THE PRESIDENT'S INITIATIVE ON RACE

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ADVISORY BOARD MEETING

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RACE, CRIME, AND THE ADMINISTRATION

OF JUSTICE

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Tuesday, May 19, 1998

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The meeting was convened in the Dorothy

Betts Margin Theatre, George Washington University,

800 21st Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., at 10:00

a.m., Dr. John Hope Franklin, Chairman, presiding.

PRESENT:

DR. JOHN HOPE FRANKLIN, Chairman

SUSAN JOHNSON COOK, Member

THOMAS KEAN, Member

ANGELA OH, Member

ROBERT THOMAS, Member

LINDA CHAVEZ THOMPSON, Member

SPEAKERS PRESENT:

STEPHEN JOEL TRACHTENBERG

CHRISTOPHER STONE

ATTORNEY GENERAL JANET RENO

ALSO PRESENT:

CHARLES OGLETREE, Moderator

JUDITH WINSTON, Executive Director

WILLIAM BRATTON

ZACHARY W. CARTER

MARIA JIMENEZ

RANDALL KENNEDY

DEBORAH RAMIREZ

CHARLES RAMSEY

KIM TAYLOR-THOMPSON

WILLIAM WILBANKS

MICHAEL YAMAMOTO

ROBERT YAZZIE

C-O-N-T-E-N-T-S

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1 P-R-O-C-E-E-D-I-N-G-S 2 (10:08 a.m.) 3 MS. WINSTON: We are about to begin our 4 program, if you could please take your seats. If you could please take your seats, the 5 6 meeting will begin. Thank you. 7 CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: I'm delighted to welcome you to the May Advisory Board meeting of the 8 9 President's Initiative on Race. 10 The Initiative on Race is a year long 11 effort to engage the nation to become one America in 12 the 21st Century, a place where we respect each 13 other's differences and at the same time embrace the values that unite us. 14 15 Last June, the President appointed a seven 16 member Advisory Board to help meet the goals and objectives of the initiative. I was quite honored 17 that the President chose me as the chair of this 18 19 distinguished advisory board. 20 Let me just quickly recognize each member of the Board. 21 22 To my right is Governor Thomas Kean, the

23 President of Drew University, former Governor of the State of New Jersey.

To my left is Madame Linda Chavez

Thompson, the Executive Vice President of the AF of L
CIO.

Across from me is the Reverend Susan Johnson Cook of the Faith Fellowship Church in the Bronx, New York.

And next to her is Robert Thomas, the Executive Vice President of Republic Industries.

And next to him is Ms. Angela Oh, distinguished member of the Los Angeles Bar and an activist in the Los Angeles community.

Unfortunately Governor William Winter was deeply disappointed that he could not join us today. This is the first meeting that he's missed in the entire year, and we miss him a great deal. Well, provide him, of course, with a transcript of today's proceedings so that he will know just what we have been discussing.

Today's meeting will focus on the issue of race, crime, and the administration of justice. As we work to build one America, we know that this topic must be addressed if we're to be successful.

The issue of race and the administration of justice is one of the most difficult and, at the

same time, most pressing issues that we face. By raising this topic today, we hope to clarify some of the basic facts about the problem and understand better the varying perceptions of the criminal justice system.

By the end of the meeting today, we will have learned more about how communities around the country have always worked to improve race relations between communities of color and law enforcement and insure that the criminal justice system treats people from different races fairly.

The meeting today is meant to be a catalyst for additional study and dialogue in this are. We know that we will not be able to address all of the issues on the topic in one morning. This morning we will lay a foundation for the public to engage in discussions concerning these issues.

We welcome and encourage anyone to submit additional comments and papers on these topics after the meeting.

Another piece of the foundation will come from the President's Initiative on Race that will sponsor two projects to advance the study of race in America. The first one involves a national research

conference to be held this fall, October 15th and 16th here in Washington, D.C., and this conference will be organized and convened by the National Research Council.

The second is a fact book explaining social and economic data that represent or reflect trends in connection with race.

These projects will be sponsored in conjunction with the National Research Council and the White House Council of Economic Advisors. These projects will help develop our understanding of the issues related to race and racial change.

Before we begin today's round table discussion, I would like to thank the George Washington University and its President, Dr. Stephen Trachtenberg, for allowing us to hold our meeting here on this campus today. I'm delighted and honored to present Dr. Trachtenberg, the President of George Washington University, who will make some welcoming remarks to us.

Dr. Trachtenberg.

(Applause.)

DR. TRACHTENBERG: Thank you very much, Dr. Franklin.

I'm always pleased to see you here at George Washington University, and it's a pleasure, of course, to welcome others, Congressman Conyers, Mr. Stone, members of the President's Initiative on Race Advisory Board for today's meeting.

Just two days ago George Washington University held its 177th commencement ceremony on the ellipse behind the White House. It was at that very location, Dr. Franklin, you will recall, four years ago we awarded you the Doctor of Humane Letters degree, making you an alumnus of this institution.

On that occasion, Dr. Franklin challenged the George Washington University graduates to engage in the kind of activism that would make their constructive presence felt. He further urged them to resolve to work for the realization of the kind of world in which they would wish to live so that their personal success would become part of a better life for all peoples everywhere.

How fortunate our students were to hear that message and how fortunate for all of us that John Hope Franklin is demonstrating his own commitment by chairing this effort on behalf of our nation.

This past November I had the honor of

welcoming to George Washington University the participants in the first ever White House Conference on Hate Crimes. The topic was certainly not pleasant, nor easy, and yet the courage and passion of our participants and the panelists to give voice to the possibility that hate crimes might be erased from our nation's landscape was heartening.

Their effort were demonstrative of the challenge that Dr. Franklin offered our graduates and reason to hope the challenge will be met. May your work here at George Washington University be fruitful in furthering President Clinton's challenge to all of us to become one America in the 21st Century by respecting each other's distinctive differences, while embracing the values that unite us.

My best wishes to you all. I hope you have a wonderful meeting, and we're delighted to have this opportunity to offer our hospitality. Please enjoy yourselves while you're here and plan to come back to George Washington University again and again in the future.

Thank you very much.

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: Thank you.

24 | (Applause.)

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: The Honorable John Conyers from the 14th District of the State of Michigan in the House of Representatives was to join us and was to make some remarks at this time. Congressman Conyers was flying into the city just a few minutes ago when his plane was diverted from the National Airport to Dulles.

(Laughter.)

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: And he has extended his regrets that he will be unable to be here this morning, and it is our great misfortune. As the Ranking Democratic member of the House Judiciary Committee, he has long been interested in the problems which we are discussing today, and it is our great misfortune that he will be unable to be with us this morning.

To inform us of some of the facts on the topic of crime, race, and the administration of justice is Christopher Stone, the Director and President of the Vera Institute of Justice in New York City.

The Vera Institute of Justice is one of the leading centers for research and study on the issue of race and crime. It is particularly well known for its work in developing innovative programs
to facilitate fairness and equal treatment under the
law.

Dr. Stone has been the Director of the Vera Institute for four years. Even before that, he was interested in the subject which we are addressing today, and we are delighted that he's here, and we are looking forward to your comments, Mr. Stone.

Please welcome him.

(Applause.)

MR. STONE: Thank you, Dr. Franklin.

I've been asked to talk about what we know about race, crime, and the administration of justice. Of course, we know about these things in many ways. We know about them through study. We also know about them through our experience and our emotions. I am speaking this morning simply on how we know them in one way, that is, through some of the research and data on it, not because that's a more important way to know it, but because it's important in studying this field to understand it every way we can.

What do we know in that way about race, crime, and the administration of justice?

At the most general level, we know that

many people of color, Native Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, black Americans, do not trust the justice system. A study of Hispanic texts in the mid-1980s found that less than 30 percent thought that job performance of their police could even be rated as good.

In a 1995 Gallup poll, more than half of black Americans said that the justice system was biased against them. Moreover, two-thirds of black Americans in that same Gallup poll said that police racism against blacks is common across the country, and a majority of white Americans, 52 percent, agreed with them.

Social scientists usually explain this broad distrust in two ways: historical experience and present day practice.

The historical experience with the justice system among Native Americans, Asian immigrants, black Americans, Hispanic Americans is more than enough to provoke distrust, but is it being reinforced by current practice? How does the pattern of crime and victimization keep us from living as one America? How do stereotypes work to cause people of some races and ethnic groups to be unfairly suspected of crime? How

and when does the justice system itself treat defendants and offenders differently on the basis of race or ethnicity? Does a lack of diversity in the justice system itself add to the distrust?

Social science research has shed some light on each of these concerns, but our empirical knowledge is uneven. We know a lot about some of these issues, but there are great gaps in what we know through research.

We know much less about discrimination in judicial decisions regarding Asian American defendants, for example, than we do about black and white disparities, and we know much more about reported index crimes, homicide, robbery, rape, burglary, aggravated assault, larceny, auto theft and arson, than we do about other criminal conduct.

The lack of data and good research on the experience of Asian Americans and Native Americans, in particular, is a problem that the Advisory Board might want to address.

Let us begin with the pattern of crime victimization. The basic pattern here is that whites generally have the lowest victimization rates, followed by Asians, followed by Native Americans, then

Hispanics, then blacks, but the differences are dramatic.

In 1995, for example, there were 5.1 homicide victims per 100,000 non-Hispanic white males in this country. The rate for Asian American males was more than one and a half times higher, at 8.3 per 100,000.

The rate for Native American males was 18, more than three times the white rate. The rate for Hispanics was 25.1, almost five times the white rate, and the rate for black Americans was 57.6, more than ten times the rate for whites.

This pattern changes somewhat for different crimes. For more common violent crimes, such as robbery, the relative positions of the groups is the same, but the differences are not as great.

For household crimes, such a burglary, Hispanics report the highest rates of victimization in the annual victimization surveys conducted by the Census Bureau for the Justice Department.

Why the differences? The crudest analyses focus on the offenders themselves. Most crime is intra-racial. That means that it is committed by people of the same group against each other. More

than 80 percent of homicides where we know the race of the killer are either white on white or black on black.

Research among Vietnamese and Chinese in California has also shown that most crime in these groups is intra-racial.

Does this mean that groups with high victimization rates also have high offending rates?

Yes, but with three crucial caveats.

First, it is crucial to remember that most crime is committed by whites. Their offending rates may be lower, but there are so many of them that they still manage to commit most of the crime.

Second, the changes that a young adult has ever committed a violent offense is roughly equal across race. What scientists call the ever prevalence rate, the rate at which a person of any race has ever once in their life committed a serious violent offense against another person, is the came across races.

The difference in the rates for the different groups is a function of the greater frequency and persistence over time among individuals in some groups as opposed to those in others. A very important point in trying to debunk notions that

there's good and bad inherent in the individuals involved.

Third, the most sophisticated analyses today focus on neighborhoods, and they show us that the differences in victimization and offending rates between the groups may have more to do with neighborhood and community conditions than with race itself.

Where people live in neighborhoods of concentrated disadvantaged, victimization and offending rates are high. When researchers compare similar neighborhoods across different races, the racial differences seem to disappear. The problem is that for the most disadvantaged urban communities we can't find white communities to make the comparison. That seems to be the reason that crime falls so heavily on some groups.

Most people of all races and ethnic groups are never convicted of a crime, but stereotypes can work to brand all members of some groups with suspicion. These stereotypes may have their roots in past biases, but they can also be reinforced in the present day, for example, through broadcast news and newspaper reports.

One social scientist, for example, finds that Asians are over identified in California press accounts with Asian gangs. A team of researchers at UCLA has found that blacks and Hispanics are over represented in TV news depictions of violent crime, while whites are over represented in stories involving nonviolent crime.

These stereotypes are bad enough in the culture at large, but they work their way into law enforcement through the use of criminal profiles, putting an undue burden on innocent members of these groups.

A particularly clear example of this phenomenon is found in a study of the Maryland State Troopers, not far from here, and the searches they made of motorists on Interstate Highway 95 in 1995. On this particular stretch of highway motorists were found to be speeding the same regardless of race. Black motorists, for example, constituted 17 percent of the motorists and 17.5 percent of the speeders.

But black motorists were the subject of 409 of the 533 searches made by the police after a stop looking for contraband. Why were black motorists searched so often?

The police explain that blacks are more likely to be carrying contraband, and the statistics show this to be true. The police found contraband in 33 percent of the searches of black motorists and in 22 percent of the searches of white motorists.

But the mischief in this practice is quickly exposed. Blacks had a 50 percent higher chance of being found with contraband, but were searched more than 400 percent more often. The result is that 274 innocent black motors were searched, while only 76 innocent white motorists were searched.

The profiles apparently used by the Maryland State Troopers makes 17 percent of the motorists pay 76 percent of the price of this law enforcement strategy solely because of race.

The combination of higher rates of crime and higher levels of police attention produce disproportionate numbers of arrests among some groups. Arrest rates for violent crimes among Asian Americans are about half of that among white Americans. Rates for Native Americans are about one and a half times that for whites, and rates for blacks are about five times that for whites.

Again, as with crime, the arrest rate for

whites may be low, but there are so many whites that they account for 55 percent of all arrests for violent crime in the United States.

But then what happens? Here is the problem that has attracted more research than any other area under discussion today. Black Americans account for less than half of the arrests for violent crimes, but they account for just over half of the convictions and approximately 60 percent of the prison admissions.

At the beginning of this decade, the chance that a black male born in the United States would go to prison in his lifetime was more than 28.5 percent, more than one in four, not reform school, not a few days or weeks in jail, but state or federal prison following conviction for a felony and a sentence of more than one year, 28.5 percent.

The corresponding chance for an Hispanic male was 176 percent and for a white male 4.4 percent.

A similar pattern of disproportionate representation of black and Hispanic Americans appears in juvenile detention facilities, where in 1994 43 percent of juveniles were black, 19 percent were Hispanic, and 35 percent were white.

These are national figures, but the reality in many individual juvenile and adult institutions is even more stark as geography and classification systems increase the segregation and concentration of minority inmates.

How has this happened? Is this simply the result of fair minded prosecutors and courts applying the law to disproportionate arrests, or is there bias at work at these later stages of the justice process?

Researchers have looked carefully for evidence of bias, and they reach different conclusions. Some of the disparity we see when we visit these institutions is clearly explained by differences in arrest charges, and much more is explained by differences in the prior record of those convicted.

There is no evidence of disparity that stretches across the adult's justice system as a whole when we consider index crimes, not drug crimes, but studies of individual jurisdictions and specific parts of the court process do find some evidence of race bias in some significant number of cases.

Staying local with the data and the research seems to produce more interesting and

different findings from place to place. The most we can say is that when crime type and prior record are taken into account, black defendants in some jurisdictions are more likely to receive prison sentences than are white defendants.

In addition, there is some evidence that race influences detention and placement decisions in juvenile justice processing. The problems we encounter in this research are illustrated, however, in a recent study of sentencing disparity of Native Americans in Arizona.

After accounting for prior felony records and other factors, American Indians were found to receive longer sentences than whites only, of the seven crimes studied, only for robbery and burglary, while whites received significantly longer sentences for homicide than did American Indians.

Of course, both of these findings could be evidence of bias. The longer sentences could be evidence of harsher treatment of Native American offenders for crimes against strangers, while the lower sentences for homicide could be evidence that the courts do not treat seriously offenses among acquaintances within this population.

Across race and ethnic groups concerns about both of these kinds of bias are regularly voiced: under enforcement of laws within a minority community, over punishment when that community is seen as a threat to the majority.

These two kinds of bias, however, can balance each other out in simple statistical analysis.

It is captured, this under and over enforcement problem, is captured most famously in the research on the death penalty, showing that black offenders found guilty of murdering white victims are at the highest risk for the death penalty, while offenders of any race found guilty of murdering black victims are least likely to receive the death penalty.

Finally, in considering the work of the justice system itself, the special case of drug offenses needs to be considered separately. Asian American youth report very low drug use compared with all the other groups. Black youth consistently report lower rates of drug use than whites. Hispanic youth report more than black, but less than whites.

Yet police activity, new criminal legislation, special courts, and longer sentences were all brought to bear in the late 1980s against the use

and sale of drugs, particularly crack cocaine.

Whatever one believes about the rationality of the decision to create special, harsher penalties for crack cocaine, the concentration of these sentences on black defendants is striking. For example, of the drug defendants sentenced in the United States District Courts during the 1995 federal fiscal year for powdered cocaine, 35 percent of those sentenced for powdered cocaine were black, 37 percent were Hispanic, 21 percent were white.

Of those sentenced for crack cocaine, in contrast, 86 percent were black, nine percent were Hispanic, and less than five percent were white.

As striking as these statistics can be, the most powerful reminder of bias in these stages of the justice system sometimes comes from qualitative, not quantitative research. That's because bias in the system is most often found in local practices rather than aggregate statistics.

For example, a study in Washington State in the last 1980s where researchers found statistically that nonwhites were sentenced to prison at higher rates in counties with large minority populations. In follow-up interviews in that study,

justice officials and community leaders told the researchers directly that the public in their counties were concerned with the dangerousness, their word, of these minorities and admitted using race as a code for a culture that to them signified criminality.

If these biases were eliminated from the justice system itself, would we still have a problem? If the police abandoned the use of offensive stereotypes and profiles, if the remnants of institutional bias were driven from the courts, would the justice system deserve and win respect across lines of race and ethnicity, or is the sheer volume of black and Hispanic prisoners in America a problem in its own right?

There is little empirical evidence on that question, but it is a question worth considering for respect for the justice system can be won or lost not just by its decisions, but in who is making them.

There has been much progress in some parts of the justice system, but there is signs that in some parts of the justice system the effort to expand diversity is slowing. A recent study of hiring of police executives, for example, in Florida commissioned by the National Institute of Justice

concluded that the number of minority law enforcement executives has declined in recent years after earlier gain. A large percentage of minority offices remain in entry level positions throughout their careers, and the outlook for any change, the researchers concluded, is bleak, again, their word.

If there is a strong reason for optimism among all these data, it is in the steady decline in crime over the last several years. Let me focus here on the often neglected, yet dramatic decline in domestic homicide where we again find a stark difference between black and white.

Twenty years ago white men were rarely victims of domestic homicide, about one victim per 100,000 males age 20 to 44. White women were victim at about twice that rate.

Both rates have declined modestly over these two decades, over the last two decades, and now the rates are about a little less than two-thirds down for men and about half or less than half down for women, but very small -- still higher for women than for men.

Rates for black victims of domestic homicide were roughly seven times higher 20 years ago,

and they have plummeted since. The rate for black male victims has dropped from more than 16 per 100,000 to less than three homicides per 100,000 a year ago, and for black women the rate has fallen from more than 12 to less than five.

Not only are these drops dramatic, but they also involve a switch of the relationship. Twenty years ago more black males were killed in domestic homicides than black females. That relationship is now reversed, though the gap is much smaller than it is for white victims.

These declines leave us with two important lessons. First, they remind us again of the power of neighborhood disadvantage for as stark as the black-white differences are, it seems, based on a study in Atlanta, they seem to disappear when you control for housing density of extreme poverty.

Second, they remind us of the power these communities have to heal themselves with help. There are certainly some aspects of the drop in crime in this country that police can claim as their accomplishment, and there's lots of drop to go around. But this drop is particularly interesting. It occurred steadily over 20 years, well beyond the

length of any government initiative or anybody's term in office.

It is dramatic. It is one directional, and it brings the disparity between black and white far, far down. There's evidence here of real cultural change, of people changing the conditions and experiences of their lives.

In some these declines hold out the promise of a day when race will no longer be a proxy for suspicion and crime no longer a proxy for concentrated community disadvantage.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: I'm certain that I speak for all of you when I say thank you, Mr. Stone, for that highly informative and very thoughtful analysis and sometimes chilling conclusions or observations that go to the heart of the problem. We're deeply grateful to you for your presentation. Thank you very much.

Now we're extremely pleased to welcome to the platform the Attorney General, Janet Reno, who is joining us today.

And on March 12th, 1933 (sic), she was

sworn in as the Attorney General of the United States, the 78th Attorney General, and she in that position is the top law enforcement official of the United States, oversees some 92,000 employees.

I'm particularly delighted to welcome the Attorney General for she has given evidence of a deep and abiding interest in the problem that we're discussing today.

Thank you, Attorney General.

(Applause.)

attorney General Reno: Thank you so very much, Dr. Franklin, and thank you for that warm welcome, but don't clap. We've got too much to do on the area that we're discussing today to take any satisfaction.

I'm so pleased to be here to participate in this forum. The work that you are doing by bringing Americans together to discuss the issues that both unite and divide us is essential if we're going to move forward as one America in the next century.

The key to our effort will be building trust and an effective partnership between minority communities and law enforcement, and this is one of the most significant advances we can make in creating

safe neighborhoods and insuring that all people are equal in the criminal justice system.

It is unfortunately true that there is a great, great gulf in how the criminal justice system is viewed by whites and minorities. Many in minority communities fear and distrust police officers and question the fairness of our courts and prosecutors. Some of this lack of trust grows out of real experiences of many minorities with law enforcement officers.

Others have witnessed the negative effects on our urban centers of having such a high percentage of African American men under the supervision of the criminal justice system. In many immigrant communities people come from countries where there was a justifiable fear of government authorities.

Added to that are the fears of undocumented aliens in reporting crime and dealing with law enforcement agencies.

The critical importance of addressing these issues cannot be underestimated. We have seen, and I have seen first hand, the dangers of mistrust, of pent up frustrations, and breakdown in community relations in places like Miami, in Los Angeles, and

St. Petersburg, and yet at the same time we must recognize that minorities are disproportionately the victims of crime, a fact that many people don't realize.

Nothing is more important to the quality of our lives and our children's lives than a safe environment. The quality of the school a child attends will matter less if she is not safe in getting there or while she is at school.

We must start by redoubling our efforts to insure that equal justice under law means the same thing in minority communities as it does in the larger community. The keystone to justice is the belief by the people that the legal system treats them fairly, that law enforcement officials are their protectors, that prosecutors bring cases based on evidence and the law, that juries decide without weighing race, and that judges sentence defendants based on the character of the crime of the individual, not the ethnic or racial group to which he or she belongs.

We must also make sure that those who cannot afford a lawyer know and belief that their lawyer representing them is equal to the lawyer representing the person who can afford a lawyer. We

must do more in terms of providing for indigent defense in this country.

(Applause.)

ATTORNEY GENERAL RENO: I think there are some points that must be made first.

First, it is wrong to assume that members of one race or ethnicity are more prone to criminal behavior than any other. That's simply not true. Reliance on such stereotypes is as wrong in law enforcement as it is in other endeavors.

This includes situations where law enforcement officers improperly use race to target individuals for a traffic stop, a pedestrian stop, or a request for consent to search in the absence of information about a specific suspect or other special characteristics.

Under President Clinton's 1994 Crime Act, the Justice Department now has the authority to bring what are called pattern and practice cases against law enforcement agencies that engage in such practices. Our Civil Rights Division is currently looking into allegations of discriminatory traffic stops in a number of jurisdictions.

Secondly, the existing disparity in

sentencing for crack and powdered cocaine also contributes to the sense of unfairness and bias in the criminal justice system.

In addition, the crack powder disparity has not led to the most effective use of law enforcement resources. We should be focusing our enforcement efforts on mid and high level drug traffickers rather than low level drug offenders.

We believe that the cocaine penalty structure should be revised to reduce this disparity. This will target our resources more effectively and in a manner that does not seem to fall more harshly on minority communities than others.

(Applause.)

many points throughout the criminal justice system where discretion plays a role, from the investigation stage to the determination as to whether you treat a child as an adult or as a juvenile, to arrest, to the charging stage, to sentencing. Race neutral policies at all of these states are essential to sound and credible law enforcement and the fair administration of justice.

It is incumbent on law enforcement to

critically review our efforts to insure that stereotypes and prejudice, whether conscious or unconscious, do not creep into the work we do. All citizens must respect the law, but the law must also respect all of our citizens.

And in that connection, I think the first step that every agency in the criminal justice system must take is how can we meet our obligations under the ethical rules in which we operate to try cases in the court, to conduct appropriate investigations without discussing them in headlines. But how can we do that and also be as open as possible about the process so that people can have confidence in the process?

There are privacy issues at work that must be dealt with, but I came from a community which had as much open government as any community I know, and it was very helpful at the conclusion of a matter to be able to sit down with someone and explain why a case was handled in a certain way.

It was very rewarding to be able to inquest a case involving a police shooting in which the court determined that there was insufficient evidence to charge. When the community could sit in that courtroom and see from the gavel to the gavel

just what had transpired, they had far greater confidence in the system.

With privacy issues at stake, we must look to how we balance this effort, and one of the efforts that can best be undertaken by all of us in law enforcement is to do as much outreach as possible, to explain in general concepts the issues that we face, what is necessary in terms of prosecuting a case, what is necessary to file a case in federal court, what is necessary to file a case in state court.

We must involve our communities, all of our communities in the process of the criminal justice system so that they feel they have an ownership interest in it and that it is not some alien institution over which they have no control.

This will require all of us to engage is what we are now pursuing in the Justice Department, which is a self-assessment, to make sure that what we do in terms of charging, what we do in terms of process is fair and does not have any unsuspecting discriminatory feature involved in it.

We must make sure that in our hiring and recruiting and promotion processes for the criminal justice system that we do it the right way and that we

give everyone equal opportunity.

One of the issues that we must focus on is how we build the trust throughout the criminal justice system. I heard the last part of Dr. Stone's comments, and he made a very powerful point about where we have come with respect to domestic violence.

I have a certain insight into that. In 1978 we applied for a domestic violence intervention grant through LEAA. We had looked at the figures in Miami, and 40 percent of the homicides over the previous 20 years had been related to domestic violence.

We developed a program. It was named one of the best in the country. The state wouldn't take it over because they said that's not what a prosecutor should be doing. So we got the county to take it over.

In those days, it was hard to get prosecutors in the criminal justice system to even focus on domestic violence cases. It was harder to get police and judges to focus on domestic violence cases, but if you keep trying and you keep involving the whole community, if you explain to that person who says, "I don't want to prosecute," and explain to

everyone and hold every case important, you begin to make a difference.

And it requires a dedication and a commitment of everyone in the criminal justice system, not just to prosecute and gain a conviction, not just to defend and get your client off, but to do problem solving so that when I left Miami in 1993, we had a domestic violence court. We had a one stop shopping facility so that the person wouldn't be taken from one place to another to deal with the problem.

We have got to make sure that our problem solving reaches across the communities because one of my great pleasures was then to participate in the passage of the 1994 Crime Act that provided monies for the violence against women effort, and to see the steps that are being taken across America now, the message is: let's problem solve, and we can, though sometimes slowly, frustratingly slowly, make a difference.

We can see the difference beginning to appear with respect to community policing, and I'd like to take the steps of the whole criminal justice system to show how important each step is.

There is prevention first, and I'll come

back to that because that's my favorite subject, but then there is intervention, and intervention is key.

Whenever I go to a community, I try to talk to young people who have been in trouble or who are in trouble. I went to a detention facility this past year in Madison, Wisconsin. Again and again young people say, "The officer just needed to know how to talk to me. He didn't know how to talk to me. He doesn't know how to talk to a younger person. He puts me down. He makes me feel about this high."

An officer with a tone of voice, a manner, an attitude that's right can make an extraordinary difference, and it is so important that we train our officers to relate to young people, to relate to minorities, to understand the differences, and to reach out and be a mentor.

It is so exciting to see the community policing program at work, and I think it is one of the most hopeful developments in building trust and improving law enforcement services in minority communities.

With community policing we have police officers who are committed to serving the community, who reach out to neighbors and involve them in

identifying problems in the community and who work together to achieve solutions.

It is wonderful to stand in the Great Hall of the Department of Justice and have two young men who were Hispanic look up at two African American community police officers and tell the President of the United States that, "These guys, Mr. President, kept me out of bad trouble."

And just to see how they related to each other, you understand how exciting it can be, and it's happening across the country, but it's also bringing the elderly woman out. Community policing in a neighborhood is making her feel safe enough for the first time to go down to the community center and give everybody a piece of her mind, and she's doing that.

ATTORNEY GENERAL RENO: She would not walk out from behind her door because she was afraid, and now she is the glue that is bringing that community together.

(Laughter.)

In cities across the country, police departments are increasing their presence, having police officers move into the neighborhoods they patrol and encouraging officers to organize and

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participate in community meetings and activities.

By breaking down suspicions and building up trust, the neighborhood police officer is once again known as a peacemaker and a problem solver without relinquishing his or her enforcement responsibilities.

But I suggest to you that there is a danger because as we bring things into the community and you get somebody who's known in the community, you want to make sure that there are checks and balances, and all of those of us who are involved in policing and development of policing policy, I think, are taking great encouragement in the work being done by Jeremy Travis and the National Institute of Justice and the COPS Program, to understand how we can professionalize and enhance the ability of police officers to work in the community while at the same time retaining the highest standards of integrity possible.

In this connection, one of the things that we can do that is so exciting is to develop more effective conflict resolution, programs for every community police officer, for every teacher, for every student across this country.

numerous schools in this community, focusing on conflict resolution and what is being done. Bell Multicultural High School is one classic example of so many people together learning how to talk to each other, learning how to listen, learning how to problem solve, and it is exciting to hear the students' feedback of what it is doing for them to reach across cultures, to reach across race to better understand.

One of the things clearly we must do is listen to our young people. They are so wise. They have so many good ideas, and they want so to be heard.

One of the groups that can do an awful lot along those lines is a group that is very near and dear to my heart, and that is the Community Relations Service. I have watched the Community Relations Service go into a community before problems started and keep them from starting. I have watched them ease it afterwards.

I think we need to enhance their capacity in every way possible and return them to at least the strength that they were at when I came into office.

One of the keys, however, in all that we undertake, we have thought about victims. We have got

to focus on victims in the criminal justice system. In the development of conflict resolution initiatives, one of the keys is to first find the victim because what they are telling us, particularly with respect to young people is that that victim is going to be the perpetrator ten days from now out of vengeance and anger.

Let's get to them quickly and make a difference. Let's get to that victim or the child who watches domestic violence in their home and interrupt that cycle of violence before he observes violence and comes to accept it as a way of life, but let's make sure we make these services available across the community.

And that leads us to something that is an opportunity that we have to truly make a difference. We developed a neighborhood intervention program around a housing project that had a high crime rate. We had a community friendly police officer, a public health nurse, and a youth counselor.

The neighbors were mad at the judge because he kept giving these kids a slap on the wrist, and they wanted to tell the judge what they thought of it, but the court was about 30 miles away.

The police officer got them on the bus, took them up to the court, and they gave the court a piece of their mind.

They weren't punitive. What they were saying was, "We know this kid. We can give you good advice. We care about this kid. We don't want him thrown away, but we don't want him to think that he can push us down and give us trouble and get away with it."

And watching that whole process in action made me realize how alien courts can sometimes seem to minorities. There are so many of us that know all of the judges. There are so many of us that don't even know the name of any of the judges, and it is so important that we bring the courts back to the people, whether it be in Brooklyn, whether it be in Portland. Community justice is catching on and will be a vital force in giving everyone, minorities across this country, a feeling that they have a voice in their justice system.

But if we build a justice system, we've got to make sure that sentencing makes sense and that sentencing involves problem solving, as well as punishment.

We have seen the establishment of drug courts focused on nonviolent first offenders charged with possession of a small amount of drugs. Properly done, these courts can be magnificent forces for good, operating on a carrot and stick approach that says, "You can go for treatment and we're going to work with you and we're going to do job training and placement with you and we'll give you support and after-care and follow up, or you're going to face a more certain punishment each time you come back having tested positive."

That system is working if you have understanding people who can make a difference in that system.

But then you come to the stiffer sentence. It has always been my experience that the experts say that the best sentence for most offenders is a short, firm, certain sentence that let's people know we mean business.

But none of those sentences are going to work unless we have after-care as a follow-up, and this is particularly critical to the minority community. If you return a child at 16 from the juvenile detention facility where there's been a

wonderful program to the apartment over the open air drug market where he got into trouble in the first place, without providing after-care and follow-up and support, you are going to see the continued increase in the number of young, African American men who have been in custody at some time in their life.

We can reverse that if we focus on this issue and provide the support. One of the key areas that I think we must address is the whole problem of transitional housing. If he goes back to the apartment where everybody else is using crack, it's going to be very difficult for him.

He says, "Look. I want to go to college," and this is what one young man told me. "How am I going to get out of this? I'm 16 years old. I can take care of myself. Help me find someplace to go."

If we can develop transitional housing for some of these young people and make sure they have this opportunity, we're going to reverse this pattern very quickly.

We've also proposed a program of community prosecutors, prosecutors modeled on the successful program here at the U.S. Attorney's Office for the Fifth Precinct in D.C.

The mission is to interact more directly with people in the community. What are your problems? How can we solve them? How can we work together?

But you won't be successful unless we also bring into the picture community public defenders who have also got to have a problem solving attitude about them. Let's find out what caused the problem in the first place, and let's do something to solve it.

One area that requires immediate, important attention is the whole issue of tribal law enforcement and tribal justice in Indian Country. This year the President has asked Congress for 187 million in new funding for tribal law enforcement, courts, and various crime prevention programs.

We're working to tailor programs that respect tribal traditions. This has been one of the most neglected areas of the justice system. We are seeing an increase in drug use, in gangs, in gangs coming from Los Angeles and other places to impact our young Indian youth. We have got to step forward and assume our proper role in the trust position we hold as sovereign to sovereign.

These are some of the initiatives that we must undertake. I look forward to working with you,

Dr. Franklin, and all members of the Commission to do everything I can to continue to spread the word. We have so much to do. I have not covered everything that I would like to address, except to make one final pitch.

I would pick up the presentence investigation of a child that I had just had adjudicated guilty of armed robbery and see four points along the way where we could have intervened to have made a difference in that child's life.

The crack epidemic hit Miami, and the doctors took me to the public hospital to try to figure out what to do about crack involved infants and their mothers. The doctors taught me that 50 percent of all learned human response is learned in the first year of life, that the concept of reward and punishment and the conscience is developed during the first three years.

And I suddenly thought to myself: what good is all of the punishment going to mean 15 and 20 years from now if that child doesn't understand what punishment is all about? What good is educational opportunity going to mean if he doesn't have a foundation upon which to learn?

We have got to develop a coherent pattern of building blocks that we put in place and keep in place for our young who are at risk. Strong parenting, focus on domestic violence, child support enforcement, proper preventative medical care including prenatal care, proper edu-care in those first formative years, afternoon and evening programs to provide our children who are unsupervised proper, constructive, mentored supervision, truancy prevention programs that make a difference, conflict resolutions programs, school-to-work programs.

If we put those building blocks in place, we are going to see a turnaround in crime in this country on a long range basis. We are going to see a reduction in disparity in the criminal justice system, but we have got to start early and build carefully as we go along.

It is happening in this country. Lest people think that there are discouraging signs, what I see happening is the modern, professional police in so many instances are out at the forefront of designing programs that are making a difference in prevention.

With the work of this Commission, with the

work of so many people who are in this country, I think we can make a difference. We are on our way, but we can't be in any way idle. There is too much to do.

(Applause.)

Thank you very much, Attorney General Reno, for your very wonderful insight into the problems that we all confront.

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: Need I say more?

She's given evidence today of her own commitment to the solution to these problems, and we're deeply grateful to her for the time and attention she's giving to them, and we're deeply grateful, too, for her presence here this morning.

Now, it's my great pleasure to introduce Executive Director of the President's Initiative on Race, without whom the Advisory Board would be no more than a kind of dangling participle.

(Laughter.)

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: I'm delighted to present Judith Winston to this audience, who will in turn introduce the moderator and the panelists and explain how we'll be taking questions from the audience.

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1 MS. WINSTON: Thank you very much, Dr. 2 Franklin. 3 I do have the pleasure of introducing our 4 distinguished panelists and our moderator for today's round table discussion. 5 I'm going to start the 6 introduction on the far end. 7 Just left of Advisory Board member Linda Chavez Thompson is Zachary Carter, the U.S. Attorney 8 9 for the Eastern District of New York and former judge 10 for the Criminal Court for the City of New York. 11 Next to him is Michael Yamamoto, law 12 partner at Horikawa, Ono & Yamamoto, formerly a deputy 13 public defender in Los Angeles. Randall Kennedy is Professor at Harvard 14 15 University School of Law and author of Race, Crime and 16 the Law. I'm making these introductions very short 17 because we have a very interesting set of issues that 18 19 we need to cover, and I want to make sure that we get 20 to them. And next to Professor Kennedy is Maria 21 22 Jimenez, Director of the American Friends Service

Committee's Immigration Law Enforcement Monitoring

Project, which is involved in documenting abuses in

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the enforcement of immigration laws in Houston, Texas. 1 2 Next to Ms. Jimenez is William Bratton, President and Chief Operating Officer of the Cargo 3 4 Group and former New York City Police Commissioner. 5 Kim Taylor-Thompson is Associate Professor 6 of Clinical Law at New York University School of Law and former Director of the Public Defender Service of 7 the District of Columbia. 8 9 Sitting next to her is Robert Yazzie, 10 Chief Justice of the Navajo Nation. Chief Justice 11 Yazzie presides over all cases appealed to the Navajo 12 Nation Supreme Court. 13 On his left is William Wilbanks, Professor Criminal 14 of Justice at Florida International 15 University and author of The Myth of a Racist Criminal 16 Justice System. 17 Deborah Ramirez is professor Northeastern School of Law and a former Assistant U.S. 18 19 Attorney in Boston. 20 Seated next to her is Charles Ramsey, our own District of Columbia Chief of Police and creator 21 22 of the nationally acclaimed Chicago alternative 23 policing strategy.

Thank you all for joining us here today.

We look forward to your comments.

Before I introduce the moderator of today's round table discussion, Professor Charles Ogletree, I'm going to briefly describe the format for the round table.

Professor Ogletree will lead today's discussion by posing hypothetical situations and questions to our panelists that will allow them to examine some of the issues related to race, crime, and the administration of justice.

We will obtain audience input through your questions and comments written on the index cards provided to you when you checked in this morning. If you did not receive an index card and would like one or need assistance in phrase or providing your questions if index cards are not an appropriate method for you to od that, please do raise your hand and our staff will provide you with the assistance you need or the cards that you need.

Some of these questions will be addressed during the latter part of the round table discussion, and Professor Ogletree will indicate at some point during the round table discussion when we will be collecting the cards, and they will be brought to the

front for him to use.

Now, we are fortunate to have with us today Charles Ogletree, a distinguished professor on the faculty of Harvard University School of Law. He has written extensively on race in the criminal justice system, and he has moderated panel discussions very much like the one we will have here today on PBS, NBC, and CSPAN. He is frequently seen on television as an expert commentator on the issues that will be discussed this morning.

As we were planning this round table discussion, just about everyone that we spoke to indicated in very strong terms that there was one thing we needed to do, and that was to get Professor Ogletree to moderate this discussion.

So we are honored and delighted to have you here with us this morning, Professor Ogletree.

(Applause.)

MR. OGLETREE: Thank you very much and good morning.

The panelists have been sitting for a while. I'm going to ask them as I'm doing this overview if they can stand up for a minute and just stretch to get ready before we get started, to get

their energy back before we get going.

(Laughter.)

MR. OGLETREE: And you can stretch, too, if you'd like.

We are going to have a discussion where we're going to raise questions of these panelists to get a sense of the issues of race, crime, and the administration of justice.

We will not be able to talk about all of the issues that we'd like because of the limited time, and in fact, one of our panelists and a member of the Advisory Board have flights to catch, and so we're going to be moving rather quickly through a very ambitious agenda.

But we do want your participation. If you do have questions on these topics or other topics, please write them and bring them down. If I can have the staff members hold their hands up so they can tell you who's going to be collecting your cards, the people in the back and along the sides will collect your cards.

I will announce twice during the session that cards will be collected. You can pass them over to the end of your row from left to right, and they'll

pick them up and bring them down, and we will try to get as many of them answered as possible.

This Advisory Board has been working very hard since President Clinton announced its existence, I believe, on June 14th a year ago. They've traveled the country, collectively and individually, talking to literally thousands of citizens, experts, everyday citizens, professionals, about the one issue that seems to be pervasive in this society and has so many difficult aspects to it and seems to have so many irreconcilable differences.

There is no topic on the issue of race that's probably more volatile and controversial than the issue of crime and the administration of justice, and we have assembled a group of experts today to help us grapple with those difficult issues.

We're going to be talking about just a few of the most complicated and complex issues involving the administration of justice, including racial profiling as will be explained to you, issues of disparity and punishment in the criminal justice system, and importantly, issues of access to the justice system. Is it accessible to every individual regardless of race or ethnicity or gender or other

factors?

And finally, some concrete solutions: how do we go from identifying the complexity of the problem to identifying some rational solutions to help this Advisory Board pursue its great mission?

And we hope that you will join us in constructing those questions and helping to frame that agenda.

Professor Kennedy, let me start with you. There is a young, Asian American male who stops in his car in Southern California. It doesn't appear that he's speeding. It doesn't appear that he has violated any law, but he's stopped in his car, and the first impression he has when he's stopped by police officers is that something's wrong. He thinks that something is wrong.

Is he right to have the perception that his ethnicity, his race may have something to do with him being stopped?

MR. KENNEDY: In many jurisdictions, he would have a basis for thinking that his race has something to do with it. Certainly in -- I don't know about with respect to the Asian American person that you've hypothesized. If the person were of apparent

Mexican ancestry in the Southwest and he was stopped by border patrol officials, certainly he would have a good reason to think that his apparent Mexican ancestry had something to do with him being stopped, or if he were a black American, especially a black American man between the age of 18 and 40, and he was being stopped, he would have a good reason to think that race had something to do with the stop, yes.

MR. OGLETREE: Is something wrong with that?

MR. KENNEDY: Yes. I think that if the police officer is taking -- if race, if the police officer's perception of the person's race is one of the things leading to the stop or the increased suspicion, that is a racial discrimination, and by and large, we believe that public officials particularly should not be taking race into account unless there's an extraordinary justification for doing so.

Throughout the United States police officials at the state level and at the federal level on a routine basis take race into account as a negative signal of an increased risk of criminal misdoing, and I think that's a profoundly misguided policy.

L	MR. OGLETREE: Commissioner Bratton, I
2	doubt that there are many police officers who would
3	just say, "I stopped this person because they're Asian
1	American," or because they're Hispanic or because
5	they're African American. Police officers aren't
5	stopping people because of their race, are they?
7	MR BRATTON: Unfortunately that's the

MR. BRATTON: Unfortunately that's the reality in some instances. It shouldn't be, but that is the reality.

MR. OGLETREE: Does that ever come up on a police report? "I stopped them because they were black." "I stopped them because they were Asian American," or is it presented in some other way?

MR. BRATTON: I would be very surprised to see it represented in that way or that that was one of the indicators that drew the attention of the officer to precipitate the stop, but once again, is it a reality in certain departments in this country? It certainly is.

MR. OGLETREE: Why?

MR. BRATTON: I think it's a manifestation of the issues that we're here all discussing, the idea that there is great pressure to deal with the issues of particular drugs in this country, and while at this

particular time there is a focus on police action very similar to the parallel, I would argue, to -- you cannot separate the two -- the issue of "testilying" where in recent years we have come to understand and appreciate that that is a fact of life in our society, in our policing, in our criminal justice system; that as we look at this issue the focus over the last several months as this has boiled to the surface has been on police action.

But similar to "testilying," we need to look beyond just the police into the rest of the system, prosecutors and judges, who are in positions to review the actions of the police and oftentimes don't question enough what was the rationale for the stop.

MR. OGLETREE: Ms. Jimenez, in your working looking at issues of immigration, do you find these issues of disparity in police stops, particularly of Hispanic youth?

MS. JIMENEZ: Oh, that's definite. It starts from even further than described earlier. It starts with national policy makers who define the undocumented immigrant as a Spanish speaking immigrant who crosses the southern border. Studies indicate

that only four out of ten undocumented people in the United States cross the southern border. Yet 85 percent of the resources to stop it are in these communities.

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And thus, the Mexican origin population is selectively singled out as being an -- infringing, transgressing immigration law, and so many police officers believe wrongly that it is their duty to question and to participate in enforcing immigration laws, and current law permits local law enforcement to be designated as deputies of immigration provider enforcement training and other specifications, but nonetheless, we've had examples recently like in Chandler, Arizona, where the Chandler Police Department simply stop anyone that looked Mexican, whether U.S. citizen or not.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Wilbanks, is this --

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: I was wondering if this policeman could give any, could offer any plausible defense that the Asian American really didn't have a green card if he was working or the Hispanic was an undocumented alien or that the African American was, indeed, in possession of drugs, would

the officer have any satisfactory defense as a result 1 2 of his having discovered these transgressions? 3 Commissioner Bratton? MR. OGLETREE: 4 MR. BRATTON: If he's referencing the 5 immigration laws, I just don't have any working 6 familiarity with the immigration laws. I under the 7 border police, border patrol immigration officials have very significant --8 MR. OGLETREE: What is the --10 MR. BRATTON: powers that may be 11 possibly different than what we would have in, say, 12 New York City. 13 MR. OGLETREE: Professor Kennedy. MR. KENNEDY: Here's the way in which it 14 15 would come up. Let's imagine that a young man is 16 flying from Los Angeles to Kansas City, Missouri. drug enforcement agent meets him at the airport and 17 says, "I'd like to ask you a few questions, and I'd 18 19 like to take a look in your bags." The agent says, 20 "The reason why I'm stopping you is because you are a 21 man, because you're between the ages of 18 and 40, 22 because you paid for your ticket in cash, because you

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The courts allow the police officer to

seem to be nervous, and because you're black."

take blackness into account as a negative signal, and it is the case that police officers openly say that, and furthermore, it's the case that our officials permit that. That is police with respect to the border patrol. That is police with respect to the Drug Enforcement Agency, and our courts allow it.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Ramsey, let me ask you about that. How does that affect a police department if they know they can use race? And are you worried about it being used, as Professor Kennedy has suggested, maybe improperly?

CHIEF RAMSEY: Well, certainly we're concerned about it being used improperly. The example that was just cited for a drug courier profile is certainly one that is used quite often in most jurisdictions, especially if you're talking about a city that is known to be a point where drugs are being brought in and then dispersed throughout that particular region.

Chicago, the jurisdiction I came from, had a reputation, and there were a lot of drug agents assigned to O'Hare as a result of that, but it extends beyond those kinds of things and is really based on some kind of profile that is established as a result

of past experience, arrests of individuals, intelligence information, and so forth when you start talking about the day-to-day stops that are made on the street.

Those are not so much done as a result of a profile because you're talking about police officers that have not been trained in any of these particular matters to even know what that profile is. That's where you start to run into problems of stereotyping and people making stops solely on the basis of race or what they believe to be behavior that could be criminal in nature.

So that opens the door to the issues that we're talking about here where you have a lot of abuses.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Wilbanks, are police officers making up this or aren't these court approved practices? Is there any racism or discrimination here when the court says, "Give us the 13 factors that create a profile and if you follow them, it's legal"?

MR. WILBANKS: Yeah, I think the intent of the police is to be more efficient. There is clearly a variation by age, sex, and race in offending, and if

you're going to stop somebody, you're more efficient if you stop somebody who's a high risk offender from somebody who's a low.

The question is: being suspicious and what you do are two different things. You cannot help but be suspicious of males or females, blacks or whites or Arabs or any other group. The question is: what do you do?

I think what we've not done in police agencies is distinguish between suspicion, which I think is legitimate, and what do you do. If you see somebody walk up behind you and you turn around, as Jesse Jackson said, and you say, "Oh, my God, they're white. I'm relieved," that's legitimate. The question is: what do you do about it?

You can turn around and say, "Get the hell away from me." Do you pull a gun and shoot them?

MR. OGLETREE: Well, what do you want

police to do though? Suspicion should --

MR. WILBANKS: I want police administrators to help train officers that it is rational, it is logical to suspect one person over another. The question is what do you do. What is legal?

I think the essence of the problem is not their seeking efficiency. I think it's the financial incentive.

If you look at what's happening in I-95 in Florida and throughout the country; Louisiana, you've been reading about what's happening in Louisiana. The reason is you're allowed to keep the drug money that you seize.

What would you do if you were a cop and you could keep the drug money you seize and you feel like one guy that you stop has a 50 percent chance of having drugs and the other is an elderly white female and they have a one percent chance?

What you would do is you would stop the guy with a 50 percent chance you're going to make more money. What we need to do is take away the financial incentive in Louisiana, which gives 20 percent to the judges, 20 percent to the court, and 20 percent to the police.

You're asking them to discriminate, but police don't want to be involved in this. They, "Oh, I don't want to deal with this. I don't want to talk about this. I'm sure that happens."

It's logical that people make these kind

of suspicions. The question is we need to train police. What do you do? When do you stop? That's the issue, not should I be suspicious.

Everybody has got differences. If you go to Israel and you're Arab, they're going to take a second look at you. Now, is that legitimate? If it is, then what do you do about it? Do you arrest everybody who's Arab? Do you stop them?

That's the issue. We need to separate suspicion and what do you do about it.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Kim Taylor-Thompson.

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: What makes this so logical is my question. We're talking about these profiles, drug courier profiles as though they are legitimate objective criteria that give us some indication of someone who is going to be bringing drugs.

If we take a look at these drug courier profiles, they cover such a wide range of factors that they really make no sense. If you're the first off a plane, you might be someone who's considered a drug courier. If you're the last off a plane, you might be considered someone who's a drug courier. If you are

leaving a city like Chicago or you're flying to a city like Chicago, you might be considered a drug courier.

If you're using cash when you pay for your ticket or you're using a credit card, you might be considered a drug courier. If you're wearing a jogging outfit or you're wearing a suit, you might be considered a drug courier.

These make no sense, and the notion that there is something objective and legitimate about these profiles is something that I think that we really need to question.

The courts certainly seem to think that it's legitimate, but I believe that they are not, and I think that what they are doing is encouraging people to act on, as you've just indicated, their suspicion, act on it and stop people based on this, and I think that it has no basis in reality.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Yazzie.

CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: In Navajo Nation, we have 250,000 Navajos, and we have a high prison population in New Mexico. Somebody told me in Montana, 30 percent of the prison population is Indian. There five percent of the population is Indian.

So the experience with the Navajo Nation, individuals who drive outside Indian Country, the police usually focus who the bad guys are, meaning if you're dark skinned, you're a bad guy. If you have long hair or a hair knot, you're a bad guy.

Even being dressed differently or driving a beat up, old car, what we call "Indian car," that's a bad guy. So that's the picture as far as police perception goes as to who the bad guys are.

MR. OGLETREE: Mr. Carter, let me ask you. It's such a problem. Everyone has identified it as a problem. Why do you think drug profiling or profiling is so popular and so legitimate as a law enforcement tool, not just by the police officers, but prosecutors will use those to bring charges. Judges will let cases go forward, and people are convicted and prosecuted, on the one hand, and Chris Stone told us that there are countless examples where people are part of the profile, no crimes, no drugs, and yet no remedy.

MR. CARTER: Well, first of all, I think that based on what's been described so far in the hypothetical questions that the use of the term "profiling" dignifies, I think, unduly a practice

that's really just a normal part of racial stereotyping, that that isn't applicable just in the criminal justice form, but in a lot of other areas of our lives.

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I don't believe that it's appropriate to racial stereotyping in order to individuals. Ι think part of the particularly with respect to drug enforcement, particularly in respect to importation cases, is that we have groped for a way of finding objective ways to articulate intuition and instinct that experienced law enforcement officers have, and unfortunately, I think that a good part of that intuition is based on racial stereotyping.

It may be combined with other factors, such as the furtive look, how much luggage, whether there's a lot of luggage or a little luggage or whether someone pays for a ticket in cash, whether or not their flight originated in a country that's a source country for drugs, but it also adds in the factor of race, and in my view, that's inappropriate unless there is a reason for a very specific suspicion in which race is an actually relevant objective factor.

1 If, for instance, there is already 2 information available to law enforcement that someone who is a member of an identifiable group may be 3 4 transporting contraband from Point A to Point B, and all of the members of that identifiable group happen 5 6 to be of a certain race or ethnic origin, then it may 7 be appropriate if at some midpoint between the point of origin and the ultimate destination you see a car 8 or a person that fits that description, race being an 10 identifier for that person; it may be appropriate to 11 stop them, but absent that --

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MR. OGLETREE: Is there an example though? I'm trying to think of an example where that would work. Ms. Jimenez has told us that the majority of cases of stopping Mexican Americans are wrong, and if we say it's a group, we can say anyone traveling from the southern border of California into California or some other state should be stopped if they're of Hispanic origin.

That I don't believe is MR. CARTER: specific enough because when I'm talking about specific, I'm talking about case or transaction specific. I'm not talking about statistical probabilities in the way that Professor Wilbanks was

talking about because for me statistical probability can never in my view be an appropriate basis for profiling a criminal suspect.

But if you're talking about something that's more specific than just statistical probabilities, that may be appropriate.

MR. OGLETREE: Mr. Yamamoto, what's the harm in this racial profiling from your point of view?

MR. YAMAMOTO: It's self-fulfilling prophecies is what's wrong with it. You can take the populations of the prisons themselves and go out into the population and determine that certain groups are

a higher percentage bet for law enforcement, but all

it does is subject certain communities to more risk,

higher scrutiny, possibly over charging.

I just think that it's the wrong way to go about it. I'm totally against using race as part of the profile. The police have enough resources to find crime that they don't need to use that, in my opinion.

Apart from reasonable cause, and I don't disagree with some of the examples that have been placed here because if race is specifically part of the information that you have in advance, that's different.

But taking race and making it part of a profile is completely racist, and it is bound to exacerbate the problem.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Wilbanks, let me get back to you.

What if race were taken out the calculus? What if police were told you can't use race at all? You have to have other reliable indicia of suspicion and of probable cause. What impact -- could you guesstimate what impact that might have on the effectiveness of law enforcement, both perception and factually?

MR. WILBANKS: The difficulty is the police are not told anything. It is left to the discretion of the individual officer. If it's left to his own discretion, what we're doing is encouraging somebody who's uneducated to use whatever biases, whatever stereotypes they may have.

I think it's legitimate to say to him, "Look. There is variation by age and sex and race and social class, but before you decide to do something based on your suspicions, we need to talk about what your views are and what actions -- what are the five possible options you have."

I think to argue that we should consider age, sex or race when we know, for example, in terms of arrest rates that the level of offending may be 1,000 greater for a young black male than an elderly white female, in my eyes if a police officer you're suggested to say, "Well, that's irrelevant. I'll just look at everybody alike," people don't operate that way.

I think what you have to do is not let the police officer operate in a vacuum. He needs direction. He needs supervision. He needs somebody in the department to say, "Look. Here are the problems with profiles. If you see, for example, only young black males, you're never going to find any elderly white females on I-95. They get a free pass."

You need to explain that to the officers.

This is what happens when you use a profile. One group gets a free pass. The other people get caught.

You need to educate that officer.

Right now we're leaving him alone with this decision because we don't want to deal with the issue. Police departments don't want to deal with the issue. It's too controversial.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Ramirez, this

must be something very hard to try to implement, particularly on the local level, trying to figure out how can you train the law enforcement establishment to train officers to be more cognizant of the harm that could come from racial profiling. How do we do that?

And it's not just black and white, right?

And it's not just black and white, right?

This issue is across racial classes.

MS. RAMIREZ: Well, I think first part of the problem is that police officers as part of their training are not trained to deal with these situations. They are not trained to deal with conflict management. They're not trained in how to exercise the discretion that they have, even though we increasingly give officers large discretion by implementing minimum mandatory sentencing and other variables.

What we're doing at Northeastern with the Criminology Department is training police officers in what we call ethical decision making, and we're talking to them about the effect of stereotyping.

Now, I am a former prosecutor, and I worked with the Drug Enforcement Administration in Boston, but in Boston in the district court, many, many, many of the judges would not allow us to use

race as a factor.

So when we talked to the DEA agents as prosecutors, we said, "You have to understand that while you may initially look at race and gender, that alone by itself is not enough. You have to continue investigating, continue looking, continue observing until you have enough individualized indicia so that regardless of the race of the person, you've articulated and documented either articulable suspicions for a Terry stop or probable cause.

If you don't, the evidence will be suppressed. There is a very good chance in Boston it will be suppressed.

At Northeastern, what we're doing is talking to the local police officers and about the stops and the frisks on the street, and we're role playing. We're saying, you know, "Look. You stop someone and that person happens to be black, Latino, Asian, let's go through it."

And we have community members in the room as well as police officers, and the community person says, "Yeah, I'm going to be angry. I'm going to start by saying you're only stopping me because I'm black or Latino or Asian, and this has happened to me

before, and that's what's happening here, isn't it,
Officer?"

Then we turn to the officer and we say, "Well, how do you feel?"

The officer says, "I'm angry because that person has assumed that because I'm white I'm a bigot, and now I'm going to start writing down everything I can find about that person that's illegal, the tail light."

And then we stop, and the community members say, "You know, first of all, if you would just approach the person and say, 'Look. It may be that in the past you have been stopped because you're black, because you're Latino, because you're Native American, because you're different, but today the reason I'm stopping you is we've had trouble at this intersection. We're stopping everyone who goes through a yellow light. There was a very bad accident here, and I'm only going to give you a warning right now, but we're warning people that this light changes quickly, and there's danger here."

They said, well, at least it would do a couple of things: validate the person's experience, maybe ratchet down the tension a little bit, give

people a little bit of breathing room, and see what happens.

There are other people who are training young particularly male persons of color about how they can ratchet down the controversy. Take a deep breath. Remember this is a new person. It's not the past ten people who you've had encounters with, and trying to get those encounters to be different, and also to stress with them how detrimental it is and what a tax it is on all of the young, Latino, black, and Asian youth who aren't violating the law when you come up and act in a hostile way, and how even if you personally think this is a valid statistical marker, for policy reasons, for the legitimacy of the system and for fairness, this is not the way to proceed, and it has costs.

MR. OGLETREE: Let me ask both Chief Ramsey and Commissioner Bratton. It sounds like there is a consensus that racial profiling is a problem. Let's say we were able to, as a proposal to the Advisory Board, try to eliminate race as a factor.

My sense is that creative police officers could still list a number of factors that would be race neutral on their face, but with a wink and a nod

we'd know what they're talking about. Is that possible?

That is, they'd identify the person by dress, by demeanor, by age, by the type of car, whether or not they're wearing jewelry. Commissioner Bratton, have you heard descriptions like that where you have a sense of what they're talking about without race being mentioned?

MR. BRATTON: Oh, sure. Police officers, criminal justice system tends to be very creative. It comes back to the rules that we operate with, the law, and as has been indicated, that the law in certain circumstances does allow race to be used as a factor. So you can't quarrel with the police officer who under the law is authorized to use that as a factor.

Secondly, the issue of training is critical. Supervision and the training issue that she discusses, the idea of trying to get police to understand it from both perspectives or multiple perspectives. There's more than two perspectives on this issue.

Many departments around the country now are embracing training concepts such as verbal judo. How do you ratchet it down so that you're able to deal

with these issues more effectively?

But can you totally eliminate it?

Probably not. Can you significantly reduce it?

Certainly can. Can you legislate changes? Those are options to look at, but you have to keep coming back to what is allowed, what is the training that's provided, and also that, once again, looking at it in a broader perspective, that it's not just a police issue. It goes to the larger context of criminal justice system and the laws that control that system.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Ramsey, the same question. Can you see officers finding ways to still make arrests and stops without using race, but using all the other indicia?

CHIEF RAMSEY: Yeah. I mean, the reality is that everyone brings a certain amount of baggage with them in any occupation based on past experiences, their beliefs, and so forth. You're not going to be able to just easily get around that particular factor.

If Commissioner Bratton or I just inform members of our departments that from this point on you'll no longer use race as a factor, everyone will say, "Ten-four, okay," and go right out and do it anyway.

MR. OGLETREE: Right.

CHIEF RAMSEY: So I mean, we're only fooling ourselves.

I think that the real issue is the fact that there's a lack of real understanding on the part of police officers when they're dealing with members of a group that is not their own group.

Police officers do not know how to communicate with people in any way other than an adversarial way. That brings in a lot of the points that were made earlier around conflict resolution, additional training, all of those kinds of things that really I think go a long way toward correcting that particular situation.

There is some legitimacy in when you look at specific crimes, if you have enough information to be able to make certain judgments about individuals that fit a particular, quote, unquote, criminal profile. Now, race can be a factor, but race should not be the only factor.

You need to have a variety of other factors present before you make a stop. If you're investigating, for example, a drug trafficking ring where the source country -- you have a flight coming

in from that source country. You know for a fact that the only people they use as couriers are people that fit this particular group, and that's been your experience. That's the intelligence from past arrests, all of those kinds of things.

It's logical then that if you see people who fit that profile getting off the plane, that you would at least observe them for a period of time to see if there are other factors present that might lead you to believe that that individual could be involved in some kind of drug trafficking.

The problem is that many of our officers are not trained. They are relying on instinct. They're relying on beliefs that they may have, some of which may be racist in nature, that certain individuals are more prone to be engaging in criminal activity.

That's where we run into serious, serious problems.

MR. OGLETREE: Well, let me challenge you on one aspect and go to Professor Kennedy when you talk about it may be more legitimate if we know someone is coming from a source country.

I've traveled around the world, and I've

been stopped coming from every country. They can't all be drug source countries.

CHIEF RAMSEY: Right.

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: I've been stopped with family, without family. I even went to the length of wearing a three piece suit like my colleagues thinking that would help. That didn't help.

(Laughter.)

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: Why is it? Because it sounds like that's stereotyping that's given some legitimacy because we're saying people who are traveling into the country.

Is there a higher -- I should say a lower threshold to be able to use racial profiling because someone's entering the country?

MR. KENNEDY: Oh, absolutely. Well, as a matter of law, at the border the officials are able to do virtually anything, but one thing that needs to be noted, oftentimes in this discussion about profiling there'll be consensus on the following proposition: that the police should not be able to stop people solely on the basis of race.

Well, of course, but that's not much.

That doesn't change a whole lot. There are not many

police officers who stop people solely on the basis of race. That's really noncontroversial. I mean, obviously there are some bigots who do that, but that's not really the nub of the problem.

The nub of the problem is whether race should be able to be used at all in making a calculation of suspicion, and here the courts allow it, but just one other point about this.

Just because the courts allow something doesn't mean that the citizenry should go along with it. There are lots of things that the courts allow that are unwise, and here you asked a minute ago what's the cost of this. One of the biggest costs of this has to do with a cost to the police themselves.

I think that we all need good, effective, efficient, decent law enforcement. We all need to be protected against crime. One of the biggest impediments to law enforcement in the United States today is the tremendous sense of mistrust, the tremendous sense of cynicism, the tremendous sense of resentment that racial minority folks feel because they know that they are being dealt with differently than their white neighbors.

Especially minority men know that day by

day, 24 hours a day every day they walk around with an invisible question mark over their heads. Their black skin, their brown skin counts as a negative factor, and the police -- that's counterproductive for good police work because police need the citizenry.

MR. OGLETREE: Well, how's it counterproductive if the police in every case are responding to a public demand? That is, you see it on television. You see the black male drug dealers. You read it in the newspaper. You hear about it in your neighborhood. You see it at the jails.

Isn't there some sense that they're responding to an environment that says, rightly or wrongly, race is associated with crime, and if I'm a good police officer, I'm going to take advantage of that factor in doing my job?

MR. KENNEDY: We need to say that the problem of criminality is a problem that confronts us all. We should all have to pay to deal with crime. We ought not put a special tax, a special racial tax, on various highly visible sectors of our community.

If, for instance, trafficking in undocumented, illegal immigrants is a problem in the Southwest, make everybody -- all Americans should have

to pay for that. We shouldn't put a special tax on people of apparent Mexican ancestry.

MR. OGLETREE: Mr. Yamamoto.

MR. YAMAMOTO: I just want to say that the young Asian in the car that you started with, he starts off with the proposition that he can't see anything he was doing wrong objectively. The only thing he knows is that he got stopped, and he's a particular race.

Now, he's not a lawyer. He doesn't know what the rules are, but if the rule is that you can't use race, and apparently it is that you can, then he's actually in a position to question that.

Now, again, all through history it's been legal in our history to discriminate, to be a racist, and some things were even more fashionable, and I think what you're talking about, getting rid of that particular criterion, it goes underground, but at least he knows that there's been some sort society disapprobation for that particular factor, and that Asian in the car at least knows that if he can isolate it down to that factor, he may get a defense attorney to do it, but if he can get it down to that factor, he knows it's illegal and he knows that the society

doesn't agree with that.

That's real important at that point for that person in that car to know that race shouldn't be a factor even if it is, because in this country we all know that race shouldn't be a factor in a lot of situations, but it is.

MR. OGLETREE: Let me ask both Mr. Carter and Ms. Ramirez, as current and former prosecutors and the police chiefs, whether there would be tolerance in the criminal justice system if there was an executive proposal to eliminate race.

Mr. Carter, do you think that would work? Would that sell legislatively? Would it sell with law enforcement in terms of their excitement to do their job? Would it sell with the public in terms of their sense of safety?

MR. CARTER: Well, in some respects, I think we're kind of focusing on the tail rather than the dog because we're focusing on what's inappropriate to take into consideration, but not what's appropriate to take into consideration.

In most contexts, a police officer or a federal law enforcement officer in order to make a stop has to have articulable suspicion, and while it's

possible for clever law enforcement officers to come up with pretextual reasons for stopping, it's not that easy to do if responsible prosecutors and judges with guts and a knowledge of the law listen carefully, evaluate the story, listen to the cross examination of the witness, and make an honest judgment about whether or not this person is giving a credible account, an explanation for his suspicion or not.

I mean, I believe that there are going to be times when, again, given an earnest recitation of factors that explain an experienced law enforcement officer's suspicion for why this particular person was in possession of contraband or was involved in this criminal transaction or that, that the added factor of race will be relevant if there is a very specific basis for believing that race was a relevant factor, again, not based on statistical probabilities, but based on specific information that there is a criminal enterprise that involves only people of a certain race and a certain criminal organization.

And so the extent that there would be any abolition of race as a factor under those circumstances, of course, it would meet resistance, but I don't know that anyone who's responsible in law

enforcement would be hostile to the notion that racial stereotyping should be eliminated.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Ramsey.

CHIEF RAMSEY: Well, I agree with that, but the reality is no matter what you do there's going to be a certain amount of that that's going to continue to exist because people are going to make judgments and on occasion are going to be judgments based on race.

I think that the problem that I see is the fact that we kind of want a very easy, you know, black-white type answer where just eliminate profiling, period. Well, I mean, there are some legitimate reasons why we should consider using that as a tool, but it's not an exact science.

Someone like you is going to walk through an airport and may be questioned because you fit some so-called profile. Another individual will walk through the airport and be questioned and, in fact, be found to be a courier.

Now, you may encounter ten or 100 people that had nothing to do with that particular type of criminal activity, and you find the one that does.

I think we have to be wiser. The one

thing -- and I worked in narcotics for a long period of time -- a person getting off the plane that you looked at and you felt that this is an individual that fit a profile, we would keep that individual under observation. We would walk through the terminal. We would see who they meet with, all of those kinds of things.

They come in contact with an individual known to us to be a drug trafficker, now I think we go beyond just the stereotypes and what we're talking about here.

So some of it has to do with at what point do you intervene and take some kind of action and begin to question, which oftentimes police officers act prematurely, and then when they're wrong, that's exactly how it's viewed. You just stopped me because I'm black. You had nothing else to go on, and that's a lack of training. In many instances, they don't know what they're doing, so they do it.

And then you have other instances where officers unfortunately -- I mean racism does exist in policing. I mean to deny that fact is ridiculous. And how you overcome it, I wish I had the answer.

You are going to have police officers that

are going to make judgments that are going to stop people, that are disrespectful toward people simply because they're dealing with individuals that they have no respect for. That clouds the issue because the majority of police officers don't conduct themselves that way, then get painted with that broad brush, and an individual who's trying to do their job properly and is making contact not because of the race of the individual, but because they're legitimately trying to intercept drugs that may be coming into the city, get painted with this broad brush, and then we wind up in a situation where we're sitting around at a round table discussing an issue because of the bad apples that we have that do abuse the system.

MR. OGLETREE: Well, there's another point. It sounds like in addition to worry about the stereotypes of suspects, we also have to worry about the stereotypes of police officers.

CHIEF RAMSEY: Of police, exactly, without question.

MR. OGLETREE: Quickly, a response from Chief Justice Yazzie and Professor Wilbanks, and then we're going to switch to the issue of disparity.

If you have questions, please start

handing them down now, and we'll start screening them for our later comments.

Chief Justice Yazzie.

CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: Your question is if there's a legislation to eliminate racism that would do the job. I feel like I sit in a different world here, and that what the issues that are being discussed are understood in a different context with respect to the Navajo Nation and other Indian nations.

We have our own problem as to what question. I mean all of the laws in the world we feel are not going to eliminate anything unless we get the assistance from Congress who's supposed to protect Indian nations from state intrusion. One of those is to provide resources to help the Indian nation revitalize its traditional concepts, traditional legal practices, to help.

These things were used way back in time to help maintain social order, and because we have the introduction of the Western style of justice, that has destroyed much of the common Navajo traditional law, and we're trying to revitalize it.

So to us, you know, to eliminate racism is to recognize that Indian people are people, that I am

a human being, that I count in this America, and that 1 2 we deserve to be recognized for what we are. 3 One of the things you MR. OGLETREE: 4 propose then, if we're talking about racial profiling, it sounds like in the Navajo Nation you don't have the 5 6 same problem with law enforcement treating people 7 differently because they're Native Americans. 8 CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: Yes, we do. 9 have the same problem. We have a reservation that's 10 25,000 square miles. We have border towns, and once 11 we go into border towns, we go through the same 12 experience, what these people are talking about here. 13 MR. OGLETREE: Simply because of your race 14 and ethnicity, the same problem occurs. 15 CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: Exactly. 16 MR. OGLETREE: Okay. Professor Wilbanks. I think as a first step we 17 MR. WILBANKS: ought to try honesty. I've been stopped because I had 18 19 Dade County plates, and they said, "Well, sir, we 20 stopped you because you're following too close." 21 Right there --22 MR. OGLETREE: Commissioner, is his mic 23 on? I don't think we hear it.

MR. WILBANKS: Right there you lost me.

1	Why not say, "Look. We have a problem with Bloods and
2	Crips in this neighborhood. You look like you could
3	possibly be a member of a gang. We're trying to
4	protect people in this neighborhood. I wonder if
5	you'd mind telling me why you're here."
6	I think people would respond better to
7	that than, "We think you're following too close." I
8	mean that is so asinine that when people are stopped
9	for those kinds of reasons, they automatically get
10	angry and resent everything else you say. You've
11	completely lost them.
12	Why not try honesty? Why not tell people
13	why we're stopping them?
14	MR. OGLETREE: And you're bringing victims
15	into the calculus as well
16	MR. WILBANKS: Absolutely.
17	MR. OGLETREE: saying, "I'm a citizen,
18	and I'm glad you're out here doing something positive
19	for me, for the community."
20	MR. WILBANKS: We had three purse
21	snatchings in this neighborhood. We're trying to stop
22	this, and I hope you won't be offended if I ask you

Now, he may not like that, but he'll like

what you're doing in this neighborhood.

that better than if you say, "You are following to close."

MR. OGLETREE: Now, would that work well with what Ms. Jimenez talked about, the whole identification of people by race in terms of Hispanics simply being Hispanics provides a large basis for stopping people? Will it work in that context when you're not looking for a particular crime? You're looking at the question of immigration, and that's almost civil as opposed to the criminal conduct you're talking about.

Shouldn't there be a different standard?

MR. WILBANKS: Probably so.

MR. OGLETREE: Okay.

MS. JIMENEZ: But I thought the standard for all of these, whether they're crime or civil in the context of immigration enforcement, is the Constitution, and that's why I agree with Professor Kennedy in the sense that what's wrong with profile is that race shouldn't be used at all because the Constitution does allow for consensual stops and then detentive and then finally arrest, and they are all based on individualized suspicion of certain facts or probable cause.

So I even find shocking the question that
there should be controversy to eliminate race when
what we're talking about is the application of the
Constitution and the idea that suspicion is
individualized.

Now, that becomes complex in applying it. Well, that's where the training comes in.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Taylor-Thompson.

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: I think that the controversy arises when you start talking about taking race out of the picture because I really do think that it does go underground. If you stop talking about it and you stop acknowledging that people are actually using race in the calculus, then I think that what ends up happening is they will talk about a furtive gesture; they will talk about someone having a bulge; but they will notice those things among people of color, but just not mention it.

There might be a white person walking down the street who has a bulge or who made a gesture, but that somehow is not suspicious. It's suspicious when it's a person of color who does it.

So if we take it out of the calculus, we just simply stop mentioning it, it doesn't mean that

it stops happening. People's minds operate in that way. We tend to categorize. We tend to look at people that are different from us and are not part of our in group and look at them suspiciously.

I think that what we need to do is start thinking about education, not only education of police officers, not only education of people and how they interact with police officers as citizens, but we need to talk to the media.

The media presents a face of crime that is a person of color. What we see on the TV constantly is a young man of color with handcuffs on, and that's the person that we're afraid of because we think that's the person who's committing crimes.

But if you look at the numbers out there, for example, if you look in California, six out of ten times that a woman is raped, the offender is a white man, not a person of color, and yet the person who is arrested most often for a violent crime in California is a person of color.

If you look at drug users, 80 percent of the drug users across this country are white. Twelve percent are people of color, and yet what ends up happening is that people of color tend to populate our

courts because the sense is that these are the folks that are committing crimes. These are the images we see, and we operate on those images.

When you asked a moment ago would the general public agree with changing this method of policing, taking race out of the picture, I don't think they would agree with it. I think that philosophically they may say that race shouldn't play a role, but they tend to see these images, and they are fearful of people of color because they think these are the people who are committing crimes.

We need to educate them so that they recognize that the face of crime is a multicultural face. It's not just black faces or brown faces. It's white faces, too.

MR. OGLETREE: Quickly, Mr. Carter and Mr. Yamamoto.

MR. CARTER: Yes, I think that the notion that racial stereotyping is ever legitimate in determining whether someone is an appropriate suspect or not is extremely dangerous. I think that we live in a society in which we have to struggle hard to change people's perception that people who are of a certain ethnic group or racial group are more likely

to be criminal offenders than others.

I mean, if I'm walking down the street and you are walking behind me and Professor Wilbanks is walking behind me, I think if I turn around and see you both, there's an equal probability that I'm not going to be mugged by either of you, and I think that to convert this into some notion that if we're more honest with people who are victimized by racial stereotyping that they'll receive it better, I think, is not construction.

MR. OGLETREE: Mr. Yamamoto.

MR. YAMAMOTO: I have to say I would absolutely agree with the idea of eliminating race from the profile. In a sense you're right. I can see where some things might go underground, but at least it shows a disapproval of something on the part of society.

I know those of us in the system have to work on practical issues and practical considerations on these things, but I think that that person on the street and that person in the car, if he knows this country says the law is that you can't put race in here, and then you have to figure out some other way to actually get probable cause on me, even if they do

it surreptitiously, whatever else they've got to do surreptitiously, it reflects a group value that we all have, and I think it would reconcile minorities to this society if they knew that that was the rule.

MR. CARTER: Let me make just one quick point. There's actual proof positive that there are worse things than driving this issue underground, and that's in the Batson context. I think most people who practice criminal law would agree that after Batson, racial -- jury selection is far fairer than it was before Batson, even though creative lawyers can come up with pretextual reasons occasionally for why they exercise peremptory challenge against a minority.

On balance, I think we have a fairer system than we did before.

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: It doesn't happen occasionally. It happens all the time. If you're from a particular neighborhood, that will be the argument, that he's from a particular neighborhood, and that person out to be struck.

They will not mention that the person is black or Latino, but that's what happens.

MR. CARTER: But the question is whether the system is fairer now than before.

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: I'm not sure that it

is. I think that what ends up happening is that you

can still use the pretextual reasons and still get

people struck, and so we have this sense that now it's

much more fair because the law has indicated that you

can't do this, but it happens all the time.

MR. OGLETREE: Mr. Kennedy.

MR. KENNEDY: The back-up, Mr. Carter, however, I mean we're talking as if we don't have a lot of experience. The fact of the matter is we have all sorts of anti-discrimination laws. In the employment area, we have something called Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. Employers cannot take race into account in making employment decisions.

We have the 1968 Civil Rights Act that says the same thing with respect to housing. In lots of different areas we have law. In all 50 states we have laws that say that insurers cannot take race into account in setting rates for people, even though we know that white people tend to live longer than black people.

So it's not as if this is some area that's totally alien. In lots of areas of our social life we have said that for the good of the society in the long

run, even if, in fact, there are real differences, we
will not permit policy makers, we will not permit
decision makers to make distinctions among people on
a racial basis.

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And I think by and large, over the past 30 to 40 years that has helped better our society.

MR. OGLETREE: Ms. Oh, you had a comment. We're going to be going to this issue of participation later, but you wanted to respond to that?

MS. OH: I just wanted to say that, in fact, you know, this points to how each part of the picture needs to be put together by a different set of players, and to have someone at the leadership or the executive level say it will not be a consideration, then to give practitioners the basis to object and to cite Batson, and then to find a judge who will have the courage to say, "Well, I didn't hear the word race, but I think that's what you're doing, " and to make the proper call, you see, will discourage the continuation of using race factor or consideration in whatever decision making process there is.

So I think it just points to the different parts that everybody plays.

MR. OGLETREE: Quickly, Ms. Ramirez.

MS. RAMIREZ: Official sanction would also strengthen the police training aspect of it because in addition to saying it's wrong and it has costs, you also say to the police there's a disincentive. The evidence will be suppressed if the court finds that you don't have sufficient individualized nonracial criteria to support this search or this seizure.

So I think a two-pronged approach in which you do the training and you change the official system's response and sanction strengthen one another and are helpful.

MR. OGLETREE: Let me move to the issue of racial disparity, if we can, moving our story further, and, Professor Wilbanks, let me start with you. You've written a well cited book about the myth of a racist criminal justice system, and ask you about the difference between what is the reality and the perception about discrimination in the criminal justice system to kind of frame this issue as we go into the issue of disparity.

MR. WILBANKS: Yeah, to make clear what I've said, I've said blacks, for example, are 50 percent of prison because of the offending levels.

It's not a difference in processing. It's a matter of differential offending.

I have people who tell me, for example, blacks are two or three times more likely to be convicted. There's no study that shows that. In fact, the Department of Justice said blacks are less likely to be convicted.

We've got a difference in terms of perception and reality. If you tell a young black man, "Look. There's a 50 percent greater chance you'll be convicted in court," first of all, that's not true.

Second, what you're doing is you're creating a lack of commitment to the law. You're telling him, "Look. The system is not fair to you."

I think the one reason you have a higher level of offending is because of a lack of commitment because people believe the system is unfair. What I'm saying is not only is the perception wrong. I think the perception of a totally unjust system, although there are cases of individual racism, I think that's creating a greater level of offending which is causing the problem in the first place.

And, again, the Department of Justice has

done a study of the 75 largest urban areas in the country and have found from arrests to sentencing there was no harsher treatment.

People say, "Oh, that's not true. I know a case where. . . . " We're not talking about individual cases. We're talking about overall.

And if you believe it shouldn't be 50 percent black, my question would be: then what should it be? Should it be 12 percent? Should we have a system saying, "Okay. We're going to reserve 12 percent of the prisons for blacks, and that's the only people who can go to prison," or should it be 24 percent or should it be 50 percent or should we leave it to the level of offending?

And all I said in the book is 50 percent of blacks are in prison and 96 percent of prisons are male because males are more likely to be offenders.

Age, sex, and race disproportionately involve offending and result in disproportionate incarceration. I don't think that's a radical concept, but it seems a lot of people do.

MR. OGLETREE: Let me ask you. We ought to relate that not just to a group of offenders, but to specific subject areas of alleged disparities in

sentencing, that is, both the powder cocaine and crack cocaine disparity and the death penalty.

How do you response?

MR. WILBANKS: I agree with Samuel Walker, who wrote a book about this, that there are pockets, and I think one example is the powdered cocaine. I would not justify in a minute a 100 to one ratio. I wouldn't justify the 20 to one or two to one. I think it ought to be one to one. Cocaine is cocaine, and to continue to have that against the law, when Janet Reno and others have said this is ridiculous, and the President, in essence, says, "Well, politically, I guess, you know, there's not much we can do about that. I support it."

I don't see how anybody can support that. Certainly I do not.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Ramsey, you're nodding your head in agreement. You don't think that the disparity in sentencing between crack cocaine and powder cocaine is justified from the community's reaction or any other --

CHIEF RAMSEY: No, I don't think it's justified at all. In fact, when the issue came up in Illinois, I argued strongly against it because I

didn't see the difference between crack cocaine and powdered cocaine.

Cocaine is cocaine. It's just a question of processing. What was a political reaction to the violence that was surrounding the crack markets that sprung up in the city and pressure on politicians to do something, and the only thing they know how to do is pass a law that just increases the penalty and just burdens the system more than it already is.

By default it has an uneven impact on those individuals engaged in that particular type of activity. Where do you see open air drug markets? In minority communities. In Chicago you're not going to see one on North Michigan Avenue. You're going to on the west side and the south side of the city. That's where you're going to see them.

Who are the people who are standing there selling? The people that are unemployed, the people that are members of gangs and so forth that engage in that kind of activity. So they're the ones that are going to be sentenced to longer terms in the penitentiary.

Who's bringing drugs into this country?

It is a multi-billion dollar a year industry.

Minorities in this country do not handle that kind of
money, and yet when you look at the penitentiaries,
the people that are in there are the ones at the very
low level of the drug trafficking operation, the
street dealers, the people who are buying a rock at a
time because they can't afford anything else.

I think it's terribly unfair, yet it exists.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Kennedy, even if you assume all of the arguments are accurate, is there a question about victimization and disparities in victimization that might support these penalties?

MR. KENNEDY: Well, I would agree with the earlier speakers. I think that the large difference in the punishment of crack cocaine as opposed to power cocaine is probably counterproductive, but it seems to me it's important to distinguish between things which are unwise and things that are racially discriminatory.

I think that this aspect of the war on drugs is very unwise. On the question of it being racially discriminatory, however, that's a different matter.

If one goes back and takes a look at the

origins of the federal laws that punish crack cocaine more harshly than power cocaine, if you want to ask, "Well, who first talked about crack cocaine and the need to crack down on crack cocaine?" we have Representative Rangel. We have Representative Owens. We have other African American Representatives who were very insistent that the federal government crack down on crack.

Now, the federal government did, indeed, do that. It seems to me that it has proven to be counterproductive. It was a mistake.

Well, a lot of times people acting from good motives make errors. I think this was one of them, but that is a different thing than saying that this is a racist policy.

So in my view it is a mistaken policy, but it is a policy that ought to be reversed. I do not think, however, that it is a policy that can properly be viewed as a racist policy.

MR. OGLETREE: Mr. Yamamoto?

MR. YAMAMOTO: You know, part of it is I think that all of these issues of sentencing, including the death penalty, are impossible to separate out from issues of poverty and class, and to

some extent that is why there is a different sort of cultural aspect to crack and powder, but I don't think that the motives of the individuals and activists just by legislation matter at this point because of the dramatic disparity that's shown in these communities and the really disparate impact it has in the communities.

From my point of view as a practitioner, when you have a client, it's impossible to reconcile that for the long, Draconian sentences they're going to receive compared to the other people in the system. It's impossible. It's impossible to make anybody's family or community feel as though that was fair, given that disparity.

And it doesn't matter what the intentions of the people were in enacting it. It has an incredibly dramatic, disparate effect, and it changes the community's attitudes towards the government and what they think is the government's attitude towards their race.

MR. OGLETREE: Let me ask you, Mr. Carter, about the community's attitude. Isn't there a sense of communities being victimized by these drugs as well and want tougher penalties? Do you see a tremendous

amount of unrest uniformly in minority communities saying these laws are bad, or is it a mixed response, that maybe this is doing something good for our community?

MR. CARTER: I think that it's a schizophrenic response, as it is in a lot of areas that involve racial justice, whether it's police misuse of force or disparate sentencing and charging policies.

I mean my own view in terms of the power to crack ratio is that the 100 to one ratio wildly exaggerates any difference, any rational difference, between crack and powder and the impact of it on neighborhoods, but quite frankly, it would be my own view that one to one trivializes the difference because for those who were in law enforcement at the time that crack first hit the streets, there was an extraordinary change in the level of violence in inner city neighborhoods that were beseiged by crack trafficking that was markedly different than anything that had ever occurred with respect to powder cocaine.

And the fact that we cannot explain those differences, we can't articulate those differences scientifically or pharmacologically doesn't make less

valid the view, in my view, based on substantial empirical experience that there was a level of violence associated with the drug that justified some difference in treatment, but not so much that we swept into the clutches of the criminal justice system people who were low level and street level dealers as opposed to people who were at the top of the food chain in --

MR. OGLETREE: Well, let me understand the question or solution that you're posing. If there is violence associated with crack cocaine, that to me seems to be a separate and distinct crime that can be punished. Why punish --

MR. CARTER: It can't be.

MR. OGLETREE: Well, let me.

Why punish the person for the selling or use of the drug in a disparate way simply because of the drug. I'm not talking about the other things.

MR. CARTER: Because what I think the law enforcement experience has been is that there's a certain level of violence that has been -- and it may be something that's a changing phenomenon -- but it has been inextricably intertwined with the trafficking in crack cocaine.

1 And to the extent that it is, I think that 2 disparity, though not the disparity some that presently exists, may be justified. 3 4 MR. OGLETREE: The majority of the offenders who are in prison on drug offenses are there 5 6 not for the violent crimes, but for the selling of the 7 drugs, right? MR. CARTER: That's correct, but let me 8 9 point out one thing that's very important. 10 assume for a moment that you are a mid-level crack dealer, and that you're smart enough --11 12 MR. OGLETREE: See, that's why I keep 13 getting stopped at airports. Don't use me. Use Professor Kennedy. 14 15 (Laughter.) 16 MR. CARTER: Any member of the panel here is a mid-level crack dealer, and a crack dealer who's 17 sophisticated enough never to be found in possession 18 19 of a gun, never to give the direct order that someone should be hurt or killed. 20 This person in my view, and I think the 21 22 view of a lot of people who are practicing in this

area, is as responsible for the violence as someone

who personally engaged in it, and consequently, it's

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1	rational to charge them for their contribution to the
2	violence even though they did not participate directly
3	in it.
4	Because if you remove the trafficking, you
5	remove the violence.
6	MR. OGLETREE: Let me, before I go to some
7	other people and probably different arguments.
8	Professor Kennedy, do you agree with that
9	rationale for the disparity?
10	MR. KENNEDY: Well, yes, I agree with
11	that.
12	MR. OGLETREE: Okay, good. That's what I
13	wanted to know.
14	MR. KENNEDY: There's something else.
15	MR. OGLETREE: Okay.
16	MR. KENNEDY: There's another point. One
17	doesn't have to even really go into the question of
18	the pharmacological differences. The fact of the
19	matter is that crack cocaine revolutionized the drug
20	trade in the United States. It democratized cocaine.
21	MR. OGLETREE: Right.
22	MR. KENNEDY: Before crack, you had to
23	have a lot of money. After crack, you could be a

relatively poor person and get into the cocaine trade

and cocaine usage.

So I agree completely with this position. The 100 to one ratio is irrational, goes way overboard, but is there a rational basis for distinguishing between these two types of cocaine? In my view, yes.

MR. OGLETREE: Okay. Chief Ramsey.

CHIEF RAMSEY: I was working Narcotics in Chicago at the time that city was hit with the crack explosion. There were a couple of interesting things that took place at that particular time. You just mentioned the fact that it made the drug more affordable. A gram of powdered cocaine in 1986 in Chicago was probably selling for around 100, \$125.

When crack hit the market now, you could buy a rock for \$10. So it became affordable for poor people to be able to get involved in that.

At the same time, you had street gangs in Chicago take that leap from being just simply street gangs, moving into more organized crime. They took over the drug market that prior to that had been dominated by people from South America to a large extent, and they had no way in because they didn't have the connections. They didn't have the ability to

be able to make large purchases and all that sort of thing.

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They also moved to open air drug markets from inside apartments. They became targets. It's very easy to shoot someone standing on a corner. So you have rival gangs that began to fight over territory.

That spawned the violence. So all of these things were going on at the same time, but what wound up happening is the fact is crack Yes, it was responsible, but the responsible? decisions that were made relative to the sentencing were made as a result of all the violence and the other issues that resulted from crack, and not so much that crack harms the body any more than powdered cocaine over a sustained period of time or heroine or any of these other kinds of drugs that are still out there.

It was targeted because of all of the violence that occurred at the same time, and I was on the street during that period of time, and it was amazing to see just the differences in the way in which drug trafficking took place in that particular city.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Ramirez.

MS. RAMIREZ: Well, I'd like to move the discussion towards other areas in which we see racial disparities, though I agree, you know, that if there's violence with respect to crack and powder, I always thought as a government prosecutor I would have to prove that, and those situations were had evidence that this person in addition to distributing crack either did it with possession of a gun or carrying a gun or had use of violence or made threats; that I would have to have evidence of that in order to punish them for violence, not that I could say anyone who engages in this crime is violent and, therefore, I get an aggravated punishment without the evidence.

But there are other areas. I mean, I think a bedrock principle of law enforcement has to be that people who are similarly situated in terms of their prior criminal record and have committed similar offenses ought to be punished similarly, and I want to look at two areas that disrupt that.

One is the minimum mandatory sentencing, which no one has talked about here yet. Now, the U.S. Sentencing Commission in 1991 found that when you looked at how people were punished after the minimum

mandatory sentences were implemented, that when you looked at race, race was an explanatory variable, and what does that mean?

Even when they took into account differing criminal histories, even when they took into account the nature of the offense and the activity of the offense, two people who committed essentially the same offense with the same criminal record were being punished disparately.

And they recommended that these minimum mandatory sentences be abolished because they are contrary to every sentencing principle that we have, and they disrupt horizontal and vertical equity. They have not been changed, and that is one area where you see this kind of disparity.

The other, of course, is the death penalty in the Balda study in which, again, they found that even when you took account of the differing natures of the offense, some serious, some middle, some low, and hundreds of possible race neutral explanatory variables, race was an explanatory variable in determining who got the death penalty, and it was race of the victim. That is, you were much more likely if the victim was white to get the death penalty than if

the victim was black.

Those kinds of disparities lead to the perception that this system discriminates. There's no other word for it, and I just want to give you one anecdotal way in which this occurs.

I'm working on a project in Dorchester District Court in which they have minimum mandatory penalties for people who distribute cocaine within 1,000 feet of a school. Well, in Dorchester, 80 percent of Dorchester is within 1,000 feet of a school, 80 percent, in fact, every residential area except these areas where no one goes.

The police have tremendous discretion here. It's a two-year minimum mandatory. Now, one person comes before a judge in court, and that person is with their friends and hands their friends some crack or powder cocaine, and they are brought before the court, and the court says, "What's the recommendation?"

And they say, "Oh, it's a first time offense, no prior criminal record. We're only charging possession. Probation."

Okay. The next, you know, couple of weeks go by. The judge gets another case, again, this time

118 1 a black youth sharing the same drug and the same 2 quantity with friends. They charge possession with intent to distribute because just handing it to 3 4 someone is distribution whether you're selling it or handing it or sampling it. 5 6 And because it was within 1,000 feet of a 7 school, it's a minimum mandatory two-year sentence, and that disparity exists, and the judge has no power 8 when there are minimum mandatories to say or do 9 10 anything about that kind of disparity. 11 And those statistical stories, as well as anecdotal stories are some of the reasons why there's 12 13 alienation in the community of color.

MR. OGLETREE: Let me ask --

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CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: Are you saying that this is racially discriminatory?

MS. RAMIREZ: Yes, I think if --

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: And if so, does that help to explain the fact that there are three times more blacks in prison than whites, or whatever the statistic is?

MS. RAMIREZ: Well, I want to be careful about this. First of all, there are the nonviolent crimes and those crime rates and violent crime. There

is a high, significant Latino and black violent crime rate, and so even if we were to reduce the disparity between crack and powder, eliminate all mandatory sentences, and eliminate -- well, the death penalty applies to the violent crimes. Most of the minimum mandatories don't -- that would certainly reduce the prison population.

But we would still have a black and Latino crime problem. So both things are going on. I don't want to say that, because statistically it's not true, that this is the whole picture, but this is certainly part of the picture.

MR. OGLETREE: I'm trying to get someone to help this Advisory Board because we're throwing a lot of terms around, and there's a lot of information, and Dr. Franklin's question goes to the word "discrimination."

What I've heard all of the experts say, racial differences, which is not necessarily discrimination; racial disparity, which is not necessarily discrimination. He's asking for discrimination.

Is there something illegal or maybe if it's not illegal, immoral that we are addressing with

these differences? And if we can't find discrimination, do we still want to come up with some remedies to try to address it?

Professor Wilbanks.

MR. WILBANKS: Disparity is a difference. Discrimination is a difference based on race or factors that we can't account for, for example, prior record. So obviously there are disparities.

The question is not whether there are disparities. It's whether that disparity can be explained by other factors, and I think largely, for example, prior record and that sort of thing explain that.

MR. OGLETREE: Okay.

MR. WILBANKS: I agree with her. I disagree with the minimum mandatories. I think anything that takes away from the discretion of the judge, who I think is in the position to judge the proper sentence better than anyone else is a mistake. Certainly a politician living in Washington doesn't know better than the judge sitting in the case before him.

MR. OGLETREE: So if the Advisory Board is going to address this administration of justice issue,

1 mandatory minimums is one concrete area. 2 MR. WILBANKS: Absolutely. Where they may not be able 3 MR. OGLETREE: 4 to -- where someone says discrimination, but here is something you can fix that would eliminate some of the 5 6 problems that we see of disparity across the system. 7 MR. WILBANKS: And even in this administration, Janet Reno has expressed her view that 8 9 mandatory minimums are improper in many circumstances. 10 MR. OGLETREE: Okay. Chief Justice 11 Yazzie. 12 CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: One of the things 13 that I want to stress is the number of prisons, the population of prisons. It's high as to Indians. 14 15 Within Indian Country, we have tribal courts, Indian 16 nation courts, that try cases, and we also have federal courts, and then we have the state courts 17 which have no jurisdiction over crimes committed in 18 19 Indian Country, but they have jurisdiction over crimes 20 committed by Indians outside Indian Country. So when we talk about federal courts, 21

we're talking about that the Indians are subject to
the federal guidelines, and that is very important to
note.

The U.S. Commission on Sentencing asked the question whether they should use tribal court convictions to enhance federal sentencing, and my response to that was that the guideline or whatever direction that the Sentencing Commission was to take should note certain things that are never told to the public.

One thing is that I've been a judge for seven years in the Navaho courts before I became Chief Justice, and in 1993, we had 93,000 cases, and whenever a Navajo comes before the bench, you would read them the charges, and they would say 90 percent of the time, "I am guilty," and the reason for that is because the word "guilt" doesn't exist in the language.

So this means that when the Navajo who speaks English as a second language goes into a federal court proceeding, he has a heck of a time understanding what is being said, and a lot of times the FBI would just force them to plead guilty just because of the language hang-up.

There's a failure in explaining to a person the rights in the language that they understand. So that's a real problem, and our job as

Indian judges is to go to the state judges, to go to the federal judges, and to explain that we have a jurisdiction. We have a court system, and that we have the capability.

I mean I went to law school to go back and help my own people, and that's exactly what I'm doing. So my job is to come to you, to come to the state judges, federal officials, even Congress to say that we have a legitimate system, and it deserves to be recognized, and we need support, support meaning allow us to be, to be recognized on the Advisory Board. Allow us to be recognized at the White House level, at the congressional level; that what we have, we need to be left alone.

We know what we're doing as to having our own justice system, very different from federal and state court system. We don't deal so much with drug dealers. We deal a lot of vehicular homicide, alcohol related crimes. Those are the things we deal a lot with.

So the issues here as to the Navajo Nation, Indian Country are very different, and the public needs to know that.

MR. OGLETREE: Okay. Let me ask Ms. --

I'm sorry. Go ahead.

MS. CHAVEZ THOMPSON: I just have a question, addressing it to anyone, but what can be done or should be done, for instance, when we talk about the education of officers or the training, to address some of these issues at the level of police academies?

I mean this is where the major training for police officers on approach, on the way to handle the citizen rather than automatically making them feel like they are a victim immediately rather than the honest approach that we talked about, say, "Look. The reason you're being stopped is. . . ."

The police academies have so much that they could do in this area. What can be done to address it because of the -- whatever curriculum is set, at what level it is set -- that we could start there?

MR. OGLETREE: Let me ask Commissioner Bratton and Chief Ramsey to answer that, and I'm going to assume that your departments do a good job, your current and former departments.

CHIEF RAMSEY: Absolutely, absolutely.

MR. OGLETREE: But are there models?

One of the things that the Advisory Board is trying to come up with is are there models to follow where someone has grappled with an issue, done a good job? What do you look for in a police academy?

MR. BRATTON: Well, actually you're dealing with three things. You're dealing with training, police academy, and then you're dealing with

And we have come light years in 20 years versus what the academy was when I went through it in 1970. Six weeks, out on the street I went. The issues we're talking about around this table would not have been discussed until the last half dozen years in most academies.

supervision and in-service training after they get on.

If there is a solution to this issue or a modification in a more positive way, the training issue is going to be a part of that solution, and if training is not address, the three issues I talked about, the three types of training, it's not going to happen.

In New York, in response to the corruption issues that we spent a lot of time on, corruption, anti-corruption training, and looking for profiling

actually in the sense of people coming into the department that might be corruption prone in the sense of young males in particular living at home with mother and father, no job after high school.

There was a former profile we engaged in that these people showed a propensity for trouble absent better training on our part. so training is key.

And there are tremendous programs, whether it's the one she's talking about, the Northeastern situation with the Boston Police Department; in New York we spent and are continuing to spend a ton of money on verbal Judo. Cops get into more trouble with their mouths than with anything, their hands, their clubs, their guns. Their mouths are what get them into trouble, and you can train them how to not only not escalate situations, but de-escalate.

So I have been a firm advocate of that for all of my time when I was in the profession and now on the outside as a resident gadfly. Training, training, training.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Ramsey.

CHIEF RAMSEY: I agree with that. I think community policing has dramatically changed training

in policing, and for the better. When I became a police officer back in the late 1960s, communications consisted of, you know, "Please give me your driver's license and hit the wall." I mean that was basically it.

Now we're talking about positive interactions with people, going to community meetings, listening, which police officers, many police officers, are very poor listeners. They're used to giving orders and directions and not listening.

Another area that I think is very important is in the area that Commissioner Bratton mentioned around ethics and integrity. There is far more emphasis on that now than it was several years ago.

The Naval Academy at Annapolis began a program they call Ethics Across the Curriculum. When I was in Chicago, I sent people out there to take a look at that because we were having a lot of problems at that particular time, which is always a problem, but we had several cases that were in the headlines that dealt with corruption of police officers.

Well, when you really look at it, police officers receive an initial basic training, but

there's not an awful lot done to reinforce values along the way. As a person 15 years, 20 years later, can we really expect them to be the same individual that they were when they were raw recruits? No, a lot has happened between then, and we have to constantly revisit certain issues and talk to people and retrain.

And that's something that, quite frankly, in the two departments that I have experience in was always on the back burner. Training was not seen as being that important. Most in-service training was mandated by the state. Recruit training drove everything that the Training Division in the Chicago Police Department did, and right now the Metropolitan Police Department in-service training is nonexistent for all practical purposes.

But we have to turn that around because I think it's essential in dealing with the issues that we've been talking about now. Sensitivity training didn't exist in the 1970s. Now that's all you hear people say in policing now, is that we need sensitivity training, not that that's the end all and it's going to solve all of our problems, but it is a beginning.

People are talking about these things,

recognizing that there are problems that need to be addressed, and training and education is the way to do it.

MR. OGLETREE: Let me ask both of you quickly, briefly, if diversity of law enforcement has made a difference in the effectiveness of law enforcement, and whether that should also be a key feature of any Advisory Board recommendation about improving police diversity of the force.

MS. JIMENEZ: Well, in the case of Houston, I think there are two issues which have made a difference in policing. It's one west of our city, and the second one, I think, is the community oriented policing as opposed to other philosophies of policing. I think that's key.

And one goes right in hand with the other. It was the Organization of Spanish Speaking Officers, for instance, that instituted a policy of separating immigration law enforcement from local law enforcement as a method of increasing trust and confidence in the police and, therefore, encouraging the community to report crimes, aid in the investigation of crimes, and to receive equal protection of police services which they would not have had access to had there been

distrust or lack of confidence.

And then I think the other area, of course, is the issue of transparency in mechanisms that handle and investigate complaints against officers, especially with respect to the public and its understanding of what those mechanisms for accountability are and how they are to serve not only the community, but also the police department in increasing its professionalism.

MR. OGLETREE: I think quick Chief Ramsey and then go on to Chief Justice Yazzie.

Chief Ramsey, one of the other benefits of diversity that you mentioned before we started this program was the idea that it also would protect victims, the idea that if the police force looks more like the public, that that might help you do your work in terms of witnesses and getting people to respond to issues of crime.

Do you want to make a comment about that?

CHIEF RAMSEY: Well, I think that diversity is certainly important. It is something that has made a difference in policing.

But I would also say this. My experience has been that even police officers from the same

ethnic group over time can become abusive toward the citizens, can do the same things that we're talking about here.

If you don't have communication, if you don't have police officers that meet on a regular basis with the public and do not stereotype groups of people as being criminals -- and you have to understand the stress in policing or the fact that to a large extent we've been incident driven. We only go to scenes of crime. We interview victims and witnesses. We fail to see that the vast majority of people are decent, law abiding citizens.

That happens to a lot of police officers, regardless of race. So diversity in and of itself does not translate into better police service, a more understanding police force. You still have to have all of these other factors present if you want to make a difference.

MR. OGLETREE: I want to turn next to the issue of access to the criminal justice system, that is, juror citizens, interpreters, things like that, non-English speaking participation, but I wanted to get a quick response from Chief Justice Yazzie and Professor Ramirez.

1 CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: Yes, the question 2 I have is what can be done if community policing is not possible, meaning if you don't have the money and 3 you don't have the resources.

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President Clinton said that the crime in this country has gone down. The crime in Indian Country is going up. So what do you about -- if we're talking about community policing, what do we do in Indian Country situation?

We have a solution for that. Just because we don't have the resources doesn't mean that we're helpless. We use the community themselves to be the community police. We use the community to serve as community courts. This is where we use peacemakers.

We have 250 peacemakers among our 250,000 Navajo population, and what they do is they bring together the offender and the victim, the offender's family, the victim's family together, and then say, "Focus on the issue. What's the issue?"

And one of the focuses there is, while involving the victim and the offender in the process, is to make the offender responsible for his actions. I mean the focus in America, the penalty, is to focus on the bad person. You're bad. You're going to jail.

I hope you learn something. It doesn't work in the Navajo thinking.

The Navajo thinking says what you do is wrong. We don't like that, and if I am drinking all the time and I beat up on my wife and I don't support my kids, in the peacemaking process these people would be my relatives. They would know me. I don't have to raise my hand and say, "I swear to tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth." That's irrelevant.

That's why I say guilty is irrelevant.

The better thing to do when we talk about Navajo thinking, Navajo peacemaking, is to get to the underlying problem.

People go to court to deny, and they create revolving doors. The way to stop it is just through community courts where the families are the judges, not the judges, not the police officers, not the lawyers. It is the family that get into the minds of the offender and say, "What is wrong? We know you have a problem. Now, what is the solution?"

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Ramirez, we're running short on time, but I wonder if you could summarize or just bullet point some of the ways we can

improve the administration of justice by improving the opportunities for access to a multiracial and multiethnic group of citizens.

What are the things that can and should be done to make participation in the criminal justice system more accessible and more equal for more citizens?

MS. RAMIREZ: Well, in some ways the police encounters that we're talking about animate the whole debate about how to include people in the criminal justice process because any time people think that the system doesn't work in their interest or the system devalues them, they're less likely to participate in it, which leads us to juries.

And if the encounters of the community of color with the police on the street are hostile and alien, then they're less likely to come into the system as witnesses with information, as jurors who would help to decide a case, or to provide -- or even as victims to report a crime.

So that the two issues are interrelated. When we talk about the under representation of people of color in the system at every level, it's not unrelated to what they've experienced before.

MR. OGLETREE: Ms. Kim Taylor-Thompson,
your idea of how to make the system more available to
citizens?

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: Well, again, I guess I would echo some of the things that Professor Ramirez has said, particularly if you think about the jury system. It is an opportunity for citizens to come in and interact with the criminal justice system, particularly since they are making decisions about significant questions, questions of innocence or guilt, degrees of responsibility in terms of crime that have occurred or may have occurred.

These all hinge on a juror's interpretation of evidence, and I think that to the extent that you have a wide range of views and a wide range of experiences that can help to interpret the evidence that is presented, you have a better chance of achieving justice.

What we tend to do is either exclude people of color from juries or women even from juries, as well, and they tend to be unrepresented on juries, and there are certain proposals that have been offered that might make it a little easier to bring people of color onto the jury, for example, having affirmative

selection of jurors of color if you have a defendant of color, and giving the defendant of color an opportunity to select three people that share racial characteristics with the defendant might be one way of doing this.

This also helps with respect to understanding the victim's story. Often the victim may be someone who is a person of color, as well. You need to have jurors that can understand that perspective, as well.

What we've found in terms of polls, in terms of statistics that we've seen is that jurors of color tend to bring perspectives that are often missing in conversations if they are excluded. They have a certain skepticism about what police officers will say in testifying in a courtroom.

And what judges will instruct jurors is that they should treat police officers just as they would treat any other witness, but that tends not to be the case with white jurors. White jurors tend to credit police officers more than jurors of color.

So if you have a mixture of people, some who may be skeptical of police officers and others who are crediting, that combination of viewpoints might

ultimately produce some justice.

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MR. OGLETREE: Let ask both me Commissioner Bratton and Zachary Carter. Mr. Carter, you were a former judge on the state court and a magistrate in the federal court, and Commissioner Bratton, is there another legitimation value in the system if there are more diverse jurors, whether there are interpreters to make sure the language is clear, whether there's tough scrutiny of colleges, so that decisions that are made are then legitimate from the community, saying, "Look. I know that I can trust the jury system"?

Do you see value in that as a judge, and do you see value in the police department that the citizens are making the decisions? Mr. Carter.

MR. CARTER: We've had to prosecute some controversial cases in my district that had racial overtones, and the fact that a jury was perceived to be drawn from a representative sample of the community had a substantial impact on lessening tensions post verdict when sometimes there were unpopular decisions by that jury, but there was a certain confidence that the point of view of all members of the community were represented.

1 MR. OGLETREE: Okay. Commissioner 2 Bratton?

MR. BRATTON: I think there's definite value. One, it is the intent of the law, the intent of the jury system that it be representative, but that's only part of the solution. The other part is, once again, back on the responsibility of the criminal justice system itself in terms of going back to the issue of training of police, that they are trained to come into a courtroom and to testify truthfully, and that they are trained to testify to the best of their ability and their training in terms of the law.

And juries, particularly minority majority juries tend to be scapegoated when they go against the police, and oftentimes it is for the fact that the police officer gave awful testimony or that, you know, for all the reasons that officers fail to in a court situation make a professional presentation.

And so if we're looking at this, it's one of the values of having representative juries, is you bring a lot of perspective, but there also is the risk of then the scapegoating concept, and you compensate for that on the other side of it. This is a yin and yang. All of these situations are yin and yang. You

just can't pull on one end without having a reaction on the other.

If you understand you're going to have a reaction on the other end of it, you address that. In the case of police, you train them better. Prosecutors, you train them better to present the case and win these cases with juries, whether the juries are a majority minority or not.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Taylor-Thompson.

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: The Advisory Committee might want to consider a proposal that's been raised by Professor Cynthia Lee, which suggests that a jury instruction be given to jurors that openly acknowledges the impact of racial stereotypes, and what it does is it recommends that jurors switch races in their mind, that they imagine the same event and switch the race of the parties, and if they find that they would come to a different conclusion, then they know that racial stereotypes are having an impact on their decision making process.

That's something that often does not happen in a courtroom. Race is not openly acknowledged, and I think that to the extent that it is, it often will prod jurors into confronting the

biases that they may have unconsciously acted on, and it may actually get them to open up and talk about it and perhaps move the discussion away from racial stereotypes.

So that may be a suggestion that they want to consider.

MR. OGLETREE: Before we turn to the Advisory Board members for questions that they may want to raise with the panel, I wanted to ask about consequences. We've talked about profiling. We've talked about disparity. We've talked about access to the justice system. What is the impact -- let me start with you, Professor Kennedy -- what's the impact of this prosecution and conviction on not just the communities, but on the work force?

Are there some impacts that we need to think about with the increasing number of people who are being imprisoned?

MR. KENNEDY: Well, sure. There's a new loss to the society as a whole when people are put in the position where their value to society is minimized. I mean, the United States incarcerates a very large percentage of its population. By a wide margin the United States incarcerates more of its own

people than other advanced industrial countries, and this is a societal problem that we need to pay attention to, and the consequences are dramatic.

The consequences for -- this is part and parcel of why so many people are distrustful of the administration of criminal justice. This is part and parcel of why people just feel anxiety in general, why people live in racially segmented communities. The consequences are many and are often baleful.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Ramsey, let me ask you from your point of view. Your job is to enforce the law and to have the best officer available, but you also want those officers if you can to have them representative of the community.

Is there a problem when a police officer is ineligible, a person ineligible to be a police officer because they have a juvenile record or maybe an arrest as an adult? Does that impact on your ability to reach the community that you'd like to reach to serve in law enforcement?

CHIEF RAMSEY: In Washington, if we have 100 applicants, we will probably lose 80 through background checks. It's astounding the numbers that we lose as a result of that, and the majority of those

are African American.

Many people are arrested when they're very young. They're convicted of misdemeanors. In some cases they're arrested for felonies, and in the process of the background check, they just can't pass.

So it does have an impact on our ability to hire. It also has an impact because if you have a group of people that become unemployable, not just by police, but by, you know, companies that want to hire, that would like to be more diverse, and you have people that apply but they can't pass a background check, then what you have is a group of people that are unemployable.

That translates into a significant number of people that are going to engage perhaps in criminal activity in order to support their families, and so forth. So it has a tremendous impact on us, not just our inability to hire, but also the kinds of issues we have to deal with later on.

MR. OGLETREE: Let ask just Commissioner Bratton your view about that, whether it has an impact on both morale and recruiting if you are eliminated from selecting people who might have had some brush with the law.

MR. BRATTON: It does in the sense that
the concern about the reason you have background
checks is to try and get the best candidates possible.
There has been some softening of that over time from
a clear-cut years ago where there'd be no exceptions

to some changes.

Society is constantly changing. This is one that is open to debate, subject to debate. The New York City case in point, the significant increase in arrests in New York for minor offenses during the last, oh, three, four years. Should those offenses be disqualified for young people a few years down the line who -- what we're all about in New York was the idea of using police to control behavior to such an extent that you change it, and so you give somebody a bite or two of the apple in the sense of after 25 years of ignoring aberrant behavior you now start correcting it, and they get caught up in arrests for public drinking or public urination.

Should that be an automatic disqualifier?

I think one of the things New York will have to look

at a few years down the line is the --

MR. OGLETREE: Are those disqualifiers now, public drinking and public urination?

MR. BRATTON: I don't have intimacy with the particulars on the background checks because background checks include an awful lot of parameters.

MR. OGLETREE: Right.

MR. BRATTON: But the idea that if an individual has a record that is a direct result of, say, these initiatives, will several years down the line there be efforts made to take that into context? I think that may be the case.

MR. OGLETREE: Okay. Comments or questions from the Advisory Board to any of the panelists?

MS. CHAVEZ THOMPSON: Yes. I worked with city departments in my home city, and there were some departments that were considered essential services to the citizens and some nonessential. Police, of course, were essential.

One of the problems though was the struggle of the police department administration to get the city council to put training dollars, resources into the departments. So I'd like to raise the next level, which is the elected officials that govern the police departments and address the issue that I raised earlier, which is that instead of the

back burner, to look at the issues of training on cultural diversity, on the sensitivity training of how you speak to people you're questioning, and on the issue of community policing simply because if those three areas are not the way to reach a community, there is no other way.

Certainly bringing more officers of color into those areas and certainly looking also at language as a way of bridging those gaps that oftentimes occur in our communities, and I'd like to have some thoughts on that because oftentimes our elected officials get elected by saying they are against crime. They are for punishing the criminals, and they are elected into office riding the crest of eliminating all sorts of crime, and yet not putting their money where their mouth is.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Ramirez and then Ms. Jimenez.

MS. RAMIREZ: First of all, I think that's a very, very important issue because training is important. How do you get the funding? How do you get the police officers and police departments to get the funding that they need.

The funding for the Northeastern Project

is \$1 million to Professor Jack McDevit in criminology, which came from the Department Now, the Department of Justice could, because they have a lot of money that they give to local justice systems, including the forfeiture money that you referred to earlier, could say that in order to get that forfeiture money, in order to get those resources, they have to come up with a training plan, and the Department of Justice can have funding to fund seed money for initial programs so they can highlight some collaborations that work.

Different people differ. Our collaboration is one with the police department, community groups, and the academic community. You know, let 1,000 flowers bloom. There may be other places, but there has to be someplace in the system in which there is a mandate to include this kind of training.

MS. CHAVEZ THOMPSON: So that the money that is kept by a city or a county be designated for the training programs rather than buying equipment for the department or replacing old things, I mean, office stuff or whatever.

Because that is the case in some areas

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where the police department decides where they place it, and oftentimes the education and training is by the wayside.

MS. RAMIREZ: But it can be a condition of receiving those monies for the equipment and everything, that they have a training plan in place, that it's documented, and that the funding be used first for that.

MR. OGLETREE: I would guess that the Commissioner and the Chief would take a little issue with that. You'd like more unrestricted as opposed to restricted funds, right? You'd want to be able to do the training, but you need to decide the priorities in the department. Is that fair?

CHIEF RAMSEY: Yeah, that's fair. I appreciate the need for training, and I do think that more needs to be allocated in that area, but I do think that oftentimes when grants are available, they're so narrow in their scope that it really limits your ability to really take full advantage of the funds that are available.

I also think that, you know, to much focus is on the enforcement end of things when it comes to funding and nothing on prevention, and if there's a

cut anywhere, it tends to be in those areas, and that works directly against us, and I think as police chiefs we have to say, "Hey, wait a minute. We don't necessarily need more police officers. What we need are programs that are going to keep people from coming into the system to begin with because we will never have enough police officers to really be able to control crime in this country."

You have to use other means to do that. Enforcement alone is not the answer, but we continue to take the dollars, and we don't make those kinds of arguments, and I think it's time that we stop that and really take a different approach in dealing with crime in this country. Otherwise we're going to gather here every year for the next 100 years talking about the same issues over and over again.

MR. OGLETREE: Ms. Jimenez.

MS. JIMENEZ: I wanted simply to state that I think we're oversimplifying when we just concentrate on training of officers because it is a complex -- one of the issues mentioned by the Chief, the issue of the prevention of crime, but, secondly, if you are going to look at enforcement, if we're talking about local police, then we're talking about

increasing the confidence and trust of the citizenry to increase public safety equally for all.

And that means that besides training, you do have to have effective supervision. You do have to have systems to prevent, as well as to correct inappropriate actions by officers. They have to be transparent to the community at large because definitely all of those things erode confidence and trust in the policing body.

And so if we solely focus on training, then we're only focusing on one small aspect of a larger question, and that's simply, I think, the comment that I wanted to make.

MR. OGLETREE: A comment from Chief Justice Yazzie.

CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: Yes. As to the advisor's question, I was trying to find a way to respond, but I'm having a difficult time.

The pitch I want to make is this. The Attorney General said that the law must respect its citizens, and with the Navajo Nation and other Indian nations, that's the key to maintaining social order, and what I want to stress here is that the advisories should remember, as well as the audience, that back in

1975, the United States signed the final act to the Helsinki Accords, and in that document there's a provision that says that the Indians, people like the Indian nations, have the right to culture, have the right to self-government, and those are not being enforced today, and we're talking about racism. That's an issue for us.

And the other thing, too, as a strategy is to give Indian nations the resources that we need to function well and on levels which are comparable to state law, enforcement, and judicial levels of operations.

Indian nation self-government. That means to refer to the Indian nations priorities as to federal criminal prosecution, and the more important one here is to acknowledge and support Indian efforts to retraditionalize as a way to use their own laws, their traditional practice to maintain social order, and to honor the international human rights of Indians.

Those are the things that I want to leave with the advisors.

MR. OGLETREE: And I assume that the Advisory Board is hearing that, but there needs to be

a distinct and unique approach to the problems of American Indians when we look at the administration of justice, that the solutions that we look at generally when we talk about race and ethnicity just aren't applicable to the American Indian issues of criminality and victimization, and that that's going to require some special attention.

Yes.

MR. THOMAS: I would just mention a couple of things, I think, rather than ask a question, but I think first I thank Chief Justice Yazzie for enlightening us as to some of the issues from your perspective on justice in the Indian nation.

And the other thing is you hit upon something early on when you asked the question, you know, would the public approve or support the removal of race from profiling, and in that general subject, I have an anecdote.

There's a community in Southern California where I lived recently that had the reputation that if you were young and there were several of you in a car, you could not enter this community without being stopped by the police, and the community loved that reputation and supported it greatly.

And the point is that it seems to me that
anybody who has security and safety will gladly
sacrifice the rights of the individual for the
perceived rights of all, and that I think that was a

great question that you asked.

And Professor Ramirez and Professor Taylor-Thompson sort of gave to me a way out of that because I think a lot of people just stop there and say, "That security and safety is what we want, and the police, we will gladly give the police carte blanche to enforce that."

But what I also heard was to say if there are groups that feel like they are disenfranchised and not part of the system, then you're going to have more trouble long term from that than trying to keep them excluded, and I think that's an argument that can be used productively for those people who do exclude the rights of individuals and thereby exclude the rights of minority groups.

So that was something that I heard from this discussion.

MR. OGLETREE: Any other questions from the Advisory Board before we ask these final questions?

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: I wanted to make an observation, too, if I may --

MR. OGLETREE: Yes.

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: -- Professor Ogletree.

One is that I wanted to make it clear that the Advisory Board is extraordinarily unusually sensitive to the problems of the Indian community. The Indian community is the only group with which the Advisory Board has met officially as an Advisory Board, to consult with it about the problems which the Indian community faces, not once, but three times, and no other group. No other group, not Hispanic, not African American, nor Asian or Euro-American has the Advisory Board met with.

We've met with the Indian community in the effort, in the desperate effort to understand, and any conclusion or recommendation we will make at the end of our tenure, it will be in connection with that community. I think that that ought to be understood.

Secondly, let me say that as I listened to the discussions this morning, and particularly toward the end, I was impressed with the fact that, on the one hand, we are the most advanced nation in the world, we say, and, on the other hand, we have a

practice, as the professor brought out, that we incarcerate more people than any other advanced nation in the world, which, of course, means that we are depriving ourselves of extraordinarily important human resources.

And that speaks to the problem of something that is essentially flawed in our whole judicial system, which in this case I think does not have to do with race so much as other things that we need to address, and they go beyond the purview of the Advisory Board, but I wanted to observe that there are some flaws there that need to be addressed by people other than the Advisory Board.

Thirdly, let me just say that with respect to the whole question of disparity or discrimination, that I, for one, did not get a complete answer, and I think it's because we have so little time. I would have pressed the point, but I didn't get a satisfactory answer to the question of why there are so many and such a large and disproportionate number of, say, darker peoples on death row, in the penitentiaries for a prolonged period of time, and so forth, and whether or not there is some general breakdown in the judicial administration system that

brings that about or whether there is, indeed, some problem of race here that rears its angry head with respect to the area of discrimination.

I will continue to pursue that question and to try to get an answer to it out of the magnificent readings which were provided by the Board, by the Initiative, and by the observations made here this morning.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Taylor-Thompson.

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: I'd like to respond to some of the comments that you raised, Dr. Franklin. Your question about -- your last question about what explains the disproportionate number of people of color in our prison system and why do we have one in three African American men being arrested or being under the criminal justice system if they are between the ages of 20 and 29.

I think there are no easy answers to that, and one of the reasons why you may still be asking the question is because there isn't an easy answer, but I think part of the answer is where we focus our law enforcement efforts.

I think that Chief Ramsey mentioned it earlier that we tend to focus enforcement efforts in

areas, in communities, subordinated communities, open air markets, places where we can actually see people committing crimes.

It doesn't mean that other communities are not committing crimes. They're just less visible, but we tend to go to those communities, and so we direct our enforcement efforts where we believe that we can get the most bang for the buck, but I think that's problematic. And I think that we see that it's problematic because of the racial impact.

In addition, I think that we need to look at the way discretion is exercised all along the line of the criminal justice process. Police officers are not the only ones who are exercising discretion. Prosecutors are exercising discretion about who they will charge, who they will give a plea offer to, who they won't, who they will charge certain crimes for, who they won't, and race often enters into that calculus as well because prosecutors' offices are not often addressing the issue of race as openly as they need to.

Some offices do. Zach Carter's office does, but not all offices across the country are doing that. So there needs to be training not only in

police departments, but prosecutors' offices as well, talking about the impact of race.

But I think that one of the things that we've done and I think that we shouldn't oversimplify this problem, we've focused on what police departments can do, what prosecutors' offices can do, what public defenders might be able to do, but I think that we need to think about this problem of crime as a broader problem.

If you look at the people that actually end up in our prisons, if you take a look at their social backgrounds, you will find that they often have been abused or neglected as children. You will find that they didn't have options that other members of our society might have had in terms of employment.

What we have decided, instead of having a rational employment policy, a rational public welfare system, we've decided that we're going to have a criminal justice system instead, and so we imprison people instead of actually trying to help people.

What I would propose that the Commission take a look at is -- the Advisory Board take a look at -- is ways that we can involve other members of the community in the issue of crime before it actually

happens.

So bringing in social services departments to look at the issue of neglect and abuse, not taking people out of their homes, but providing them with services and giving them some kind of education to help them not neglect their children, help them not abuse their children.

We ought to think about involving business community members, recognizing that a business community cannot function well and it cannot function well economically if you have people who are engaged in violence. So the business community has an interest in providing jobs, providing training.

We need to have a much more comprehensive employment policy than we have. Our welfare bill has basically eliminated services to people who are poor. What we need to do is rethink that and try to provide services to families because when you don't, when they have no other options, they will turn to things that will at least provide food for their families, and that often is turning to crime. We don't want to do that.

So I think that we have to have a more comprehensive, problem solving approach to this issue

of crime rather than simply focusing on different institutions within the criminal justice system that we readily identify with the criminal justice system.

MR. OGLETREE: I want to give each of the panelists a chance to speak one brief closing comment because we've run out of time.

I'll start with Zachary Carter and move around the table, and then we'll end it.

Zachary Carter.

MR. CARTER: Sure. I agree with one of the prior speakers who thought that a single minded emphasis on training of police officers is probably a mistake because I think the training is a means to an end and not an end unto itself.

What we really need is to break down stereotypes and increase empathy of police officers to people who are subject to discriminatory stops, for instance, and I think we do that best by increasing exposure of law enforcement officers to community in other settings other than in confrontations over an arrest, over a crime having been committed.

I mean, if there were a way, for instance, perhaps even as an alternative to a residency requirement which gets resisted by unions and local

legislators from time to time, perhaps as an alternative to residency requirement there could be a mandated minimum number of community service hours that would have to be contributed within a precinct refereeing midnight basketball, tutoring, so that the people who are policed by the police are humanized for them and consequently don't become the stereotypical mugger in the rear view mirror as opposed to someone who has greater potential for being an innocent victim or a law abiding citizen than as an offender.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Kennedy.

MR. KENNEDY: All to often we make antagonists of official law enforcement and people who are proponents of racial equality, and I think one of the points that's been raised by a number of members of this panel is that efficient law enforcement will gather strength if you have efficient law enforcement and a decent, proper concern for racial equality.

And similarly, racial equality will necessitate, will require efficient, decent law enforcement. So these two camps should not be -- they're not antagonists. They need one another if either is to fulfill their highest aspiration.

MR. OGLETREE: Ms. Jimenez.

MS. JIMENEZ: I just wanted to add to some of the comments that were being made with respect to the general concept of crime, and that is that increasingly social problems — the solution given by policy makers is to criminalize them, and that in itself increases the basis of law enforcement activity and the number of people that are incarcerated.

And I particularly look at the contradictions in the issue of immigration law enforcement in which repeat enters, people who are entering for a second time, are now being prosecuted all over the country and then sent to the country or federal facilities.

And I had a call recently from a jail administrator in Abilene, Texas, who says, "I don't know why this is happening. It costs the federal government \$50 to keep someone who repeats entry at the county jail, \$1,500," where if they let them in, they'd get a job and work and contribute, or he says, "You could even -- the State of Texas could give them \$400 worth of food stamps and it would still be cheaper than incarcerating people."

But it's the issue that mobility across international border is being criminalized, but just

like this issue is criminalized, we have many other issues in our society that increasingly are looked at as a crime.

I think the issue of violence and crack -I was wondering whether if our society during the
period of prohibition of alcohol would have looked at
different standards because of the violence created by
prohibition as to cognac or hard liquor and better and
give, you know, disparate sentences.

So, again, it's the question of looking at the social problem, in this case drug consumption, and industry, as the Chief pointed out, the multibillion dollar industry and abuse as a law enforcement problem or in the case of the southern borders sometimes as a military problem.

And, again, the concept of all of these social problems and how one addresses them in a democratic society are important, but I think the most important thing, and I draw from a law enforcement officer who once called my office, who said that he believed that he could do his job in keeping order and at the same time abide by the constitutional rights of the people that he confronted, and that it's desirable as a societal goal, and it's desirable as a democracy

to think that we can both respect to the rights,
dignity, and the safety of all individuals within our
society.

MR. OGLETREE: Okay. Quick responses from our last five panelists.

Professor Taylor-Thompson.

MS. TAYLOR-THOMPSON: Okay. I'll be very quick. I think that our crime policies have been based on the premise that harsh penalties and escalating prison populations will make us safe. They won't, and I think that we need to have a much more comprehensive approach to the problem of crime, which involves not only criminal justice players, but all sorts of members of the community as well.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Justice Yazzie.

CHIEF JUSTICE YAZZIE: One thing I failed to mention is that in trying to see the big picture to the rise of crime in Indian Country, with respect to Navajo Nation of the total population, 250,000 half are 20 years and younger, and then 41 percent of that total number are children. Nine percent or -- I'm sorry -- 20, 25 percent is nine years and under, which is something like 56,000.

So when we look at that figure, we look at

the gang problem, the drive-by shooting and the vandalism, we have that, and we say the hard core is hard to deal with, and we're trying our best, but we can do something with the nine year olds.

The nine year olds, many of them have been subjected to the cycle of sexual abuse and sex offenses, and studies have shown that if these children are experiencing that cycle, when they grow up they'll become the offenders themselves.

So if we think we have a big problem now, wait until these nine year olds become 14, 15, 16. If we don't do anything about it, then it's going to grow out of proportion. What do we do then?

All the money in the world, all of the jail in the world is not going to help, but the solution is this. The Navajo nation, other nations, we have treaties with the United States. We should be looked at as a nation, as the treaty says, that we have a government-to-government relationship with the United States.

And in that we have the power to exercise our own destiny. That's why I'm saying this, that as an Advisory Board, give us the attention that we deserve and pay attention to how we have solutions to

these things.

That's why I'm always talking about peacemaking. We came here. I've been coming here to Washington in 1993, and Clinton signed into law the new Indian Tribal Justice Act, and Congress has not put any money into it. It's just an authorization bill. It doesn't do any good.

So in terms of support, we need support to implement the law. Implementing the law means to give assistance to Indian Country. We have 540 Indian nations, and some are well off. Some are doing okay, but Navajo Nation, we don't have, you know, casinos like other Indian nations. Our people said no to the casinos

So I wanted to make that final pitch to the Board and to the audience.

Thank you.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Wilbanks.

MR. WILBANKS: I have two quick suggestions to the Advisory Board. One is Frank Zimmick and Gordon Hawkins just came out with a new book called <u>Crime is not the Problem</u>, and I think this is a book that the group ought to look at.

What they argue is that major cities in

the United States have about the same, quote, crime rate as Sydney, London. The difference is in lethality, lethal violence. We're no more criminal than other nations, but the level of lethal violence is 50 times greater in our American cities than other countries, and they argue that the policies that we're currently implementing deal with the crime problem and don't touch the lethal violence problem.

Why is that most altercations, many altercations in this country lead to murder? They don't in London. They don't in other cities. This is at least a book that's got a different perspective, and very rarely do you read something this different, and I would recommend that book to the Advisory Board and to the audience.

The second thing is I would ask the Advisory Board to adopt a race neutral definition of racism and racial prejudice. Too often I hear, I guess, the common statement today: Hispanics and blacks can't be racist because they have no power.

Every group can be racist. Every group can exercise racial bias, and I have one little pet peeve that I'll just mention to you. Clearly the Department of Justice statistics indicate that with

respect to when black offenders choose a victim in robbery, rape, and assault, 55 percent of the time it's against whites, not blacks.

It's been said commonly here violent crime is intra-racial. From one point of view; not from the point of view -- now if that's true, and the Justice Department says it is, I'm offended by statements like the following. "Help stop black-on-black crime." If the majority of crime by blacks is against whites, what does that tell me?

Well, we're telling him, "Sic them." Now,
I argue that that plea, black-on-black crime, is
racist. I'm asking that you adopt a race neutral
definition of racism and racial prejudice.

Thank you.

MR. OGLETREE: Professor Ramirez.

MS. RAMIREZ: If I wanted to make one point, it would be to echo Chief Ramsey's point that the best way to fight crime is to invest in children. I think that crime reduction and crime prevention can be tied together, and they have been in Boston.

I will be brief, but in 1990 we had 150 homicides in Boston. This year to date, May 17th, we have nine. How did this happen?

First, police and prosecutors began by saying, "We alone cannot resolve this problem," and they formed partnerships with community groups and

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Second, they targeted and had collaboration with the federal system, and they targeted the one percent of the kids who were the trouble makers and who needed incarcerated, and they did that federally, and the kids feared that and hated that because they weren't going to prison locally with their friends. They were going to another community.

That had deterrence effect, and it also cleaned up some of the problems on the street.

For the other 99 percent, they tried prevention: midnight basketball, mentoring, tutoring, the Ten Point Coalition getting these kids into the churches, social services. We need not go on with all of them.

But what has happened is that you have two models of how you reduce crime. In Texas they reduce it by increasing incarceration, and that's what their statistics show. In New York and Boston, we reduce crime while incarcerations stay stable or get reduced.

There is another way and I would submit a less costly way to reduce crime both in the community of color neighborhoods and in white communities.

MR. OGLETREE: Chief Ramsey.

CHIEF RAMSEY: Well, I agree with everything that Professor Ramirez just said so my comments can be very, very brief.

I think that we've made a lot of progress in policing over the years in the way in which we deal with crime and disorder in neighborhoods across the country, but I think that until we really broaden our perspective on crime and really take into account the need for effective prevention and intervention strategies, then we're not going to see the kind of progress we really need to see to bring about safe neighborhoods.

And it's not just the responsibility of the police or even the criminal justice system itself. It's got to stretch beyond that. The responsibility for public safety rests with citizens, other governmental agencies, private service providers, schools. You name it; everyone has a role in public safety, and we need to really figure out a way in which we can achieve safer neighborhoods, but at the

same time be sure that we can protect the constitutional rights of all people across the board in doing that.

MR. OGLETREE: Great. Dr. Franklin, it seems like you and the Advisory Board have a very small task ahead, but I'm sure you're prepared for it.

The criminal justice system is clearly one of the most difficult to try to understand, sort out the contradictions and try to solve, and your task will be difficult as you can see from the wide range of comments and conflicting points of view we've heard here today.

I can say that more than in any other area, you should expect a lot of criticism no matter what you do, and that might simply reflect the fact that you're doing the right thing. It's not going to be easy solutions, but very difficult, painful solutions for all of us in America.

But my hope is that you'll have the same kind of commitment and integrity and resolve in the criminal justice system as you've had in the other areas, and that you will help us reach that idea of one America in the 21st Century.

If we achieve the criminal justice system,

I think the rest of our problems pale by comparison.

Before I turn this back over to Dr. Franklin, I'm going to ask you to join me in thanking our panelists for their very helpful comments today.

(Applause.)

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: On behalf of the Advisory Board, I want to thank the members of the panel. They've been so enlightening, so resourceful, so generous in sharing their experience, as well as their training and observations, and I want you to know that the Advisory Board is deeply grateful to you.

As, indeed, we are to Professor Ogletree for his masterly way of handling this period.

(Applause.)

CHAIRMAN FRANKLIN: I also agree with him that perhaps we needed two sessions like this at the minimum, perhaps even more, but I certainly am deeply grateful to all of you and to the audience, too, for their patience, as well as the thoughtful questions which they submitted, several of which were used.

We welcome any additional comments and materials that you may have to offer the Advisory Board, and there are members here in the audience,

members of staff and so forth, who will be able to either take your comments now or to convey to you the means by which you can submit them to the Advisory Board and the Initiative on Race.

This, of course, has been a very interesting, thoughtful, at times exciting session, and the sharing of these viewpoints on your part is deeply appreciated.

I hope that we've learned a great deal today. I certainly have, and I know members of the Advisory Board also have. To the extent that we have learned, to the extent that we have been able to assimilate and process this information and knowledge, we are in a position then to perhaps take one more step toward building one America.

The Advisory Board will meet again in June perhaps for its last meeting, and we look forward to that and to making our recommendations to the President as a result of these experiences that we have had over the past 11 months.

We also look forward to the President's round table discussion which will be held on July 8th, and which will be hosted by PBS, and we think that that will be a kind of important valedictory for the

1	Board and its work.
2	So thank all of you for your patience and
3	your contributions.
4	This meeting is adjourned.
5	(Whereupon, at 1:30 p.m., the meeting was
6	concluded.)
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