crime scene and/or confession from the offender. See **Figure 1-2**.



FIGURE 1-2 JonBenét Ramsey

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Professionals as Victims

Dr. George Tiller, 67, was one of the few doctors who performed late-term abortions, raising concerns among citizens in Wichita, Kansas, that Dr. Tiller was contravening state law, public morality, and religious values. For two decades groups petitioned outside the offices of George Tiller, people signed petitions, and individuals made death threats against him. On May 31, 2009, Tiller was shot in the head at point-blank range (despite wearing a bulletproof vest) by Scott Roeder, an antiabortion activist. Tiller was killed during a Sunday morning service at the Reformation Lutheran Church in Wichita, where he was serving as an usher. Tiller's killing has been labeled an act of domestic terrorism and an assassination.

Scott Roeder took the stand in his own defense on January 28, 2010. He admitted to killing Dr. Tiller, described his views on abortion, and defended his act as an attempt to save unborn children. On January 29, 2010, the jury returned a verdict of guilty on all three charges (one count of first-degree murder and two counts of aggravated assault) after less than 40 minutes of deliberation. On April 1, 2010, in Wichita, Kansas, Sedgwick County District Judge Warren Wilbert sentenced Roeder to the maximum time allowed in Kansas, known as a "hard 50," meaning he has no possibility of parole for 50 years.

Assassinations have been part of human history from early times. Victims who are killed for political reasons are sometimes aware of their danger, as in the case of Dr. Tiller, or sometimes totally unaware, as in the case of President Abraham Lincoln. In either case, such murders trigger great public outcry for the victims, their families, and their communities.

Victims of Revenge

On Christmas Eve 2008 Bruce Jeffrey Pardo, the newly divorced husband of their daughter, arrived at the home of Joseph and Alicia Ortega dressed in a Santa Claus suit. He opened fire and killed nine people inside the house, including the elder Ortegas, his ex-wife Sylvia, three of their (Bruce and Sylvia) children, two daughters-in-law, and a teenager working at a computer. Pardo held no criminal record and had no history of violence. Police speculate the motive of the attack was related to marital problems. Pardo's wife of 1 year had settled for divorce in the prior week. He had also lost his job in July. Pardo owed her \$10,000 as part of the divorce settlement, according to court documents, which detailed a bitter split. He also lost a dog he doted on and did not get back a valuable wedding ring.

Pardo complained in a court declaration that Sylvia Pardo was living with her parents, not paying rent, and had spent lavishly on a luxury car, gambling trips to Las Vegas, meals at fine restaurants, massages, and golf lessons. There is some speculation that the divorce may have been caused

by Pardo concealing a child from a previous relationship. This child had been severely injured and disabled in a swimming pool accident. It was also revealed that Pardo planned to kill his own mother because she apparently displayed sympathy for Sylvia Pardo during the divorce.

Although there was no history of domestic conflict in divorce papers, this mass murder might have had some warning signs, such as the rage and anger toward the in-laws and resentment of financial expenditures and revenge toward the distribution of marital property. Clearly, the victims were taken by surprise in a blitz attack and had no time to defend themselves.

Victims of Workplace Violence

“We’re now just trying to figure out who’s shot, who’s not accounted for,” said Brett Hollander, the director of marketing at Hartford Distributors (CBSNews, 2010). This chilling statement was quoted in one of the initial press reports from the summer of 2010 shooting in a beer distribution company in Manchester, Connecticut. Approximately 60 people were in the warehouse at the 7 a.m. shift change when Omar Thornton fatally shot eight fellow employees and then himself. The shooting occurred minutes after Thornton was confronted by management with video evidence that he was stealing beer. He was given the option of quitting the job or being fired. Thornton did not deny the allegations, signed the release papers, and then withdrew a gun from his lunch box. Witnesses on the scene described Thornton as cool and calm as he proceeded to shoot those around him in the head.

During the past decade newspapers rarely have missed an opportunity to report the latest murder, robbery, physical or sexual assault, or stalking incident occurring in the workplace. Of these incidents, the ones that receive the most attention are, not surprisingly, workplace shootings. Frequently, violent episodes in the workplace can be prevented. With this in mind, some companies have begun to provide employee assistance programs, stress management and anger control workshops, and fitness and exercise facilities. In addition, corporate security and human resource personnel often receive training in crisis intervention, psychological risk assessments, and critical incident debriefing. No office, business, or institution is immune to the threat of violence, and careful planning and program development are crucial to handling threats appropriately and containing and preventing future violent incidents.

■ Who Is a Victim?

The word “victim” is derived from the Latin *victima* and originally contained the concept of sacrifice. The sense of an offering to the temple is implied in the Bible (Leviticus 1.2, 1.14, 2.1, etc). The word “victim” is not

found in the Bible, but the concept of a person suffering from acts committed by an aggressor is.

A case of murder is found in the Bible involving Adam and Eve's first-born and second-born sons, Cain and Abel. Cain was described as "a tiller of the soil," and Abel was described as "a keeper of sheep." According to Judaic translations, both prepared a thanksgiving sacrifice, but God showed a preference for Abel's offering, whereupon, in a fit of jealousy, Cain slew his brother and became the first murderer in history. When confronted by God, Cain first lies by saying he does not know. He then says, "Am I my brother's keeper?," and to this God replies, "Your brother's blood cries out to Me from the ground!" (Genesis 4:9–10). Cain is banished from civilization, but first a sign is placed on him—not as a felon's brand ("the mark of Cain") but to protect him from roving hunters. The rabbis, while condemning Cain's sin, also saw him as a genuine penitent who was therefore not punished by death (Wigoder, 2002).

This biblical reference reflects several points. First, rivalry, envy, and anger provoked a violent attack. Second, the suffering of the victim (brother's blood cries out) is acknowledged. Third, Cain's denial of the act is countered by the forensic facts, and the heinous nature of the act (murder) is punished by exile.

In more contemporary times the term "victim" has been greatly expanded to imply a wide range of unfortunate circumstances, such as victims of war, or accidents, or financial scams, or identity theft. Each of these various meanings of the term "victim" reflects general use of language. Within scientific inquiry Mendelsohn (1976) suggests that the concept of victim may be viewed as containing four fundamental criteria:

1. *The nature of the determinant that causes the suffering.* The suffering may be physical, psychological, or both depending on the type of injurious act.
2. *The social character of the suffering.* This suffering originates in the victim and others' reaction to the event.
3. *The importance of the social factor.* The social implications of the injurious act can have a greater impact, sometimes, than the physical or psychological impact has.
4. *The origin of the inferiority complex.* This term, suggested by Mendelsohn, manifests itself as a feeling of submission that may be followed by a feeling of revolt. The victim generally attributes his or her injury to the culpability of another person.

A victim of a violent crime can be operationally defined as an individual who has been confronted, attacked, assaulted, or violated by a

perceived predator, resulting in serious short-term, as well as long-term, physical and/or mental injuries to the crime victim. Crime victims suffer from illegal criminal acts and usually struggle with a number of medical, psychological, and financial problems caused by burglary, rape, theft, domestic violence, robbery, pickpocketing, carjacking, purse snatching, stalking, or attempted murder. In sharp contrast, victims of accidents; natural disasters such as hurricanes, tornadoes, or earthquakes; and diseases such as cancer, AIDS, or other social and public health problems are *not* harmed by illegal criminal acts. The **National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS)** provides definitions of crimes resulting in victimization for the purposes of data collection and reporting. This information includes the specific type of crime experienced, the location of the incident, whether the incident was reported to police or other officials, the type and value of the property involved, and the identity and personal characteristics of the victim. **Table 1-2** provides a summary of crimes resulting in victimization.

There is no characteristic profile of a crime victim. Persons of all ages, races, ethnicities, and socioeconomic ranges are subject to criminal assault of one form or another. However, victimization statistics from the U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics (2009) reveal that not all groups have an equal likelihood or probability of becoming a crime victim. Research indicates that young black males, 16 to 24 years of age and living in high-crime, urban areas, are the most likely to fall victim to crime due largely to factors such as lack of adequate housing, education, or employment. In sharp contrast, elderly white females who live in low-crime areas and generally do not venture out at night are the least likely to become victimized. Lifestyle, location, and race appear to be the primary predictors of who is most likely to become a victim of crime. Specifically, based on a review of the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports (2010a), African Americans and Latinos are much more likely than Whites to be assaulted, raped, or robbed.

Federal law both defines the term "victim" and outlines crime victims' rights. A **crime victim** refers to a person, organization, or business that has been directly harmed (physically, emotionally, or financially) as a result of the commission of an offense. In general, victims' rights apply after charges have been filed by a U.S. Attorney's office. Some individuals are viewed to not have the capacity to exercise their own rights. Such individuals include victims of crime who are under 18 years of age, incompetent, incapacitated, or deceased. In these cases the legal guardians of the crime victim or the representatives of the crime victim's estate, family members, or any other persons appointed as suitable by the court may assume the crime victim's rights. A person who is a defendant in the crime being investigated or prosecuted cannot act as a proxy for a victim.

TABLE 1-2 Crimes Resulting in Victimization

Type of Crime	Definition
Burglary	The unlawful or forcible entry or attempted entry of a structure with the intent to commit an offense therein. This crime usually, but not always, involves theft. It is a property crime.
Larceny	The theft or attempted theft of property or cash without using force or illegal entry. An alternate label for this crime is “theft.” It is a property crime.
Personal crime	A criminal act affecting a specific person. Crimes against persons, as defined by NCVS, include rape, sexual assault, robbery, assault, and purse snatching/pocket picking. The victimization is personal either through the direct experience of force or threat of force or by theft directly from one’s person.
Personal larceny	Purse snatching and pocket picking. Personal larceny involves the theft or attempted theft of property or cash directly from the victim by stealth but without force or threat of force. It is both a property crime and a personal crime.
Property crime	The illegal taking or damaging of property, including cash and personal belongings. Examples include burglary, theft, robbery, and vandalism. In many instances, the offender acts furtively, and the victim is often not present when the crime occurs.
Robbery	The taking of property or cash directly from a person by force or threat of force. Robbery is both a property crime and a violent crime.
Vandalism	The willful or malicious destroying, defacing, or damaging of property without the consent of the owner. It is a property crime.
Violent crime	Rape, sexual assault, robbery, and assault, including both attempted and completed crimes. The defining element is the use of force or threat of force. Violent crimes involve contact between the victim and the offender.

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 Data from National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) and the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS).

In the United States **crime victims’ rights** (2004) refer to the eight rights included in Justice for All Act, Section 3771 of Title 18 of the U.S. Code, Crimes and Criminal Procedure:

- The right to be reasonably protected from the accused.
- The right to reasonable, accurate, and timely notice of any public court proceeding, or any parole proceeding, involving the crime or any release or escape of the accused.
- The right not to be excluded from any such public court proceeding, unless the court, after receiving clear and convincing evidence, determines that testimony by the victim would be materially altered if the victim heard other testimony at the proceeding.
- The right to be reasonably heard at any public proceeding in the district court involving release, plea, [or] sentencing, or any parole proceeding.

- The reasonable right to confer with the attorney for the government in the case.
- The right to full and timely restitution as provided in law.
- The right to proceedings free from unreasonable delay.
- The right to be treated with fairness and with respect for the victim's dignity and privacy.

For purposes of these rights and services victims are defined in specific ways in the federal law (FBI, 2011).

■ Trends in Crime

Among news reporters, historians, and criminologists who review and interpret these findings, there are predictable reactionary stances, including the alarmists, the skeptics, and the realists. Frequently, members of the press tend toward alarmism, singling out and sensationalizing specific instances within a 50-year span. Such instances include cases like that of Lorena Bobbit, who in 1993 cut off half of her husband's penis while he lay sleeping; or of Lyle and Erik Menendez, who in 1993 murdered their parents, or the 2006 arrest of three Duke lacrosse players for rape. Some historians fall into the skeptic category, where a 5- or 20-year cyclical decline (mostly down, with some brief spurts in specific years) in most crime categories is viewed as temporary because history sometimes repeats itself. The realists are many of the academic scholars and criminologists who can examine a 10- or 25-year trend analysis and with reasonable certainty predict that 10, 20, or 25 years of overall declines in crime rates are not temporary.

Common perceptions are that U.S. society is more violent than most societies, that it is more violent today than ever before, and that violence is increasing. The facts are more complex, however, and simple generalizations can be misleading (Reiss & Roth, 1993). Crime in the United States is a significant criminal justice and public health problem, and despite a declining crime rate during the past two decades, the serious nature of homicide, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, domestic violence, burglary, larceny-theft, carjacking, and motor vehicle theft impacts millions of victims and their families each year. Despite this, using Uniform Crime Reporting data (FBI, 2010a), the United States experienced a 5.33% decrease in the number of violent crimes and a 2.8% decline in the number of property crimes in 2010 when compared to data from 2009. The report is based on information the FBI gathered from 13,007 law enforcement agencies that submitted 6 to 12 comparable months of data for both 2008 and 2009 (FBI, 2010b).

In another survey, the NCVS, violent and property crime rates in 2008 were at or near their lowest levels in over three decades (Rand, Lynch, & Cantor, 1997; Rand, 2009). The violent crime rate in 2008—19.3 victimizations per 1,000 persons age 12 or over—was statistically unchanged from the previous year’s estimate of 20.7 per 1,000 persons. The property crime rate of 135 victimizations per 1,000 households was lower than the rate of 147 per 1,000 households in 2007. There was no statistical difference between the 2007 and 2008 crime rates for any crime of violence. Overall in 2008, U.S. residents experienced 1.3 million violent crimes (forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault) and 16.3 million property crimes (household burglary, theft, and motor vehicle theft) (Rand, 2009).

The FBI preliminary crime statistics for the year 2010 saw a decrease in the crime rate (FBI, 2010a, 2010c). **Figure 1-3** illustrates the drop in violent crime from 2006 to 2010, with overall violent crime figures, especially robbery and forcible rape, showing the most decrease.

Adults and young people alike are most commonly the victims of property crime. Eighty-two percent of all crimes against adults involve property. Among young people, 68% of all victimizations relate to property and 36% relate to violent crime (including robbery). The lower rate of property crime among young people does not reflect the fact that they

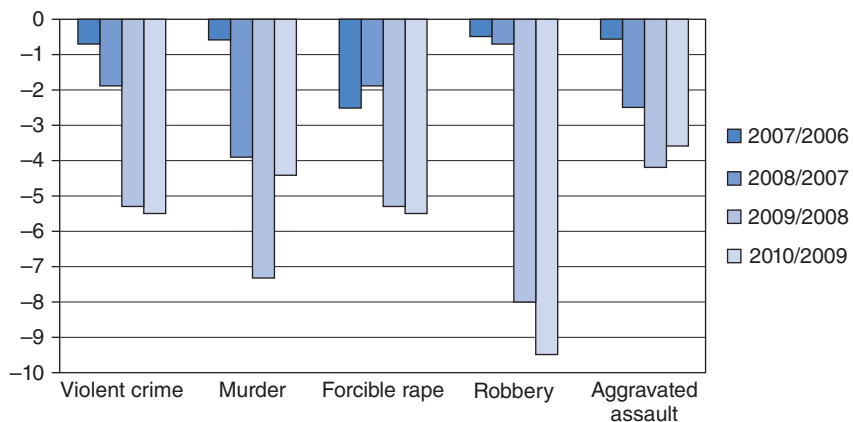


FIGURE 1-3 Percent Change in Violent Crimes for Consecutive Years—2006 to 2010

Data from Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). 2011. Victim Rights. <http://www.fbi.gov/about-us/cjis/ucr/crime-in-the-u.s/2010/preliminary-annual-ucr-jan-dec-2010>.

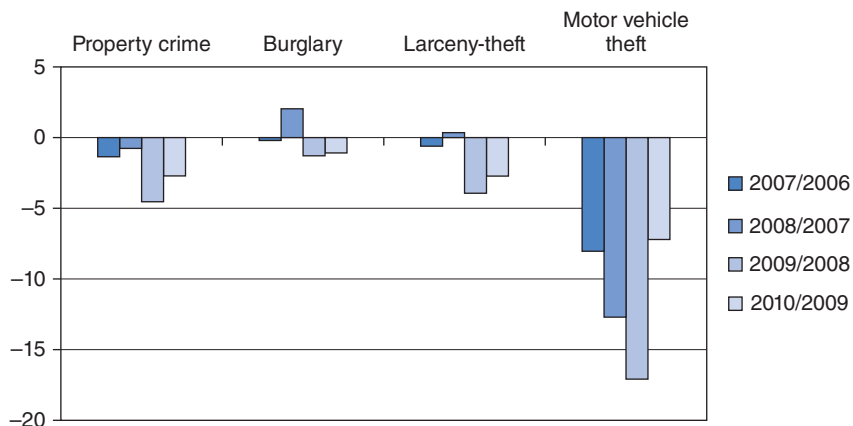


FIGURE 1-4 Percent Change in Property Crimes for Consecutive Years—2006 to 2010

Data from Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). 2011. Victim Rights. <http://www.fbi.gov/about-us/cjis/ucr/crime-in-the-u.s/2010/preliminary-annual-ucr-jan-dec-2010>.

are less likely to have something stolen but rather the fact that they are more likely to experience violent victimization (Hashima & Finkelhor, 1999). **Figure 1-4** illustrates the drop in property crime from 2006 to 2010, with the 2008/2009 showing the greatest decrease in motor vehicle theft, property crime, larceny-theft, and burglary.

Statistics Canada is Canada's central statistical office. In addition to conducting a census every 5 years, there are about 350 active surveys on other topics related to the population, economy, society, and culture. Similar to U.S. statistics, Statistics Canada, using data provided by police forces across the country, reported 2.1 million crimes in 2008, a drop of 5% from 2009. The Crime Severity Index, which tracks violent crime, also dropped to its lowest level since that index was created in 1998 (Statistics Canada, 2011).

■ Costs and Consequences of Crime

A 2-year multidisciplinary research effort, funded by the National Institute of Justice and published in 1996, estimated the costs and consequences of personal crime for Americans (Miller, Cohen, & Wiersema, 1996). Their report estimated annual direct tangible costs to crime victims of \$105 billion in medical expenses, lost earnings, and public programs related

to victim assistance. Pain, suffering, and reduced quality of life increased the cost to \$450 billion annually (Miller et al., 1996). Anderson (1999) estimated the total annual cost of criminal behavior in the United States, arguing that past research typically focused on particular costs, regions, or crime categories. Anderson estimated the direct and indirect costs that extend over the expenses of the legal system to consider ancillary costs that had not yet been included into an overall formula for the cost of crime. These costs included victims', criminals', and prisoners' time; the fear of being victimized; and the cost of private deterrence. Anderson estimated the net annual burden of crime to exceed \$1 trillion.

Canada has approximately one-tenth the population of the United States (Government of Canada, 2006). Zhang (2008) estimated the total (tangible) social and economic costs of *Criminal Code* offenses in Canada were approximately \$31.4 billion. This amounted to a per capita cost of \$943 per year. However, Zhang pointed out that this was likely to be a conservative estimate due to the unavailability of data in many areas. Despite best efforts to account for all the financial impacts of crime, only a partial picture of the true range of costs is ever available. The costs identified are borne by the criminal justice system, victims of crimes, and third parties in general (Zhang, 2008). For instance, it is estimated that the Canadian criminal justice system cost about \$15.0 billion in 2008. This includes policing, courts, prosecution, legal aid, correctional services, and mental health review boards. Individual victims, however, paid an estimated \$14.3 billion for crimes committed against them that same year. Their costs included medical attention, hospitalizations, lost wages, missed school days, and stolen/damaged property. Of the total costs, 47.0% represented lost wages and productivity and 42.9% lost or stolen property (Zhang, 2008). Indirect victims also bear costs due to grieving the loss of a loved one or caring for a victim. When all costs were taken into account, Zhang (2008) estimated total costs of crime for a 1-year period in Canada to be \$99.6 billion.

A breakdown of the costs can be reviewed in three areas: health and medical costs, economic costs, and criminal justice costs.

Health Costs

Tangible losses consist of direct costs for damages, and injuries resulting from victimization include medical and mental health expenses. Physical means of violence to a victim include a person's body (hands, fists, feet), instruments such as firearms and knives, flammable liquids and explosives, poisons, and animals (such as attack dogs). Although insurance often covers partial or full restitution for such costs, victims can still be required to

pay insurance deductibles and face higher premiums when renewing their insurance (Macmillan, 2002).

Physical injury can range from minor harm, such as bruises and lacerations, to serious harm, such as broken bones and need for hospitalization, to lethal injury and death. Some violent crimes leave no visible sign of injury. This is true in some rape cases where, contrary to popular opinion, there are no general body injuries or any pelvic or genital injuries.

Wallace and Roberson (2011) list four general classifications of physical injuries to victims. First, *immediate injuries* include cuts, contusions, and/or broken bones that generally heal fairly quickly and are not viewed as serious by the victim. Immediate injuries can take longer to heal in persons who are elderly, have existing disabilities, are taking certain medications, or have an immune disorder. For example, Larry was hit over the head and robbed of his wallet by four men in a restaurant parking lot. At the hospital emergency room the physician stitching his head remarked that Larry was lucky—that the last man who was attacked in that parking lot did not survive. Larry filed a civil law suit and received a jury verdict of \$200,000 because the restaurant was on notice that their parking lot was not secure, as there were no security surveillance system or security officers patrolling the lot.

Second, *some injuries leave visible scars*, such as facial scarring, loss of teeth or fingers, or loss of mobility. Victims who have been shot will have permanent scars that remind them daily of the crime. Child abuse victims or victims of domestic violence may have lasting scars from physical beatings. As an illustration, Lin was exiting her car at her apartment complex when at gunpoint she was forced back in to the passenger side and carjacked. After forcing her to withdraw money from an ATM, Lin was ordered out of the car and instructed to keep on walking and not to look back. Despite her following instructions she was shot three times in the back. She managed to crawl to a porch and call for help. The three men were found and prosecuted. Lin won a jury award of \$1.3 million. Scars from the shootings have continued to remind Lin of her ordeal.

Third, *unknown long-term physical injuries* can cause a change in life activities. Rape victims may be exposed to a permanent sexually transmitted disease such as herpes virus or HIV and AIDS. For example, Jaylee was working in a convenience store when a man forced her into a back room at gunpoint and raped her orally. Later she developed gonorrhea of the throat and had significant voice changes due to scarring of her vocal cords.

Fourth, *long-term catastrophic injuries* can restrict a victim's mobility. In one rape case the perpetrator intentionally broke a victim's neck,

resulting in a paraplegic outcome. These severe injuries result in great stress on victims' families, who also need to alter their lifestyle to care for the victim. Such injuries may reduce the life span of the victim and alter the quality of life.

Injuries from violent crime are a major concern for hospital staff. In 2008, 21 million crimes were committed in the United States; of these, 5 million were violent, including 14,299 homicides, and 16 million were property crimes (Rand, 2009). Of these crimes, 47% of violent crimes and 40% of property crimes were reported to the police. This high rate of violence is of great significance to area hospitals, as these victims are often brought to emergency departments with traumatic injuries for immediate treatment and interventions. Within the health care industry there is increasing concern regarding the physical injuries associated with violent crime as well as the emotional impact it has on its victims. Complications from injuries can cause functional, cognitive, and emotional disability as well as the presence of significant comorbid conditions and potential death.

There are no national data on psychological consequences of crime victims. However, the less direct consequences of violence may be delayed or cumulative. The stress induced by violent acts, especially when repeated within a partner relationship, may culminate in severe emotional trauma or physical illness. The cost of rehabilitation is also part of health costs (Reiss & Roth, 1993).

Financial Losses

Financial costs for health-related injuries of crime victims are staggering. In 2007, for crimes both reported and not reported in the United States, the total economic loss to victims was \$2 billion for violent crime and \$16 billion for property crime (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2008). Economists have used a variety of measures to place monetary values on tangible and intangible losses resulting from crime victimization. Tangible economic costs include loss of productivity in terms of wages and salary and days lost from school, work, and other activities. An impaired capacity to work, to continue in school, or to maintain one's quality of life is less often recognized, but consequential, costs of violent victimization. There can be loss of property or possessions during burglaries and robberies. In 2000, 36% of rape and sexual assault victims lost more than 10 days of work after their victimization, and property crimes cost victims more than \$11.8 billion (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002). State compensation programs paid crime victims and their families \$370 million in benefits in the federal fiscal year 2001, which represents an increase of \$52 million from 2000 and an increase of \$120 million from 1998 (National Association of Crime

Victim Compensation Boards [NACVCB], 2002). Vandalism costs totaled 1.7 billion in damages to households in the United States in 2000 (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2000).

The NACVCB reports that 28% of adults receiving crime victim compensation benefits in 2001 were victims of intimate partner violence, and child victims of physical and sexual abuse received another 23% of all claims paid (NACVCB, 2002). The cost of domestic violence to the U.S. economy is more than \$8.3 billion. This cost includes medical care, mental health services, and lost productivity (e.g., time away from work) (Rice, Finkelstein, Bardwell, & Leadbetter, 2004).

The use of weapons, namely guns and knives, in incidents of interpersonal violence is considered an insidious public health danger. This violence causes strain to its victims, their families, community members, health care practitioners, and law enforcement officials. Gunshot wounds, sometimes called ballistic trauma, refer to the physical trauma caused by the discharge of a gun during a conflict. In terms of public health, it is estimated that over 500,000 injuries are sustained annually from the use of firearms. In terms of economic cost, estimates are that the expenditures of shootings and stabbings in the United States are greater than \$20 billion each year. In the state of Massachusetts expenditures related to stabbings and shootings are estimated to be greater than \$18 million each year (Hume, McKenna, & McKeown, 2007). Despite the reported costs of these incidents, they do not account for the emotional impact of these events on victims and their families.

Economic Costs of Crime-related Drug Abuse

The crime-related cost of drug abuse increased from \$60.8 billion in 1992 to 88.9 billion in 1998 and was projected to reach \$100 billion in 2000 (Office of National Drug Control Policy, 2001). The estimated number of arrests for drug abuse violations for adults has been increasing, whereas the number for juveniles, persons under age 18, has stabilized (**Figure 1-5**). Drug abuse violations are defined as state or local offenses relating to the unlawful possession, sale, use, growing, manufacturing, and making of narcotic drugs, including opium or cocaine and its derivatives, marijuana, synthetic narcotics, and dangerous nonnarcotic drugs such as barbiturates.

The mission of the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA) is to reduce the impact of substance abuse and mental illness of U.S. communities. SAMHSA identified eight strategic initiatives to focus its resources on areas of urgency and opportunity. One initiative, trauma and justice, aims to reduce the pervasive, harmful, and costly health impact of violence and trauma by integrating

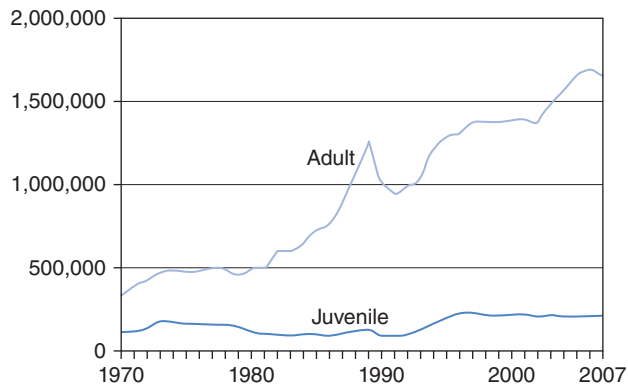


FIGURE 1-5 Drug Arrests by Age

Data from the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) 2008. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/glance/drug.cfm>.

trauma-informed approaches throughout health, behavioral health, and related systems and by addressing the behavioral health needs of people involved in or at risk of involvement in the criminal and juvenile justice systems (SAMHSA, 2010). According to SAMHSA, in 2009 an estimated 21.8 million Americans, or 8.7% of those aged 12 or older, were current (past month) illicit drug users. Illicit drugs include marijuana/hashish, cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used nonmedically. The SAMHSA survey also reported that over the past decade use for prescription opioids other than for medical purposes grew more than 330%. It was estimated that 4.4 million people misused opioid pain relievers in the year of the study and that nearly 1.6 million of these individuals met criteria for opioid dependence by the American Psychiatric Association's *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, 4th edition, revised (SAMHSA, 2003). This form of abuse results in increased workloads on emergency departments and mental health clinicians and an increase in law enforcement time spent dealing with crime-related drug abuse.

Substance abuse, in particular opioid dependence, is a potentially lethal and costly disorder that affects over 4 million individuals every year in the United States. The consequences of insufficient treatment for these individuals are decreased ability to care for themselves as well as increased risk for criminal activity, which can place the individual, the family, and society in harm's way. In addition to the enormous cost of treatment, criminal proceedings, and housing of persons in prison secondary to

drug charges, the effects of criminal activity from lack of involvement in treatment place many of these individuals in the path of violence.

Criminal Justice Costs

Additional costs to society arise from the discretionary collective response to violent victimization. Law enforcement, adjudication, victim services, and correctional expenditures add thousands of dollars of cost to each criminal event. The phenomenon of double victimization is described as follows: The first victimization is where the victim suffered at the hands of the criminal. The victim can then be revictimized by the criminal justice system. This second victimization by the system includes time lost in interviews and completing paperwork, waiting in corridors for hearings and trials, and delays and postponements of the case.

■ Forensic Advances

The television show *CSI* is one of the most popular dramatic series internationally. As a result of this high-profile focus on forensic evidence, juries have come to unrealistically expect quick forensic results at a level of certainty that is not possible in light of modern scientific ability. Nevertheless, over the past two decades forensic sciences have played an important role for victimology and the criminal justice system by providing law enforcement and investigators with scientifically based information through the analysis of physical evidence. The Amanda Knox trial illustrates the importance of forensic evidence.

Forensic evidence is collected at a crime scene, analyzed in a laboratory, and often presented in court. Complex cases may involve many forensic experts with backgrounds in biology, chemistry, physics, computer science, and other disciplines. The discipline of forensic technology has grown significantly as the biological sciences and technical fields have been able to successfully use new technologies to solve crime. Forensic technology includes a wide range of sciences, including DNA testing, ballistics, fingerprinting, and toxicology. Forensic analysts and technologists collect evidence at crime scenes, analyze the evidence in laboratories, and provide testimony at court proceedings (Cohen, 2011).

Forensic science and technology is more important than ever in solving criminal cases, and learning to use this advanced technology facilitates the work of law enforcement. One of the most significant recent advances has been in the area of DNA testing. DNA testing involves identification of the genetic makeup of an individual through the analysis of repeating nucleotides known as short tandem repeats.

Sequencing patterns are compared in two or more samples, and the probability that the samples are from the same individual are calculated. Since the mid-1980s this technology has significantly increased the ability to solve cold cases and locate suspects as well as free those individuals who have been wrongfully imprisoned. Further, computerized collections of information, such as the Automated Fingerprint Identification System and the National Integrated Ballistic Imaging Network, represent a significant advance over former systems. The Automated Fingerprint Identification System has copies of hundreds of thousands of fingerprints and bullets and bullet casings, allowing for computerized matching. Before this, fingerprint cards were stored in cabinets at police headquarters, rendering it nearly impossible to match a fingerprint from a crime scene to those previously collected.

The Henry C. Lee Institute of Forensic Science at the University of New Haven is one example of an institute that provides advanced forensic evidence collection training, access to state-of-the-art forensic technology, and the expertise of specially trained forensic consultants to state police at no cost to the departments. **Table 1-3** illustrates some of the technology available through the Lee Institute for training of law enforcement.

TABLE 1-3 Advanced Technology for Law Enforcement

SICAR	coding technique to characterize shoe prints and tire treads that form the basis for the database search and match operations, which allow police to identify the make and model of footwear or tires using tracks left at the scene of a crime.
Ground-penetrating radar	useful for locating buried bodies, coffins, or other evidence such as a cache of weapons or disturbed soil.
Portable Raman Spectrometer	allows for rapid, accurate identification of chemicals found at a crime scene. The quick identification of unknown materials can provide investigative leads and eliminate unnecessary delay while determining if a sample is safe or if it is potentially a significant item of evidence.
Infrared still and high-definition digital video cameras	help detect patterns such as gunshot residue patterns on skin and clothing that may be overlooked without specialized equipment.
Portable video detector with fiber optics	allows police on scene to search areas inaccessible to standard cameras. The extended, flexible optic tube can reach into pipes where evidence may be hidden or extend the search capabilities at a disaster or explosion scene.
Specialized crime scene materials and tools	help eliminate collection and storage issues and help with shooting and crime scene reconstructions.

Courtesy of The Henry C. Lee Institute of Forensic Science and the University of New Haven.

■ Forensic Victimology and Investigative Profiling

The scientific study of the victim has been especially useful to criminal profilers in analyzing crime scenes for the purpose of identifying offender profile characteristics. In turn, profile characteristics provide police with data on which to classify a crime and identify suspects in unsolved cases. The work of investigative analysts at the FBI Academy in Quantico, Virginia, led to an expansion of traditional crime categories. The result of this work was the publication of a book, *The Crime Classification Manual* (Douglas, Burgess, Burgess, & Ressler, 2006). To classify a crime using *The Crime Classification Manual*, questions about the defining characteristics of the crime need to be answered. These characteristics include information about the victim, the crime scene, and the nature of the victim–offender exchange. Victimology is the complete history of the victim and is a crucial part of the anatomy of a crime. The critical question is to evaluate why a particular person was targeted for a violent crime; the answer will lead to motive.

Forensic victimology is defined by Turvey and Petherick (2008) as the scientific study of victims for the purposes of addressing investigative and forensic issues. Turvey and Petherick (2008) explained that the forensic victimologist is best conceived as an objective, dispassionate scientific examiner. These examiners are critical and skeptical as they thoroughly investigate the facts. To that end, they take nothing for granted, look for corroboration of any alleged victims' statements, seek out collateral sources of information, and investigate alternate or contributing motives for victim behavior. Most importantly, the forensic victimologist is barred from assuming that alleged victims must have been victimized. Verification that someone is indeed a victim must be established unequivocally and may not be asserted simply for ideological purposes. According to Turvey and Petherick, forensic victimologists investigate as scientists, report as educators, and understand the gravity of their eventual courtroom testimony.

Investigative Criminal Profiling

Investigative profiling is best viewed as a strategy that enables law enforcement to narrow the field of options and generate educated guesses about the perpetrator. It has been described as a collection of leads (Rossi, 1982), as an informed attempt to provide detailed information about a certain type of criminal (Geberth, 1981), and as a biological sketch of behavioral patterns, trends, and tendencies (Vorpagel, 1982). Geberth (1981) noted the investigative profile is particularly useful when the criminal has demonstrated some clearly identifiable form of psychopathology. In such a

case the crime scene is presumed to reflect the murderer's behavior and personality in much the same way as furnishings reveal a homeowner's character.

Investigative or criminal profiling is, in fact, a form of retroclassification, or classification that works backward. Typically, we classify a known entity into a discrete category based on presenting characteristics that translate into criteria for assignment to that category. In the case of homicide investigation, investigators have neither the entity (for example, the offender) nor the victim. It is thus necessary to rely on the only source of information that typically is available: the crime scene. This information is used to profile, or classify, an individual. An important part of profiling is using the concepts of victimology and crime scene investigation. The assessment areas are described followed by an analysis of a cold case.

Crime Scene Analysis

Victimology is critical to a crime investigation as a first step in determining motive. Victims are assessed as to their risk level in terms of lifestyle and situation. Lifestyle risk level is a function of age, physical size, race, marital status, living situation, location of residence, and occupation. Situational risk assesses the victim's location and activities at the time of the crime and interacts with lifestyle risk. For example, the situational risk of a person remains the same inside a residence unless the doors are unlocked. Traveling to a social site, workplace, or residence may increase a person's situational risk level. Situational risk level varies from day to day depending on a person's routine.

An example of an individual with a high lifestyle risk who increased his situational risk is a 15-year-old White male runaway from a youth residential shelter. He had been removed from his residence for truancy and being incorrigible. The victim was found on a little traveled rural road, dead of massive thermal burns, in the ashes of a cardboard barrel, the metal rings of which were in the debris. Paint thinner was used as the accelerant, and the victim was identified through dental records. Victimology noted the victim to be a troublemaker, streetwise, and involved in all types of street activity.

The very young and the elderly may be high-risk victims under certain situations. Children walking home from school or alone at home may be targeted or stalked. Elderly living alone may be targeted because of their situation and fragility. On New Years Eve several offenders entered the home of a 73-year-old White widow and beat her with fists about the head and face. There were no signs of forced entry. The victim

was tied at the wrists using her nylon hose. She was found the next day in her backyard covered with a piece of sheet metal and boards. She had been hit with a blunt instrument, possibly a brick found at the scene. The victim's skull was struck many more times than necessary to kill her. Some watches and coins were known to be taken from the home. It was not known why the victim was taken outside because she had been beaten while in the house. Victimology noted the widow lived alone in a small town residential area, and it was rumored that she had money in the house.

The crime scene assessment is divided into four distinct scenes. The initial contact scene is where the victim has the first contact with the offender. The assault scene is where the assault, physical or sexual, occurs. The death scene is where the death of the victim takes place. The body location scene is where the body is discovered. These four scenes can be the same physical location, multiple locations within a single building, physically separated locations, or any combinations of the above. For each crime scene location an assessment is made of the risk level of the victim and the offender. The initial contact scene risk is a function of location, time of day, number of people at the location, and the routine of the victim as to the location. The risk level of location for offender is a function of the offender's risk at being at the crime scene.

Cold Case Analysis

The National Institute of Justice defines a cold case as any case where all investigative leads have been exhausted or, alternately, a case that has not been solved for (generally) at least 1 year and so has been closed from further regular investigations. A cold case may be closed for various reasons: previously available technology was not able to adequately analyze the evidence in order to form a conclusion, witnesses were hostile and uncooperative, various time constraints hindered the investigation, the originally assigned detectives had a heavy workload, or a lack of worthwhile leads stalled the case. Heurich (2008) suggested that investigations regularly slow or stop completely, resulting in cold cases, often due to police agencies lack of manpower, equipment, and funding to support units dedicated to investigating and analyzing these cold cases. As homicide and sexual assault units are backlogged with active cases, cold cases rarely get attention, leaving survivors angry and society at risk.

In response to concerns about unsolved cases, the National Institute of Justice instituted a grant program aimed at solving cold cases with DNA. The program was designed to assist states and local governments to identify, review, investigate, and analyze violent crime cold cases, such

as homicides and rapes, that had the potential to be solved through DNA analysis. In 2005 the National Institute of Justice awarded a total of \$14.2 million to 38 state and local agencies; in 2007 the Institute awarded more than \$8 million to 21 state and local agencies. As a result of the program, agencies have been able to focus resources on solving serious crimes such as homicides, sexual assaults, and other violent offenses using new technologies that may have been unavailable at the time. As noted by Heurich (2008), the ability to reopen and solve previously unsolved cases assists families and victims to find some form of resolution.

■ Summary

The definition of “victim” dates back to early religious practice and sacrifices. Victimology, as a new discipline, was fully launched in the mid-1070s. The costs of victimization are staggering when including costs to the victims and their families, costs to the systems who care for victims, and costs to society through the criminal justice system and the fear it engenders in the public. Victimology is a critical component of investigating violent crime and of analyzing a crime scene with the goal of identifying profile characteristics. Forensic victimology is the key to crime analysis, crime motivation, and suspect identification in homicide cases. The dynamics of victimization tell important information about the impact to the victim. Investigative or forensic victimology is a new and rapidly developing subdivision of victimology in general. It is one of the applied aspects of understanding crime with the goal of prevention.

■ Key Terms

Cold case: A criminal investigation that has not been solved for (generally) at least 1 year and, as a result, has been closed from further regular investigations.

Costs of victimization: Health and medical costs, economic costs, and criminal justice costs.

Crime victim: A person who has been directly and proximately harmed (physically, emotionally, or financially) as a result of the commission of an offense.

Crime victims' rights: Eight rights included in Section 3771 of Title 18 of the U.S. Code, Crimes and Criminal Procedure.

Criminology: The study of the etiology of crime and the characteristics of the criminal.

Forensic victimology: An important tool for investigating and solving cold cases.

National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS): A series of surveys, previously called the National Crime Survey, that collect data on personal and household victimization since 1973.

Victimology: The study of the victim from a social-structural way of viewing crime and the law and the criminal and the victim.

■ Discussion Questions

1. How is the victimization experience different or similar for a crime victim versus a victim of a social and public health problem?
2. Compare and contrast victimology and criminology.
3. Why might there be a disconnect between public and media perceptions of victimization and statistics that suggest crime has declined?
4. How does the subdivision of forensic victimology contribute to suspect apprehension?
5. How do you believe the JonBenét Ramsey murder will be solved?
6. Are Amanda Knox and Raffaele Sollecito victims of the justice system?
7. How important is DNA evidence in the Meredith Kercher murder?

■ Resources

American Statistical Association Committee on Law and Justice Statistics
<http://www.amstat.org/comm/index.cfm?fuseaction=commdetails&txtComm=CA02>

Bureau of Justice Statistics
<http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/>

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Division of Violence Prevention
<http://www.cdc.gov/ncipc/dvp/dvp.htm>

Crimes Against Children Research Center
<http://www.unh.edu/ccrc/>

National Center for Juvenile Justice
<http://www.ncjj.org/>

National Institute of Justice's Data Resource Program
<http://www.nij.gov/funding/data-resources-program/welcome.htm>

Office for Victims of Crime
<http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/ovc/>

Office of Justice Programs: Violence Against Women and Family Violence Program
<http://www.nij.gov/topics/crime/violence-against-women/welcome.htm>
 WISQARS™ (Web-based Injury Statistics Query and Reporting System)
 WISQARS™ is an interactive, online database that provides fatal and nonfatal injury, violent death, and cost of injury data from a variety of trusted sources. Retrieved August 14, 2011 from <http://www.cdc.gov/injury/wisqars/index.html>

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