COURTS, LAW, and JUSTICE



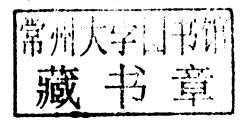
William J. Chambliss

KEY ISSUES IN Crime AND PUNISHMENT

COURTS, LAW, and JUSTICE

GENERAL EDITOR
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Introduction

What Makes an Act a Crime?

What makes an act a crime? "Thou shalt not kill" certainly does not apply to the law. One may kill in self defense, if under duress, or to protect your own property. Law enforcement officers and executioners may kill another human being, as can soldiers under orders. Furthermore, at a bare minimum, for an act to be a crime, it must be the result of an overt act or omission to act when one is legally responsible to do so; must be intentional (in most but not all cases); must have caused harm; and must have a causal relationship between the act and the harm.

Even knowing these principles, however, does not mean that no one is ever found guilty and punished for acts that do not meet these criteria. The roles in the criminal justice system, from police to judges, are filled by fallible human beings; no set of rules or principles can guarantee that role, and that occupants will not find ways to circumvent them.

The chapters in this volume cover a wide range of topics, including drug and gun control laws, as well as numerous chapters that discuss the ins and outs of the justice system once suspected offenders are arrested, during the trial process, and during sentencing.

The chapter *Drug Laws* (Dombrink) gives a historical overview of American drug policy, including changing drug laws over time and the movement to have drugs decriminalized. He explains the pros and cons of current drug policies, international efforts, and the recent changes in America to reduce drug-related crime and harm. *Gun Control Laws* (McGuire) looks at gun control laws in America and discusses America's unique culture and history, which has led to gun control laws being highly contested by many Americans.

...

Legal issues pertaining to the investigative process once a suspected of-fender has been taken into custody are reviewed. Miranda Rights (Candela) discusses suspects' rights prior to and since the landmark Miranda decision, which address an individual's Fifth Amendment rights. In addition to discussing the Miranda v. Arizona case, Candela details the pros and cons of Miranda and how court cases have since limited Miranda. Scott-Hayward's chapter Polygraphs and Inman and Beck's chapter DNA Testing explain the impact that technology has had on the investigation process, how polygraphs and DNA testing works, and to what degree the information obtained through polygraph and DNA testing has been allowed in criminal trials.

Legal and procedural issues during the prosecution of suspected offenders are also covered in this volume. Binnall's Exclusionary Rules outlines the development of the legal doctrine that enables courts to exclude certain pieces of evidence from trial due to unconstitutional police and/or investigation tactics, its constitutional basis, and limitations to the doctrine as ruled by the courts. This chapter shows the impact investigations can have on prosecutions, and that court decisions can have on both investigations and prosecutions. Similarly, Steele's chapter Double Jeopardy examines the Fifth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution, which states, "... nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb ..." and discusses how court interpretations, over time, have impacted the justice system. Campbell's chapter Plea Bargaining reviews the development and spread of plea bargaining, including different types of plea bargaining, reasons for their use, and the consequences of plea bargaining. Binnall's Jury System discusses the development of the American jury system as well as the mechanics and laws pertaining to juries.

This volume also contains extensive information about sentencing and punishments for crimes, including different types of offenses such as sex offenses and DUI. Grimes's chapter on *Three-Strikes Laws* and Fearn's *Mandatory Sentencing* chapter on mandatory minimums both help the reader understand the intended purposes of these laws, the variation of these laws across time and states, and the sociopolitical environment from which these laws developed. Evans's chapter *Sex Offender Registry* analyzes society's attempts to monitor and control sex offenders, especially following the highly publicized kidnappings, murders, and rapes of children such as Jacob Wetterling, Polly Klaas, and Megan Kanka. This chapter also discusses the ongoing debate over whether or not sex offense registries are constitutional or effective.

Finally, Wood's chapter *Restorative Justice* looks at the role the victim plays during the prosecutorial process. Although the U.S. Constitution guarantees rights to suspects and convicted offenders, there are no constitutional rights specific to victims. Wood discusses how society and the justice system have changed over time, which has led to a call by victims' rights activists for changes in the justice system to allow victims to be more involved and protect them from being "re-victimized by the system."

Although the topics of this volume are quite varied, the authors all provide detailed overviews of the development of the justice system and give consideration to the contrasting leading opinions that support or denounce the laws and policies used during the investigative, prosecutorial, and sentencing processes.

William J. Chambliss General Editor

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Asset Forfeiture

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Asset forfeiture is loosely defined as the confiscation of property by the state of proceeds or instruments of a crime. It is a government practice deeply rooted in history, one that continues to be the subject of much contention today. It has become an integral part of the war on crime, shaped law enforcement practices, and led to a variety of legislative changes over the past several decades.

The debate over asset forfeiture centers on the necessity of finding a balance between the desire to control crime and the need to protect citizens' civil rights. Asset forfeiture is touted as a tool used by law enforcement to address the daunting task of controlling criminal activity. It is meant to serve as deterrent against organized crime and drug trafficking. However, asset forfeiture is seen by many as a Draconian approach to crime control. This is partly because it creates the opportunity and financial motivation for law enforcement to follow the money, not the crime.

Understanding the key issues underlying the forfeiture debate is vital, including the early history of asset forfeiture, as well as the various benefits and drawbacks associated with the practice. Asset forfeiture is beneficial because it targets criminal profits, is not as difficult as securing a criminal conviction, and funds law enforcement activities (e.g., by funding task forces). To its detriment, forfeiture can create a profit motive for law enforce-

ment; may lead to circumvention of state law through a practice known as equitable sharing; has at its core a questionable taint doctrine; may threaten people's rights; does not require a criminal charge or conviction; and requires a lower standard of proof.

Types of Asset Forteiture

Historically, there have been two basic types of asset forfeiture, in rem and in personam. Property seized in personam occurs as a result of a person being found guilty of a criminal offense. Such property can be confiscated and is utilized primarily as a penalty for a crime. In contrast, in rem forfeiture is a civil proceeding and results in a judgment against a person's property. In effect, the property itself is found guilty, or part of a criminal enterprise, and as such it is subject to seizure. A salient difference between criminal and civil proceedings is the burden of proof required to establish guilt. A criminal trial traditionally requires a judge or a jury to find guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. The government must be able to prove, with the same standard of proof required of a criminal conviction, that the defendant's property is a forfeitable asset. In contrast, a civil trial only requires a preponderance of the evidence. This means that the government must only convince a judge with 51 percent certainty that property is subject to forfeiture. In comparison, criminal trials, proof beyond a reasonable doubt requires at least 95 percent certainty.

Asset Forfeiture in American History

Asset forfeiture has a long history that predates the American colonies. In feudal times, offenses designated as felonies or treasons were considered offenses against the king and required repayment to the crown. This repayment came in the form of forfeited lands or goods, which were immediately seized upon conviction. Eventually, the vigorous use of asset forfeiture by England against the American colonies was partly responsible for the wording of the Fifth, Sixth, and Eighth Amendments to the U.S. Constitution. Since then, the Supreme Court has held that there is no significant constitutional limit to the government's use of civil asset forfeiture.

The use of civil proceedings in asset forfeiture cases began primarily with the Navigation Act of 1651. This act allowed England to seize ships and property of merchants who were in violation of its provisions. The Navigation Act was a means by which England was able to control world trade through the use of statutes that made shipping practices illegal, or deemed a particular type of cargo as contraband. This allowed for the seizure of ships or cargo in rem rather than in personam, thereby avoiding the higher burden of proof associated with criminal proceedings.

Some of America's first asset forfeiture statutes were meant to protect against illegal shipping and piracy in violation of American admiralty laws. Much like English law, a merchant had the opportunity to defend his ship and his cargo (or himself if charged with crime by customs officials); however, contraband cargo was automatically found guilty and was immediately seized.

From the mid-1800s through the mid-1900s, various laws were enacted and government agencies created to regulate and collect funds from the supplying, shipping, and distribution of many drugs and narcotics. For instance, heroin, cocaine, morphine, and marijuana were all once legally shipped, bought, and used throughout the United States. The federal government profited from the taxation and fee collection from drugs and drug-related activity. Doctors were required to have licenses to administer or prescribe certain drugs, and licensing fees were payable to the various government agencies. During this time period, drugs were tightly regulated, but not criminalized, and there was no threat of forfeiture for violating the drug laws.

Recent History: Acts and Legislation

There have been many recent legislative developments in the forfeiture arena. For example, two important pieces of legislation introduced in 1970 had the intent of removing profitability from organized crime and illegal drug activity: (1) the Comprehensive Drug Abuse Prevention and Control Act and (2) the Racketeering Influenced and Corrupt Organizations Act (RICO). The first drug-related asset forfeiture laws were enacted as part of The Comprehensive Drug Abuse Prevention and Control Act. Through utilization of this act, the government was able to seize property involved in criminal activity, such as any equipment or assets used in the making or distributing of contraband, or purchased with money gained from illegal drug activity. This act also categorized certain drugs at various levels of dangerousness and began the process through which many substances were banned, which effectively extended the reach of asset forfeiture laws. Increased penalties and newly prohibited drugs were added to the controlled substance list, allowing for the use of asset forfeiture statutes in more cases.