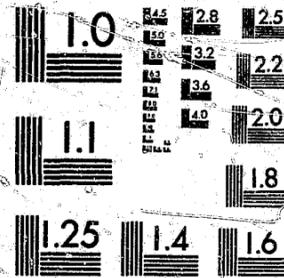


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ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

LESSON PLANS

A Report to
The
Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council
In Accordance with
Grant No. 177 from
U. S. Department of Justice
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
Washington, D. C.

by

James W. Rutherford
Project Consultant

June, 1968

This project was supported by funds awarded by the Attorney General under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, Grant 177, to the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council. Persons undertaking such projects under governmental sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment, findings, and conclusions. Therefore, points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent the official position or policy of the United States Department of Justice.

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TRAINING SCHOOL ORIENTATION

I. Rules While in Attendance at an Approved Council Training School

- A. The following rules and regulations are required to be enforced at a Council approved school:**
1. Commuters should park their cars in designated areas only.
 2. Trainees are required to be punctual for all classes and roll call. Continued tardiness will be reflected in the trainee's final evaluation.
 3. For absences due to sicknesses or emergencies, the trainees are required to notify the school coordinator on the day of the absence prior to commencing of school.
 4. The uniform of the day prescribed by the school shall be in effect for all student trainees.
 5. The designated uniform shall be maintained in good, clean and well pressed order at all times.
 6. Distinguishable uniforms are not to be worn on the street with civilian clothing.
 7. Personal hygiene and appearance shall not be neglected.
 8. Student trainees entering the training school shall remove their outer garments and be seated in an orderly manner.
 9. Smoking in the classroom during the class is left to the discretion of the school coordinator and/or individual instructors.
 10. Student trainees shall maintain decorum while in the classroom and shall treat all instructors with respect at all times.
 11. The student trainee with a question shall raise his hand and await recognition.
 12. Use of school telephone will be limited to official department business and calls of an urgent nature.

13. Any form of gambling or possession of alcoholic beverages is prohibited during the duration of a Council approved training program.
14. Trainees are required to maintain classroom cleanliness and will be assigned to maintenance details to insure the orderliness of the classroom if required.
15. Trainee conduct, disorder or neglect prejudicial to good order, efficiency or discipline, whether or not specifically stated in these rules and regulations is prohibited and can be cause for dismissal from the school.

II. Attendance in The Training School.

- A. Each trainee shall be required to attend all sessions of the school except absences approved by the school coordinator. No trainee will be certified when his absences exceed ten per cent of the hours of instruction. No trainee may be certified without receiving the fifteen hours of firearms instruction.
 1. Attendance records on all students must be forwarded to the Executive Secretary of the Council by the school coordinator prior to the certification of the trainees. Time lost through excused absences may be made up whenever this can be arranged by the school coordinator.

III. Examinations to be Conducted.

- A. At least four examinations are required for the course of the basic recruit school, three equally distributed during the course curriculum and a final examination.
 1. The school coordinator will determine passing and failing of trainees, however, no trainee should fail if he has achieved a seventy per cent average on the tests administered and is not otherwise disqualified. If there is sufficient documentation to indicate that a trainee has not met with passing standards of the

approved school, the school coordinator will immediately notify the Executive Secretary of the Council. Upon this notification, the Executive Secretary will arrange to secure the evidence supporting the contention of the failure. This shall include, but not be limited to, copies of his official written examinations and scores obtained, statements from instructors, records of attendance and a written statement from the coordinator stating why the trainee should not be awarded a certificate. The school coordinator shall retain copies of those items forwarded to the Executive Secretary. The Executive Secretary shall review the items and, after conferring with people concerned with the case, prepare to notify through registered mail the trainee and his department of the reasons for his failure. The trainee's department may request that the trainee be given the opportunity to enroll in another school. In any event, a community will not be reimbursed for personnel who attend a Council school and fail to secure a passing grade. A failing trainee will be afforded one additional opportunity to attend a Council school to repeat a course if the department wishes.

TAKING AND PRESERVING NOTES

I. Introduction to Taking and Preserving Notes.

Notes must be taken in the classroom. Listen attentively then jot down only the main thought. When compiling data you should place the title at the top of the page. The date will be placed in the upper left corner and the name of the instructor in the upper right corner. Each instructor will be introduced to the class and a short resume of his background will be given. This information about the instructor should be noted so it can later be placed in your permanent notebook. You can use both sides of the page in your stenographer notebook.

II. Definition of Note Taking.

Note taking may be defined as the transcribing of essential points and ideas, from the subject being discussed in such form and quantity so as to enable the reconstruction of the substance of the subject matter.

III. What is Note Taking.

A. A brief digest in student's own words of important ideas presented. It is an outline of the essential points presented. It should be supplemented with the student's own experiences whenever possible. It should contain examples and explanations to make the digest more meaningful.

B. Aid to memory.

1. Means of periodic refreshing the memory about the subject. It is the collection of significant phrases and sentences to enable the student to recall extensive discussion of a point or idea. It is not the transcribing or recording of everything said. The complete recording is too bulky and time consuming to transcribe and review; therefore, it is not desirable.

a. Three "R's" of memory are: RECALL, RECOGNIZE and RETAIN. It is much easier to recall what the instructor has said, to recognize the information he has given, and to retain this knowledge by the use of classroom notes.

C. Note taking involves the following:

1. Listening, hearing, and comprehending the the idea or point.
2. Digesting or briefing the discussion of the point or idea.
 - a. Use brief phrases.
 - b. Use significant words.
3. The writing of the digested thought or summary of a point in note form.
4. Listening while writing. Writing notes of one point and digesting the discussion of a completely different point.
5. Rewriting the notes taken in class. As soon as possible, rewrite the notes taken in class, amplifying and expanding the rough and hurriedly taken notes, in preparation for placing them in the finished notebook.

IV. Purpose of Taking Notes.

A. Helps to organize thinking on subject. Taking notes assists the student in obtaining more value from subjects presented. The instructions and practice in note taking enables the student to take better notes more easily. Rewriting rough notes helps to further impress upon the mind the various points presented. Rewriting rough notes improves the quantity and quality of the notes. When you type the finished notes, it helps in memorizing them. The finished notes must make sense for any future reference.

Generally the instructor has expended much time and effort in thinking about and organizing his material. He is also relating to the student, in just a few hours, knowledge which has taken him years to acquire, mostly by experience. By taking notes the student will get the benefit not only of the instructor's knowledge but also his effort in clearly thinking the subject through then organizing the material in the clearest way. The student may re-arrange the notes and organize them into the order which he considers most logical and helpful to him.

B. Helps to co-ordinate material. Writing classroom notes insures more attention and more concentration on the lecture. The notes help to impress the points of the lecture upon the memory and aids in co-ordinating material from the lecture. The lecture will unfold to you as you review your notes. You prevent mental confusion and compile a much more valuable permanent notebook by taking classroom notes.

C. Value of notes.

1. Notes are often the only record of many points presented. This is especially true in police training, as relatively few competent texts are written on police subjects.
2. Notes serve to clarify and amplify the text-book or other material when books, pamphlets or prepared materials are available.
3. Without the help of notes, less than 20% of the instructions would be retained by the student.
 - a. Taking notes helps the student learn more during the instruction.
 - b. Notes serve as a basis of review for later study. They serve as a personal, permanent reference source when placed in your permanent notebook.

D. Training and experience in note taking useful.

Experience in developing note taking ability is useful in many situation in police work.

1. Aids in receiving any type of information.
 - a. Desk duty.
 - b. Radio traffic.
 - c. Telephone conversations.
2. Investigation of complaints.
3. Taking statements.

V. Problems in Note Taking.

- A. Difficulty in writing and listening at same time.
 1. Student fears he will miss a point.
 2. Scribbling, hurried writing.
 3. Making notes too bulky.
- B. Instructor may present lecture in poor form. Student will have to organize lecture so it is of most value to him.
- C. Instructor may use example which does not clarify point or idea. Student should ask instructor to further clarify point, since other students are probably confused also.
- D. Personal mannerisms of instructor may distract student.
 1. He may have a low or very high pitched voice.
 2. He may use poor enunciation.
 3. He may physically fidget and detract from what he is saying.
 4. He may have poorly prepared his subject.
 5. He may present too many points or ideas.
 6. He may talk too fast.

VI. Methods and Suggestions for Taking Notes.

- A. Material. Use stenographer's notebook that is furnished to you at the start of each training session; a good pencil or ball point pen.
- B. Style of notes.
 1. Outline form.
 - a. The structure of an outline is shown in this material on notetaking.
 - b. It is the briefest method of taking notes.

It helps in organizing the notes logically and in later review, it shows clearly the main topics at a glance and segregates the main points.

- c. Leave marginal space for additions and corrections. A good general rule to follow is to leave space, especially between topics, for later insertions or comments. If notes are bunched, it is impossible to later add or comment.
- d. The system is best which causes the least trouble for the student.
- e. Leave space for adding to your notes later.

C. Be brief in note taking.

- 1. Leave out words which are not necessary to the clear meaning of the sentence, such as adjectives and articles.
- 2. Use symbols. For example: Cross is symbol for Christianity; + is symbol for addition; x is symbol for multiplication or in algebra it is the unknown quantity.
- 3. Self-devised shorthand. You can use a self-devised shorthand, or abbreviations. For example: D & D (drunk driving); D.U.I.L. (driving under influence of liquor); Acc. Inv. (accident investigation); Pol. (police); R. A. (robber armed); B & E (breaking and entering); Fel. (felony); Misd. (misdemeanor); D. O. A. (dead on arrival).
- 4. Use catch phrases such as: "5W" (who, what, where, when, why); "3R" (recall, retain, recognize).

D. Diagrams and illustrations.

The instructor will often use a diagram or illustration. Make a rough copy in your notebook and make the finished copy at home.

VII. Suggestions for Typing Permanent Notes.

- A. Permanent notebook. At the start of each regional school all new class members will be issued a ring binder, hard back notebook, 8½ x 11". Students who have attended previous schools will be asked if their permanent notebook is filled. If it is, another notebook will be issued to them.

B. Typing permanent notes.

Plain white typing paper will be used. Lined paper may be used if notes are written in ink.

- 1. Use one side of paper only.
- 2. Start new subject on new page; do not start a new lecture in the middle of a page.
- 3. Provide adequate margins on all four sides of paper. Center the writing on the page so it will be balanced.
 - a. Don't crowd material on the page.
 - b. Continuations to the next page should not break a sentence.
- 4. Skip one line between breakdowns.
- 5. Indent five spaces when going to the next degree in the outline.
- 6. Follow same procedure in typing up permanent notes you used in taking notes in classroom.
 - a. Subject or title--centered at top of page; capitalize and underline.
 - b. Instructor's name and rank on second line below subject or title of lecture and next to right margin.
 - c. The date on same line as instructor's name and next to the left margin.
 - d. Skip one line below the date and instructor's name and give brief resume of instructor's background.
 - e. Skip one line and start with first major heading.

7. Forms for note taking.

- a. Narrative form. The narrative form or the story book form is more complete but usually more bulky and it is more difficult to find desired material.
- b. Outline form. Desirable for classroom notes but unsatisfactory for permanent notebook. It is used primarily to jog memory and often lacks vital information that is soon forgotten.
- c. Combination of both. This is the most popular form and encompasses the good qualities of both the outline and narrative forms.

8. Headings to be used in note taking.

- a. Major heading.
Use Roman numeral to designate. Capitalize and underline entire major heading.
- b. Secondary heading.
Use capital letter to designate. Capitalize only first letter in each word of heading and underline.
- c. Sub-secondary heading.
Use Arabic numeral to designate. Capitalize only first letter in heading. Do not underline.
- d. Second sub-secondary heading.
Use small letters to designate; otherwise same as "c" above.

9. Use a single page to title the finished notebook.

C. Index to be used in note taking.

1. Temporary index.

Maintain a temporary index in pencil. Number

the finished typewritten pages of the permanent notebook with pencil. When you finish all of the subjects, you may desire to list them in alphabetical order according to subject. If you do, you will change the pencilled numbers to the corrected typewritten numbers.

2. Permanent index.

When notebook is complete, the pencilled numbers of the pages should be replaced by typewritten numerals.

a. Cross index.

It is recommended that each subject be cross indexed in a temporary index in the front of your notebook. When the notebook is complete, the temporary cross index should be replaced by a permanent cross index. An example of cross indexing this title or subject would be:

Under "T"
Taking and Preserving Notes.....Page 123
Under "P"
Preserving and Taking Notes.....Page 123
Under "N"
Notes, Taking and Preserving....Page 123

b. Value of index to you.

A complete cross index will place the entire contents of your notebook at your disposal within a minimum amount of time. This saving in time will repay you many times over for the work expended in compiling it.

VIII. General suggestions in note taking.

- A. Study notes as soon as possible after the session to better absorb the instruction.
- B. Periodic review of notes after instruction has been completed helps the student retain the previous week's instruction. This is very helpful prior to final examination.

- C. When studying temporary notes, prior to re-writing or typing permanent notes, try to:
 1. Memorize the major headings.
 2. Visualize the skeleton of the outline.
 3. Memorize the secondary headings on one major heading at a time.
 4. Read and think about the supporting ideas or points pertaining to the subpoints.
- D. Be sure of the instructor's point before writing it down.
- E. Use your own words, except when taking down definitions or technical points.
- F. Quotations and statistics should be recorded word for word.
- G. Examples, similes, and anecdotes which illustrate a point are most valuable. Include them in your notes. A few words will serve to recall the example at a later date.
- H. Train yourself to recognize important statements. Watch for clues the speaker may give, such as, "I'll repeat," "This is significant," "Which leads to the next important point" or "Make a note of this."
- I. Write fast--not painstakingly.
- J. When in doubt about spelling, always refer to a dictionary when typing your permanent notebook.
- K. Develop a "PATTERN" and "STICK TO IT" in the set up of your notes and the finished notebook.
- L. KEEP THE NOTES AND YOUR NOTEBOOK UP TO DATE EACH DAY. If you get behind, you will find it very difficult to catch up.
- M. Keep handout material filed in a convenient place for easy access.

IX. Don'ts in Note Taking.

- A. Don't take any subject lightly.

- B. Don't strike-over on the typewriter.
- C. Don't include any data or information under a major heading or sub-heading unless properly designated as to order or sequence and applicability.
- D. Don't be afraid to ask questions.
- E. Don't let the instructor get ahead of you.
- F. Don't trust your memory.
- G. Don't ponder over spelling, grammar, phrases, etc. in the temporary notes.
- H. Don't let a point pass which you do not understand.
- I. Don't worry about what the next fellow is writing down.
- J. Don't type on both sides of the paper in the permanent notebook.
- K. Don't start new subject on same page with any other subject.

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CURRICULUM STUDY REPORT:

LESSON PLAN FORMULATION

A report to
The
Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council
In Accordance with
Grant No. 177 from
U. S. Department of Justice
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
Washington, D. C.

by
James W. Rutherford
Project Consultant

May, 1968

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James W. Rutherford

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

August Vollmer, considered by many to be the "Father of Modern Police Administration", once commented on the formidable list of requisites necessary to even consider a man capable to function in police situations. After enumerating such a list, he concluded his observations by remarking that if the man possessed all of these, he might be a good policeman.¹

In considering the training of law enforcement officers, we must also reflect on the importance of law enforcement to our society itself. In their excellent treatise, "The Introduction to Law Enforcement", Germann, Day and Gallati summed up the sociological importance of good law enforcement in stating that from conception to death, we are all affected by law enforcement and that not only are life and property dependent on effective law enforcement, but peaceful existence and continuity of government depend upon maintenance of order for the common good.² Many other writers on the contemporary scene have commented upon the role of the police; many of these writers look upon the modern law-enforcement officer as the sole protective force of the people in averting mass uprisings and eventual anarchy. Even if the power of the

¹August Vollmer, The Police and Modern Society, University of California; Press: Berkeley, 1936.

²Germann, Day and Gallati, Introduction to Law Enforcement, Charles C. Thomas; Springfield. Page vii of Preface of Third Edition.

police in such matters is over-rated, it cannot be denied that, as was cited previously, law enforcement and its officers affect each of us in some way at some time in our lives.

In addition to our personal contacts with individual officers, law enforcement - effective or ineffective - demands millions of our tax dollars, regulates the relative security of our homes and highways, and mirrors the rise and ebb of popular concern in governmental affairs. As the duties of the law enforcement officer increase in time,³ we will find the increased importance of adequate police service ever mounting in our generation and the generations to follow. With this growth in the amount and depth of police service will be the simultaneous demands for more and better training for the individual officers.

Police instruction, as such, is not a topic easily divisible into components of the nuts-and-bolts category of learning-teaching process; in this instance, it involves two distinct types of learning and teaching. The distinction between the two types of instruction which should comprise every police education program was well outlined by Thomas J. Aaron, in a recent law enforcement professional periodical. Mr. Aaron stated that an adequate training program should focus on the development of two things in police trainees and personnel, namely, that they should be taught how to perform, and an understanding and appreciation regarding a knowledge of WHAT - and more important WHEN and WHY they should perform.⁴

³See Municipal Police Administration, International City Managers' Assn.: Chicago, 1961. Pages 7-8.

⁴Thomas J. Aaron, Law and Order Magazine, Vol. 14, No. 10. October, 1966. Page 15.

An example of the distinction which Mr. Aaron makes might be in the consideration of the use of emergency equipment on a police vehicle. In training the officer how to use it, the first requirement is fulfilled; however, there remains the requirement of instructing him as to WHEN to use the equipment and WHY, which is sometimes even more important than knowing HOW to use it. Knowledge of proper crime scene conduct, of the reasoning behind rules of evidence, both fall basically into this type of educational divisibility.

Mr. Aaron adds that skills and techniques - the HOW part of the consideration - are useful only insofar as they support and assist the ends to which knowledge is put.⁵

The preceding statements point up a distinction in types of instruction. Instruction of police officers - either recruits or in-service members - can be divided into two categories: training and education. These two categories are not synonymous. Mr. Aaron points out that training involves a process of instruction involving the development of physically-oriented activities. He defines the term education as a process of instruction which involves the development of intellectual qualities and strength of character, and has as its prime objective teaching the student to think.⁶

Since Mr. Aaron commented that this distinction has long been recognized in educational circles, and that progressive police planners would do well to realize the distinction between the two, his next

⁵Ibid; Page 15.

⁶Ibid; Page 32.

statement seems the only logical conclusion to be drawn from this consideration, namely, that police instruction programs should be expected to satisfy both the training and education needs of the police personnel.⁷

Germann, Day and Gallati strengthen Aaron's contention by pointing out that the aspiring police practitioner must be prepared to handle not only the HOW of the job, but the WHY and WHEN as well. They contend that the police officer must not only know what to do but must be able to defend his goals and the methods used in pursuing them.⁸

It is desirable to know not only how to act, but to understand why one is to act a certain way and when one is to act a certain way. Such an understanding is indispensable to the man who would be an effective law enforcement officer, for oftentimes a philosophical basis is the only sustaining element for a professional decision.

I. PAST POLICE INSTRUCTION

Many departments of the recent past - and, unfortunately, still some of the present - felt that a man was equipped for the job if he was in possession of a good nightstick, a gun and a badge. These qualities, in combination with an aggressive nature, made an acceptable police officer who was capable of handling most problems arising during his tour of duty.

⁷Ibid; Page 32.

⁸Germann, Day and Gallati, op. cit., page 33.

It wasn't until the early part of the twentieth century that any start on police education gained headway. V. A. Leonard noted that the police began to feel the effects of certain new forces and that Fosdick's comparison (Raymond B. Fosdick, European Police Systems, New York, The Century Company, 1915) of the differences between American and European police pointed up the great disparity between the methods of the two systems. Fosdick, said Leonard, placed much of the cause of this disparity upon personnel and training policies. The impact of Fosdick's work, Leonard states, was further amplified by the then-changing character of police work which laid a premium on intellectual functioning and talent and ability.⁹

From the time when the badge and the gun were the only tools given the recruit, police instruction moved upward. The next step involved the assigning of the recruit to an experienced officer. This was the start of an in-service training program. Eventually formal police schools were formed and organized, evolving into academies for the instruction of the recruit in police subjects.¹⁰

The factors to consider in the past methods of instructing the recruit might include:

- 1) Those methods might well have fulfilled the needs of the times;
- 2) There were, in earlier times, fewer court decisions involving law enforcement;

⁹ V. A. Leonard, Police Organization and Management. The Foundation Press: Brooklyn, 1951. Pages 136-7.

¹⁰ Allan Z. Gammage, Police Training in the United States. Charles C. Thomas: Springfield, 1963. Pages 5-22.

- 3) There were fewer social issues which have repercussions on the law enforcement activities;
- 4) Experience was considered the most important factor in the education process of the police recruit.

II. PRESENT POLICE INSTRUCTION

Germann, Day and Gallati offer us the ideal introduction to this part of our presentation, when they observed that from a relatively simple beginning, law enforcement has evolved into a progressively more complex activity requiring specialized training and techniques.¹¹

August Vollmer states that there is a persistent belief shared by layman and policeman alike, that practical experience in the field will equip the officer to handle the crimes and behavior problems with which the officer can expect to be confronted. He states that not only is this a false notion, but that its perpetuation postpones the day when police service will be considered a profession.¹²

Experience is admittedly a fine method of recruit instruction. But it is expensive both to the individual - in that so much time is needed to expose the recruit to the major types of situations he will later confront - and expensive to the employing agency - in view of the mistakes made by the recruit, for this method of learning is a hit-or-miss, trial-and-error system. The impracticality of relying on this

¹¹ Germann, Day and Gallati, op. cit. Page 213.

¹² August Vollmer, The Criminal. The Foundation Press: Brooklyn, 1949.

method of instruction to the exclusion of either previous formal instruction or simultaneous formal instruction is obvious.

Besides the impracticality of an "experience only" arrangement in instruction, there are contemporary problems in police work which demand contemporary solutions. There are problems arising today which make any of the past means of treatment inadequate. Court decisions have placed restrictions on police investigative activities. Social issues have arisen and their publicizing has led to unrest and disorder unknown in many areas but a decade ago. Riot training and mob control are included in recruit school curricula today when five or ten years ago this might have been considered a waste of class time.

The rise of these contemporary problems in the police field presents problems in training and education of the officer. Needless to say, any training in the legal aspects of arrest, search and seizure, detention, interrogation, evidence and general criminal law will have to be increased with regard to current court decisions in these respective fields. Any revisions or extensions of decisions will have to be brought to the attention of all officers.

The erupting of social issues puts special demands on police departments, requiring the creation of whole, new bureaus to handle growing community unrest and social problems affecting the police. Individual officers must be made aware of the basis for the unrest, of their role in keeping minor incidents from exploding into major disasters. They must be made aware of the dynamics of human relations, of the sociological importance of the issues at stake, of the subtle

undercurrents which go to make up individual and group attitudes and thinking.

Finally, the changes from the past would not be complete without the inclusion of two other considerations:

- 1) The goal of professional classification;
- 2) The developments in the technological fields which affect law enforcement.

Regarding the former, concerted efforts have been made in the past few years to achieve official recognition as a profession. Police work, for the most part, has not been considered as a profession.

"Professionalization" also holds new demands for the police field. Its members must be made to understand the philosophical bases for any police function, their limitations and purposes, their real objectives. They must be made to realize that deviations from ethical standards affects everyone in the field and serves as a setback in progress toward the goal of professionalization. They must be made to understand that merely asking for this status will not guarantee its being granted; that they must earn the support and respect of those whom they serve. They must be aware of the growth in the many facets of their field so that their knowledge is not limited to their own functional specialization. They almost must understand the units of other law enforcement divisions and their purposes.¹³ August Vollmer felt that though the

¹³See MD - Medical Newsletter, article on Criminology and Medicine, Vol. 10, No. 3, March 1966, by Dr. Felix Marti-Ibanez; and Allen Z. Gammage, Your Future in Law Enforcement, Richards Rosen Press: New York, 1961. Pages 37 to 63.

officer should not be expected to exhibit an expertise in the field of scientific crime detection, he should nonetheless be acquainted with the field so that he would be able to recognize any situation which, of its nature, should demand the attention of an expert investigation.¹⁴ He must be willing to open his mind to new concepts which will lead him and his fellow officers toward professionalism. He must be willing to denounce any and all acts or omissions which would not further that goal, and which would, in fact, delay the realization of that goal.

The latter consideration - namely, that of technological developments - is rather bordering on enigmatic, since it can be used to the betterment or detriment of law enforcement. William Shaw, Police Technology Editor of Law and Order Magazine, made a sage observation in a recent issue of that magazine, when he observed that "keeping up with the time" is an honored axiom of the business world. The corporations which availed themselves of technological advances prospered and those which chose not to, stagnated. He followed this with the statement that the criminal world has taken advantage of technology in order to achieve its goals and so should law enforcement.¹⁵ While this does not mean, as Mr. Shaw was quick and emphatic to point out, that men should be replaced by gadgetry, or sophisticated electronics, the need does exist today for a realization by police administrators of the

¹⁴August Vollmer, op. cit., page vii of Foreward, by Rollin Perkins.

¹⁵William Shaw, Law and Order Magazine, Vol. 14, No. 12. December, 1966. Page 46.

proper place for technology in their plans and a proper realization of the value of this tool for the police profession.

Concerning the consideration of the "experience alone" illusion, individual police officers must be willing to sacrifice their own present comforts and inertia in order to realize benefits in the future. They must act with initiative in pursuing education, on their own time and at their own expense, if necessary, in order to realize progress. They must realize that to benefit most from the nature of the work, they must have an understanding of the work and the people involved. They must realize that this is a product of their own personal endeavor.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1) The 130 curriculum hours presently established as the acceptable minimum number under an MLEOTC decision has been used as the core curriculum for approximately 18 months, and there has been little research opportunity to study its efficacy.

2) There is, needless to say, a recognition of geographical, regional, urban, suburban, and rural natures of the state of Michigan. Such diversification of areas presented a problem to the researchers in devising a curriculum substantial enough, content-wise, to provide for the specific needs of each of the separate areas within the State, while at the same time maintaining a semblance of uniformity in organization of the curriculum. There was a realization that some agencies would be interested in the inclusion of course work in particular

areas whereas other would not. The providing for some degree of flexibility constituted a problem in the designing of the curriculum format.

3) There is a lack of guidelines from other states or agencies upon which to determine firm grounds for the recommendation of certain courses or types of courses.

4) The devising of outlines sufficient to cover a minimum of 130 hours of instruction and a maximum of 400 hours, dictates the need for a rigid evaluation procedure to select the proper content for each training school.

5) Current law enforcement training reflects the need for constant upgrading and updating of materials presented to the officer. One of the most obvious needs today, for example, involves a comprehensive knowledge of the laws of arrest, search and seizure, and a knowledge of the rights of the layman and situations upon which the freedom of an individual may well be balanced.

6) It must be recognized that training schools of a regional nature would invite participation from agencies not necessarily in a close geographical proximity to the school and its coordinating officer and/or agency. Therefore, departmental procedures and practices which are in effect in one jurisdiction and not necessarily in effect in the others, were excluded from the curriculum lesson plans.

IV. OBJECTIVES

The formulation of objectives and goals to be achieved by a police training school dictate the content and quantity of the curriculum involved. One objective in the establishment of a state-wide curriculum

is the standardization of the curricula, resulting in the standardization of training of law enforcement officers, and a more uniform enforcement of the law throughout the state. In this way, the knowledge, skill, attitudes and practices of all officers throughout the state are, hopefully, increased at a commensurate level.

Recruit training schools provide an opportunity for evaluation of the individual. It is possible, for example, for supervisory personnel to determine the presence and degree of supervisory and administrative talents possessed by an individual recruit. Therefore, a second objective would entail a realization on the part of supervision that an adequate appraisal should be made of those recruits who can be considered as potential supervisors and future administrators, as well as specialists and/or technologists.

In addition a recruit school offers an excellent opportunity for determining weaknesses in trainees and thus, makes the recruit school an extension of the selection process.

Another objective of a thorough, complete, and standardized police training curriculum is the development of confidence in the officer.

It has been noted by police administrators that some officers, when in a quandary as to which path to follow in a certain instance, or what procedure would most likely give the desired result, will frequently, in the absence of proper and sufficient training, "throw their weight around," so to speak, supplanting knowledge with bluffing, and inviting sensitive situations to develop for both the officer and those with whom he comes into contact. The obvious solution to this type of difficulty

involves more thorough and complete training of the officer in order to instill in him the confidence found in those who know what is expected of them, their legally established latitudes of operation, and the results of adequately performed tasks.

V. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The MLEOTC has certain responsibilities for the development of curricula standards to be utilized in basic training schools. Act No. 203, P.A. 1965 details this responsibility in the following sections and sub-sections:

Section 9. The council shall prepare and publish advisory training standards with due consideration to varying factors and special requirements of local police agencies relative to:

(c) Minimum courses of study, attendance requirements, equipment and facilities required at approved city, county, township, village or corporation police training schools.

(e) Minimum basic training requirements which police officers appointed to probationary terms shall complete before being eligible for continued or permanent employment, and the time within which such basic training must be completed following such appointment to a probationary term.

(f) Minimum basic training requirements which police officers not appointed for probationary terms but appointed on other than a permanent basis shall complete in order to be eligible for continued employment or permanent appointment, and the time within which such

basic training must be completed following such appointment on a non-permanent basis.

(g) Categories or classifications of advanced in-service training programs and minimum courses of study and attendance requirements for such categories or classifications.

Section 11. The council may:

(a) Visit and inspect any police training school, or examine the curriculum or training procedures, for which application for approval has been made.

Standardization

To the extent possible this study will standardize the curriculum within all basic training schools certified by the MLEOTC. Since the outlines are extensive there will be some flexibility within the total framework of the outlines.

Just as the study will tend to standardize the subject matter taught in basic recruit school, so will it tend to standardize law enforcement procedures. Law enforcement officers will be taught the same thing whether they be from a Northern rural community or a Metropolitan center such as Detroit.

Future Expansion of Training

The study was initiated for the purpose of providing course outlines for the current curriculum for a minimum basic police training program. To this end, the development program would have been a monumental task; however, the writer recognizes the trend of training and

seeks to encourage maximum training of all recruit officers. Therefore, the review of outstanding programs throughout the United States encouraged the development of a practical method for future expansion of basic training through the MLEOTC.

The MLEOTC will find it possible, as a result of this study, to consider implementation of increased minimum basic training on a programmed basis. Recommendations are for the increase of hours of instructions to an eventual maximum of four hundred hours for every recruit law enforcement officer in Michigan.

Utilization of Outlines for other Purposes.

There is a recognition that many larger police departments in Michigan provide training for recruits in excess of the 130 minimum hours established by MLEOTC. In fact, most larger departments exceed the minimum requirements by 100 or more hours. With this fact in mind the course outlines presented to the MLEOTC will be of assistance to those larger departments desiring to utilize the curriculum material provided. The dissemination of the outlines could prove beneficial to the Council in its ultimate determination of which subjects to include in any future expanded basic recruit school curriculum.

In addition to the foregoing purpose, some training schools will desire to conduct classes beyond their present 130 hours when provided with extensive course outlines.

VI. DEFINITIONS

Act - Act #203, P.A. of 1965, approved by the Governor July 16, 1965.

Aid - The funds accruing from the additional assessment of ten percent on every fine, penalty or forfeiture, imposed and collected by the court in criminal cases, and which are allotted to the training fund in order to provide financial resources for Council programs.

Basic Recruit (Trainee) - Any police officer or law enforcement agent attending a Council-approved school.

Core Subject - Any specified subject which must be offered in order to meet the requirements established by the MLEOTC.

Council - The Law Enforcement Officers Training Council, as created by Act #203 of the Public Acts of Michigan, effective July 16, 1965.

Credits - The number of hours designated for instruction in a particular course.

Curriculum - An organized course of instruction established upon a base including certain core subjects in addition to optional electives.

Electives - Certain subjects, the inclusion of which remains the option of the respective school coordinator. The inclusion or exclusion of certain courses as electives are usually predicated upon regional needs of the respective trainees and police agencies involved.

Instructor - Any person duly certified by the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council as being qualified and competent to instruct in Council-approved school.

Local Advisory Committee - Police executives of a regional area of the state, who organize and supervise a police training program approved by the MLEOTC.

School Coordinator - An individual selected by the Local Advisory Committee of police executives as being responsible for organizing and conducting a Council-approved recruit training program.

Standards - The requisites and policies established by the MLEOTC concerning the employment and eventual training of law enforcement officers, as provided through Act 203 of the Public Acts of Michigan, 1965.

Training Facility - Any educational or training institution, or training site which is used to provide law enforcement training, meeting the approval of the Council.

Training School - A Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council approved basic training school.

CHAPTER II

THE NEED FOR STANDARDIZED TRAINING

The small town officer is as much a police officer as the law enforcement officer from the large metropolitan area, enforcing the same state statutes and comparable city ordinances. The officer from the smaller department is frequently lacking in opportunity to pursue law enforcement training of an organized and comprehensive nature, and oftentimes his only exposure to training is what he learns on the job from a superior officer or from one who preceded him in his particular function.

The growth of, and increase in, professional status is and will continue to be directly dependent on the amount and quality of training, and this training will be reflected in the actions, the operations, and the skills of the officer.

With the growing trend of inter-departmental activities and multiple-agency cooperation coordinated by a central authority, there arises a need for an assurance of uniformity in compliance with certain accepted and established basic police functions, as well as a fairly uniform comprehension of statutes and ordinances affected by the specific police activity involved. The uniform, standardized training schedule or program would tend to insure a uniform interpretation of these laws and ordinances and also tend to insure a uniform enforcement of state statutes and comparable local ordinances within the state.

There is great national concern today over the extensiveness of police powers, the controls exerted upon it, and whether there should be amendments to controls, the establishment of stricter controls or more lenient controls on police power today. Often - and in particular in recent years, such as the past decade or two - the focus upon police power had been brought to bear as a result of unethical or questionable police practices, which the inculcating of proper attitudes and philosophies of law enforcement goals, as well as adequate law enforcement training for police practitioners, might have eliminated entirely, or at least minimized.

Current developments in the field of technology and science have affected law enforcement. The criminal world has availed itself of these technological and scientific advancements in order to perpetrate crime more efficiently. It behooves police administrators and educators to apprise their personnel of these developments, and though it might be impossible from a practical and fiscal standpoint to provide the police officer with comparable technological devices, at least make the individual officer aware of the significance of their use, any methods of detecting them in operation, and recognizing them when seen.

In addition, adequate training should be given to officers of large and small departments alike, exposing them to the best technological developments which have affected law enforcement, in adding to the tools available for law enforcement practitioners to use in the war against crime. Such exposure should include topics such as: neutron activation analysis, gas chromatography, optical scanning techniques in fingerprint analysis, electronic data processing and computer applications

in the police field, and other kindred technological subjects. Such exposure could well serve a dual purpose.

While it is very probably outside the scope of the average police officer to comprehend the intricate functional and operational concepts surrounding these devices, the awareness of their existence can stimulate him to avail himself of their use more frequently if he understands their capabilities and applications. A second advantage of such an exposure to a recruit class, though more remotely beneficial and improbable, is that of possibly finding an officer within the recruit school class who is capable of comprehending these devices on an operational plane and, in addition, might exhibit an interest and aptitude in pursuing further his own education in some field of endeavor which would equip him to operate such devices in the future. It's also possible that officers exposed to the theories behind the operations of these devices might feasibly conceive methods of arriving at the identical solution - or an even better solution - through the use of other devices or techniques than those proffered by the instructor. In other words, some officer in the class, upon exposure to the idea of optical scanning in fingerprint analysis, might feasibly arrive at a more practical approach in solving the problems inherent in such an operation. In this way, the ends of law enforcement might be more successfully met, than if the officers had never been exposed to these sophisticated law enforcement tools.

The need for standardization is evidenced by the need for including in the curriculum of a recruit school certain classes which will develop in the officers temperament and personality, traits conducive to better law enforcement.

CHAPTER III

DISCUSSION OF CURRENT MLEOTC 130 HOUR BASIC CURRICULUM

Referral to Appendices D and E will indicate to the reader the contents of the 130 hour curriculum, which was initially established as a core requirement by the MLEOTC. Regarding this curriculum, it must be noted that the difference between the 120 and the 130 hour curriculum involves the addition of a 10 hour Standard First Aid training course, which, in the 120 hour curriculum is assumed to be possessed by the trainee prior to his enrollment in the school.

The 130 hour curriculum was developed through a review of experiences of functioning police officers, a job analysis of police functions, and review of current curricula published in training manuals referred to in respective bibliographies. For example, officers handling specific types of problems in the police field frequently commented on the relative importance of a particular subject matter. When these officers were called upon to instruct the recruits it was frequently found that their emphasis in certain areas reflected their experiences in the field. Some of the points which they particularly emphasized as training points were those with which they had had difficulties, or which had been indicated by their fellow officers - peers, subordinates or supervisors - as requiring specific training and/or exposure.

In addition, the researchers reviewed extensively the curricula of various other agencies, in particular St. Louis, Missouri (see Appendix B), and Chicago, Illinois (see Appendix C), in order to arrive at a fair indication of what these progressive police departments considered

necessary for the officer to be equipped sufficiently to be able to handle normal, routine, day-to-day problems, as well as the infrequent special problems.

In the job analysis phase of the curriculum study, the researchers had to take into consideration the classes or types of calls, assignments, and operations encountered by law enforcement officers.

From the three different directions of approach - experience of the officers, job analysis, and examination and critical evaluation of training and education experiences of other agencies - a sound basic curriculum of 130 hours was developed. However, it is strongly felt that such a curriculum is presently inadequate to meet the growing needs of today's law enforcement officer.

Evidence of the need for change in the curriculum establishment can be seen in the necessity for more role-playing experiences by the police trainee. As Hilda Taba points out, in her Curriculum Development - Theory and Practice, there is a distinction between the learning ABOUT something and the learning of HOW of disciplined thinking.¹⁶ There are two objectives to be sought in the use of the curriculum. One objective involves the acquisition of knowledge, whether these be concepts, ideas or facts. And this can be implemented by the selection of content.

The other objective involves the acquisition of skills and the development of attitudes. And this can not be implemented by selection

¹⁶ Hilda Taba, Curriculum Development - Theory and Practice, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc: New York, 1962. Page 266.

and organization of content alone. To acquire these, the student needs to be exposed to certain experiences which will give him an opportunity to function using the desired behavior as the goal. The former type of objective, the acquisition of knowledge, is more pertinent to the present 130 hour curriculum. In order, however, to be more extensive, provisions for additional curriculum time must be made.

In order to realize the achievement of the second objective, namely, the teaching of skills, and the development of attitudes - in particular in regard to today's increasing demands for such training - neither the present 130 hour curriculum, nor a modest increase would satisfy these. As Chief Thomas Reddin, of Los Angeles, indicated, scientific methods must be developed to teach certain subjects.¹⁷ But even with the educational tools available, the present time allotted certainly is insufficient to pursue adequately the second type of objective to satisfy the demands of modern law enforcement.

There is, then, a need to pursue present programs of instruction to a more extensive and intensive degree and, in addition, such course materials as Human Relations, Psychology in Law Enforcement, Sociology, Race Relations, and other social science oriented topics. Role playing would be particularly advantageous and productive in a program of this type because of the very nature of the subject matter - people dealing with people.

¹⁷ See Thomas Reddin, Police Weapons for the Space Age, in The Police Chief Magazine, Vol. 33, No. 11, pages 10-16, passim; and the monthly series on Police Electronics, in Law and Order Magazine, edited by William Shaw.

Parenthetically, another observation by the writer involves this educational distinction made for years by educators and currently being applied to the police field, namely, the distinction between training and education as instructionally-divisible entities. The distinction was for years used to establish the functions of educational institutions. It was felt that certain principles and philosophies were assigned the domain of the academic world, whereas the "nuts and bolts" of the police work - the instructional category we refer to here as "training" - was to be the responsibility of the recruit school. While this writer feels that "nuts and bolts" subject do belong in the recruit school curriculum, it is felt that the social sciences and the philosophies of law enforcement, are not solely the responsibility of the academic world, since until such time that law enforcement officers are required to have a certain basic number of college credits to qualify for consideration as an applicant, there will remain many recruits who, in the absence of college courses in such academic pursuits and/or exposure to them in a recruit school, will lack awareness and understanding of the significance of the subject materials presented in such curriculum additions.

Research literature indicates that where role playing techniques have been used in the past by police instructors, the school coordinators have often found that the technique was considerably less expensive and time consuming than actual field training, and was considerably more interesting to these students in that it offered a type of realism lacking in the usual lectures, discussions and other types of current instructional techniques.

How the Lesson Plan Materials for the Proposed Curriculum were Obtained.

The proposed curriculum were obtained through the use of the three methods outlined above. Experienced officer - operational and administrative - personnel were queried regarding what they thought were important subject topics and what they felt the officer should have prior to going into the field. After this, a job analysis was conducted. From this evaluation, certain minimum standards for the establishment of a recruit curriculum were established. This was compared with the findings and implementations of other agencies. From the evaluations, the 400 hour curriculum emerged as a minimum recommendation (see Appendix F).

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. INTRODUCTION

The term curriculum, as generally used in reference to law enforcement training programs, means all the experiences of the trainee under the guidance of the training program. The ways in which "trainee experiences" are organized vary greatly throughout the United States.

Wide gaps exist, at times, between educational and training theory and training school practices. Many modern police educators have advocated for some time the development of experience curricula in contrast to curricula organized wholly into subject matter areas where the emphasis seems to be fulfilling a course requirement rather than upon what learning is to take place. In theory, learning through participation in the solution of real, practical police work situations has been accepted as in harmony with what is known about the learning process, yet in practice, the individual trainee is too often treated as passive material, to be molded into a prescribed pattern. Today, law enforcement textbooks, lesson plans and teaching units are generally considered most useful when they serve as references and help provide answers to problems which relate to the job responsibilities of the police officer. Actually, they are very likely to be followed precisely from cover to cover, often to the detriment of real learning.

Despite this pessimistic view of law enforcement training progress, there are many evidences of widespread change. Drab, meaningless instruction, remote from the trainees' interests and needs is gradually being replaced by a more dynamic and sincere consideration of problems related to actual job performance. Instructional materials are being organized around units of work in which there is opportunity for trainees to participate in a variety of activities and situation. Group problem solving is often replacing the lecture, and in many cases the law enforcement training school is reaching beyond its four walls to find constructive activities in which police trainees can participate.

There must be many activities, experiences and situations outside the formal instruction program of the police courses which contribute to the law enforcement training curriculum. Perhaps no other area of the total police operational concept embraces such a wide variety of experiences as the training curriculum. These experiences are so wide and so varied in nature as to call on instructional contributions from many law enforcement agencies and to involve many kinds of police personnel with a variety of professional skills and expertise.

There is urgent need for a variety of educational and training experiences in training programs; it now becomes necessary to so plan as to make this possible, incorporating into the law enforcement training curriculum those desirable activities, experiences, and situations which will promote the optimum development of the police trainee.

The remainder of this chapter presents various findings, conclusions and recommendations reflective of an attempt by the writer to interpret past, present, and future MLEOTC police training curriculum needs and essential considerations.

II. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Evaluation of Present 130 Hour Curriculum

There is little evidence to indicate the effectiveness of the present 130 hour curriculum in terms of meeting the minimum needs of police trainees. This is readily understandable in that this curriculum has been considered and used as the core curriculum for the brief period of approximately 18 months. In view of this finding and directly related to it, there has been little, if any, effort expended to determine the needs of the present 130 hour curriculum in reference to additional courses and/or course hours of instruction.

Effectiveness of MLEOTC Police Training Curriculum

There is an urgent need to determine the extent of and/or the desired training curriculum as voiced by practicing law enforcement officers. The use of a field survey should be used to identify desired additional and/or extended courses and the hours of instruction. There is evidence to indicate that this procedure would serve a very worthwhile purpose in terms of identifying the curriculum with the needs and interests of the officer.

Standardized Law Enforcement Training Curriculum

The lack of standardized lesson plans for all subjects taught in MLEOTC training programs encourages learning experiences, activities and situations to occur, in many cases, by chance alone. Combined with the lack of any type of evaluation procedure to determine the effectiveness of present instruction, the absence of standardization in the preparation and presentation of all MLEOTC training school curricula promotes a high degree of inconsistency in the presentation of all required courses of instruction.

Extension of Present 130 Hour Curriculum

The present 130 hour minimum training curriculum prescribed by the MLEOTC does not meet the needs of the trainee in terms of a sufficient number of hours of instruction for the courses given, as well as the tupe or extent of courses offered. This conclusion is stated as the result of numerous discussion with various MLEOTC instructors and trainees.

Instructional Materials

It is assumed that rather than the lack of or the inability to acquire adequate audio-visual equipment, there is simply the failure to use such equipment in courses of instruction by training program instructors. The effectiveness of the instructional program can be greatly enhanced by proper planning on the part of the instructor so as to assure the trainee the best possible instruction available. The use of audio-visual teaching aids properly planned for and presented can assist greatly in achieving the desired quality of instruction.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the aforementioned findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are stated:

Evaluation of Present 130 Hour Curriculum

WE RECOMMEND THAT IMMEDIATE CONSIDERATION BE GIVEN TO DETERMINING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PRESENT 130 HOUR MINIMUM BASIC TRAINING CURRICULUM NOW STIPULATED BY THE MLEOTC. The primary focus of this research effort would be to evaluate all courses of instruction offered, in terms of meeting the needs of the trainee, both in and out of the classroom situation. In the absence of some form of concrete understanding and/or awareness by MLEOTC officials as to the degree which the training program actually accomplishes the objectives for which it was designed, no definite, positive conclusion can be stated as to the value of the present 130 hour curriculum. This research effort would assist greatly in determining what courses of instruction should be retained for inclusion in a more extensive curriculum as well as those courses which should be added. It is suggested that a brief, concise field survey questionnaire could be used to accomplish this evaluation and determination.

Extension of Present 130 Hour Curriculum

WE RECOMMEND THAT THE PRESENT 130 HOUR BASIC MLEOTC TRAINING CURRICULUM BE INCREASED TO A MINIMUM OF 200 HOURS OF COURSE INSTRUCTION. On the average, for all previous MLEOTC basic training programs, 190 hours of course instruction per training school was provided. The

computation of this average takes into consideration those programs which offered only the minimum requirement of 130 hours of instruction, as well as those which provided in excess of 400 hours. This recommendation is supported by voiced agreement from previous MLEOTC instructors, trainees, and school coordinators.

Dissemination of Prepared Lesson Plans

The lesson plans prepared as the result of this specific study are intended for use in MLEOTC training programs ranging from 130 to 400 hours of course instruction. The reason for this being the diversity in both hours of instruction and types of courses offered beyond those stipulated by the Council in previous basic training programs conducted throughout the state. In order for the Council to achieve the desired level of standardization in lesson plan development and preparation, it was necessary to develop the lesson plans for an optimum rather than a minimum basic training program.

THERE, WE RECOMMEND THAT THE PREPARED LESSON PLANS BE DISSEMINATED TO PREVIOUS MLEOTC BASIC TRAINING SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS AND/OR OTHER RECOGNIZED INDIVIDUALS POSSESSING THE EXPERTISE TO EVALUATE THE SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT IN TERMS OF BOTH SUITABILITY FOR PRESENTATION AND SPECIFIC TIME ALLOTMENT FOR CONTENT AREAS TO BE EMPHASIZED IN A GIVEN PERIOD OF TIME. For example, some training programs offer two hours of instruction in Police Interviewing; others provide six hours. The Council makes no specification as to the maximum number of hours which a course can be allotted as the reimbursement procedure is based strictly on the 130 hour minimum curriculum. If standardization in both the

development and presentation of lesson plan outline materials is to be achieved, there must be consistency of course instruction in all MLEOTC training programs relative to each particular lesson plan content specifying topical areas in that content outline which should be emphasized during a given period of time.

Preface Material for Prepared Lesson Plan Outlines

WE RECOMMEND THAT THE PREPARED LESSON PLAN OUTLINES, AFTER BEING FIELD-TESTED FOR EVALUATIVE PURPOSES, BE REVISED IN VIEW OF NECESSARY ADDITIONS AND DELETIONS, AND PREFACE MATERIALS DEVELOPED TO BOTH GUIDE MLEOTC INSTRUCTORS IN THE USE OF THE LESSON PLANS, AS WELL AS PROMOTE A GREATER DEGREE OF STANDARDIZATION OF INSTRUCTION. The structure of this preface material for each lesson plan outline would give recognition to the following elements:

- 1) Specific Topic
- 2) General Objective
- 3) Specific Objectives
- 4) Questions for Discussion
- 5) Suggested Learning Experiences and Activities
- 6) Content (listing of major topical areas only)
- 7) Instructional Methods
- 8) Teaching Materials
- 9) Evaluation

This material would precede the lesson plan content outline and would serve to introduce the plan and scope of instruction.

Training and Educational Aids and Materials

WE RECOMMEND THAT THE MLEOTC IMMEDIATELY PURCHASE TRAINING AND EDUCATIONAL AIDS AND MATERIALS IN THE FORM OF BOOKS, FILMS, AND AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT. The use of these materials would be regulated by the Council through specified written procedures regarding their use and dissemination. It is recommended that the Council purchase the suggested Law Enforcement Training Library referred to in the Training Facilities Project Report.¹⁸ All books, films, and visual-aid equipment and materials should be located at the Council office, with the Executive Secretary responsible for maintaining these materials and equipment and accomplishing all transactions pertaining to their use.

¹⁸Cf., Dr. Bern J. Kuhn, A Study of Law Enforcement Training Facilities and Facilities Planning in Michigan.

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- Law and Order Magazine. New York: Copp Publications, Vol. 14, Nos. 5 (May, 1966), 8 (August, 1966), 9 (September, 1966), 10 (October, 1966), 11 (November, 1966), and 12 (December, 1966).
- MD Publications, MD - Medical Newsletter, Vol. 10, No. 3 (March, 1966). New York: MD Publications, Inc.
- The Police Chief Magazine. Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, Vol. 32, No. 5 (May, 1965), Vol. 33, Nos. 5 (May, 1966), 8 (August, 1966), 11 (November, 1966) and 12 (December, 1966).

APPENDIX A

ACT NO. 203

P. A. of MICHIGAN OF 1965.

Act No. 203
PA of 1965
Approved by Governor
July 16, 1965

STATE OF MICHIGAN
73RD LEGISLATURE
REGULAR SESSION OF 1965

Introduced by Senators Youngblood, Jr., Lockwood, Damsel, Vanderploeg, Bowman, Schweigert, Romane, Young, Lane, Fitzgerald, Mack, B. O'Brien and G. Brown

ENROLLED SENATE BILL No. 30

AN ACT to provide for the creation of a law enforcement officers training council; to provide for additional costs in criminal cases and the establishment of the law enforcement officers training fund and allocations therefrom to local agencies of government participating in a police training program.

The People of the State of Michigan enact:

Sec. 1. This act shall be known and may be cited as the "Michigan law enforcement officers training council act of 1965".

Sec. 2. As used in this act:

- (a) "Council" means the law enforcement council.
- (b) "Executive secretary" means the executive secretary of the council.
- (c) "Police officer" or "law enforcement officer" means a member of a police force or other organization of a city, county, township or village regularly employed as such and who is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime and the enforcement of the general criminal laws of this state, but shall not include any person serving as such solely by virtue of his occupying any other office or position, nor shall such term include a sheriff, undersheriff, commissioner of police, deputy or assistant commissioner of police, chief of police, deputy chief of police, or any person having an equivalent title who is appointed or employed by a city, county, township or village to exercise equivalent supervisory authority.

Sec. 3. There is created the law enforcement council to carry out the intent of this act and to consist of 11 members selected as follows:

- (a) The attorney general, or his designated representative.
- (b) The commissioner of state police, or his designated representative.
- (c) Three members appointed to the council by the governor from a list of 6 active members submitted by the Michigan association of chiefs of police.
- (d) Three members appointed to the council by the governor from a list of 6 active law enforcement officials submitted by the Michigan sheriffs association.
- (e) One member appointed to the council by the governor from a list of 3 names submitted by the fraternal order of the police.
- (f) One member appointed to the council by the governor from a list of 3 names submitted by the metropolitan club.

(47)

(g) One member appointed to the council by the governor from a list of 3 names submitted by the Detroit police officers associations.

(h) All appointments made by the governor shall be subject to the advice and consent of the senate.

Sec. 4. All members of the council shall hold office for a term of 3 years, except that of the members first appointed from nominees submitted by the Michigan association of chiefs of police and the nominees submitted by the Michigan sheriffs association—1 shall be appointed for 3 years, 1 for 2 years, and 1 for 1 year. A vacancy caused by expiration of a term or termination of his official position in law enforcement shall be filled in the same manner as the original appointment. A member appointed to fill a vacancy created other than by expiration of a term shall be appointed for the unexpired term of the member who he is to succeed in the same manner as the original appointment. Any member may be reappointed for additional terms.

Sec. 5. The council shall designate from among its members a chairman and a vice chairman who shall serve for 1-year terms and who may be re-elected. Membership on the council shall not constitute holding a public office, and members of the council shall not be required to take and file oaths of office before serving on the council. The council shall not have the right to exercise any portion of the sovereign power of the state. No member of the council shall be disqualified from holding any public office or employment by reason of his appointment or membership on the council, nor shall he forfeit any such office or employment, by reason of his appointment hereunder, notwithstanding the provisions of any general, special or local law, ordinance or city charter.

Sec. 6. The council shall meet at least 4 times in each year at Lansing and shall hold special meetings when called by the chairman or, in the absence of the chairman, by the vice chairman or when called by the chairman upon the written request of 5 members of the council. The council shall establish its own procedures and requirements with respect to quorum, place and conduct of its meeting and other matters.

Sec. 7. The council shall make an annual report to the governor which will include pertinent data regarding the standards established and the degree of participation of municipalities in the training programs.

Sec. 8. The members of the council shall serve without compensation but shall be entitled to their actual expenses in attending meetings and in the performance of their duties hereunder.

Sec. 9. The council shall prepare and publish advisory training standards with due consideration to varying factors and special requirements of local police agencies relative to:

- (a) Minimum standards of physical, educational, mental and moral fitness which shall govern the recruitment, selection and appointment of police officers.
- (b) The approval of police training schools administered by a city, county, township, village or corporation.
- (c) Minimum courses of study, attendance requirements, equipment and facilities required at approved city, county, township, village or corporation police training schools.
- (d) Minimum qualifications for instructors at approved police training schools.
- (e) Minimum basic training requirements which police officers appointed to probationary terms shall complete before being eligible for continued or permanent employment, and the time within which such basic training must be completed following such appointment to a probationary term.
- (f) Minimum basic training requirements which police officers not appointed for probationary terms but appointed on other than a permanent basis shall complete in order to be eligible for continued employment or permanent appointment, and the time within which such basic training must be completed following such appointment on a nonpermanent basis.
- (g) Categories or classifications of advanced in-service training programs and minimum courses of study and attendance requirements for such categories or classifications.
- (h) The establishment of subordinate regional training centers in strategic geographic

locations in order to serve the greatest number of police agencies that are unable to support their own training programs.

Sec. 10. The council may enter into agreements with other agencies, colleges and universities to carry out the intent of this act.

Sec. 11. The council may:

(a) Visit and inspect any police training school, or examine the curriculum or training procedures, for which application for approval has been made.

(b) Issue certificates to police training schools qualifying under the regulations of the council.

(c) Authorize the issuance of certificates of graduation or diplomas by approved police training schools to police officers who have satisfactorily completed minimum courses of study.

(d) Cooperate with state, federal and local police agencies in establishing and conducting local or area schools, or regional training centers for instruction and training of police officers of this state, its cities, counties, townships and villages.

(e) Make recommendations to the legislature on matters pertaining to qualification and training of police officers.

Sec. 12. There shall be an executive secretary of the council who shall be appointed by the council, and who shall hold office during the pleasure of the council. He shall perform such functions and duties as may be assigned to him by the council. He shall receive compensation and reimbursement for expenses within the amounts available therefor by appropriation.

Sec. 13. (1) There is hereby created in the state treasury a law enforcement officers training fund, from which, the legislature shall appropriate such sums as are deemed necessary for the purposes of this act.

(2) On and after the effective date of this act, there shall be levied an assessment as additional cost in an amount equal to 10% of every fine, penalty and forfeiture imposed and collected by the courts for criminal offenses, other than a fine, penalty or forfeiture for a violation of the Michigan vehicle code or any local ordinance relating to stopping, parking or operation of a vehicle, and other than for a violation of the conservation laws. When a fine is suspended, in whole or in part, the assessment shall be reduced in proportion to the suspension.

(3) After a determination by the court of the amount due, the clerk of the court shall collect the same and transmit it to the county treasurer, who shall transmit it to the state treasurer to be deposited in the law enforcement officers training fund. The transmission to the state treasurer shall be in the same manner as fines collected for the state by the county.

Sec. 14. The amounts annually appropriated by the legislature shall be paid by the state treasurer in accordance with the accounting laws of the state upon certification of the executive secretary of the council for the purpose of reimbursing the city, county, township or village in an amount not to exceed $\frac{1}{2}$ of the salary paid to each police officer meeting the recruitment standards and participating in training meeting the standards prescribed pursuant to this act during the period covered by the allocation, plus $\frac{1}{2}$ of the necessary living expenses incurred by such officer which are necessitated by training requiring that he be away from his residence overnight. If the moneys in the law enforcement officers training fund to be appropriated by the legislature for such salary and expense reimbursement are insufficient to allocate such amount to each participating city, county, township or village, the amount allocated to each shall be reduced proportionately. In no event shall any allocation be made to any city, county, township or village which has not, throughout the period covered by the allocation, adhered to the standards established by the council as applicable to personnel recruited or trained by such city, county, township or village during such period.

Sec. 15. Any city, county, township or village which desires to receive aid pursuant to this act shall make application to the council for such aid. The application must be accompanied by a certified copy of an ordinance or resolution adopted by its governing

body providing that while receiving any aid pursuant to this act, the city, county, township or village will adhere to the standards established by the council. The application shall contain such information as the council may request.

Sec. 16. This act shall take effect on January 1, 1966.

This act is ordered to take immediate effect.

APPENDIX B

CATALOG OF COURSES
RECRUIT TRAINING PROGRAM
METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT
CITY OF ST. LOUIS (MISSOURI)

Appendix B

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METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT - CITY OF ST. LOUIS

St. Louis Police Academy
Recruit Training Program
Linear Program

CATALOG OF COURSES

		Hours
100	Core of Curriculum	
	101 Patrol	28.0
	102 Traffic Control and Enforcement	25.0
	103 Crime By Type	47.0
	104 Procedures By Type	20.5
200	Police Skills	
	201 Police Armament	51.5
	202 Physical Training and Self-Defense	59.0
	203 First Aid	20.5
	204 Report Writing	20.5
	205 Investigative Techniques	20.5
	206 Driver Training	18.0
300	Police Knowledge	
	301 Organization and Administration	24.5
	302 History, Tradition and Discipline	10.0
	303 Law	54.0
	304 Human Relations	30.5
	305 Cooperating Agencies	16.5
400	Administrative Processes	
	401 Administrative Processes	41.0
	402 Testing	28.0
	403 Case Studies	3.0
	404 Field Training	88.0
	Total Hours Training	606.0

December 12, 1966

METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT - CITY OF ST. LOUIS

St. Louis Police Academy
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CATALOG OF COURSES

101 - Patrol

Introduction to Patrolman's Job	(1 hour)	T-2-1:00
Business Checks and Open Door Procedures	(2 hours)	W-2-1:00
Vacant Property and Burglary Alarms	(1 hour)	Th-2-2:00
Auto Patrol and Vehicle Security	(2 hours)	M-3-1:00
Field Interrogation	(2½ hours)	F-4-10:00
Stopping and Searching of Vehicles	(3½ hours)	T-5-9:00
Stopping and Searching of Vehicles (Review)	(1 hour)	Th-15-1:00
Unsanitary Conditions	(1 hour)	W-4-10:00
City Geography	(2 hours)	M-3-3:00
City Geography Examination	(½ hour)	T-13-1:00
Care and Operation of Department Vehicles	(1 hour)	Th-4-9:00
Major Incidents	(2 hours)	Th -12-9:00
Crowd and Mob Control	(2 hours)	W-8-9:00
Unusual Complaints	(1 hour)	Th-4-10:00
Unsafe Conditions	(1 hour)	M-6-2:00
Mechanics of Arrest	(2 hours)	Th-2-3:00
Practical Radio Procedures	(1 hour)	Th-11-1:00
Election Duties	(1½ hours)	T-13-11:00

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CATALOG OF COURSES

102 - Traffic Control and Enforcement

Introduction to Traffic Control	(3 hours)	W-7-2:00
Uniform Traffic Ticket	(4 hours)	F-7-1:00
State Traffic	(2 hours)	M-8-2:00
Safety Responsibility Law	(1 hour)	M-8-4:00
Parking and Pedestrian Notice	(4 hours)	W-8-1:00
Traffic Direction	(4 hours) (1 hour)	Th-8-1:00 M-9-4:00
Vehicle Towing Procedure	(1 hour)	W-9-10:00
D.P.C.	(3 hours)	F-10-2:00
Accident Investigation	(4 hours)	F-8-1:00

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CATALOG OF COURSES

103 - Crime by Type

Peace Disturbance	(3½ hours)	F-6-9:00
Assaults	(3 hours)	M-7-1:00
Flourishing and C.C.W.	(3½ hours)	F-7-9:00
Sex Offenses	(3 hours)	W-9-2:00
Homicide	(3 hours)	M-9-1:00
Stealing	(3 hours)	F-9-2:00
Destruction of Property and Related Offenses	(2 hours)	W-10-3:00
Burglary	(3 hours)	M-10-3:00
Robbery	(3½ hours)	Th-11-9:00
Liquor Laws and Tavern Violations	(3 hours)	Th -3-2:00
Auto Theft	(2½ hours)	T-7-10:00
Con Games	(2 hours)	Th-13-2:00
Destitute Cases	(1 hour)	W-4-9:00
Curfew and Truancy Notices	(1 hour)	Th-5-9:00

The above lectures include the following subject areas as they directly apply to specific crime.

Law
Recommended Procedures
Investigations
Physical Techniques
Report Writing
General Information

METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT - CITY OF ST. LOUIS

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Also see:

103A Check Squad	(1 hour)	Th-9-1:00
103A Narcotics Squad	(2 hours)	W-11-9:00
103A Homicide Division	(2 hours)	F-8-9:00
103A Mercantile Squad	(1 hour)	F-9-1:00
103A Gambling Squad	(2 hours)	W-11-3:00
103A Arson Squad	(2 hours)	W-13-9:00

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104 - Procedures by Type

Coroners Procedures	(2 hours)	Th-5-1:00
Morgue Procedures	(2 hours)	F-5-9:00
Tour of Morgue	(2 hours)	W-5-9:00
Hospital Procedures	(3½ hours)	T-4-9:00
Tour of Hospital #1	(4 hours)	Th-4-1:00
Tour of Hospital #2	(3 hours)	T-4-2:00
Teletype Procedure	(1 hour)	T-2-2:00
Booking Procedure	(2 hours)	F-10-9:00
Bench Warrants	(1 hour)	W-10-10:00

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CATALOG OF COURSES

201 - Police Armament

Firearms Lecture	(4 hours)	F-2-1:00
Issue of Revolvers	(1 hour)	T-3-1:00
Mechanics of Operation and Safety	(1 hour)	
Practice Dry Firing	(2 hours)	
Introduction to Shooting Positions and Dry Firing	(4 hours)	W-3-1:00
Indoor Shooting Practice	(4 hours)	F-3-1:00
	(4 hours)	M-4-1:00
	(4 hours)	T-5-1:00
	(4 hours)	W-5-1:00
	(4 hours)	W-6-1:00
Introduction to Shotgun Lecture	(2 hours)	W-4-1:00
Introduction to Teargas Lecture	(2 hours)	F-4-1:00
Shotgun Mechanics of Operation, Dry Firing	(4 hours)	F-5-1:00
Outdoor Shooting, Teargas Demonstration, Shotgun Firing (Weldon Springs)	(7½ hours)	T-6-9:00
Revolver Qualifications	(4 hours)	F-6-1:00

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202 - Physical Training and Self-Defense

Police Baton	(2 hours)	T-2-3:00
Handcuffing	(2 hours)	W-3-9:00
Physical Training	(25 hours)	2-15 Wk. 11:00
Self-Defense Training	(30 hours)	2-15 Wk. 11:00

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203 - First Aid

Introduction to First Aid	(1 hour)	M-5-3:00
Transportation of Sick and Inured	(1 hour)	M-5-4:00
Control of Bleeding	(2 hours)	M-6-3:00
Shock and Wound	(2 hours)	Th-6-9:00
Artificial Respiration	(2 hours)	T-7-3:00
Oral Resuscitation	(2 hours)	Th-7-3:00
Common Medical Emergencies	(2 hours)	T-8-3:00
E & J Resuscitator	(2 hours)	Th-8-9:00
Heat Cases	(1 hour)	Th-5-3:00
Poison Cases	(1 hour)	Th-5-4:00
Emergency Child Birth	(1½ hours)	F-8-11:00
Injuries to Bones and Muscles	(1 hour)	Th-5-10:00
Medical Self Help	(1 hour)	W-13-4:00
	(1 hour)	Th-13-4:00

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204 - Report Writing

Introduction to Report Writing	(2 hours)	Th-1-3:00
Administrative Forms	(2 hours)	W-1-3:00
Report Writing	(2 hours)	F-1-3:00
Introduction to Form Reports	(2 hours) (2 hours)	Th-3-9:00 F-3-9:00
Report Writing Practice	(1 hour) (1 hour) (1 hour) (1 hour) (1 hour) (1 hour)	T-14-4:00 W-14-4:00 Th-14-1:00 T-15-4:00 Th-15-4:00 W-16-1:00 W-16-4:00
Liquor License and Dance Hall License	(1½ hours)	F-3-11:00
Uniform Crime Reporting	(2 hours)	T-13-9:00

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205 - Investigative Techniques

Principles of Investigation	(1 hour)	M-2-1:00
Source of Information	(1 hour)	M-2-2:00
Interviewing Techniques	(2 hours)	W-2-3:00
Criminal Interrogation	(1 hour)	F-4-9:00
Introduction to Criminal Investigation	(1 hour)	W-6-9:00
Diagrams, Sketches and Charts	(1 hour)	W-6-10:00
Technical Studies	(2 hours)	W-7-9:00
Firearms Identification	(2 hours)	Th-7-9:00
Statements, Admissions and Confessions	(3½ hours)	T-8-9:00
Collection, Identification of Criminal Evidence	(1 hour)	W-9-9:00
Evidence Containers	(2 hours)	Th-9-9:00
Fingerprints	(2 hours)	Th-10-9:00
Polygraph	(1 hour)	T-4-1:00

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206 - Driver Training

Driver Training Class	(2 hours)	M-11-3:00
Driver Training Wentzville Track	(8 hours)	T-11-7:00
	(8 hours)	T-12-7:00

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301 - Organization and Administration

Organization and Administration	(1 hour)	T-1-1:00
Bureau of Inspections	(1 hour)	T-1-3:00
Bureau of Services	(1 hour)	W-1-2:00
Bureau of Investigation	(1 hour)	W-1-1:00
Bureau of Field Operations	(1 hour)	Th-1-1:00
Mobile Reserve	(1 hour)	Th-1-2:00
Canine Unit	(1 hour)	F-1-1:00
Deployment Unit	(1 hour)	F-1-2:00
Communication Division	(2 hours)	Th-1-9:00
	(2 hours)	F-1-9:00
Personnel Division	(1 hour)	W-1-11:00
District Station Organization	(1 hour)	M-2-3:00
District Station Administration	(1 hour)	M-2-4:00
Juvenile Division	(2 hours)	T-7-1:00
	(2 hours)	Th-7-1:00
Tour of Headquarters	(2 hours)	W-12-3:00
Record Room Use	(1½ hours)	F-5-11:00
	(1 hour)	M-6-1:00
Computer Training	(1 hour)	M-7-4:00

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302 - History, Tradition and Discipline

Purpose and Use of the Police Manual	(1 hour)	T-1-11:00
Rules and Regulations	(1 hour)	M-1-2:00
History and Tradition	(2 hours)	T-1-9:00
Discipline and Department	(1 hour)	W-1-9:00
Disciplinary Procedures	(1 hour)	W-1-10:00
Honors, Ceremonies and Courtesies	(1 hour)	F-1-11:00
Code of Ethics	(3 hours)	W-14-1:00

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303 - Law

Introduction to Criminal Law	(3½ hours)	T-2-9:00
Laws of Arrest	(2 hours)	W-2-9:00
Laws of Search and Seizure	(2 hours) (3½ hours)	Th-2-9:00 F-2-9:00
Laws of Evidence	(3½ hours)	T-3-9:00
City Counselor	(2 hours) (2 hours) (2 hours) (2 hours) (2 hours)	W-10-1:00 M-11-1:00 W-11-1:00 M-21-1:00 W-12-1:00
Cases as Viewed by the Defense Attorney	(2 hours)	F-4-3:00
Criminal Evidence Review	(2 hours)	Th-8-3:00
Police Officers Place in Civil Disputes	(2 hours)	W-4-3:00
Preparation for Trial and Courtroom Demeanor	(2 hours)	W-12-9:00
Warrant Applications	(4 hours)	Th-6-1:00
Courts and Their Jurisdictions	(1 hour)	Th-2-1:00
Observation of Trial CCC #1	(2½ hours)	F-9-10:00
Tour of City Court	(3½ hours)	T-14-9:00
Circuit Attorney	(3 hours) (3 hours) (3 hours)	Th-9-2:00 Th-11-2:00 Th-12-2:00
Prosecuting Attorney	(1½ hours)	F-10-11:00

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CATALOG OF COURSES

304 - Human Relations

Representative of Press	(1 hour)	F-9-9:00
Psychiatric Growth and Development	(3 hours) (2 hours)	T-13-2:00 W-13-2:00
Mental Illness	(2½ hours)	Th-13-9:00
Human Behavior	(2 hours)	T-14-2:00
Alcoholism (Social Disorganization)	(2 hours)	Th-14-9:00
American Culture	(3 hours)	Th-14-2:00
Social Disorganization	(1 hour)	T-15-3:00
St. Louis Community	(3 hours)	W-15-2:00
Narcotics Addiction	(2 hours)	Th-15-9:00
Suicides	(2 hours)	Th-15-2:00
Psychology of Prejudice	(3 hours)	T-16-2:00
Mechanics of Community Relations	(1 hour)	W-16-9:00
Mass Media Relations	(1 hour)	W-16-10:00
Social Maladjustment and Sex Deviations	(2 hours)	W-16-2:00

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305 - Cooperating Agencies

Missouri State Highway Patrol	(1 hour)	Th-12-1:00
Police Public Relations	(1 hour)	M-5-1:00
Humane Society	(1 hour)	Th-13-1:00
Alcohol Tax Unit (U.S.)	(1 hour)	Th-3-1:00
Postal Authorities	(1 hour)	M-10-1:00
Federal Bureau of Investigation	(2 hours)	W-14-9:00
U.S. Narcotic Division	(1 hour)	M-8-1:00
Pure Food and Drug Administration	(1 hour)	W-13-1:00
U.S. Secret Service	(1 hour)	F-10-1:00
Civil Defense	(2 hours)	T-8-1:00
Tour of Fire Department	(3½ hours)	W-15-9:00
National Auto Theft Bureau, Chicago	(1 hour)	T-7-9:00

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CATALOG OF COURSES

401 - Administrative Processing

Swearing In Ceremonies	(1 hour)	M-1-9:00
Administrative Processing	(1 hour)	M-1-10:00
Uniform Inspector	(1 hour)	M-1-11:00
I.D. Photos	($\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	M-1-12:30
	($\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	T-13-1:00
Introduction to Instructors	(1 hour)	M-1-1:00
Resume of Course and Note Taking	(2 hours)	M-1-3:00
Library Use	(1 hour)	T-1-2:00
Counselor Meeting	(1 hour)	T-1-4:00
	(1 hour)	W-7-2:00
	(1 hour)	M-5-2:00
Credit Union	(1 hour)	T-1-12:30
Relief Association	($\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	W-1-12:30
Hospital Association	($\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	Th-1-12:30
Funeral Association	($\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	F-1-12:30
Pension Association	(1 hour)	Th-1-11:00
Field Training Critique	(1 hour)	W-9-1:00
	(1 hour)	W-10-9:00
	(2 hours)	M-12-3:00
	($\frac{1}{2}$ hours)	M-13-11:00
	($\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	T-14-1:30
	($\frac{1}{2}$ hours)	T-15-11:00
Group Photo	($\frac{1}{2}$ hour)	T-14-1:00

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CATALOG OF COURSES

401 - Administrative Processing (continued)

Graduation Practice	($\frac{1}{2}$ hours)	T-16-11:00
	(1 hour)	T-16-1:00
	($\frac{1}{2}$ hours)	W-16-11:00
Graduation Detail	(4 hours)	Th-10-1:00
Graduation Exercise	(4 hours)	Th-16-1:00
Blood Bank (Red Cross)	(4 hours)	M-13-1:00

METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT - CITY OF ST. LOUIS

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CATALOG OF COURSES

402 - Testing

Weekly Testing (14 hours)

Weekly Test Review (14 hours)

METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT - CITY OF ST. LOUIS

St. Louis Police Academy
Recruit Training Program
Linear Program

CATALOG OF COURSES

403 - Case Studies

(1 hour) T-15-1:00
(1 hour) W-15-1:00

Unitrain Review and Issue

(1 hour) T-15-2:00

METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT - CITY OF ST. LOUIS

61

St. Louis Police Academy
Recruit Training Program
Linear Program

CATALOG OF COURSES

404 - Field Training

Traffic	(8 hours)	T-9-9:00
Traffic	(8 hours)	T-10-9:00
Field - District	(8 hours)	F-11-7:00
	(8 hours)	F-12-7:00
	(8 hours)	F-13-3:00
	(8 hours)	S-13-3:00
	(8 hours)	F-14-4th watch
	(8 hours)	S-14-4th watch
	(8 hours)	F-15-4th watch
	(8 hours)	S-15-4th watch
	(8 hours)	S-15-4th watch

APPENDIX C

CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT

RECRUIT CURRICULUM

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

MASTER SHEET

	<u>HOURS</u>
Administration	42
Criminal Law Unit	90
Firearms & Drill Unit	48
Firearms - 30	
Drill - 18	
Physical Training Unit	35
Police Operations Unit	235
Department Standards - 14	
Field Procedures - 135	
Gen. & Spec. Studies - 25	
Investigation - 38	
Staff Services - 23	
Social Science Unit	<u>40</u>
Total Hours	490

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

ADMINISTRATION

	<u>Hours</u>
ORIENTATION: Swearing in Forms, etc.	2
Welcome Address: Dep. Sup't.	1
Psychological Testing	3
Police Ethics	1
Examinations	14
Counselling	10
Police Annuity Fund (G)	1
Department Chaplains (G)	6
Director's Hour	1
Graduation	3
Open House: Recruits' Families	<u>0</u>
Total Hours	42

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

CRIMINAL LAW UNIT

	<u>Hours</u>
Constitutional Law	2
Federal/State Courts & Prosecutors	2
Criminal Code	28
Traffic Laws	6
Arrest, Search, Seizure	9
Rules of Evidence	8
Municipal Code	4
Court Complaints	2
Testifying in Court	3
Criminal Procedures	6
Preliminary Hearing	1
Mock Trial	5
Mock Trial Review	2
Postal Inspector (G)	1
Alcohol & Tobacco Tax Unit (G)	1
Secret Service (G)	2
Federal Narcotics (G)	1
Immigration (G)	1
Civil Rights (G)	1
Civil Liabilities (G)	1
Federal Bureau of Investigation (G)	2
Federal Probation, Pardon, Parole (G)	1
State Probation, Pardon, Parole (G)	<u>1</u>
Total Hours	90

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

FIREARMS & DRILL

	<u>Hours</u>
Firearms	30
Range Orientation	1 Hour
Weapons Orientation	3 Hours
Range	26 Hours
Drill	18
Discipline	1 Hour
Military Formations & Drill	6 Hours
Baton & Drill	3 Hours
Drill-Crowd Control	5 Hours
Drill-Practice & Review	3 Hours
Total Hours	<u>48</u>

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

PHYSICAL TRAINING

	<u>Hours</u>
Orientation	1
Physical Evaluation	2
Defensive Tactics	<u>32</u>
Total Hours	35

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

POLICE OPERATIONS UNIT

DEPARTMENT STANDARDS

	<u>Hours</u>
Department Organization	2
Rules & Regulations	3
Discipline Procedures (G)	2
General Orders	2
Department Inspections (G)	1
Police Courtesy	2
Police/Public Relations (G)	1
Telephone Courtesy (G)	<u>1</u>
Total Hours	14

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

POLICE OPERATIONS UNIT

FIELD PROCEDURES

	<u>Hours</u>
Purpose of Reports	1
Principles of Reports	1
Observation	3
Methods of Patrol	4
Disturbances	1
Record Procedures (G)	1
Drunk Arrests	1
Miscellaneous Reports	2
Sex Offense Procedures	1
Field Interrogation	1
Traffic Enforcement Policy	1
Officer-Violator Policy	2
Field Training Orientation	2
Field Training	70
Stolen Auto Procedures (G)	2
Safety in Pursuit Driving	1
Traffic Reports: Breathalyzer (G)	1
Drunk Driving Arrests (G)	1
Cooperation with Fire Dept. FIELD TRIP	2
Non-traffic Citations	1
Field Case Reporting	20
Intersection Control	2
Citation Issuance Procedures (G)	3
Traffic Reports: Radar	1

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

POLICE OPERATIONS UNIT

FIELD PROCEDURES

	<u>Hours</u>
Accident Investigation (G)	3
Mechanics of Arrest	5
Auto Theft Investigation	1
Officer's Memo Book	<u>1</u>
Total Hours	135

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

POLICE OPERATIONS UNIT

GENERAL & SPECIAL STUDIES

	<u>Hours</u>
Academy Regulations & Conduct	1
Classroom Notetaking	1
Study Habits & Examinations	1
Medical Examination: (Medical Division)	1
or	
FILM - "The Rookie Cop" The Blue Light	
To-From-Subject Reports	1
First Aid: Police Procedures	3
First Aid	13
Emergency Childbirth (G)	1
Rabies Control (G)	1
First Aid: Fallout & Shelters	1
First Aid: Emergency Living	1
Total Hours	<u>25</u>

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

POLICE OPERATIONS UNIT

INVESTIGATION

	<u>Hours</u>
Principles of Investigation	1
Preliminary Investigation	3
Follow-up Investigation (G)	2
Collection & Preservation of Evidence	2
Sources of Information	1
Police Responsibilities: Railroad Property (G)	1
Identification of Persons	1
Identification of Property	1
Disaster Identification: FILM	1
Fingerprints: Theory (G)	2
Fingerprints: Practice (G)	2
Modus Operandi	1
Vice Investigation	2
Techniques of Interrogation & Interviewing Witnesses	2
Crime Analysis (G)	1
Intelligence - BIS (G)	2
Narcotic Offense Procedures	2
Statements	3
Crime Scene	7
Robbery (G)	1
Total Hours	<u>38</u>

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

POLICE OPERATIONS UNIT

STAFF SERVICES

	<u>Hours</u>
Communications	1
Vehicle Maintenance	1
Transporting Persons	1
Transporting Persons: Female (G)	1
Squadron Procedures	1
Station Desk	1
Jail Duties	1
Processing Arrested Persons	3
Evidence & Recovered Property (G)	1
Evidence & Recovered Property	2
Department Safety (G)	8
Coroner's Duties (G)	1
Department Special Services (G)	<u>1</u>
Total Hours	23

RECRUIT CURRICULUM - 14 WEEKS

SOCIAL SCIENCE UNIT

	<u>Hours</u>
City Orientation	2
State & Local Government	3
Social Problems	5
Semantics	5
Basic Psychology (G)	5
Abnormal Psychology (G) Hours 1-2-3	3
Abnormal Psychology (Hours 4 & 5)	2
Causative Factors of Delinquency	5
Police/Minority Groups (G) - (NCCJ)	4
Juvenile Procedures	4
Subversive Activities (G)	<u>2</u>
Total Hours	40

CONTINUED

1 OF 6

APPENDIX D

MINIMUM BASIC 130 HOUR
POLICE TRAINING CURRICULUM

Appendix D

MINIMUM BASIC POLICE TRAINING CURRICULUM

The following law enforcement officer minimum basic police training curriculum is adopted by the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council as authorized by Act No. 203, Public Acts of Michigan, 1965, Section 9(a).

The length of the Basic Course shall be one hundred twenty hours of classroom and range instruction. An hour shall be defined as fifty minutes of instruction plus a ten minute break.

ADMINISTRATION SECTION - 3 Hours

Program Orientation & Classroom Notetaking 1
Examinations 2

LEGAL SECTION - 24 Hours

Constitutional Law 2
Criminal Law (To include orientation on Civil Law) 8
Law of Evidence 4
Arrest, Search & Seizure Law 6
Admissions & Confessions 4

INVESTIGATION SECTION - 16 Hours

Criminal Investigation 8
Vice Investigation & Narcotics 3
Crime Scene Search 1
Collection & Preservation of Evidence 2
Interview & Interrogation 2

GENERAL POLICE SECTION - 49 Hours

Crime Prevention & Juvenile Offender 2
Testifying in Court 2
Firearms 15
*Police First Aid 4
Field Notetaking & Report Writing 2
Police Communications 2
Patrol Techniques 10
Riot Control 4
Defensive Tactics 8

*Prior to certification the officer will have had to successfully complete the Basic Red Cross First Aid Course consisting of ten hours.

TRAFFIC SUBJECTS SECTION - 17 Hours

Motor Vehicle Law	8
Motor Vehicle Accident Investigation & Related Subjects	8
Traffic Signals	1

SPECIAL SUBJECTS SECTION - 11 Hours

Human Relations	4
Handling Abnormal Persons	2
Police Courtesy & Ethics	5

Total Hours 120

It is emphasized that this is a minimum curriculum, agencies are encouraged to enlarge upon it whenever possible.

APPENDIX E

COURSE DESCRIPTION FOR
MINIMUM 130 HOUR BASIC POLICE CURRICULUM

Appendix E
COURSE DESCRIPTION
FOR
MINIMUM BASIC RECRUIT CURRICULUM

The amount of training for which aid and certification will be granted in the basic course shall be a total of 130 hours of instruction. The curriculum for this 130 hours shall conform to the minimum basic police training curriculum published by the Training Council. Following is a syllabus of the topics in the minimum basic curriculum elaborated to clarify the interpretation of the Council's curriculum.

ADMINISTRATION SECTION - 3 Hours

1. Program Orientation and Classroom Notetaking - 1 Hour. This portion of the program is for acquainting the trainees with the ground rules of the school. Such things as attendance requirements, examination procedures, school and Council form completion, emergency procedures, explanation of available facilities, distribution of handout materials for use during the school, and, in general, to create the proper atmosphere for the learning processes to be utilized in the school. The trainees should be instructed during this period of notetaking methods and the reasons for maintaining a notebook, a requirement in a Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council program. These notebooks should be completed to provide the officer with a permanent record of the vital information presented in the school. The trainee should be instructed to restate all ideas and expressions used in lectures to his terms so they will be meaningful to him for future reference purposes.
2. Examinations - 2 Hours.

LEGAL SECTION - 24 Hours

1. Constitutional Law - 2 Hours. The powers of the police and rights of the individual are delineated with emphasis on the protective rights provided in the Constitution of the United States and the Bill of Rights. The State Constitution, particularly as it affects law enforcement, should also be discussed.
2. Criminal Law - 8 Hours. (To include orientation of Civil Law) This section will cover administration of justice; the sources of law and general classifications of law to include criminal, civil and tort; sources of criminal law in Michigan; common law; precedence law; statutes or code laws and attorney general's opinions. Crime and the classifications of crime will be defined. The more frequently encountered crimes with a description of their elements

and a familiarization with the more common civil problems met during patrol assignments should be highlighted. Specific recommendations should be presented in the serving of writs and court orders that deputy sheriffs in particular are often called upon to execute.

3. Law of Evidence - 4 hours. Various types of evidence, rules of evidence and proper handling of evidence until it is presented at a trial will be emphasized.
4. Arrest, Search and Seizure Law - 6 Hours. The elements constituting a valid arrest and the proper scope of a search pursuant to a valid arrest will be discussed in this section. Distinctions will be made between felony and misdemeanor arrests. The arresting process and a discussion of "reasonable cause" in relation to this process should be covered. The aspects of self-protection and the use of necessary force will be discussed. Searches with and without a warrant along with who and when the warrant may be executed and the proper processing of seized property should be covered in this section.
5. Admissions and Confessions - 4 Hours. Instruction in this section should include a review of laws and recent Supreme Court decision, their effects on attaining an admission or confession. The purpose of obtaining statements and confessions should be developed along with the precautionary measures necessary to protect their value in prosecution. Voluntary and involuntary types of confessions should be elaborated with prerequisite procedures necessary to the act of recording such statements. The difference between admission and confession should be developed and the respective uses of each in an investigation.

INVESTIGATIVE SECTION - 16 Hours

1. Criminal Investigation - 8 Hours. The objective of a criminal investigation is to identify the offender, bring him to justice and recover the property involved in the case. The techniques of investigation facilitating this process such as the use of informers, undercover work, stake-outs, surveillances and other scientific field aids should be developed in this block of instruction. Specific investigations of the more serious offenses should be highlighted such as auto theft, burglary, robbery, forgery, check cases, homicide, missing persons, sex crimes and shoplifting. The method of operation used in specific crimes and the other peculiarities associated with the various crimes should be highlighted during this section.
2. Vice Investigation and Narcotics - 3 Hours. These types of investigation are singled out for concentration because modified techniques are employed in pursuit of the perpetrators of these crimes. Distinguishable factors of this type of criminal is the victims' hesitancy to complain to law enforcement agencies and a great percentage have prior criminal records. Developed in this section should be the

extensive use of informants and undercover officers who are heavily relied upon in this investigation category. Trainees will be instructed on search methods used for finding contraband. Law relating to gambling, liquor, prostitution and the problems peculiar to each of these types of crimes should be covered.

3. Crime Scene Search - 1 Hour. Emphasis should be placed on conducting a proper search in the initial investigation. Systematic methods of search which avoid the hit or miss approach should be developed. Evidence should not be moved until photographed when possible. Emphasis in this section should point out that in addition to easily recognizable articles of evidence, either latent or microscopic items may be present and be of great importance to the case.
4. Collection and Preservation of Evidence - 2 Hours. Evidence found during an investigation must be identified by some distinguishable symbol by the discovering officer to insure at a later date that this is the same item found during a specific search. Identifying marks should be inconspicuous and small as practicable. Distinctive marks should be used such as the initials of the discovering officer and the date of the discovery. Every persons handling the evidence from discovery to disposition forms a link in the "chain of custody." The chain of custody should remain as limited as possible. Care should be exercised in wrapping and transporting of evidence.
5. Interview and Interrogation - 2 Hours. The interrogator and the subject are the components of interrogation. The attitude and preparation of the interrogator will be stressed along with the approaches for use with the different subjects. The place of the interview, the value of privacy, time element and persons present during the interview will also be highlighted. Techniques for interrogation of willing and able subjects and unwilling subjects will be discussed.

GENERAL POLICE SECTION - 49 Hours

1. Crime Prevention and Juvenile Offender - 2 Hours. Responsibility of law enforcement agencies and various juvenile agencies, procedures for handling juveniles and obtaining juvenile court petitions should be studied. The proper methods and techniques in dealing with juveniles and the importance in dealing with each incident involving a youth on an individual basis will be emphasized.
2. Testifying in Court - 2 Hours. The importance of police officers as witnesses as well as their limitations will be discussed. Officers will be instructed on the importance of promptness and outstanding appearance for court appearances. Demeanor, speech, voice, bearing, objectivity and efficiency in relating the facts of the incident should be covered.

3. Firearms - 15 Hours. The firearms instruction is to acquaint officers with the moral and legal aspects of the use of firearms; the laws pertaining to the possession; the use of deadly weapons by police officers and others; the safety precautions in the use of firearms at home, on the job and on the range; inspection and cleaning procedures for the upkeep of firearms; recognition of simple mechanical defects fundamentals of fine marksmanship, proper stance, grip, sight alignment, breathing and trigger control plus the actual range experience firing from both weak and strong hand positions and slow and timed fire. Instruction in firearms will include both classroom and range practice on an approved indoor or outdoor range. The trainee should fire at least 200 rounds of ammunition under the supervision of a qualified instructor. General orientation on shotguns and gas guns should be included during this period of instruction.
4. Police First Aid - 4 Hours. The more serious types of injuries likely to confront the officer in the performance of his duty require the ability to recognize and knowledge to handle: Breathing and bleeding control measures for serious wounds, prevention of traumatic shock, artificial resuscitation, care of serious burns, fractures, poisoning, and emergency childbirth.
5. Field Notetaking and Report Writing - 2 Hours. Methods of taking complete notes in an investigation, value of field notes, necessity of keeping notes, preservation of notes, uses of sketches and diagrams for the recollection and memory reproduction of events for court presentation, the use of field notes in court and in writing investigative reports, the sound logical sequence of events in the narrative body of the report, the organization, understandability, grammar and punctuation should be highlighted in this section.
6. Police Communications - 2 Hours. Regulations relative to the use of police communication devices and code systems for abbreviating messages on the air, proper demeanor and voice usage on these devices to include radios and telephones will be discussed. Configurations for local area communications will be highlighted whenever possible.
7. Patrol Techniques - 10 Hours. Emphasis should be placed on police patrol since it is the first line of defense against the criminal element and the backbone of the police service. The general purposes of the patrol are the: Protection, prevention, repression of crime and identification and apprehension of criminals. The methods of patrol will be covered to include fixed, auto and foot patrol. The techniques of patrolling and responses to emergencies and routine situations; operating practices of the one and two man patrol units along with the hazard and security inspection procedures in each method of patrol. Hazards related to emergency responses and developing powers of preception and observation of persons, places and things should be covered. Arrest techniques to include the

proper approach in different circumstances, field searches, use of restraining devices and processing of prisoners are included in this section. Procedures for approaching, stopping and citing traffic violators and how to legally deal with violators under the influence of alcohol and drugs should be discussed.

8. Riot Control - 4 Hours. The general role of the police will be clarified along with the definition of the difference between mobs and crowds and the types of police action to be used in these situations. A summary of dos and don'ts and instruction on some of the basic tactics used for controlling a riot should be covered.
9. Defensive Tactics - 8 Hours. The purpose of this block of instruction is to provide skill development to inspire confidence in the handling of recalcitrant persons. Personal weapons will be indicated to the trainees along with the vulnerable points of the body. The trainees will be given proper exercises and stretching maneuvers to prepare themselves for physical exertion. Defenses will be taught against choke and other holds and use of handcuffs and restraint of prisoners. The application of arm locks, come-along holds will be taught along with practical orientation of removing persons from automobiles by different techniques. The intended purpose of the baton will be instructed. This section will include methods of disarming and protecting against persons armed with a dangerous or deadly weapons.

TRAFFIC SUBJECTS - 17 Hours

1. Motor Vehicle Law - 8 Hours. Familiarization with the Michigan Motor Vehicle Code and sections thereof that are most frequently used by the departments in the area served by the training school. Specific traffic offenses in the elements that make up violations should be emphasized. Proper processing of traffic arrests should be covered.
2. Motor Vehicle Accident Investigation and Related Subjects - 8 Hours. A brief discussion should be made of: The theory of accident causation; purposes of accident investigation; commonly accepted steps in accident investigation; proceeding to the scene, parking vehicle at the scene; aiding the injured; protecting the scene; restoring the flow of traffic, collection of physical evidence; locating, identifying and questioning of witnesses; observing the behavior of the drivers; examining the roadway and driving conditions; taking measurements and photographs. Selective enforcement and selective assignment of police resources and the importance of police records should be stressed along with important roles of agencies that are related to traffic enforcement. Trainees should be instructed on the completion of the State of Michigan Official Traffic Accident Report which is to be forwarded to the State Police according to Michigan law.

3. Traffic Signals - 1 Hour. Techniques for controlling the traffic flow of vehicles and pedestrians through the proper use of hand signals and other devices to achieve maximum safety and the ultimate result will be presented. Parking control and emergency traffic control should be covered.

SPECIAL SUBJECTS SECTION - 11 Hours

1. Human Relations - 4 Hours. The human relations section refreshes the officer's understanding of the actions and reactions of himself and those with whom he deals. The effect bias and prejudice has upon the thinking and actions of himself and others should be pointed out.
2. Handling Abnormal Persons - 2 Hours. This section lists those recognized signs of mental illness, gives examples of samples of common types of these abnormal behavior patterns. Law enforcement responsibilities are discussed with emphasis on the handling and processing of abnormal persons with proper care. The prescribed legal procedures should be developed that patrol officers should follow in handling of these persons in both emergency and routine cases.
3. Police Courtesy and Ethics - 5 Hours. The definition of a profession as it applies to law enforcement and ethical standards of the police career field. Trainees should be informed of the public trust placed in them and how they build or adversely affect the public attitude toward their department and general law enforcement by their every action. The wearing of the uniform and the importance of a good appearance will be highlighted. The Law Enforcement Code of Ethics should be reviewed. Specific illustrations should be used to depict commonly encountered situations by police officers in the conduct of their duties and the ethical reactions to these situations. Officers should be made to understand that they may be adjudged differently than a citizen of their community if they should engage in conduct that is of a questionable nature.

APPENDIX F
 PROPOSED EXTENDED
 MINIMUM BASIC POLICE TRAINING CURRICULUM

MINIMUM BASIC POLICE TRAINING CURRICULUM

<u>ADMINISTRATION SECTION</u>	<u>130</u>	<u>240</u>	<u>320</u>	<u>400</u>
Program Orientation and Notetaking	1	2	3	4
Examinations and Quizzes	2	4	6	8
Review	0	4	6	8
 <u>TRAFFIC SECTION</u>				
Motor Vehicle Law	8	12	16	19
Motor Vehicle Accident Investigation and Related Subjects	8	12	16	19
Traffic Signals	1	2	2	2
 <u>GENERAL POLICE SECTION</u>				
Crime Prevention and the Juvenile Offender	2	4	6	8
Testifying in Court	2	4	4	4
Mock Trial	0	2	2	2
Mock Trial Review	0	2	2	2
Firearms	15	25	32	40
*Police First Aid (14 hrs. required - remainder elective)	14	(16)	(20)	(27)
Field Notetaking and Report Writing	2	3	4	4
Police Communications	2	3	3	4
Patrol Techniques	10	20	30	40
Riot Control	4	8	16	20
Mechanics of Arrest	0	3	4	5
Defensive Tactics	8	10	12	12

<u>SPECIAL SUBJECTS SECTION</u>	<u>130</u>	<u>240</u>	<u>320</u>	<u>400</u>
Human Relations	4	6	8	12
Handling Abnormal Persons	2	4	4	4
Police Courtesy and Ethics	5	6	7	8
Physical Training	0	25	30	40
<u>LEGAL SECTION</u>				
Constitutional Law	2	3	5	8
Criminal Law (including orientation on Civil Law)	8	12	16	20
Laws of Evidence	4	5	6	8
Arrest, Search and Seizure	6	8	10	20
Admissions and Confessions	4	5	6	8
<u>INVESTIGATION SECTION</u>				
Criminal Investigation	8	10	12	16
Vice Investigation and Narcotics - Prostitution	3	4	6	6
Crime Scene Search	1	2	4	6
Collection and Preservation of Evidence	2	3	4	4
Interview	2	3	4	5
<u>EXTERNAL RELATIONS</u>				
Federal Bureau of Investigation	0	1	2	2
Parole	0	1	1	1
Probation	0	1	1	1

(continued)

<u>EXTERNAL RELATIONS (continued)</u>	<u>130</u>	<u>240</u>	<u>320</u>	<u>400</u>
Treasury Department - Alcohol and Tobacco Tax Unit	0	1	1	1
Postal Inspection Service	0	1	1	1
Communicable Diseases	0	1	2	2
Precision Driving (or may be in lieu of riot training)	0	(4)	3 (5)	3 (5)
Roadblocks (may be used as part of patrol techniques)	0	(2)	(2)	(2)
*Water Rescue (may be used as part of physical training)	0	(6)	(6)	(6)
*Graduation (may be used in the administrative section)	0	(3)	(3)	(3)
Liquor Laws and Enforcement	0	4	6	6
	0	<u>10</u> 26	<u>20</u> 29	<u>20</u> 29

*Indicates that the credits in parentheses may be used as electives where the situation warrants or necessitates a change in the training curriculum.

GENERAL LAW ENFORCEMENT SECTION

LESSON PLANS

A Report to
The
Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council
In Accordance with
Grant No. 177 from
U. S. Department of Justice
Office of Law Enforcement Assistance
Washington, D. C.

by

James W. Rutherford
Project Consultant

June, 1968

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THE JUVENILE OFFENDER

I. Crime Prevention and the Juvenile Offender.

A. The police officer's contact with the juvenile.

1. A juvenile delinquent is one who has committed a violation of a law and who has not reached his or her 17th birthday.
 - a. The police should make this determination immediately upon arrest.
 - b. If he is found to be under 17 he is a juvenile offender.
2. A juvenile may be apprehended:
 - a. When he violates any city ordinance, state law, or federal statute. In this respect there is no difference between the juvenile and the adult offender.
 - b. When he has run away from home, refusing to return.
 - c. When he is disobedient repeatedly to his parent or legal guardian. This is called "incorrigible." The police will receive calls to homes where parents or guardian will complain of a child's disobedience. Each call should be handled in the best judgment of the officer.
 - d. When he is found on the premises that are being occupied or used for illegal purposes, or is seen repeatedly with immoral persons. This means if a juvenile is frequenting a known house of prostitution, gambling or booze joints, he is violating the law.
 - e. When he absents himself from school willfully and repeatedly. This is called "truancy." It is usually a continuing offense and often the officer does not have complete knowledge of the extent of this truancy. The schools usually assume the responsibility to see that the offender is brought to the attention first of his parents, and then the Probate Court.
 - f. When a child has been neglected, abused, or is in a home where he is treated cruelly, or is subjected to criminality, drunkenness, or depravity, an officer can take that child into custody.

B. The disposition of the juvenile offender.

1. To many officers, questions will arise after they have apprehended a juvenile offender - questions such as "can we take him to his home?", "should we call the juvenile officer?", "call the sergeant?", or "just what do we do?". There are several ways an offender may be handled.
 - a. If the act is a minor offense as are many misdemeanors, the officer may release the juvenile with a warning and bring the circumstances of the offense to the attention of the parent. This is best accomplished by taking the child home.
 - b. In case of a serious offense, the officer may take the offender to the juvenile bureau or, in many instances, to the juvenile officer. He should see that all related information detailing the circumstances of the apprehension be submitted to the juvenile bureau personnel.
 - c. In cases of incorrigibility or runaways, discretion on the part of the individual officer should be permitted. The police will find, in most cases, they are continuing offenses and disposition is best handled by juvenile officers after investigation.
 - d. Officers should be encouraged in cases of incorrigibility to counsel with parent and child when called to their home for service. When the officer is satisfied with the results of the home contact, his disposition will suffice.
 - e. The frequenting of immoral places, bars, or taverns, by a juvenile can be handled with a warning or a home contact, or can be turned over to the juvenile officers for disposition.
 - f. A one-day absence from school does not indicate gross truancy, but an officer when coming into contact with a juvenile who has "skipped" school may do one of the following: question and release him with a warning; return him to his school to the principal; or bring him to the juvenile officer. Common sense on the part of the officer is necessary because of varied school hours, suspension, school holidays and other excused reasons.

- g. When an officer is sent to a home regarding neglect, cruelty or other related abuses against a child, certain procedures must be followed.
- 1) If children are left alone without adult or reliable supervision, they should be taken into custody.
 - 2) The use of policewomen should be obtained whenever possible.
 - 3) Infants under two years of age should be placed in a court-licensed boarding home; those over two should be placed in the local juvenile facilities.
- C. The question of detention is an important part of the procedure when dealing with a juvenile offender.
1. There are definite limitations on when the police may detain a juvenile.
 - a. When the home conditions make immediate removal necessary.
 - b. When the juvenile has run away from home.
 - c. When the offense is so serious that release would endanger public safety.
 - d. When the child is detained for observation, study and treatment by qualified experts.
 2. The commission of a felony does not necessarily justify detention. During the course of the interview the officer should learn how the juvenile regards his offense and whether or not the juvenile shows malice or viciousness in what he has done.
 3. If the alternative to detention is to release the child to his parents, the officer must roughly assess the attitude of the parents toward their responsibility for the juvenile. The officer will look for some strength in the family situation to decide if the parents can control the child if released to them.
 4. If the offense committed by a juvenile is such that his release would endanger public safety, then detention is realistic, but the element of danger should be that of a personal danger to life and limb, not necessarily to property.

- D. Processing a juvenile for purposes of court action is similar to the arraignment of an adult offender for court.
1. The process begins with filing a petition with the Juvenile Division of the Probate Court, citing the facts of case.
 - a. The child, with one or both of his parents, will appear in the juvenile court and a preliminary hearing will be held.
 - b. The child will be advised of his rights, the right to remain silent, a right to an attorney and other rights.
 - c. The reason for the preliminary hearing is to allow the court to determine if it has the right to take jurisdiction in the matter.
 - d. The court also determines at this time if the petition is correct, according to what the child admits or denies. The court then accepts or rejects the petition.
 - e. If the petition is denied the child is released; if the court accepts the petition a formal hearing date is set.
 - 1) The court also decides at this time if the child can be released to his parent or be detained.
 - 2) If the child is detained, he still has a right to post a bond and is released pending the formal hearing. This is called a performance bond where the child guarantees that while awaiting formal court hearing he will not become involved in any delinquent act.
 - f. The formal hearing can be held with or without a jury.
 - 1) The juvenile code allows the child to have, on demand, his hearing before a jury consisting of six persons, selected in the same manner as the jury in criminal court.
 - 2) If the jury is not demanded the hearing is held by the probate judge.

- g. After all evidence is given and includes testimony under oath by witnesses, the judge then makes the determination of guilt or innocence.
- 1) If the court finds the child did commit the offense as charged in the petition, the court takes jurisdiction over the child.
 - 2) The child, after being found responsible, can be placed on probation in his home, in a foster home, or committed to the State Department of Social Welfare for assignment.

E. The removal of the juvenile offender from school.

1. Removing a child from school or interviewing him at school often presents a difficult problem to the police officer.
 - a. There have been some serious differences of opinion regarding whether school officials have authority or should permit or deny interviewing children at school.
 - 1) School authorities must justify their actions to the board of education and are, therefore, extremely interested in the welfare and proper treatment of children under their supervision.
 - 2) In this respect, school authorities stand in a position of responsibility toward the child in school and have a legitimate reason to determine the need for such interviewing.
 - b. They must be concerned with such matters as the possible demoralizing effect the interview may have on the child in the eyes of other students and in the protection of his rights.
 - 1) For these and similar reasons, school authorities may often insist on the principal, a teacher or a counselor being present during the interview.
 - 2) Often, this may hinder what might otherwise have been a successful interrogation.

- c. However, the majority of school officials want to be cooperative and have a great deal to offer to the officer in terms of assistance.
 - 1) They are usually much better acquainted with the juvenile than is the officer and are often vitally concerned with the welfare and discipline of this same problem child.
 - 2) Therefore, it behooves the police officer to contact the school authorities and discuss the problems involved so that a cooperative attitude between the two agencies exists.
2. In regard to removal of a child from school under arrest or to take into legal custody, the authority of the police officer is well defined.
 - a. He may do so when he has reasonable grounds to make a lawful arrest without a warrant or when he has been so authorized by the juvenile court to take such child into custody.
 - b. In the first instance, which would necessarily involve a felony case, reasonableness should prevail.
 - 1) The officer should temper his legal authority by considering whether the nature of the offense is such that the juvenile's case warrants court action.
 - 2) Secondly, by considering whether the offense is of such gravity that the community is in need of protection from the juvenile.

F. Interviewing the juvenile offender.

1. Interviewing the juvenile is probably the most important aspect of the entire investigation. At such an interview, the police officer should be constructive and informative since this first contact between a juvenile and a police officer will have strong bearing on the future conduct of the juvenile.
2. It is the policeman's opportunity to indicate the responsibility of law enforcement and how the department expects the juvenile to conduct himself within the community.
3. It is the desire of the police to aid in the building of good character whenever possible, and the conduct of the interviewing officer must be such as to further that objective.

- a. There is no room for the use of physical abuse, vulgarity, obscenity, profanity or the use of derogatory descriptive language such as liar, thief, or similar terms.
 - b. It is well for the interviewing officer to remember that decency, courtesy and honesty breed respect and respect breeds cooperation.
 - c. The officer's conduct will leave a lasting impression on the juvenile, an impression which will shortly be transmitted to numerous other young people in the community.
 - d. Careful attention must be directed toward the use of proper language so the child is able to understand the words and their implication.
 - e. In matters of sexual misconduct, it is good judgment to learn the terms used by the child to refer to certain parts of the body and to use these terms so the child will understand your questions.
 - f. If the juvenile is a female, it is nearly imperative that a woman be present. It is easier for a female child to explain the circumstances of the offense to a woman.
 - g. Generally speaking, the interview should not be held in detention quarters, but rather in a quiet, comfortable room, free from distracting influences. While at times it may be beneficial to have the child's parents present, ideally, the officer should be alone with the juvenile.
4. Compliance with the following suggestions will aid the officer in bringing the interview to a successful conclusion.
- a. Treat the juvenile with consideration and show interest in him as an individual.
 - b. Many juveniles have been subject to physical abuse and have been shifted from pillar to post. Friendship is the relationship he has had little of and wants the most. Friendship is therapy and it should be extended to the child.
 - c. The police officer must be firm. Firmness does not mean tough or hard, but he must convince the juvenile that what he says must be complied with and it must be said in a non-compromising manner.

- d. The police officer must gain the respect and confidence of the juvenile and this can only be obtained by the officer being honest and sincere and taking a personal interest in him.
- e. The police officer should try to put himself in the place of the juvenile so they may think along the same lines.
- f. Questioning a juvenile requires a great deal of time and patience. A certain amount of resistance is to be expected, since there are two opposing forces at work.

G. Fingerprinting the juvenile offender.

1. Fingerprinting the juvenile offender is probably one of the most controversial issues in the entire juvenile field.
 - a. There is no written law that prohibits the taking of fingerprints of the juvenile offender, but the law does prohibit their inclusion in the general criminal file.
 - 1) Some juvenile court judges are of the opinion that they have the authority to forbid the taking of such prints; yet there is no statute that specifically provides them with that authority.
 - 2) A broad interpretation of their function might include such responsibility but at the present there is no law on the restriction or permission to take fingerprints.
 - b. The primary objection to taking fingerprints of juveniles rests in the stigma of criminality that is attached to fingerprinting.
2. It appears reasonable to take fingerprints of juveniles under the following conditions:
 - a. When an investigation requires fingerprinting for elimination purposes. However, when so taken, they should be destroyed when no longer needed for this purpose except when authorized by the juvenile court judge to keep them in serious cases.

- b. When authorized by the juvenile court judge, fingerprints may be taken and kept of juvenile offenders over the age of 15 years who are involved in serious offenses of burglary, larceny, assault, homicide or rape, and of juvenile offenders who indicate a continuous pattern of delinquent conduct.
 - c. Only one copy of such fingerprints should be taken, and then only on personal identification cards.
 - d. Such fingerprints should not be sent to the Identification Bureau of the F.B.I. or the State Police and should be filed locally so they can be destroyed upon request of the juvenile court judge.
- H. The problem of delinquency and the responsibility of the police in juvenile crime prevention.
- 1. There is no panacea existing for the solving of delinquency problems.
 - a. Juvenile delinquency is a complex of behavior ills and, in many instances, is incurable.
 - b. Factors that make up delinquency are many and throughout the years become interwoven and merge differently in each child.
 - c. It is possible to identify causative factors.
 - d. It is also possible to reduce them to understandable terms and deal with them in a positive manner.
 - 2. Crime prevention is a primary responsibility of the police.
 - a. Delinquency is crime and each police officer must not only know his responsibility in such crime prevention but must also acquire some knowledge in the problem of juvenile delinquency.
 - b. By understanding the problem he can use his authority best suited for society and the individual.
 - c. This, in turn, will improve his performance in the area of crime prevention.
- I. What is delinquency?
- 1. The concept of delinquency changes with time and place.

- a. Many acts now considered delinquent acts were once only "child pranks."
 - b. Urban attitudes differ from rural attitudes in the concept of delinquency.
 - c. In many instances we apply different standards to the male and female offender.
2. Juvenile delinquency consists of a wide range of anti-social acts, criminal and non-criminal.
- a. Truancy, runaways, incorrigibility, curfew violations are juvenile violations which are not criminal acts but are delinquent acts.
 - b. Both the truant and the juvenile burglar are adjudged delinquents.
 - c. All violations of the criminal statutes when committed by a juvenile are delinquent acts.
3. How we determine the number of delinquents.
- a. National figures are taken from the F.B.I. Arrest Reports, and the Children's Bureau Juvenile Court Statistics.
 - b. Local and state statistics come from law enforcement agencies, courts, clinics and other social units.
 - 1) Comparison between national and state figures are confusing because of the differences in reporting ages.
 - 2) Some states say under age 18, others go to age 21.
- J. Classifications of delinquent behavior.
- 1. Some delinquency is due to severe personality disturbance.
 - a. A psychopathic juvenile is one who has little control over his impulses and is aggressive and rebellious.
 - b. An anxiety-ridden child will commit delinquent acts and expect to get caught and be punished. His reason for this behavior is often to gain attention and to be punished.

- c. It is believed that only two percent to three percent of delinquency can be ascribed to abnormal personality.
- 2. Another type of delinquency is that which is universal or normal developmental delinquency.
 - a. This type of delinquency is described as "common and normal for adolescent boys."
 - b. It is the kind that the police officers recognize as minor offenses, and release to parents with a warning will suffice.
- 3. Delinquency due to maladjustment in society.
 - a. The most common type of delinquency today is that which is identified with social maladjustment.
 - b. Slums, minority group status, and broken homes can create the anti-social attitudes that lead to delinquency.
 - c. According to Kvaraceus and Miller in Delinquency Behavior (1964), lower class children make up 85 percent of all delinquents and 70 percent have little or no emotional disturbance.
- K. Other causes of delinquency.
 - 1. In dealing with children and in home contacts, the police officer will find that there is often a lack of family cohesiveness.
 - a. Each member of the family has his or her own interest. There is a definite lack of parental supervision.
 - b. Department of Labor statistics indicate that one-third of all mothers are working.
 - c. Fathers do not play the role as head of the family as in prior generations.
 - d. The automobile has increased mobility and caused movement away from family ties.
 - 2. Technological changes have eliminated work assignments once done by children.

- a. This deprives the child of the satisfaction of accomplishment in the family group.
- b. It deprives the child of the satisfaction of being useful and feeling needed.
- 3. The overemphasis of material wealth and the advertising media cause youth to feel that they are failures if they can't have money enough to buy what is in style or the fad at that time.
- 4. School dropouts are prime targets for delinquency.
 - a. At one time school dropouts could find work.
 - b. Today it is more difficult to find work because of mass production and automation.
- 5. The general decline of respect for authority has contributed to the problem.
 - a. The police and courts do not have the necessary respect to carry out their duties.
 - b. Other social institutions such as the school and the church do not have the respect needed to accomplish their goals.
- L. The control of influences contributing to the delinquency of juveniles.
 - 1. In every community there are elements which appeal to the juvenile but their presence or involvement constitutes a law violation.
 - 2. Bars, taverns, dance halls, poolrooms, pawnshop types of adult businesses are usually operated for adult participation only.
 - a. The police have the responsibility to see that children do not become involved in this type of entertainment.
 - b. The police also must take every step to see that the persons operating or maintaining these businesses do not contribute to the child's delinquency in any way.

3. Laws that cover adult business and entertainment.

- a. The control of dance halls, pool halls, bars and such places is found in section 750.141 of the Compiled Laws of 1948.
- 1) No minor child under 17 years shall be permitted to remain in any dance hall, bar, or other place where intoxicating liquor is sold, given away or furnished unless accompanied by parent or guardian.
 - 2) Nor in any room or hall used for hire, gain or reward for the purpose of playing billiards, pool, or similar games unless accompanied by a parent or guardian.
 - 3) The state law does not prevent any township or city to pass laws more stringent relative to minors under 21.
- b. The control of such places as homes and halls that provide alcoholic liquor to young people is detailed in section 750.141a of the Compiled Laws of 1948.
- 1) Anyone who gives or furnishes any alcoholic beverage to a minor is guilty of a misdemeanor.
 - 2) The liquor laws describe a minor as any person under the age of 21.
 - 3) An exception is in the young person's home and when furnished by the parents.
- c. The law covering contributing to delinquency found in section 750.145 of the Compiled Laws of 1948 can be used where a specific law cannot be found.
- 1) Any person by act or word, encourage, contribute, etc., to cause any minor under the age of 17 to become neglected or delinquent shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.
 - 2) The act must be as such that the minor would come under the jurisdiction of the probate court.
- d. The receiving of stolen property contributes to delinquency. Many young people would not become involved in burglary or larceny if there were no means of disposing of the property.

- 1) Section 750.535 of the Compiled Laws of 1948 covers the buyer of stolen property, usually identified as a "fence."
 - 2) If property bought while knowing it to be stolen is valued at more than \$100.00 it is a felony; if the value is less than \$100.00 it is a misdemeanor.
- e. There is also law dealing with the furnishing of and exhibiting obscene literature.
- 1) Section 750.142 and 750.143 of the Compiled Laws of 1948 states that "anyone who gives, sells or furnishes to a minor child, any printed material containing obscene language or obscene prints or figures is guilty of a misdemeanor,
 - 2) The statute is wordy and for further study the statute should be read.
- f. The law dealing with the corruption and morals of young people - Sec. 750.145a of the Compiled Laws of 1948.
- 1) "Any person who shall accost, entice, or solicit a child under the age of 16 years with the intent to induce or force the child to do an immoral act is guilty of a misdemeanor."
 - 2) This law includes acts of intercourse, gross indecency, or other acts of depravity or delinquency.
 - 3) The victim must be 15 years old or under.
- g. Michigan has a juvenile curfew law that is directed toward the control of the child and prosecution of the parent who allows his child to be out all times of the night - Act No. 41 of the Public Acts of 1960.
- 1) "No minor under the age of 12 years shall loiter, idle, or congregate on any public street, highway, alley or park between the hours of 10:00 PM and 6:00 AM unless accompanied by a parent or guardian or some adult delegated by the parent or guardian."

- 2) Minors under the age of 16 must be in by midnight. Under this section of the curfew law a child between 12 and 16 may be out if on an errand directed by his parents or guardian.
- 3) Local townships and cities may enact an ordinance to regulate curfew laws and many Michigan cities have done this.

M. Implications of the Gault decision for the police (In re Gault, Supreme Court of the United States, May 15, 1967).

- 1. A landmark case in the handling and disposition of juvenile offenders was that of In re Gault.
 - a. The case involved Gerald Francis Gault, age 15, of the State of Arizona.
 - b. He had been found guilty of making lewd and indecent phone calls by the Probate Court and had been sentenced to a term as a juvenile delinquent in an Arizona State Training School.
 - c. An appeal of the sentence was undertaken by the boy's parents with counsel stating that there was a denial of procedural due process under the existing juvenile court philosophy and procedures.
 - d. The United States Supreme Court agreed with the plaintiffs and reversed the Court decision.
- 2. The United States Supreme Court spelled out the procedural safeguards that must be applicable to a juvenile offender the same as the adult offender.
 - a. With the concept of "parens patriae," the juvenile court system in the past dispensed with traditional safeguards in determining whether a child was delinquent.
 - b. The Arizona Juvenile Code (similar to Michigan Juvenile Code) and the proceedings taken under it in the instant case lacked the fundamental procedural protections that comprise due process of law.
 - 1) The first essential of due process where an individual's liberty is in jeopardy, is that he be clearly informed of the nature of the charge against him so that he can decide on a course of action and prepare his defense.

- 2) The denial of the right to counsel was evident in this case. The courts said that legal counsel is particularly vital in juvenile proceedings.
- 3) The court held that the Sixth Amendment guarantee of confrontation and cross-examination is an integral part of due process.

- 3. Although the Gault decision was criticizing the denial of due process in court, the change in court procedures will have an indirect impact on police handling and disposition of juvenile offenders.
 - a. In cases of arrest the safest course for an officer to take is to follow the arrest law applicable to adults if the juvenile offense is criminal.
 - 1) This is particularly true where a waiver to a circuit court might be requested.
 - 2) Questions of the admissibility of confessions, search and seizures will become matters of investigation.
 - b. Most juvenile codes limit the time a juvenile may be held in custody and also restrict detention to special cases. The right to bail for adult offenders will be applicable to the juvenile offender.
 - c. The Gault decision does not cover the rights of search and seizure, but the officer must follow the same principles set down in Mapp vs. Ohio (367 U.S. 643) in evidence procedures. The same rules and restrictions that the police follow in adult search and seizures should be the guidelines for the juvenile offender.
 - d. The Gault decision indicates at considerable length its suspicion of the validity of confessions given by juveniles.
 - 1) It is almost imperative that the Miranda warnings be given, especially if a waiver to a circuit court is possible.
 - 2) The court said that the constitutional privilege against self-incrimination is applicable in the case of juveniles as it is with respect to adults.

- e. In questioning a juvenile, the court recognized that special problems might arise, such as the age of the child and the presence of and competence of parents.
- 1) Regardless, the principle of safeguards against self-incrimination must prevail.
 - 2) The participation of counsel will assist in administering the privilege.
 - 3) The presence of a third party is more important than if an adult is being questioned.
 - 4) The safest course for a police officer to follow is to conduct all questioning of a juvenile in the presence of parents, school administrators, clergymen or counsel.

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TESTIFYING IN COURT

I. The Purposes of Courtroom Testimony.

A. The role of the police officer, his duties, and his place in court procedures.

1. The police officer's role in the preliminary investigation is vitally important to the processes of criminal justice.
 - a. In the investigation stage, the officer is to secure facts for future criminal prosecution.
 - b. The role of the officer diminishes after the information has been filed.
 - c. The officer's function in the courtroom is that of witness for the people.
2. Police officer's role in preparation of case for trial.
 - a. The officer is a member of the prosecutor's team.
 - b. The officer must realize that full cooperation with the prosecutor is vitally important to securing the ends of justice.
 - c. The officer in preparing the case should supply the prosecutor with the main points of information.
 - d. The officer should supply the prosecutor with the names and addresses of witnesses and which witnesses can establish the main points of evidence.
 - e. The officer should assist the prosecutor with:
 - 1) Selecting witnesses for courtroom testimony.
 - 2) Establishing the particular pieces of evidence to which the witnesses can testify.
 - f. The officer during this stage should be refreshing his memory of events and preparing himself to be a witness.
3. The role of the police officer in the trial.
 - a. The officer is a witness at the trial.

- b. The officer plays his part as one of the witnesses who, combined with the other witnesses, make the basis for the trial.
- c. The officer should regard himself as only one witness, whose testimony must be supported by others to form a complete case.
- d. The officer must establish those facts within his knowledge in the form of answers to questions formulated by either counsel.
- e. The officer should present the facts as a prosecution witness.
- f. The officer should advise the prosecutor during the trial:
 - 1) As to any new evidence discovered, regardless of who benefits from the disclosure.
 - 2) As to any apparent errors which may have inadvertently missed by the prosecutor.

B. The purpose of evidence in the administration of justice.

1. Definition in Black's Law Dictionary of evidence is: "Any species of proof, or probative matter, legally presented at the trial, by the acts of the parties and through the medium of witnesses, records, documents, objects, etc. for the purpose of inducing belief in the minds of the court and jury as to their contention."
2. Evidence is a generic term which includes every species of proof.
3. Evidence is whatever is given to the jury to prove or disprove the issue in the case.
4. In common parlance, the words "testimony" and "evidence" may be considered synonymous, but testimony is only one species of evidence.

C. The role of oral testimony in the courtroom.

1. Oral testimony in court is one form of evidence.
 - a. The most common form of evidence.

- b. The least authentic because of the difference in the powers of observation on the part of witnesses.
 - 2. Two or more people witnessing the same act or series of actions are likely to give versions, truthful or untruthful, which are in serious conflict with each other.
 - 3. Oral testimony from different persons who are witnesses may vary from one to the other. Each person may be telling the truth as each individual sees it.
 - 4. Oral testimony may still be properly evaluated, even though different testimony about the same event is presented in court.
 - 5. Over ninety-nine per cent of the evidence presented in court is oral testimony, which is the most efficient means by which evidence regarding a case may be presented in court.
 - 6. To properly evaluate testimony, the officer and witnesses must present to the court a clear understanding of the circumstances of the case, so that the judge and jury may properly evaluate evidence to determine the verdict involving the issues of the case.
 - 7. Oral testimony must establish with other forms of evidence the conditions and circumstances of the case.
- D. The role of demonstrative evidence (exhibits).
- 1. Demonstrative evidence, or the use of exhibits, in the courtroom may be of great value.
 - 2. Most attorneys and police departments have not given proper consideration to demonstrative evidence as a form of graphic illustration for the purpose of inducing a belief in the minds of the court and jury.
 - 3. Wherever possible, the prosecutor should use pictures, charts, sketches, diagrams, physical evidence and expert testimony as a means of corroborating oral testimony.
 - 4. Photographs are of considerable value, as they give the court the power to observe the scene as it was found by the officer upon his arrival.
 - 5. Photographs should be supplemented by maps, charts and diagrams of the scene to scale when possible.

- E. The purpose of affidavits and deposition in courtroom testimony.
- 1. Testifying is to bear witness, or to give evidence as a witness while under solemn oath, or affirmation, to tell the truth for purpose of establishing or proving some fact in judicial inquiry.
 - 2. Testimony generally takes two forms:
 - a. Oral or verbal testimony given in court by a witness under oath, or affirmation relating to what has been seen or found in relation to the case at trial.
 - b. Documentary testimony is given by a witness in the form of printing, writings, or documents capable of being read by or to the jury, their content being understood.
 - 3. Documentary testimony is usually accepted by the courts where the witness is unable to appear in court for some reasonable and excusable reason.
 - 4. Affidavits as a form of written testimony.
 - a. Affidavits are written or printed declarations or statements of facts made voluntary or confirmed by oath or affirmation.
 - b. The affidavit must be given before an officer having the power to administer an oath.
 - c. The affidavit does not provide any right to cross examination or confrontation.
 - d. The affidavit is usually less accepted by the court because of this major defect.
 - 5. Depositions as a form of written testimony.
 - a. Depositions are written or printed declarations made by an affiant voluntarily and confirmed by oath or affirmation, where the right to confrontation and cross examination is preserved.
 - b. Deposition is usually taken in an atmosphere which closely resembles the courtroom in its procedure.
 - c. The depositions is usually the more acceptable form of written evidence, as far as the court is concerned.

F. The purpose of physical evidence in a trial.

1. Physical evidence is that represented by things physical in nature, which are capable of being seen by the court and jury and having bearing on the case.
2. The physical things in nature refer to:
 - a. Weapons or tools used in the commission of the crime.
 - b. Fruits of the crime or the proceeds from the crime.
 - c. Contraband or that which is by its nature inherently illegal.
3. To establish a foundation for admitting physical evidence, oral testimony should be introduced, linking the physical evidence to the case at trial.
4. Testimony should be entered in the court record as to:
 - a. Who located, marked and seized the physical evidence.
 - b. Who identifies it as being physical evidence in the case.
 - c. These may include the following:
 - 1) The owner of the physical evidence.
 - 2) The expert who relates the physical evidence to the case.
 - 3) Other witnesses to the role of the physical evidence in the case.
5. There must be an established relevant connection between the physical evidence and the issue at hand.
6. Physical evidence in a case probably represents a small amount of the evidence presented, but its presentation in court is necessary.

G. Proving the corpus delicti or elements of the crime.

1. In every criminal prosecution, it is necessary to establish the corpus delicti of the offense charged.

2. Black's Law Dictionary defines corpus delicti as "the body of the crime of evidence of the fact that a crime had actually been committed."
 3. The proof or corpus delicti is usually established by oral testimony of:
 - a. The victim of the crime.
 - b. Those having personal knowledge of the commission of the crime, mainly witnesses.
 4. Every criminal offense includes a series of elements set forth in the statutes, defining the offense.
 5. Each and every element of the crime must be established in the acts of the accused or the statute has not been violated.
 6. Testimony must be elicited which will show a crime was actually committed.
 7. The prosecution may be required to prove a corpus delicti, even if the defendant wishes to plead guilty to determine the degree of the offense.
- H. The officer's role in proving the corpus delicti.
1. The officer's role in proving the corpus delicti is a vitally important one.
 2. The officer must furnish the prosecutor with information on the following:
 - a. The conditions at the scene upon arrival.
 - b. Which of the witnesses can establish what elements of proof or particular facts regarding the case.
 - c. The officer may be called to testify to certain facts in the case and to establish elements of the case.
 - d. The officer may present for the court exhibits and other demonstrative evidence which will tend to corroborate other testimony establishing corpus delicti.

- I. The rules of evidence in courtroom testimony.
1. Evidence is any species of proof or probative matter legally presented at a trial, related to the case, to prove or disprove the issue or issues involved.
 2. The rules governing the admissibility of evidence are based on the following:
 - a. Does it deal with the essential circumstances surrounding the subject at issue?
 - b. Does it tend logically, rationally or by reasonable inference to establish any fact or material for the prosecution of the case, or to overcome any material matter sought to be proven?
 3. Evidence which is admissible is divided into three categories:
 - a. Relevant evidence is that which relates to or bears on the point or fact in issue.
 - b. Material evidence is that which is relevant and competent and goes to prove the substantial matters in dispute, having a direct, legitimate and effective influence on the decision of the case.
 - c. Competent evidence is that which is relevant and applicable and is presented by a competent witness capable of presenting it.
 4. The rule of privileges in presenting evidence refers to an individual's not being able to testify because of legal incompetency: a prohibition to testifying because of his position which legally precludes him from giving testimony. Examples of a court's exercising the rule of privilege include the following:
 - a. Most occurrences between husband and wife, except:
 - 1) Child abuse cases.
 - 2) Assaults between one another.
 - b. Communications between a client and attorney.
 - c. Communications between clergyman and penitent.

- d. Communications between doctor and patient, except where the doctor is exempted from and required by law to divulge information.
5. Under certain conditions the rule of privilege may be exercised.
 - a. One party to the confidential testimony can waive the privilege.
 - b. The state under certain circumstances can compel testimony either:
 - 1) Following the law.
 - 2) Granting immunity which waives incrimination and penalties.
6. Any person may at any time state, "On the advice of counsel, I refuse to answer that question on the grounds that it might incriminate me in this or future criminal actions."
7. A police officer should not use the rule of privilege:
 - a. Unless the situation is such that he will be a probable criminal defendant.
 - b. Unless for the protection of an informant, where permissible according to law.
8. Officers should know the different types of evidence and should collect all evidence, irrespective of its acceptability in court.
9. Evidence which may appear inadmissible during the investigation may become admissible later in court, if a proper foundation is laid for its admissibility.
10. The Hearsay Evidence Rule prevents the presentation in court of testimony and evidence:
 - a. Which does not represent the personal knowledge of the witness.
 - b. Which has been secured by what he has heard from others or concluded from observations.

J. Weight or value of testimony in the courtroom.

1. Court decisions are based on due consideration of all evidence presented at the trial.
2. Weight of testimony is determined by:
 - a. The quality of the testimony.
 - b. The credibility of the testimony, or:
 - 1) The testimony of the witness.
 - 2) The manner in which the testimony was presented.
 - c. That testimony which is most convincing in its proof.
 - d. That testimony which best proves the facts in contention in the case.
 - e. The most lasting and favorable impression in the minds of the jury.
 - f. Which witnesses exhibit a sense of fair play and objectivity.
3. The un-corroborated testimony of one witness who has high credibility is most often given more credit than the combined testimony of several witnesses of doubtful credibility.
4. While in court testifying, a law enforcement officer should:
 - a. Be impartial, that is favor no person or party.
 - b. Answer all questions truthfully and with a demeanor that will reflect favorably on law enforcement.

K. The role of the expert witness in the courtroom.

1. An expert is a person who, due to his skill, art, trade, or profession, possesses knowledge in a particular field that is not generally known to people.
2. The expert, through testimony, imparts information to the court and jury about things with which they are unfamiliar.

3. Testimony by an expert is considered opinion evidence.
 4. Expert testimony may be given as to what is thought based on knowledge and what is inferences from scientific or professional inquiry into a hypothetical situation presented by counsel.
 5. Expertise in an area must be established by the court before opinion evidence is accepted from the person.
 6. The officer should seek, whenever necessary, the assistance of experts available on the particular case.
 7. Expert evidence is that evidence which is given in reference to some scientific, technical or professional matter by one who is qualified to speak authoritatively because of his special knowledge, training, skill or familiarity with the subject regarding which he is to testify.
 8. The Federal Bureau of Investigation maintains one of the most outstanding criminological laboratories in the world.
 9. Expert authorities are also available in many other geographic areas.
 10. The officer should study all evidence to determine:
 - a. How to take full advantage of the available evidence.
 - b. How to further develop the information to insure a successful prosecution.
- L. The role of the prosecutor in representing the people at trial.
1. All criminal charges of crimes:
 - a. Are made in the name of the People of the State of Michigan.
 - b. Are committed against the People of the State of Michigan.
 - c. Are prosecuted by county prosecutors in the name of the People of the State of Michigan.

2. The prosecutor represents:
 - a. The victim of the crime individually.
 - b. The victims of the crime collectively (the People of the State).
 - c. The police officers involved in the investigation.
 - d. The police department in whose jurisdiction the crime occurred.
 - e. The witnesses to the crime.
3. The prosecutor depends immensely on the investigating officers to:
 - a. Produce the available evidence.
 - b. Produce evidence of different types to indicate the guilt of the accused.
 - c. Investigate thoroughly all leads and clues resulting from examination of the case.
 - d. Report on all evidence discovered, even if it may not be admissible in courtroom testimony.
4. The prosecutor is the police officer's representative and it is recommended procedure for the officer and prosecutor to participate in as many pre-trial conferences as is deemed necessary.
5. Prior to trial, the prosecutor has the right to interview.
 - a. The witnesses to be called for the prosecution.
 - b. Any officers involved in the investigation and arrest.
 - c. The defendant in the criminal action, providing the the defendant's constitutional rights are protected.
6. The prosecutor should protect witnesses from unnecessary embarrassment while they are testifying on the stand.
7. Each attorney has the right and the duty to cross-examine witnesses on the stand, in an effort to impeach their testimony.

M. The role of testimony by officers in civil matters.

1. Officers may be required to testify in civil court cases in those instances where the officer, while performing his duties, has contact with a civil problem.
2. An example of some civil matters an officer may be called upon to testify in:
 - a. Traffic accident cases.
 - b. Divorce matters.
 - c. Family disturbances.
 - d. Assault cases.
3. Many officers dislike civil court testimony - but it is a duty which the officer must perform.
4. An officer served with a subpoena for civil court must appear, as in criminal cases, and testify.
5. Testimony by an officer in civil matters is most always the same as in criminal matters.

II. The Officer's Responsibility as a Witness Through the Power of Subpoenas.

- A. The police have a basic responsibility to bear witness as a representative of the people in criminal prosecutions.
 1. An officer has the duty and responsibility to be a witness in trials where:
 - a. The officer has arrested the defendant on trial.
 - b. The officer has information bearing on the criminal matter.
 - c. It is a civil case where he has been subpoenaed to testify.
 2. Good testimony is just as important as a good investigation - if either fails, the processes of criminal justice will break down.
 3. The officer must appear in court and testify impartially to the best of his ability.

4. When a criminal case is lost during trial, it is the fault of no one person, but the fault of everyone if justice has not been done.

B. The relationship between the investigating officer and the prosecutor.

1. Many of today's prosecutors are young and inexperienced attorneys.
2. The inexperienced prosecuting attorney would be wise to seek advice from the investigating officer, if the officer is experienced in trial problems and procedures.
3. The officer should not direct the activities of the prosecutor, only offer advice when and if requested.
4. Both the officer and the prosecutor should be interested enough in securing the correct administration of justice that they cooperate with each other.

C. There are several reasons for an officer to be a witness.

1. The officer has perceived through his senses something which is of testimonial value.
2. The officer has participated in some event or experience which results in being called to testify.

D. The police officer as an expert witness.

1. A police officer may be requested to testify in court as an expert witness.
2. The average police officer may be considered as an expert for the purpose of introducing testimony or evidence:
 - a. Deductions from tests conducted by the officer.
 - b. Information regarding the examination made at the scene.
3. There are many occasions where an officer is called upon to testify as a witness and not an expert.

E. General procedure for requiring an officer to be present in court for testimony.

1. In misdemeanors after a plea of not guilty has been entered by the defendant and a date for trial has been set.
2. The arresting officer in felony arraignments is necessary to prove corpus delecti and reasonable cause. Sometimes other witnesses are also needed to substantiate the charge.

F. The purpose and use of the subpoena.

1. The subpoena is usually considered a signed written order by the trial judge, ordering the person to appear before the court to give testimony in the trial.
2. A subpoena may also be issued by a grand jury, or coroner's jury, legislative committees and state commissions.
3. In most instances, these other bodies have the same power and authority to serve subpoenas as the courts.

G. Subpoena powers are granted also to authorized juries and commissions.

1. The grand jury has subpoena powers.
 - a. The grand jury seeks information to secure indictment for a criminal act or acts.
 - b. Michigan has the one man grand jury.
 - c. The grand jury, in addition to subpoena powers, also may grant immunity to a witness who may incriminate himself.
2. The coroner's inquest has subpoena powers.
 - a. The inquest seeks information from the witness regarding the death of a person.
 - b. The coroner conducts the proceedings, exploring the circumstances surrounding the death.

3. Certain state commissions have subpoena powers.
 - a. May be to determine if a crime or law violation has been committed.
 - b. To investigate a problem through which enforcement of legislative action may be taken.
 4. Insanity proceedings have subpoena powers.
 - a. To determine from others the past actions and activities of a person.
 - b. To determine if the subject should be in an institution for the insane.
 5. Abatement and seizure of property hearings have subpoena powers.
 - a. Determine if a place is a public nuisance.
 - b. The seizure of property when used in the commission, aiding or abetting of certain crimes.
 6. The subpoena writ ordering the person so named to appear at the specified time, date and place may be signed or validated by:
 - a. The examining magistrate.
 - b. The trial judge.
 - c. The prosecuting attorney.
 - d. The court clerk.
 - e. The coroner.
 - f. The state commission chairmen of certain boards.
- H. The serving of subpoenas.
1. Any subpoena issued and valid must contain the following information before being served:
 - a. Title of the action in court.
 - b. Name of the witness to appear in the proceedings.

- c. The time, date, and place of the appearance at the proceedings.
 - d. Signature of the magistrate or authorized person.
 - e. The seal of the authorized person.
2. A criminal subpoena may be served on any person.
 3. A police officer must serve any subpoena delivered to him.
 4. Procedure used in serving the subpoena:
 - a. The subpoena is filled out completely initially.
 - b. The subpoena is signed and sealed by the authority responsible.
 - c. The subpoena is delivered to an officer for service.
 - d. The subpoena is served on the person by:
 - 1) Showing the original to the person and giving him the carbon copy.
 - 2) Informing him verbally of date, time and place his presence is required and the penalties for failure to appear.
 - e. The server signs the subpoena and delivers it back to the person requesting the service.
 5. The witness may be excused from appearing by the authority granting the subpoena - only for an excellent reason.
 6. The person requesting the service of the subpoena does excuse the person called as a witness generally as a matter of practice, when services of the witness are no longer needed.
- I. The appearance of an out-of-state witness in court proceedings.
1. Witnesses from out of state may be subpoenaed by compliance with a special procedure known as the Uniform Act to Secure the Attendance of Witnesses from without the State in Criminal Cases.

2. The Act provides for the issuance of a certificate by the magistrate of the court of jurisdiction stating that the person is a material witness required for a criminal prosecution.
 3. Upon issuance, it is sent to the court of jurisdiction in the county and state wherein the witness resides and there is a hearing by the local magistrate.
 4. The magistrate determines if there is a need for the witness to testify and investigates how much hardship is involved in leaving the state to testify in the requesting state.
 5. The magistrate may then issue a subpoena from the local jurisdiction, accompanied by the certificate of the other jurisdiction compelling the witness to answer the subpoena of the demanding jurisdiction.
 6. The Act provides for monetary reimbursement incurred by the out-of-state travel.
- J. The power of the court to cite a person for contempt.
1. Contempt of court is the willful disregard for the authority of a court of justice, or legislative body or disobedience of its lawful order.
 2. Contempt of court may be defined by the judge in two forms:
 - a. Criminal contempt is where acts are done in disrespect of the court and its processes or which tend to obstruct justice.
 - b. Civil contempt is where failure to comply with an order of the court causes a loss of advantage to a party in the action.
 3. Most contempts are punished as misdemeanors.
 4. If the evidence or testimony to be presented by the witness is material, the witness may be held in custody to assure appearance in court.
- K. Subpoenas and fees for witnesses at a civil case.
1. The subpoena in a civil case will show the name of the plaintiff and the defendant.

2. The law provides for expenses and travel money for civil witnesses.
 3. In a civil case, if the person served with the subpoena is not served at the same time with witness fees, the person has not been duly served according to law and is not required to appear in court, but should do so to facilitate the processes of justice - MSA 27A7017.
 4. Police officers generally are required by department rules and regulations to appear, regardless of fees being paid or not being paid.
 5. Accepting payment of fees is not required under the law, only that they be offered. Fees may be rejected by the officer.
- L. The use of subpoenas duces tecum.
1. Subpoena duces tecum is basically the same as a subpoena except that the person served must also produce requested records or books.
 2. The records, books or documents also must be pertinent to the facts and issues in the case.
 3. Subpoena duces tecum is an order which authorizes removal of records from their usual places or security or storage.
 4. The same rules apply for all subpoenas of which subpoena duces tecum is one.

III. The Proper Method of Preparing for Testifying in Court.

A. Preparation for eventual courtroom testimony.

1. The officer's initial notification of the commission of a criminal act should begin his preparation for eventual courtroom testimony.
2. Information which should be initially noted for future reference.
 - a. Time of the notification of the criminal offense.
 - b. The location of the criminal offense.

- c. How the crime was reported - method of communication.
 - d. The name, address, and phone number of person reporting the crime.
 - e. The names of other officers immediately involved.
3. Consider every case important - you may later find yourself in court testifying on the matter.
- B. The proper use of the officer's notebook.
- 1. The officer should realize that the notebook is his written record of an occurrence and an aid to memory for future recall of past facts.
 - 2. The notebook should be properly handled and maintained to preserve its valuable contents.
 - 3. An officer may be required to testify from his notes and not from a report written at a later time.
 - 4. The notebooks should be as complete as possible.
 - 5. Keep the notebook in ink because lead pencil marks will rub and fade away after long periods of time.
 - 6. The notebooks should be legible and neat.
 - 7. Use key words and phrases; not long statements and sentences.
 - 8. Contents of the notebook should be as inclusive as possible with charts, diagrams, sketches and maps of important cases.
 - 9. If measurements are taken, be exact to the nearest $\frac{1}{2}$ inch.
- C. The notebook as a memory refresher.
- 1. The officer has the right and the duty to review notes to refresh his memory concerning events surrounding a case.
 - 2. Notes to be used on the witness stand must be contemporaneous, i.e., prepared shortly after the event, or they may not be used as a memory refresher.

- 3. The officer should have on the stand only those notes which refer to the case being tried.
 - 4. One officer can write the notes for both officers as long as they were both together during the events being transcribed.
 - 5. The officer should review testimony at the preliminary examination to assist in preventing minor variations from the record from being used detrimentally.
- D. The investigating officer must prepare exhibits.
- 1. In every major case there are exhibits which must be prepared prior to trial.
 - 2. The exhibits may include evidence, photographs, graphs, maps, sketches, scale drawings, films, etc.
 - 3. Every officer should take full advantage of available evidence during the investigation and the trial.
 - 4. The opportunity to better develop or explore evidence scientifically should be fully utilized.
 - 5. Preparing evidence and exhibits for trial does serve as a memory refresher for the officer before trial begins.
 - 6. The officer should be fully aware of his limitations as a witness.
 - 7. The officer should remember that the hearsay and opinion evidence rule applies to all witnesses except experts and the officer is no exception.
- E. Proper use of photographs, which is the most common form of reproduction for illustrating various aspects of the crime.
- 1. The investigating officer should determine at the scene:
 - a. How many photographs will be required?
 - b. What are the various angles desired?
 - c. How much outside area should be included in the photographs?

2. Always take more than enough pictures - once the crime scene has been disturbed, it cannot be reset for photographs.
3. Photographs should show everything necessary, not just the crime scene, but the surrounding area.
4. Remember evidence may and should be reproduced photographically.
5. The picture will preserve as evidence items not considered as evidence at the start of the investigation which may develop into evidence later on in subsequent investigations.
6. Photographs should be supplemented where ever necessary with other exhibits or drawings.
7. Photographs should be taken of all evidence at the crime scene, including physical evidence.

IV. The Officer's Demeanor in Courtroom Testimony.

A. The officer's demeanor in assisting the prosecutor.

1. Conferences with the prosecutor in the courtroom should be limited to those which are necessary.
2. Excessive conferences between the prosecutor and the investigating officer:
 - a. Are distracting to the jury.
 - b. May lead to an accusation by defense counsel of collusion or conspiracy.
3. A high performance of conduct is expected from the officer.
4. Testifying in court is one way to show all concerned that you are a law enforcement officer who is capable and efficient.
5. The actions of the officer in his conduct with attorneys in and around the courtroom are always under close scrutiny.

B. The officer must develop a professional attitude.

1. The need for a professional attitude in the courtroom should be obvious.
2. Usually persons in court for a case have a special interest in the verdict and an officer's impartiality, fairness, and professional demeanor will enhance respect for the police.
3. The officer's testimony must reflect an exemplary attitude toward the court, officers of the court and the jury.
4. Proper attitude and demeanor reflect sincerity in the performance of his duty.

C. The officer's appearance in court.

1. Departmental regulations concerning the officer's appearance in court.
 - a. The officers should know their department's regulations regarding appearance in court.
 - b. The officers should follow departmental directives.
2. Uniform or civilian clothes for court appearance.
 - a. Wearing of the uniform is mandatory in some places.
 - b. Wearing of the uniform into court is considered by many authorities to be improper because it is an effort to place undue emphasis on police testimony.
 - c. For reasons of impartiality, it is suggested that an officer not wear a uniform to court.
3. Wearing of a uniform to court.
 - a. It should be a full and complete uniform.
 - b. It should be cleaned and pressed.
 - c. It should have all the required accessories.
 - d. It should be the uniform of the day for that duty.

4. The wearing of civilian clothing to court.
 - a. The officer should change into civilian clothes whenever possible before going to court to testify.
 - b. Civilian clothing is a neat, clean, pressed business suit with white shirt and tie.
 - c. Civilian clothing for court does not include sports clothes, open-necked shirts, pastel socks, etc.
 - d. A businesslike manner for court requires a businesslike suit of clothes.
 - e. The officer should be dressed comparably to those around him in the courtroom scene.
5. Some things to avoid in dressing for courtroom testimony.
 - a. The appearance of bulging pockets.
 - b. Pens, pencils, cigars, etc. in pockets of the suit.
 - c. Avoid lodge pins, political buttons, etc.
 - d. Avoid any clothing, etc. which would detract from the jurors concentration on your testimony.
- D. When to appear in court.
 1. The majority of court appearances are requested by subpoena stating a specific place, time, court and case to appear on.
 2. Arrive early enough before the beginning of court that you have a chance to secure necessary evidence, exhibits and reports for presentation.
 3. Arrive early enough for a chance to review your written notes on the case and for a pre-trial conference with the prosecutor.
 4. Notify the attorney for the side requesting your appearance of your arrival to testify.
 5. If you are unavoidably delayed, telephone the court with information as to your problem and estimate the time you will arrive at court.

6. Attorneys schedule witnesses in a certain order, so your appearance at a designated time is important.
- E. The officer's conduct while waiting to testify.
 1. If there is a witness room, the officer should wait there. If the room is occupied by witnesses for the other attorney, stay in the hallway or other room close by.
 2. Always let the attorney for the side you are representing know exactly where you are.
 3. The officer should conduct himself like a gentleman, even though the waiting period before testifying is boring.
 4. Conduct at all times should be quiet, reserved and should exercise discretion in his conversations with persons in the area.
 5. Discuss the case with only the proper persons and at the proper times.
- F. The officer's carriage and stature in the courtroom.
 1. When entering the courtroom or court area to testify, keep a military bearing with head erect showing good posture and being physically and mentally alert. The officer should appear serious and respectful.
 2. Don't bring unnecessary clothing or hats, etc. into the courtroom. Leave them in the witness room or coatroom.
 3. Only have notes for the case at trial in your hands, if you need them, and don't fidget with them.
- G. Demeanor while taking the oath.
 1. While taking the oath, the officer should hold the head high and erect and face the clerk, looking him right in the eye.
 2. The oath should be taken with the right hand extended from his body above his head with the upper arm parallel to the floor, elbow at a right angle and the forearm perpendicular; the wrist straight and thumb and fingers extended; with the palm facing the clerk.

3. During recitation of the oath, the witness should look intent and listen to the oath.
4. The witness should, by his action, indicate that he understands and is going to comply with the oath.
5. When the oath is completed, the witness should clearly state "I do," with a tone which reflects a desire to tell the truth. Properly spoken, these two words can indicate a sincere desire to tell the truth.

H. The various phases of courtroom testimony.

1. Examination of witnesses takes the form of questions by attorneys which are answered by the person on the witness stand.
2. The witness will recite his name, address, etc. upon request from usually the first attorney to question the witness.
3. The various types of examinations.
 - a. Direct examination and redirect are conducted by counsel for whom the witness was subpoenaed.
 - b. Cross-examination and recross are conducted by opposing counsel to the party which subpoenaed the witness.
4. Cross-examination questions are limited to issues examined by direct questioning or those questions which are relevant.
5. The right to cross-examine is provided in the constitution, where the accused has not only the right to confrontation, but the questioning of witnesses.
6. No criminal matter proceeds unless the defendant is in the courtroom.

I. Proper demeanor when in the witness chair.

1. Try to select a comfortable position when seated in the witness chair. Still be straight, erect and maintain a relaxed military bearing.
2. Make no unnecessary movements which would distract jurors.

3. Avoid slouching, shifting or slumping in the witness chair.
4. Fold the hands loosely across the lap or rest them on the arms of the chair.
5. Place the feet flat on the floor or cross the legs if the position is normal and not assumed out of nervousness.
6. The officer should remember that every effort to control nervousness results in additional trembling.
7. The ability to relax is important and comes with practice.
8. Comfort should be striven for on the stand, but not complete relaxation.

J. After completing testimony.

1. When finished testifying, prepare to leave the stand.
2. Leave the stand only after being excused by the court, which will usually be by the magistrate.
3. In leaving the court, walk with a semi-military bearing out of the courtroom. Be impersonal and leave with the same air as upon entering the courtroom.
4. When leaving, don't stop and converse, nod, wink, etc. to anyone.
5. Determine at the first opportunity if you are needed for any further testimony.
6. If no further testimony is needed, leave the court and continue on about normal business. If additional testimony may be needed, return to the place you were called from.
7. Continued presence in and around the courtroom may indicate to the jury that you are interested in the verdict.
8. Win or lose, the case must rest for the prosecution, since the prosecutor has no right to appeal.
9. If the case is lost at trial, at some future date check with the prosecutor and determine if there is anything which you may correct in future trials to prevent cases from being lost at trial.

V. The Officer's Testimony in the Courtroom.

A. The ability of the officer to testify in court.

1. Any officer may inadvertently destroy evidence by giving testimony improperly.
2. The ability to testify properly is an asset which should be developed to its fullest.

B. The officer's voice and manner of speech in courtroom testimony.

1. The officer's voice should be pleasant, polite and of normal tone during testimony.
2. The vocal actions of the witness should be natural in action, speech and vocabulary. There should be no attempt to impress the court with tone of voice or manner of speaking.
3. The witness should make sure that his tone of voice is sufficient to carry over the entire courtroom.
4. In most usual cases, there will never exist the need to shout.
5. The answers by the witness must be clear and distinct with words pronounced correctly.
6. Excellent acoustics as are found in many courtrooms accentuate muffled, throaty and chewed words.
7. The magistrate may admonish the person to speak louder or more clearly.

C. The importance of speaking clearly in courtroom testimony.

1. The judge must hear all questions and answers so that he can rule on the admissibility of evidence.
2. The jurors must hear all evidence so that they may render an intelligent verdict.
3. The court reporter must hear all testimony so that it can be properly recorded for future information in other trials or appeals.

4. The attorneys must be able to hear the testimony so they can properly secure evidence from the witnesses.
5. The public in the courtroom has a right to hear all testimony since public trials are secured for the American people in the constitution.

D. Controlling the voice during testimony.

1. If a witness has a proper tone of voice and delivery so that the whole courtroom can hear the testimony, the witness will be relaxed in the presentation of evidence.
2. The new witness may find it difficult to properly give testimony in court. This ability should be developed.
3. If the voice should shake or quiver during testimony, this is due to the nervousness of the witness.
4. A good speaking voice is a combination of proper breathing and controlling the throat and mouth.
5. Basically good speaking depends on the ability of the witness to force air from the lung as necessary, so vocal cords will give off the proper sounds.
6. Words are formed by the shaping of the tones by the tongue, lips, teeth and mouth.
7. A witness who is nervous will breath in gasps and will experience dryness of the mouth which makes movement of the tongue awkward for proper formation of tone sounds.

E. Things which distract from oral testimony.

1. Since a witness may experience dryness of the mouth when testifying, there is a tendency to try to insure against it.
2. Measures utilized by a witness to combat dryness of the mouth fall into two categories:
 - a. Acceptable methods of combating dryness of the mouth:
 - 1) Relaxation.
 - 2) Conscious control of saliva.

b. Unacceptable methods of combating dryness of the mouth:

- 1) Use of chewing gum.
 - 2) Use of mints, etc.
3. The use of artificial stimulators to produce a moist mouth interferes with the proper formation of words because the witness has a tendency to overwork the jaws and move the tongue too much.
 4. Excessive movement of the jaws and tongue when testifying is very distracting to all persons in the courtroom.

F. The necessity for thinking before answering a question.

1. The witness should only respond to questions by either the judge or counsel and should never volunteer information not requested.
2. Before answering any questions, the witness should think clearly:
 - a. About the question - what did it ask?
 - b. What is my answer to the question?
 - c. Does my reply really answer the question?
3. After reflecting or thinking about the answer, speak clearly and concisely so everyone in the courtroom can hear the answer.

G. The witness should select his words carefully before speaking.

1. The officer as a witness must be very careful of his words when answering a question.
2. The use of slang should be avoided when testifying, because the jury may not understand the meaning of the slang used or may feel that the use of slang should be beneath the professional police officer.
3. Slang may be used if it refers to words spoken by the subject or victim. If slang words must of necessity be used, their meaning should be explained immediately after their use so that their meaning is clearly understood.

4. Failure to explain may negate all or part of the testimony since a juror may disregard the word rather than admit ignorance.
 5. This would also apply to technical testimony or those words not usually found in the vocabulary of the average person.
 6. The witness can avoid needless embarrassment and loss of face by never using words with which one is not familiar or cannot explain. Always assume the level of the jury to be lower than yours. You don't need to talk down to the jury, but rather at them.
 7. All testimony should be given so it falls into the average range of human understanding.
 8. Profanity and vulgarity should never be used on the witness stand unless it is necessary for the witness to repeat the exact words of another person. The officer should apologize to the jury for having to use the profanity and make it known who said the words or who is being quoted.
 9. Under no circumstances should the witness use sarcasm, wisecracks, witticisms, or criticism from the stand. It is out of place in the courtroom.
- H. The officer should maintain proper attitude toward attorneys.
1. Every witness should be careful in showing proper attitude and attention to counsel.
 2. When being questioned, the witness should sit still on the stand and direct his attention toward counsel, showing interest in the question.
 3. In answering the question, some reflection may be necessary to secure the true answer.
 4. Pause for a second before answering the question to:
 - a. Give yourself time to select the appropriate answer.
 - b. Give the opposing attorney time to object to the question.

5. Show impartiality toward both the prosecution and defense counsel. The officer should remember that he is only a witness in court to present evidence, not to clash personalities with the attorneys.
 6. The opposing or defense attorney should be trusted by an officer until proven otherwise. The vast majority of attorneys are respected, ethical and trustworthy, only interested in protecting the rights of his client.
- I. Response to the ambiguous or incomplete question by counsel.
1. The officer should be alert at all times to the questions phrased by the attorneys.
 2. The officer should never answer an incomplete question. Make certain that the attorney has finished the entire question.
 3. An attorney may ask tricky or incomplete questions to harass or confuse the witness.
- J. The value and use of a hesitation period.
1. After an attorney completes a question, the officer as a witness should develop the habit of pausing momentarily before answering it. This applies to both the prosecutor and defense attorney.
 2. A police officer may have a conference with the prosecutor prior to trial where certain aspects of the case are pre-discussed. This may mean that the officer is apt to respond to the prosecutor more rapidly than the defense attorney.
 3. Such a time differential between the two may result in a charge by the opposing attorney of collusion on the part of the officer and the prosecution and a fabrication of answers for the defense attorney.
 4. The hesitation should not be too long and should be uniform in length.
 5. The period of hesitation is also important because it gives the opposing attorney a chance to object to questions which are:

- a. Argumentative in nature.
 - b. Hearsay evidence.
 - c. Calling for a conclusion.
 - d. Poorly formed or phrased.
 - e. Otherwise improper.
- K. The relating of facts as known to the witness.
1. The witness can only relate those facts which are known to him to the best of his knowledge.
 2. The truth, and nothing but the truth, is related in answer form.
 3. The oath is a solemn declaration by the witness to tell the truth, under a direct responsibility to God.
 4. The facts as known to the witness may be:
 - a. The entire event as it really happened.
 - b. A part of or the entire event as related by the witness within his perception and are not necessarily the events as they occurred in reality.
 5. At no time is an untruth acceptable from a police officer, but a deliberate untruth while under oath is unprofessional and criminal.
- L. Unworthy or false testimony by a witness.
1. Impeachment of a witness is the presenting of proof that a witness who has testified in a cause is unworthy of trust or credit.
 - a. Is usually a means of controverting the testimony of a witness.
 - b. Is used if the evidence presented is not congruous with the facts as known of the case.
 - c. If testimony is perjured or deliberately untrue.

2. Perjury is the willful assertion as to a matter of fact, opinion, belief or knowledge made by a witness in a judicial proceeding as a part of evidence while under oath. Such an assertion must be material to the issue and known to the witness to be false.

- a. It is important not only that the witness know it to be false but it be intended as the truth.
- b. Officers should never have related something not within his knowledge as this is also perjury.

M. The use of the appropriate answer.

1. It is better to say "yes" or "no" whenever possible for expediency and simplicity.
2. If a qualification is necessary to the yes or no response, the witness has a right to explain his answer. There is no rule to the contrary, particularly since a court is convened to find the live facts of the case.
3. The shortest, most concise answer possible is all that is required of a witness, unless counsel requires further explanation.
4. Never use a short answer to avoid or evade a question.
5. The witness should answer every question he knows the answer to regardless of what the answer may be.
6. If the witness does not know the answer to a question, he should say, "I don't know," not "I don't remember." If someone can't remember, they don't know. Not remembering opens a door to counsel for additional pressure on the witness to try to remember.
7. Never hesitate to answer a question even if it is to the benefit of the opposing party.

N. Development of a persecution complex.

1. Witnesses should be careful to avoid developing a persecution complex as a result of testifying in a courtroom.
2. If a witness reacts improperly to questions by one of the attorneys, with antagonism or hostility, jurors may disregard the witness' testimony.

3. The persecution complex can also refer to a witness showing specific interest in gaining a conviction.
4. The officer by his attitude may establish in the minds of the jurors severe hostility toward the defendant which may be reflected in the verdict.

O. The witness' correction of honest errors.

1. The officer should never hesitate to make a correction in testimony should an honest error be made.
2. Honest mistakes will and do occur. But when errors are made and recognized, they should immediately be corrected.
3. Admission of error will not generally damage testimony, particularly if it is admitted and corrected without the suggestion from the court or counsel.
4. To smooth over admitting error, the witness can refer to notes and then state the correct answer, showing a memory refresher from the notes.

P. To whom the witness should direct the answer to a question.

1. The persons most interested in hearing the response to the question are the judge, jury, court reporters and counsel.
2. In determining guilt or innocence, a defendant may have a jury trial or trial by judge. The witness should assure that the person or persons rendering the verdict hear the answers to the questions.
3. The witness should not fact counsel but should face either the judge or jury, depending on who is going to render a verdict.
4. By observing the jurors, the witness can observe if the answer is heard by all members of the jury.
5. Questions and answers are primarily to establish evidence for the jury trial.

- Q. Actions to be taken by a witness who demonstrates or illustrates using demonstrative evidence.
1. Demonstrative evidence is any illustration, chart, demonstration, etc. presented in court for clarification of points of evidence in the case.
 2. Whenever a witness is using a chart, illustration, crime scene sketch, etc., he should be careful to place his body in such a position so that all interested parties may easily observe the evidence and motions made.
 3. If the situation is such that it is necessary for the jurors or judge to move, then the testimony should be held up until all interested parties are in a favorable position.
 4. Any piece of demonstrative evidence is of little or no value to the court and jury unless they are able to observe the evidence and determine its value in connection with the matter in issue.
 5. When necessary, the use of a pointer is recommended.
 6. The witness should be careful to check scale drawings whenever marks are placed on the evidence to represent something not shown.
- R. The witness should be courteous and use proper titles when referring to those in the court.
1. It is not necessary to use the names of counsel. It is better to be impersonal.
 2. When speaking to counsel, the witness should use the term "sir" or "counselor."
 3. Whenever addressing the magistrate, the term "Your Honor" should be used.
 4. Whenever referring to a member of the jury, equal respect should be shown using "sir" or "madam" where appropriate.

VI. The Cross-examination of Witnesses.

A. The examination of witnesses.

1. Direct examination is the examination of witnesses by the party producing same as a witness.
2. Cross-examination is the examination of witnesses by the party opposed to the one producing same as a witness.

B. The right to cross-examine witness.

1. The right to cross examine is provided by the 6th Amendment to the United States Constitution.
2. The right to cross-examination is also known as the right to confrontation as any person charged with a crime shall have the right to confront and question any witnesses appearing against him.

C. Examination procedure in criminal cases.

1. Prosecution presents its evidence and witnesses first, and conducts a direct examination of the state's witnesses.
2. After the prosecutor presents its evidence the defense may cross-examine the witnesses, which is limited to questioning that evidence admitted on direct examination.

D. Examination procedure in civil cases.

1. The plaintiff presents its evidence and witnesses first to substantiate the claim.
2. While the plaintiff presents its evidence and witnesses, the defendant can cross-examine.

E. The intent of cross-examination in trials.

1. Cross-examination is intended to preserve the right of the defendant to list the truthfulness of evidence presented against him, or to explore or develop it further.
2. Cross-examination is usually limited to the scope of evidence which is presented on direct examination.

3. Cross examination may probe into the ability of the witness or determine if the evidence comes from the actual knowledge of the witness.
4. Through cross-examination of the witness, damaging testimony may be controverted by casting doubts on the witness' testimony, or impeaching or discrediting the testimony.

F. The role of redirect examination.

1. After the opposing party has cross-examined the witness, the witness' counsel then has the right to ask additional questions.
2. Redirect examination is limited to scope and is intended to clarify or further develop evidence which has been produced under cross-examination.
3. Redirect examinations are divided into two areas of testimonial evidence.
 - a. Old evidence - when the prosecutor expands or further develops testimony already covered by cross-examination.
 - b. New evidence - where the prosecutor introduces new evidence not previously covered by cross-examination; may be cross-examined by the defense attorney.

G. The role of rebuttal testimony.

1. Rebuttal evidence is presented by one or both parties upon completion of the presentation of evidence but prior to the resting of the case, to defeat the opposition.
2. Normal criminal trial procedure follows a usual format:
 - a. The prosecution produces evidence adduced by the prosecution to support the charge on which the defendant is held.
 - b. The defense is then presented to controvert prosecution evidence or establish facts not previously brought forth.

- c. The prosecution then has the right to present further witnesses in rebuttal against the defense.
- d. The defense may then follow with further rebuttal, should it become necessary.

3. When evidence is introduced which raises a presumption of guilt or innocence, evidence may be presented by the part, opposing to show such presumption to be ill-founded. Such evidence would be considered rebuttal or controverted, but the weight of the testimony based on its presentation should rest with the jury.

VII. The Role of Defense Counsel.

A. The right to have counsel for defense in a criminal trial.

1. Every person charged with a criminal offense is considered innocent until proven guilty beyond a reasonable doubt.
2. All persons charged with the commission of a criminal offense are entitled to the advice and assistance of counsel during all proceedings of the case.
3. If at any time during the criminal case a person desires advice from an attorney, he shall not only be allowed to seek such advice, but if the person is charged with the crime and is a defendant, counsel will be provided for him.

B. The role of the public defender system.

1. The public defender system provides counsel for any person who desires legal representation but is unable to pay for services of counsel.
2. In lieu of a public defender system the court may appoint an attorney who is a member of the local bar.
3. A defendant may desire to plead his own case, but counsel may be in the courtroom to advise the defendant.
4. There are some attorneys who practice criminal law exclusively but they are in a minority.

C. The duties of a legal defender.

1. In the vast majority of criminal cases, attorneys acting as counsel for the defense are ethical, respected and reliable members of the bar.
2. Their sworn duty in a criminal case is to protect the rights and interests of the defendant by probing into the testimony of witnesses offered by the prosecution and to present evidence to controvert the prosecution's claims.
3. The legal defender must see that no evidence is presented in the trial which is not relevant material or competent, and insure a fair and impartial trial.
4. Unless the legal defender takes full advantage of his right to cross-examine witnesses and challenge prosecution evidence, the interests of the defendant are not being fully protected.

D. The officer's view of defense counsel.

1. The officer in the courtroom may have problems in understanding the attitude and actions of the defender.
2. The defender who may be warm and friendly outside the courtroom, may become hostile and unfriendly during the examination of witnesses.
3. The officer should not view the actions of defense counsel as being personal, but as those which normally go toward protecting the rights and interests of the defendant.
4. Defense counsel is not the enemy of the police, so an officer must have an impersonal attitude, and be polite and courteous to defense counsel.

E. The defender who resorts to foul and unethical tactics.

1. The officer must be continually vigilant, prepared for the unexpected.
2. Some attorneys may resort to foul tactics because they feel they must be rough and tough. The defender feels that the prosecution's witnesses and case must be torn down to establish reasonable doubt as to guilt.

3. Many defenders are unprepared for trial and have no real defense to the crime charged against the defendant, except to tear the prosecution's case apart to attempt to establish reasonable doubt.

F. The various characteristic types of defenders.

1. The professional defender is an ethical, respected, capable attorney who intelligently presents a defense without resorting to tricky or foul maneuvers which are unethical.
2. The subtle defender is a calm, quiet, respectful and ethical attorney. He will seldom confuse, embarrass or harass witnesses, relying on the use of subtleties to bring out testimony and evidence favorable to his client.
3. The explosive defender proceeds calmly and quietly until he feels he has a chance to confuse the witness. When the opportunity presents itself the attitude changes completely, attacking the veracity of the witness and making every effort to confuse the witness. The explosive defender will shout and make accusations and insinuations against the witness, but will return to the calm approach if the harassing fails to rattle the witness.
4. The dramatic defender is very expressive and dramatic in actions. He carefully chooses his words hoping to impress the court with his ability. He is casually ethical in mannerisms but his approach makes the witness on the stand uneasy. The effort to make flowery, exacting statements may be a cover for a lack of ability.
5. The vicious dramatist proceeds along the same lines as the dramatic defender but favors insulting remarks and insinuations. The attack is aimed at getting the witness emotionally upset and he will use any available tactic to discredit a witness or agitate the witness into making a mistake and giving an improper answer. Under this attack a good witness will not lose his temper.
6. The crude fighter defender is one who has apparent contempt for law enforcement and what it stands for. He is insulting and will often resort to attacks of a personal nature, particularly on law enforcement officers. His attitude is anti-prosecution, often abusive and sarcastic and often unethical.
6. The bombastic defender has a feeling of self-importance, trying to impress all with his abilities and importance. He is in many ways like the dramatic defender or the vicious dramatist but is louder, more abusive and more

unethical. He regards the verdict in the case as the all-important goal, while disregarding ethics, fair play and justice.

8. The spitter defender is an attorney who is very close to the witness and speaks loudly, rapidly and spits a fine spray of saliva on the witness. It should not unnerve the witness, and often the judge will admonish the spitter to stand back a respectful distance.
9. The liberator defender is one who usually represents minority groups, in cases of unusual prominence, attempting to capitalize on the American way of justice. The liberator seeks publicity of any sort, seldom working for no compensation but leaving the impression that the services are donated. The natural object of his attack is law enforcement, with false accusations and other unconscionable charges.

VIII. The Various Tactics of Defense Counsel under Cross-examination.

A. The tactic of delaying the trial.

1. The most notable tactic of an unscrupulous defender is that of delaying the trial unnecessarily. A delay before trial and after arrest is provided for the preparing of a proper defense.
2. In most cases, criminal trials are stalled unethically for one or more of the following reasons:
 - a. Secure full payment of fees before trial.
 - b. Develop information more favorable to the defense.
 - c. Provide time for the fabrication of testimony.
 - d. In the hopes that the prosecution witnesses will no longer be available.

B. The defender's efforts to impeach the witness.

1. When a discrepancy occurs in testimony, the defender will make an effort to cast doubt on the testimony of the witness.
2. Many times discrepancies will occur between testimony in the preliminary examination and the trial.
3. If the discrepancy in testimony is a minor issue the defense will use it to confuse the witness. The defender will try to get the witness to change or contradict the testimony.

4. A police officer, because he handles so many criminal cases, may become confused faster than other witnesses not so closely connected to the administration of justice.
 5. Impeachment of the witness may follow or the defender will make an issue of the discrepancy in summation.
 6. Shrewd defenders will make every effort to discredit testimony.
 7. Testimony in the preliminary hearing may be read into the trial record if the witness has died or is otherwise unavailable because the defendant had the right to confrontation and cross-examination at the preliminary examination.
- C. The defender challenging prosecution conferences.
1. The defender may accuse the officer of conspiring with the prosecutor to gain a conviction.
 2. It is never illegal for a police officer or prosecutor or witness to discuss the merits of a case.
 3. It is illegal and unethical for the prosecutor and any witnesses, either cooperatively or independently, to fabricate evidence for use in obtaining a criminal conviction.
 4. No witness should ever hesitate to answer truthfully and openly questions about conferences with the prosecutor, as pre-trial conferences with attorneys are legal.
 5. The main purpose of this attack is to unnerve the witness. The more nervous and confused a witness is, the greater the chance for creating reasonable doubt.
- D. The defender mispronouncing the name of the witness.
1. Accidental mispronouncing of names will occur and should be expected.
 2. Occasionally mispronouncing of names will occur, intended for the purpose of causing anger and hostilities.
 3. Intentional mispronouncing of names will cause irritation if not ignored by the witness.
 4. The witness should make no effort to correct counsel on the mistake.

- E. The defender may attack the witness personally.
1. A common practice is for an attorney to attack a person verbally, in the hope that it will unnerve the witness into revealing contradictory or inconsistent testimony.
 2. It is unfair to the witness, mainly because his personal life is so far removed from the courtroom and the case at bar.
 3. Such past occurrences as impeachment, divorce, etc., may be used in an attack of a personal nature.
- F. The defender may attack the witness' creditability.
1. Some attorneys may attack the creditability or believability of the witness' testimony.
 2. By rephrasing questions and repeating questions, the attorney may confuse the witness, causing error in testimony.
 3. An attack on creditability may be taken seriously by the witness and may make the witness angry. By getting angry, a witness may lose his temper, causing more discrepancies and inconsistencies.
 4. Many times the officer deserves and is entitled to more credit for honesty and integrity than will be given.
- G. The defender may insinuate that third degree methods were used by the police.
1. Many times when a confession or admission of guilt is offered into evidence, the defender indicates that force was used extracting the statement.
 2. Any confession or admission can be controverted after being introduced as evidence if it can be proven that it was obtained by force, coercion, or duress.
 3. The defender may indicate that threats and intimidations were used to secure the damaging statement.
 4. It is always good to have more than one person hear the defendant advised on his rights, and any statements made in a trustworthy and voluntary manner.

- H. The defender may use trick questions in the cross-examination.
1. The defender may ask a complex question which has two answers or can't be answered by a one-word answer.
 2. The defender may ask an incomplete question which may be a trick, so pause before answering.
 3. The defender may pose questions which take the form of an insinuation, or a reference to things an officer knows nothing about, or in a manner which indicates stupidity on the part of the witness.
 4. A defender may accuse the witness of remembering only those things the person wants to remember, which may reflect on the witness' credibility.
 5. To avoid an insinuating attack on integrity always try to check a defendant's personal belongings in front of a witness.
- I. The witness' testimony may be altered by efforts of the defender.
1. There may be an effort on the part of the defender to add information to the testimony previously given by the witness in an effort to get the witness to alter testimony.
 2. By rewording or rephrasing testimony in court the defender may change the meaning of previous testimony.
 3. After the rephrasing the defender will try to get the witness to agree to the new restatement. If the witness agrees the defender will then probe further.
 4. The apparent willingness of the witness to change his testimony will serve to discredit the witness.
 5. When discrepancies occur they should immediately be pointed out by the witness and fully explained.
 6. Try to keep the issue as clear as possible for the court and jury.

- J. The defender's use of recess contacts.
1. Recess contacts between the prosecution witnesses and the defender are common.
 2. The defender may engage the officer in a conversation and secure information related to the case.
 3. During the officer's testimony the defender may infer that the officer actually didn't see or observe what he is testifying to on the stand. Many times during an innocuous recess conversation, seeds of doubt are established in the mind of the witness by the defender.
 4. Any changes in testimony may hurt the prosecution's case.
 5. The witness should be wary of any defender who shakes hands, and buys coffee or cigarettes, for this defender is usually seeking information which you shouldn't give. As a general rule don't engage a defender in conversation about a case.
 6. Do not speak freely in front of anyone but other officers about the case because roaming through the courthouse may be friends of the defender or defendant who are listening for information.
- K. The defender's use of information from incidental or unexpected conversations.
1. Never discuss the case with anyone not in an official capacity.
 2. Any conversations held with those outside of the prosecution personnel should be limited.
 3. The officer should also be advised not to discuss any cases with his family.
 4. Information passed to friend or family may find itself coming back in strange ways.
 5. What was originally told someone else may have become distorted out of proportion. Stories tend to grow bigger each time they are told.
 6. Witnesses should not discuss their testimony or role in the case, because it may damage their testimony.

7. Every witness should be wary of conversations in or around the jury when the court is being commenced or during recess.
- L. Some boards, committees, and hearings do not provide for any cross-examination.
1. While cross-examination does not exist in all hearings, such tactics may be applied during hearings.
 2. All rules for the courtroom should be applied to hearings.
- M. The intimidation of witnesses by the defender.
1. Many times, under the guise of a reporter, another person telephones a witness in an effort to find out what he is going to testify to in court.
 2. Only converse on the phone with people known to you by voice: persons who are officials with whom you should discuss the case.
 3. Never reveal anything which was testified to in a closed hearing.
 4. Remember that all trials are public and the press has free access to the court and its records.
 5. Harassment phone calls are sometimes made to jurors and witnesses to cause nervousness or to change the mind of the juror or witness.
 6. Witnesses should call the police if they have unusual telephone calls or contacts while a juror or witness in a criminal trial.

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IX. Uneasiness on the Witness Stand.

A. The expectations of experiencing nervousness or uneasiness.

1. The witness should anticipate being nervous and uneasy when testifying in court.

2. The witness may find it difficult to sit in the chair comfortably.

3. The nervousness and uneasiness can be overcome by proper training, proper preparation, practice and a knowledge of the reasons for nervousness.

4. No person, particularly a witness for court, will be totally immune from stress, but some do control and conceal it better than others.

B. Some of the causes of uneasiness or nervousness.

1. Uneasiness is the state or condition of being restless and disturbed by pain, anxiety, etc.

2. Uneasiness or nervousness may be caused by self-consciousness, fear, worry, apprehension or nervous tension.

3. The autonomic nervous system controls such body functions as the heart, respiration, glands, etc.; these organs function without thought.

4. This system is also known as the sympathetic nervous system or the body's defense mechanism.

5. When the mind knows that there is an event ahead which may or may not be unpleasant, the body reacts to the anticipation with anxiety.

6. Anxiety is reflected physically with a dry mouth, fast heartbeat, etc.

C. The emotional reflex action.

1. When a person becomes fearful of something he becomes tense because of emotional strain.

2. In a healthy person this reaction is perfectly natural.

3. Any man who says he isn't afraid is not normal.

4. A quick response by the body to fear is an emotional one, involving all major organs and systems of the body.

5. Uneasiness by a witness is really emotional strain; the more severe strain results in profuse perspiration, shortness of breath, muscle tremors, etc., or "butterflies" in the stomach.

6. These conditions are particularly noticeable prior to testifying and diminish somewhat after being on the stand because the witness' area of concentration has changed and anxiety diminishes.
7. After testifying the witness will feel relieved because of a reduction in stress.
8. Emotional stress can be overcome somewhat by relaxing prior to testifying and when actually testifying.
9. Peace of mind, clear thinking, the ability to concentrate, etc., are all enhanced by relaxation.

D. Environment contributes to emotional uneasiness.

1. Being in a strange environment may cause the witness a feeling of inadequacy. The inadequate feeling is increased by anxiety and anticipation and being unsure of the requirements.
2. Confidence in courtroom testimony is gained by experience and by being familiar with the courtroom through experience in testifying.
3. Experience will never overcome uneasiness completely, but familiarity builds confidence, which comes from experience.
4. A person who has a fear of the unknown and is oversensitive is more self-conscious than the average person, which may result in interference with comfort, ease, and poise of the witness.
5. Self-consciousness, particularly related to the witness' making a mistake, may become so intense that it prevents the witness from acting, thinking or speaking normally.
6. The power of concentration should be developed to the exclusion of concentrating on other things, like environment, etc. The area of concentration should be on the evidence and not on the witness himself.
7. If at all possible, the officer should be rested before testifying because a fatigued mind diminishes the power of concentration.

E. The evidence of emotional strain.

1. Emotional stress and strain should be eliminated early by concentrating on reviewing the facts of the case and notes prior to trial.
2. Anxiety, apprehension, fear, etc., greatly contribute to the emotion of fear.
3. Fear is a natural human emotion, which in some ways is beneficial and in other ways, to a more extreme degree, is harmful.
4. Conflicts in the mind are typified by tension, uneasiness, restlessness and, frequently, nervousness.
5. The conflicts result in a reduction of conscious control of nerves, causing nervousness characterized by voice tremors, palpitations, profuse perspiration, breathlessness, intestinal discomfort, fatigue or loss of memory.
6. Excessive mental strain is often followed by fatigue or exhaustion, which impairs concentration, creating more concern and more nervousness. The circle is never-ending and vicious.

F. A lack of ability to concentrate.

1. The memory is the faculty of the mind which enables one to retain and reproduce impressions received.
2. The act of remembering is the recollection that a person has within the past.
3. Memory is the ability to recollect facts, and is enhanced by the ability to concentrate.
4. It is very important that a witness concentrate on evidence and testimony to be given.
5. By relaxing, a witness can reduce emotional distress and lessen all the characteristics of emotional distress.

G. The ability to overcome uneasiness on the witness stand.

1. A lack of ability is reflected by uneasiness, or hesitant, repetitious or nonsensical answers. A lack of ability can never be overcome. Often the same symptoms are reflected by those who are unprepared. Unpreparedness can be overcome by reviewing the notes and facts on the trial.
2. There are many ways to overcome nervousness or uneasiness. Relaxation is probably the most important single factor.
3. Personal feelings are unimportant because the witness is not on trial, unless the defendant becomes a witness.
4. Signs of nervousness or uneasiness are looked for by the attorneys in court, particularly if they are the types who like to take advantage of such a condition in a witness.
5. In sitting in the witness chair, the hips should be fully back into the chair with the back against the backrest. This is an upright position which relaxes back muscles, maintains good posture and appears comfortable.
6. Try to breathe normally and sit so that the lungs can be expanded properly.
7. When you are on the stand think before you speak and when you speak, speak only the truth.
8. Look, but don't stare, at the members of the jury.

X. Checklist to be Used Prior to Testifying in Court.

A. Were the field notes properly prepared?

1. Are they understandable and clearly written?
2. Do they contain charts, maps diagrams, or other supplemental material?
3. Who else was present at the scene?
4. Who was the investigating officer?
5. Who else assisted and what was the function of each person?

6. What is the victim's name and address?
 7. What was the address at the location of the offense?
 8. What is the name and description of the defendant?
 9. What was the description of the auto used?
 10. Do I have a complete list of the property stolen?
 11. What property has been recovered?
 - a. Where recovered?
 - b. When recovered?
 - c. From whom recovered?
 - d. Who identified the recovered property?
- B. Were photographs taken at the scene?
1. What photographs were taken?
 2. By whom were they taken?
 3. Have I seen them?
 4. Can I identify the scenes they show?
 5. Were photographs taken of the evidence I will present in court?
 6. Will the photographs be in court when I testify?
- C. Was a sketch, map or diagram made of the scene?
1. Who made the sketch?
 2. Does it show all articles of furniture, windows, doors, landmarks, etc.?
 3. Was all evidence indicated on the sketch?
 4. Who assisted in taking measurements?
 5. Were the measurements taken by triangulation?

6. Have my notes, regarding the measurements, been checked?
 7. Do my measurements show the proper location of the evidence?
 8. Can I transfer my measurements to a scale drawing in the courtroom?
 9. Do I know the symbols used to indicate the articles of evidence and do I have them clearly in mind?
- D. Who supplied information on the crime?
1. When was the offense reported?
 2. Do I know who reported the offense?
 3. Did I contact this person - when and where?
 4. Do I remember the information he supplied?
 5. Would I recognize this person if I saw him in the courtroom?
 6. Do I know the name and address of the victim?
 7. What information did the victim supply?
 8. Could I identify the victim in the courtroom?
 9. Do I know the names and addresses of witnesses and informants?
 10. Can I clearly recall the information I received from witnesses and informants?
 11. Can I recall the times and places of the interviews with each?
 12. Would I recognize these people in court?
 13. Did other officers supply information; if so, what - when, etc.?
- E. When did I first see the defendant?
1. Under what conditions did I first see him?
 2. Who else was present at that time?

3. Did I arrest him at that time - when and where?
 4. What was his arrest based on?
 5. When and where did I first interrogate the defendant?
 6. Do I recall any statement he made in reference to the defense?
 7. Was the defendant identified by the victim or a witness?
 8. Who identified him - when, where and how?
 9. How was the defendant dressed when arrested?
 10. Did his clothing correspond to the description given by the victim or witness?
 11. Was the defendant driving, or riding in a car when arrested?
 12. Did the car answer the description given by the victim or witness?
 13. Do I know its make, model, year, color, license number, etc.?
 14. Did the car have any unusual accessories or features that would set it apart from others?
 15. Was the car damaged in any way?
 16. Was the defendant alone when apprehended?
 17. Did he offer resistance to arrest?
- F. What evidence was found?
1. Am I familiar with all evidence found?
 2. Who found the individual articles?
 3. Who else was present when evidence was found?
 4. When, where and under what circumstances did I find evidence?
 5. How was each article marked for identification?

6. How was each article packed?
 7. Did I record the proper information on each article?
 8. Can I establish the chain of possession?
 9. Is the evidence still in my possession?
 10. What examinations were made on the evidence?
 11. Who conducted the examinations?
 12. Is the prosecutor familiar with the examinations conducted?
 13. Do I have a copy of the expert's report?
 14. Will testimony of the expert be of value to the case?
- G. Am I prepared to testify?
1. Have I reviewed my notes as thoroughly as I should?
 2. Am I familiar with all of the facts?
 3. Am I familiar with all of the evidence?
 4. Have I prepared all of the exhibits that should be prepared?
 5. Am I certain that I am familiar with the evidence that can be presented by the victim, witnesses, etc.?
 6. Have I informed the prosecutor as to all information I have on the case?
 7. Have I gone over the testimony to be given by witnesses with the prosecutor?
 8. Does the prosecutor understand what testimony I can give?
 9. Would research be of assistance to the testimony I am to give?
 10. Have I reviewed the case thoroughly with the prosecutor?

11. Has my preparation given me self-confidence and self-assurance?
12. Have my notes been removed from the notebook, so they can be taken into court separately?

H. While waiting to testify or during recess:

1. I shall not converse with anyone in reference to the testimony I am to give.
2. I shall avoid conversation with opposing counsel or defense witnesses.
3. I shall be alert for possible contacts by counsel or his representatives.
4. I may converse freely with others, but not in reference to the case.
5. I shall not concern myself with conversations, held within my hearing, in reference to the case.
6. I will wait in the witness room, or in the corridor adjacent, where I can be easily contacted.
7. I should not concern myself with the impression I will make while testifying. Impossible!
8. I can replace nervousness by concentration on the evidence.

K. During questioning:

1. I shall direct my attention toward counsel while he is asking questions.
2. I shall hesitate briefly, after the question is completed, before giving my answer.
3. I shall direct my answers to either the judge or jury, as the case may be.
4. I shall speak loudly and clearly enough to be heard throughout the courtroom.
5. My answers shall be as brief and concise as possible.

6. If asked to relate a series of events, I shall speak clearly and distinctly. The sequence of events shall be in proper order to provide better understanding.
7. I shall avoid the use of profanity except when repeating words spoken by another.
8. I shall avoid the use of police slang or technical terms. When necessarily used, I shall explain their meaning.
9. I shall answer all questions for which I know the answers.
10. I shall not depend on my opinions or conclusions - I shall testify only to facts.
11. I shall be fair and impartial in testifying.
12. I shall not avoid a question, nor shall I distort an answer.
13. I shall not hesitate to correct any honest mistake I might make while testifying.
14. I must not show by my actions that I am partial to the prosecution.
15. If asked if I have talked the case over with the prosecutor, prior to trial, I shall readily admit it if I have.
16. If I used my notes to refresh my recollection, I shall readily admit that I had.
17. If I am asked to turn my notes over to counsel for examination, I shall be prepared to do so.
18. I shall show equal respect to counsel for both parties.
19. I shall show no signs of animosity toward counsel for the opposition.
20. I shall expect reflections on my character and credibility. Should they occur, I will consider the source and not concern myself.
21. I must remember that opposing counsel may try to cause me to lose my temper. This I must avoid.

22. I must remember that I am only a witness in the case. I am not on trial even though it may so appear.
 23. I must remember to place my body in proper position, so I can be seen by all interested parties, while illustrating or demonstrating.
- L. When I am finished testifying:
1. I should wait to be excused by both attorneys and the judge, before leaving the stand.
 2. When excused, I shall leave the courtroom without conversing with, or contacting anyone in the courtroom.
 3. After leaving the courtroom, I shall leave the immediate vicinity as soon as possible.
 4. I shall not converse with anyone in regard to the testimony I have given, except the prosecutor or investigating officer.
 5. I should show no sign of interest in the verdict of the jury.

XI. Some Important Things to be Noted in Courtroom Testimony.

A. Things to do or remember when testifying in court.

1. Prepare for eventual courtroom testimony at the initial report of the crime.
2. Be careful not to destroy the case before trial by prisoner mistreatment, promise of reward, etc.
3. Attend a pre-trial conference with the prosecution and witnesses. Review the case - all evidence and notes.
4. When appearing in court, be prepared and on time, in proper apparel.
5. Be businesslike and respectful at all times during the proceeding.
6. Always tell the truth and have your conduct, demeanor, and answers reflect your professional bearing.
7. Always give the prosecutor time to object before answering a question.

8. Direct answers toward the jury, not the questioning counsel.

9. Correct any mistakes in testimony immediately.

B. Things not to do or forget when testifying in court.

1. Avoid chewing, eating, or smoking.
2. Avoid familiarity with the judge or others in the court.
3. Avoid any form of prejudice, discrimination or impartiality.
4. Avoid exaggerating, overtestifying, or bluffing.
5. Avoid laughter, or humor which may indicate a lack of seriousness.
6. Avoid changing the attitude from direct to cross-examination.
7. Avoid losing your temper or composure.
8. Avoid looking slouchy or sloppy.
9. Avoid commenting publicly on a court case. Not only is it in bad taste but it may ruin the case.

XII. Examples of Trick, Loaded or Ambiguous Questions.

- A. A defense attorney may use trick questions designed to trap an officer into foolish answers. There are many trick questions; this section is only a sample of some of them.
- B. The trick question on employment.
 1. Question: "You haven't been an officer very long, have you?"
 2. Answer: "I have been an officer for _____."
 3. Trap: you can't help it if you are a new officer - make no apology for it as your power to arrest is as great as any other officer's.

C. The trick question on pre-trial conferences.

1. Question: "Have you talked to anyone about this case?"
2. Answer: "I have talked with several persons about the case." When further pressed as to whom you talked to: "Witnesses, the prosecutor, my partner and my superior officers."
3. Trap: to get the officer to deny talking with anyone about the case. As an officer you have to discuss the case with the proper people, so don't deny it.

D. Trick questions on frame-ups.

1. Question: "Didn't you and the prosecuting attorney get together in a meeting yesterday and frame this whole thing?"
2. Answer: "We met yesterday to review this case from my notes because I wanted to be very sure my testimony would be correct in this case."
3. Trap: you aren't framing anybody by discussing the case.

E. Trick question personality clashes.

1. Question: "you don't like my client, do you?"
2. Answer: "I feel sorry for any man in trouble, but I have to tell the truth."
3. Trap: don't let personalities interfere with good judgment.

F. Trick questions on convictions.

1. Question: "You just want a conviction, don't you?"
2. Answer: "If he is guilty he should be convicted."
3. Trap: to get you to personalize your preoccupation with a conviction rather than being truthful and objective.

- G. Trick question and arrest quotas.
1. Question: "You just want your arrest quota every month."
 2. Answer: "We have no arrest quota - we are only required to arrest people who break the law."
 3. Trap: to get you to admit to arrest quotas.
- H. Trick questions on outside reading on this case.
1. Question: "have you read anything about the case?"
 2. Answer: "Yes, I read about the case in the newspapers."
 3. Trap: to get you to say you have had no contact with the case by reading the newspaper.
- I. Trick questions regarding alcohol.
1. Question: "You say his breath smelled like alcohol. Just what is the odor of alcohol?"
 2. Answer: "I smelled alcohol associated with drinking and he had an odor like drunks I have previously arrested."
 3. Trap: pure alcohol has no odor
- J. Trick question on "yes" and "no" answers.
1. Question: "Answer my question yes or no."
 2. Answer: "I can't answer the question yes or no."
 3. Trap: many questions can't be answered yes or no. Many answers must be explained to be truthful.
- K. Trick questions on what other witnesses or officers have said.
1. Question: "What if I told you your partner said this _____."
 2. Answer: "I didn't hear my partner's testimony. I can only tell you what I know myself."
 3. Trap: the attorney doesn't say your partner actually said anything.

- L. Trick questions on your telling the truth.
1. Question: "Did your partner tell the truth or are you telling the truth?"
 2. Answer: "What I have told you is the truth and I am sure officer _____ told you the truth to the best of his knowledge."
 3. Trap: never say someone else made a mistake - because you don't know.
- M. Trick questions on advising a person of his rights.
1. Question: "Did you advise the defendant of all of his constitutional rights?"
 2. Answer: "I advised him of _____."
 3. Trap: you couldn't tell him all of his rights because you don't know all of his rights.
- N. Trick question on your presence.
1. Question: "Why are you here today?"
 2. Answer: "I have been subpoenaed to testify in this matter by order of the court."
 3. Trap: to show personal involvement, being anxious to convict.
- O. Trick questions on drinking alcoholic beverages.
1. Question: "You don't like drunk people, do you?"
 2. Answer: "I don't mind social drinking, so long as it does not endanger or hurt people."
 3. Question: "Have you ever been drunk yourself?"
 4. Answer: Tell the truth, no matter how much it hurts.
 5. Trap: to show you are against drinking or are really a drunk yourself.

CONTINUED

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FIREARMS

I. The Rule of Survival.

A. The criminal has the initial advantage.

1. The criminal's greatest asset is that he can make up his mind to kill without warning or provocation. Being on the other side of the law, he is not bound to remain within legal limits of gunfight behavior.
2. In the questioning of some of these criminals who survived police combat, most of them admitted the preparation to kill; while a police officer must wait for some overt act on the part of the criminal, which does not have to be such that a weapon must be displayed in a hostile manner.
3. It is sufficient for a policeman to start into action when the criminal makes some motion which a reasonable man would interpret as an attempt to apply armed force against the officer or someone else. The criminal's action may not be enough to warrant the officer in shooting, but it is certainly enough to warrant the drawing of a revolver and being ready to use it.
4. The killers of policemen range from crazy youths to senile, psychotic old men. There is no situation in which a police officer is not justified in drawing his weapon to learn more about the situation while under gun muzzle control, so long as the officer has reasonable grounds to believe his opponent may be armed and may intend to use the weapon.
5. A peace officer's perspective.
 1. A police officer tries his best to carry out his work peacefully but at the same time aware that he may need the weapon without advance notice. This is a negative frame of reference from which the officer must resolve an armed conflict.
 2. There appears to be a strong instinctive mental block in the perspective of many police officers, as they fail to comprehend the suddenness with which a situation can develop and, similarly, fail to recognize the inherent advantage of the criminal in conflict with the police.
 3. A few policemen have developed the practice of drawing their revolver and holding it as they approach a suspicious car. If their suspicions are not

confirmed, a slight turn of their body aids in concealing the gun as they tuck it back into their holster. This technique is in reality a device to combat the mental attitude of the killer-criminal.

4. The only time a police officer may use force is to overcome resistance, and then a policeman has the legitimate right and a duty to use any method available to protect himself.

C. Surrendering your gun.

1. Policemen generally will not give up their side arms easily; however, it is recognized that there are situations in which an officer's life may be in danger if he fails to surrender his weapon.
2. Police history is complete with incidents of policemen who refused to surrender their revolver and apprehended or killed the criminal who had the drop on them. It is for this reason that any officer who surrenders his gun must unfortunately expect some unkind remarks from fellow officers.
3. Every day, somewhere in the United States, a policeman is confronted with the dilemma of surrendering his gun or fighting it out, a dilemma complicated by the fact that the criminal may kill the police officer after the surrender.
4. The policeman should never forget the fact that the community arms him to defend himself and others in his company against criminals. A police officer surrendering his weapon gives up to the enemy. The very instance of giving up his gun should be effectively utilized to seize and arrest the criminal or to kill him in self defense.
5. The officer must remember that most citizens of the community are unarmed and easy prey for armed criminals. The officer owes a moral duty to the public he serves to not only disarm the criminal, but to use every means at his disposal to avoid arming the criminal with still another gun.
6. Basic thinking in solving such dilemmas can be channelized along the lines of encounters between policemen and criminals in which the police officer won out. The policeman can attempt to talk his way out of the situation, shoot it out, or attempt to disarm his criminal opponent.

D. Cop killers.

1. The crux of talking a criminal out of his gun rests with playing on basic fears. Every crook, thug, and hoodlum in the underworld knows what happens to cop killers. One of the facets contributing to the rise of the Mafia in the American underworld has been their reluctance to kill a police officer.
2. Armed hired killers have surrendered to police within moments after a killing, because their "contract" did not include killing a policeman.
3. Most of the professionals in the underworld, and those who shelter criminals for a fee, agree: "Cop killers are poison."
4. The criminal is a bit disorganized at the sudden appearance of a policeman; and while his first impulse is defensive, any words of the policeman which may contribute to his disorganization may lead to panic and surrender.
5. As a policeman, you are a member of an exclusive club that knows no boundaries anywhere in the world. The police of Michigan seek out a cop killer just as earnestly as the police of the state of Washington, and this is also true of the police of foreign countries. "Wanted for killing a police officer" on an F.B.I. wanted bulletin appears to set the hackles on the back of any police officer to functioning. It is the interrelation of individuals working in the same vocation that accounts for this attitude.
6. The criminal knows that once he kills a policeman, other officers will have a tendency to shoot first and ask questions later.

E. Shooting it out with a criminal.

1. There may be no need to rush things; possibly a word to the criminal to drop the gun and surrender may have the desired effect. A police officer must realize that the criminal, almost panic-stricken at the sudden appearance of the officer, may give up, or may go into a full panic and start blazing.
2. The exact circumstance of the moment, the premises concerned, the type of criminal, and apparent armament are all essential elements in serving to shaping the officer's evaluation of the situation. Something about the criminal may be the deciding factor as to what action is most advantageous for the policeman.

- a. The criminal may be very young or very old.
 - b. He may be indecisive in his actions.
3. In the final analysis, it is a delineation of character that only the officer at the scene can make at the moment of surprise. It has to be an excellent appraisal with split-second timing.
 4. An officer would feel quite silly if he surrendered a loaded firearm to a criminal armed only with a pipe, a roll of coins, or some other object simulating a weapon.
- F. Attitudes of the criminal and police officer.
1. The criminal has an ascending potential of fear arising from such an encounter, and it runs through his mind along these lines:
 - a. I'm caught . . . maybe he'll fight.
 - b. I don't want to kill a cop.
 - c. Maybe he'll kill me.
 - d. If I kill him, they'll beat me . . . I couldn't live through that.
 - e. If I do live, I'll get the gas chamber.
 - f. I may get away.
 - g. I may get away . . . better give up now.
 - h. Fight . . . can I win.
 - i. Kill . . . should I.
 2. Something about the officer may be the deciding factor in making up the criminal's mind. Every animal-like sense of man comes close to the top when the individual is embarked upon a crime.
 3. For years, police officers thought that feces and urine traces at crime scenes were part of the modus operandi of the criminal, but found out that nature makes unexpected demands when fear rises to unforeseen heights.
 4. Capability with a gun and confidence in ability can be transmitted to these criminals when their perceptions are heightened by the "crime in progress" situation.

5. The mental frame of reference of police officers should run along these lines:
 - a. I may be able to talk him out of it . . .
 - b. Even if he does shoot, the gun may misfire or he may miss me . . .
 - c. If he does hit me, that doesn't mean that I'm dead . . . he's got to hit a vital spot . . .
 - d. What the hell, my insurance is paid and this bum might kill someone else.
 6. From the very first moment a man pins on a police badge and holsters the police revolver, he must live with the thought that he might have to shoot it out; and while life is a precious thing, so is a man's opinion of himself.
- G. Disarming techniques for the police officer.
1. If the criminal is within reach, or even "lunging reach," the policeman may think about disarming him.
 2. An overt move at this moment may panic the criminal into shooting when he might have willingly given up under a little persuasion. "Talking them down" from the high emotional level common at this moment should be attempted at first. It will also give the officer a few precious moments to evaluate his opponent and the other circumstances surrounding the situation - and may give him time to sidle to within reaching distance.
 3. Actually, physical contact of the criminal's gun with the officer's body is the most advantageous position for the officer; otherwise, the officer cannot know the location of the weapon, which is a big help when the approach is from the front.
 4. Two steps are necessary in successful disarming techniques.
 - a. One is to swivel the body away from the muzzle.
 - b. The other is to reach down and seize control of the weapon.
 - c. The two movements can be made faster than the criminal opponent can react, but they have to be fast.

5. Once the officer has his hand or hands on the gun and has deflected the muzzle away from his body, he has the advantage, because the criminal's finger is in the trigger guard. A simple wrenching motion of the gun away from the officer and inward upon the criminal's arm holding the gun will usually break the trigger finger or cause sufficient pain to force the criminal to release his grip upon the gun, and set the officer up for a disarming technique that slides into a classic wrist lock.
6. In the wrist lock, the officer slides one or both of his hands beyond the gun so that his thumb or thumbs are on the back of the criminal's hand holding the gun; then a slight upward, inward, and downward motion puts an untenable pressure upon the muscles controlling the fingers, and the criminal is forced to release his hold on the gun. At some point in this motion, the muzzle may be accidentally pointed at the officer's chest and head - a very undesirable feature of this disarming technique.
7. Another wrestling hold that is sometimes taught as a disarming technique is the arm lock. The officer slides into a position where the pressure is exerted outward and to the rear, in such a fashion that the pain causes the criminal to release his hold upon the weapon. This hold has the same disadvantage in that the arc of the weapon's muzzle, as the officer moves into the final position of the hold, may sweep his body for an instant - and that's too long.
8. The more simple disarming technique of first swiveling the body out of the way of the gun's muzzle, then reaching for the gun and wrestling it out of the criminal's grasp and studiously refraining from giving him any opportunity of again pointing it at any portion of the officer's body. There is every possibility that a shot will be fired as the officer and criminal struggle for possession of the gun; but when it happens, the officer must have control of the muzzle.
9. In wrenching a weapon away from a criminal by turning it in upon his trigger finger, there is a good chance of the criminal receiving a self-inflicted gunshot wound; that is one of the disadvantages of facing up to a trained police officer. It is easier to take a gun away from an individual than it is to hold onto the weapon. A firm hold on a revolver will keep its cylinder from turning and thus jam it, or will cause the recoiling parts of an automatic pistol to be retarded to such an extent that a malfunction will occur and the automatic will fail to function.

10. No sane man will attempt to cause a malfunction of a .45 caliber automatic pointed at him by pressing on the front of it with sufficient pressure to hold it out of battery and thus cause a failure to fire when the trigger is pulled. This is living too dangerously. The officer should get that muzzle away from his body as the initial step in all disarming techniques.
- H. Practice and perfection of disarming techniques.
1. Try out every disarming technique before settling on one that you think is best suited to your own individual physique. Practice it on a friend. Don't practice taking the gun away by any sudden twisting against the trigger finger of a friend, as any sudden movement - particularly when resisted, and all friends will resist - may cause a severe cut on the trigger finger. Try it out, but try it out slow and easy.
 2. It is not amiss to point out that as the officer swings into position, with one or both hands on his opponent's gun, he can put one foot and one knee to effective use. A knee to an opponent's groin in a sudden, hard-rising motion will assist any disarming technique; and while not quite so effective, a blow struck with a stamping motion of the officer's foot downward on his opponent's instep may also assist in disarming a criminal. In fact, an offense is a good defense against similar blows from the criminal. The greatest obstacle to disarming a man is not only the gun, but also the free hand of the criminal.
 3. It is amazing how fast a criminal can be disarmed. If his free hand can reach any portion of the officer's clothing or body, it will provide an anchor upon which he can level defensive pressure against the officer.
 4. As the officer swings into the wrenching movements which will take the gun out of the hand of the criminal, it is vital that he move away from his opponent's free hand, in order to leave him "swinging" without any point against which he can lever a resisting pressure.
 5. A nightstick in the right hand of a policeman facing an opponent with a gun in his right hand, a little distance from an officer, is a natural position for teeing off in what probably would be an arm-breaking blow. The position of the nightstick and the opponent's gun will be the deciding factors as to whether or not the "baton" of the policeman can disarm an opponent. The attack is to be delivered at the gun.

6. Even a hard blow to the head of an opponent with a nightstick may not stun him rapidly enough to prevent the discharging of the weapon. In disarming, get the gun. Then go after your opponent on more level terms.

I. The problems of attacks with knives and clubs.

1. The same friend or fellow officer with whom disarming techniques has been practiced can also serve in learning about knives and clubs. It breaks the monotony of practicing with a firearm, and the little additional time spent on this practice may someday save an officer a few cuts or bumps and possibly fatal wounds.
2. Almost every area of the country has in its police history a story or two about policemen being beaten with their own nightsticks. In many areas, police officers have been knifed in close quarter combat with a knife-wielding assailant. Clubs are usually swung downward at the officer, and the block is a simple one. An arm lock or wrist lock will usually disarm the club-swinger.
3. On the other hand, a good knife man never swings downward with his weapon, but prefers straight lunges that are difficult to parry. Many of them are skilled at feinting an opponent off balance and will "pull" an officer into "sucker" positions, if the policeman is not careful.
4. Don't completely depend on the cliché, "A gun can outshoot a knife." The assailant of a police officer is usually in the midst of a severe emotional storm; fear, anger, and frustration prepare a man to fight or flee.
5. The normal body functions take over and prepare a human being for great muscular activity; the heart beats faster, blood vessels serving the exterior muscles of the body tend to become larger, and adrenalin is dumped into the blood to charge up an individual. This physiological process can turn a common drunk into a superman for a few minutes.
6. A gun can certainly "outshoot" a knife, but it may not stop the knife-wielder in time.

J. Psychos or psychopaths and weapons.

1. "Psychos," as we term them in police service, range from the psychotic to the psychopath. A real "nut" can be easily identified by a police officer. He may talk

or shout excitedly and incoherently, pace rapidly back and forth, or impulsively attack and even attempt to kill an officer, but (and this is important) the officer has some warning. That's all any good cop asks.

2. Individuals with paranoid disorders or antisocial reactions are more difficult for a police officer to identify. A great many of the fatal attacks upon police officers can be blamed on these individuals, and the fact that the police officer receives no prior warning as to their intentions.
3. The paranoid, except for his delusional system, has a relatively intact personality with no outward evidence of any mental illness.
4. The psychopath lacks ethical and moral development and has an inability to follow the rules of approved behavior. These individuals are apparently intelligent, spontaneous, and very likeable on first acquaintance. They have an ability to put up a good front to impress others.
5. What appears to be a man or woman with a likeable personality, a disarming manner, and an ability to win the friendship of others may very often be an individual with a callous disregard for the rights of others; unsympathetic, ungrateful, and remorseless in his dealings with police officers. They are utterly conscienceless in their attitude to law and order, and their homicidal attacks frequently have bizarre overtones.

K. Combat effectiveness in shooting.

1. The objective of combat shooting is to deliver directed or aimed fire at an armed opponent as rapidly as possible while offering minimum target area for return fire. The interrelationship of these factors is readily discernible.
2. Inaccurate fire is useless; speed is always to be considered when an opponent is slinging lead; and it is smart to seek every means to diminish the target at which an armed criminal may shoot. A police officer who seeks cover or a position which offers less of his body area to his opponent's fire, and who can deliver effective fire rapidly, is the policeman whose wife need never worry about a widow's pension.
3. Any state, municipality, or other agency of government which employs peace officers and arms them with firearms has the responsibility for not only training such officers

in the rudiments of defensive firing, but also in training such officers to recognize situations which warn of potential combat immediately, and the circumstances under which an officer is legally entitled to use his weapon in self-defense, or for other justifiable purposes.

4. The law enforcement agency trains its personnel as to when they can legally use firearms and to be alert to recognize potential combat situations before their opponent seizes the initiative. The individual peace officer improves on his basic marksmanship training, so that he has a firm confidence in himself and his revolver.
5. Under civil law, it is considered municipal negligence for any agency of government to fail to effectively train police officers in the safe handling and accurate firing of their revolvers before they are assigned to duty.
6. Under moral law, it is criminal negligence when an officer fails to build upon this basic training and develop an ability to defend himself.

II. The Essentials of When to Shoot a Weapon.

A. When can an officer shoot? An officer can shoot:

1. To save one's own life.
2. To save the life of another officer.
3. To save a citizen's life.
4. To stop a fleeing dangerous adult felon.

B. When should an officer shoot?

1. The police officer was issued to be primarily a weapon of defense. When an officer believes his life or the life of another is in danger, it is an officer's duty to take whatever action is necessary in protecting that life.
2. The laws of the State of Michigan also give an officer the authority to shoot an escaping felon. Shooting in this or any other case should be a last resort.
3. Does this mean it is the duty of the police to kill every escaping felon? Because every time an officer shoots at a person, death can result. The answer is a positive "No." An officer should give a lot of thought to what type of escaping felon he is going to shoot.

4. The shooting of felonious offenders:

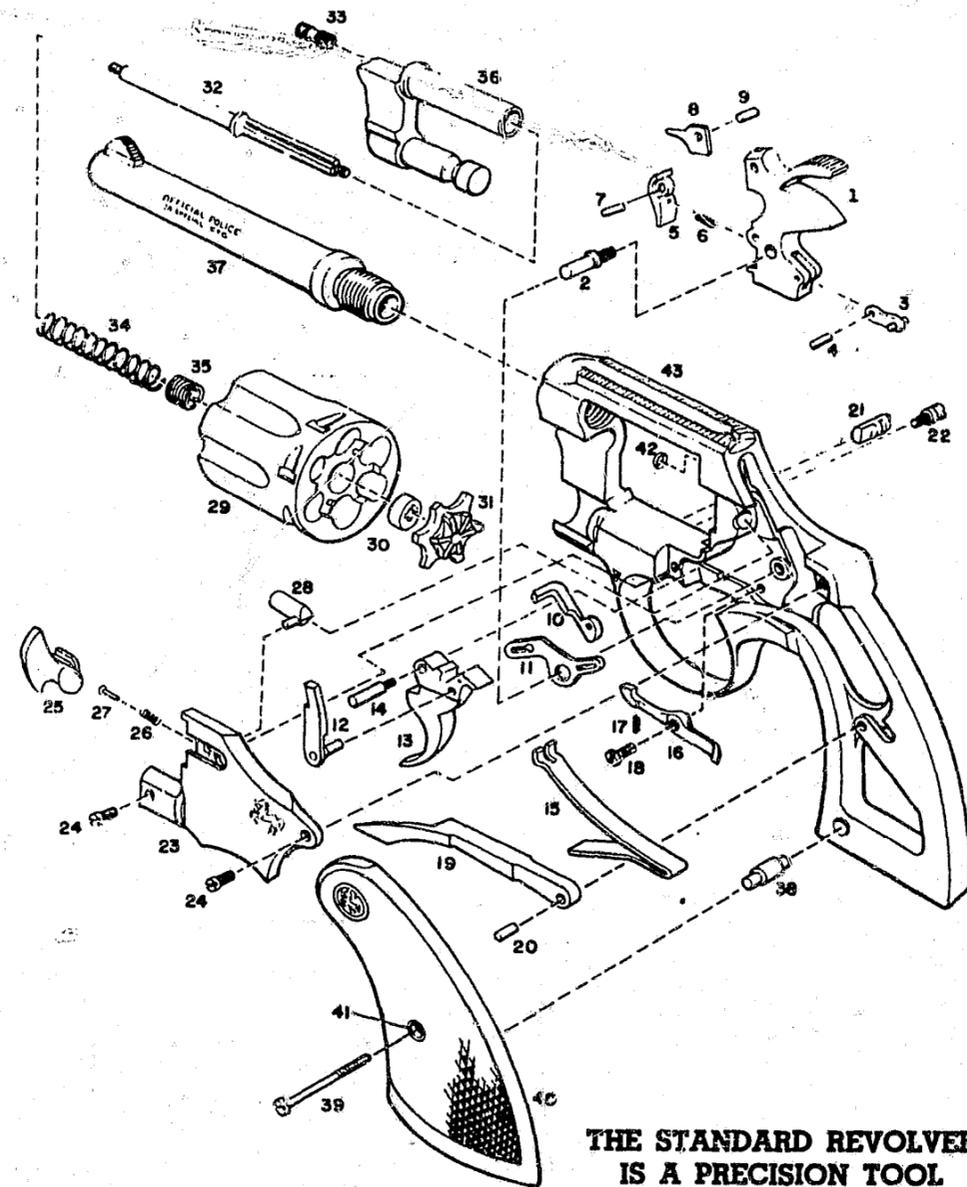
- a. Should an officer shoot an escaping person whose only crime was shoplifting?
- b. Should an officer try to kill a man who is fleeing from an attempt to steal a tire and wheel from a car?
- c. The initial answer from some officers would be, "Yes, the offender was fleeing from a felony crime, wasn't he?" Officers tend to rationalize this opinion by the magic word of "felony."
- d. Do you as an officer honestly believe an offender should be executed for these or similar felonious crimes?

5. There are many incidents where an officer was legally right in shooting a man, but morally wrong. Some officers have directly or indirectly caused the death of a person fleeing from a crime and then wondered for a long period of time if the officer had taken the proper course of action.
6. Now is the time to consider what guidelines will be followed - not at the time of the incident, when only seconds are available to make a decision.
7. At times a felon who constitutes a danger to the community may be fleeing to escape capture, such as an armed robber, rapist or murderer. Even in these cases, the officer must keep in mind where the bullets may go, so as not to endanger the public.
8. It is not possible for police officers to say when to shoot or when not to shoot in advance of a situation. There will be facts present that only the officer will know.
9. The officer's conscience and judgment should be the guide for the use of firearms.

III. Service Revolvers and Off-Duty Guns.

A. Introduction to selection of the police weapon.

1. Some departments furnish their officers with service weapons.



LEGEND

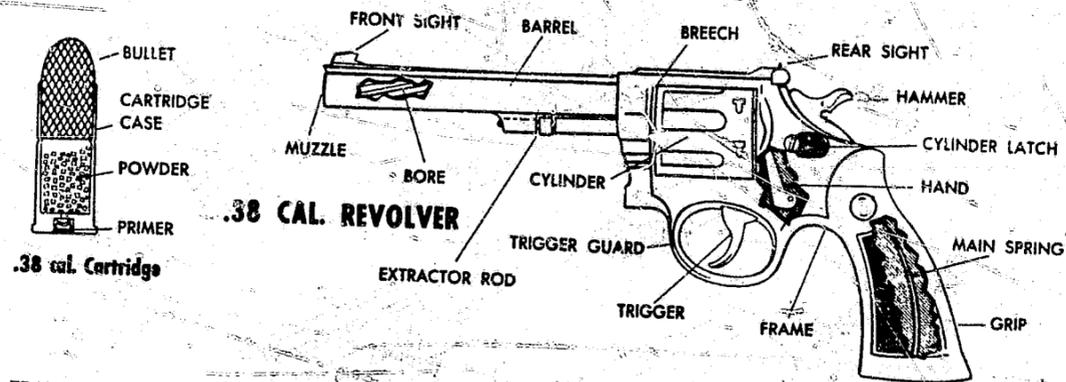
- | | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Hammer | 12. Hand | 23. Sideplate | 34. Extractor spring |
| 2. Hammer pin | 13. Trigger | 24. Sideplate screws (2) | 35. Crane bushing |
| 3. Hammer stirrup | 14. Trigger pin | 25. Latch | 36. Crane |
| 4. Hammer stirrup pin | 15. Mainspring | 26. Latch spring | 37. Barrel |
| 5. Strut | 16. Bolt | 27. Latch spring guide | 38. Stock pin |
| 6. Strut spring | 17. Bolt spring | 28. Latch pin | 39. Stock screw |
| 7. Strut pin | 18. Bolt screw | 29. Cylinder | 40. Stocks (2) |
| 8. Firing pin | 19. Retard level | 30. Cylinder bushing | 41. Escutcheons (2) |
| 9. Firing pin rivet | 20. Retard lever pin | 31. Extractor and ratchet | 42. Recoil plate |
| 10. Safety | 21. Crane lock | 32. Extractor rod | 43. Frame |
| 11. Safety lever | 22. Crane lock screw | 33. Extractor rod head | |

2. Much of the following is predicated on either the officer's purchasing the weapon or having his choice of weapons, should the department buy one to requested specifications.
3. The police revolver has been basically unchanged for the last half century.
4. Before purchasing or accepting a weapon, examine it and make sure the weapon functions properly.
5. Remember always that the determining factor in a gun battle is not the weapon, but the skill and proficiency of the user.

B. Selections of a service revolver.

1. General description of service revolver. Most police revolvers are:
 - a. Manufactured by Smith and Wesson or Colt.
 - b. With a barrel 4 to 6 inches in length with a half-inch tolerance.
 - c. To be capable of firing single or double action.
 - d. Capable of firing six rounds.
 - e. Steel blue in color.
 - f. The grips are to be of wood, plastic or rubber, to be either black or brown.
 - g. Weapon caliber recommended either a .38 or .357 magnum.
 - h. With a trigger pull of not less than 2 3/4 pounds or more than 4 pounds in single action.
2. Specific description of the service revolver.
 - a. Barrel length in a service revolver.
 - 1) The barrel should be at least 4 inches long, but no more than 6 1/2 inches long.
 - 2) The longer the barrel length the more apt the shooter is to fire more accurately, because of improved sight radius.

II. REVOLVER TERMS



A. FRAME

the part on which all other parts are installed (43).*

B. GRIP

handle for holding the gun in shooting position.

C. CYLINDER

usually has six chambers each holding a cartridge (49).

D. BARREL

the hollow tube through which the bullet is discharged (37). Cylinder revolves so that each chamber is positioned exactly in line with barrel. When cartridge is fired, the bullet jumps from the chamber into the barrel.

E. MUZZLE

fore end of barrel.

F. BREECH

rear end of barrel.

G. BORE

hole bored through a revolver barrel. When this hole is drilled, a number of spiral grooves called rifling are cut into it. The ridges of metal left standing are called LANDS and they dig into the bullet as it passes and impart a terrific spin to the bullet to keep it in balance while in flight.

H. THE ACTION

the combination of working parts which operates pistol. It includes:

1. TRIGGER

a lever that must be pulled to release the hammer (13).

2. HAMMER

has a firing pin that strikes against the cartridge causing it to discharge (1).

3. MAIN SPRING

a flat steel spring in the handle which drives the hammer forward (15).

4. HAND

small steel bar also actuated by trigger, to move upwards and cause cylinder to revolve (12).

I. TRIGGER GUARD

guard rail around trigger to prevent accidental discharge.

J. EXTRACTOR

pushes empty cartridges out of cylinder. See extractor head (31).*

K. CARTRIDGE CASE

brass or copper cylinder holding the gunpowder, the bullet and the primer.

L. PRIMER

small disk in base of cartridge case. The primer contains a bit of explosive matter. When hammer falls, the firing pin dents the primer causing a hot flame which ignites the gunpowder.

M. GUNPOWDER

a substance that burns rapidly creating large volume of gas. The gas must go somewhere in a hurry and the only way out is through the barrel, pushing the bullet with great force. The sudden release of the gas from the muzzle makes a loud noise.

N. BULLET

carefully molded from lead, the bullet is in perfect balance and spins through the air like a thrown football. Width of the bullet is expressed in 100ths of an inch, such as .38 caliber.

*Numbers in parentheses refer to numbered parts in illustration on page 3.

- 3) The longer barrels have better pointing, punching, or throwing characteristics.
 - 4) A slight error in aiming with the four-inch barrel means much more on the target than a six-inch barrel.
- b. Fixed or adjustable sights for the revolver.
- 1) Both Smith and Wesson and Colt Manufacturing now market service revolvers for police officers with either type of sight.
 - 2) The police revolver has the front sight ramped to prevent its catching on the holster as the officer draws it.
 - 3) The rear sight is at the rear of the frame, in a position which permits the holster to be cut away so the projecting sight won't hang up.
 - 4) Adjustable sights have a definite advantage over fixed sights in that the sights may be adjusted by the shooter for his own eyes, grip and general sight picture habit through the square law effect on the adjustable rear sights.
 - 5) Many shooters find they have less trouble with vertical alignments on a revolver with adjustable sights.
 - 6) Fixed sights may not be off more than an inch or two between firing point and impact area, which may be a critical distance.
- c. Ammunition fired in standard police weapons.
- 1) .38 caliber ammunition:
 - a) May be fired in a weapon chambered for .38 caliber or .357 magnum.
 - b) Does not have great penetration or shocking power.
 - c) Has a tendency to bounce off hard surfaces.
 - d) Normal factory leads are round nosed and weigh 158 grains.

- e) Is not .380 of an inch but approximately .355 of an inch.
- 2) .357 Magnum Ammunition:
- a) Is .357 of an inch in diameter, is high impact, high velocity, special police ammunition.
 - b) Has a penetration power greater than .38 caliber.
 - c) Is excellent ammunition against persons barricaded in a building or in an automobile.
 - d) Is more likely to penetrate any surface than a .38.
 - e) Cannot be fired in a standard .38 caliber weapon.
 - f) Has such energy that it is referred to as a "man-stopper" because of its impact power.
 - g) Has more recoil than from .38 ammunition.
- 3) Ammunition in general.
- a) The three major factors determining impact energy of the bullet are:
 - i) The weight of the bullet being fired.
 - ii) The shape of the bullet.
 - iii) The speed or velocity of the bullet.
 - b) If two bullets have the same velocity, the bullet which weighs the most will have the most shocking power.
 - c) The .357 magnum has almost three times as much shocking power as the .38 caliber ammunition.
 - d) The more energy involved, the greater recoil, the more noise, etc.

- e) Excessive recoil is less meaningful in some double action shooting.
 - f) An officer can fire the same number shots of .38 special ammunition as .357 magnum ammunition in the minimum amount of time with practice.
 - g) .38 Caliber ammunition is standard for police departments mainly because of its interchangeability with all standard police revolvers.
- 4) The concept of mixing .38 caliber ammunition with .357 magnum ammunition.
- a) One solution to the problem of which ammunition to be chambered is to mix ammunition.
 - b) By using a .357 magnum weapon, an officer can:
 - i) Chamber the first three rounds with .38 caliber ammunition.
 - ii) Chamber the last three rounds with .357 magnum.
 - iii) This load provides versatility - a fast three shots with moderate shocking power and the last three rounds with heavier shocking power.

C. Selection of an off-duty weapon.

1. Various choices of off-duty weapons.

- a. The various choices and the most important in off-duty weapons are:
 - 1) Selection of an automatic pistol or a revolver.
 - 2) Selection of the caliber of the weapon.

2. Revolver vs. automatic for off-duty wear.

- a. An off-duty weapon is rarely fired, even in practice.
- b. An automatic weapon is open to more chances of malfunctions because of its more complex operation.

- c. The revolver is recommended because it requires little or no maintenance for off-duty operations.

3. General description of off-duty revolvers.

- a. Most police off-duty revolvers are manufactured by Colt and Smith and Wesson.
- b. The barrel should be 2 - 3 inches in length with a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch tolerance.
- c. The frame should be one of the smaller framed weapons.
- d. If the hammerspur is cut off for pocket wear, single action use is not necessary.
- e. The weapon should be capable of firing at least five rounds.
- f. The weapon should be steel blued or parkerized.
- g. The grips should be of wood, plastic or rubber, and should be smaller than regular service grips.
- h. The caliber of the weapon should be .38 caliber, but may be a .357 magnum.
- i. Trigger pull on the off-duty revolver may be more, if desired, than that of a service revolver.
- j. Because of the very limited use, fixed sights are recommended.

D. The hammer spur of revolvers.

1. Fish hook qualities of the hammer spurs.

- a. The hammer spur is so designed that the spur is rough, so the trigger can be pulled back for single action firing more easily.
- b. The hammer spur serves no purpose for double action firing.
- c. If the revolver with a rough hammer spur is exposed, it may catch on clothing when being unholstered or drawn from a pocket.

2. The hammer spur guard.

- a. When it is desirable for the hammer spur effect to be nullified, it may be done by several methods.
 - 1) Order a new hammer with no spur.
 - 2) File the spur of the hammer down.
 - 3) Purchase a hammer spur guard for the revolver.
- b. The exposed hammer spur will catch on a pocket or garment when being drawn - it is desirable and advisable to eliminate the problem.
- c. Many officers who encounter the problem eliminate it by concentrating on double action firing.
- d. One major advantage of double action firing is that there is no longer a need for the hammer spur.

E. The care and maintenance of the revolver.

- 1. Unless you are a gunsmith, don't tinker with the action of the revolver.
- 2. If the action of the revolver needs adjustment, see a reliable gunsmith.
- 3. The officer wants the gun to have the same reliability as when it was manufactured.
- 4. Every weapon should be cleaned and rough spots taken off when necessary.
- 5. Police revolvers need cleaning periodically and to be wiped off with a lightly oily rag.

IV. Holsters and Gun Belts.

A. The police holster - its use and selection.

- 1. There is no best holster for every occasion. There must be a compromise between concealment, safety, and speed.
- 2. Uniformed officers need a holster that secures a weapon properly. The weapon must be difficult for the criminal to snatch from the holster, but easily removed from the holster by the officer when he needs it.
- 3. Police officers must have many things built into the construction of holsters.

- a. Safety in design and function.
- b. Concealment built into the construction.
- c. Speed with which the weapon may be drawn by an officer.

B. Holsters for uniformed duty.

- 1. Holsters worn by uniformed officers must, in addition to everything else, be good looking.
- 2. The revolver worn in public view is a deterrent because people view the revolver as a device for killing.
- 3. The holster which is worn under the coat or jacket, is less a deterrent.
- 4. The gun doesn't need protection; the officer is the one who needs protection.
- 5. An outside holster, contoured for a close fit to the hip area with the butt away from the body and angled to the front for quick access, is beneficial to the uniformed officer.

C. The importance of the directional draw in unholstering the weapon.

- 1. In each unholstering action, the weapon is drawn directionally.
- 2. The best directional draw is when the muzzle of the revolver is pointed at the target just as it clears the holster; so that the draw is almost in line with the direction the shots are to be fired.
- 3. The officer who faces his target and draws from the hip holster has a very good directional draw, because a short arc will bring the weapon on target.
- 4. Whenever a holster is fitted or designed, the all-important fact or critical point remains of how fast the muzzle can be pointed to the target.
- 5. Each different type of holster offers different directional draw characteristics.

D. "Gimmick" holsters for added "protection."

1. Springs and other metallic devices for retaining a revolver in its holster are often invitations to self-destruction. Holsters requiring the trigger finger to be placed in the trigger guard to operate a release are particularly dangerous.
2. Even with a cutaway trigger guard, or one "relieved" of sufficient metal to permit ready access, an officer should not put his finger in the finger guard until the muzzle of the revolver has cleared his body and started to move toward his opponent - or a target.
3. "Clam-shell" holsters, and others that require an officer to punch a finger through a small opening, or against a small-sized hidden button, may be deadly to the officer in the excitement of drawing a gun when a criminal is shooting or about to shoot at the officer. A new officer who never had any prior experience with other holsters would not experience any difficulty, but he would still have to play blind man's bluff with the hole or the button in order to get his weapon into action.
4. It is not just a case of drawing the gun, but of poking of depressing the release and then drawing the weapon. Some holsters rely on directional pressure on the butt of the weapon to release the restraining device.
5. A psycho may attempt to wrench the gun from the holster with the right combination. Motorcycle officers have also been known to dislodge the weapon in this type of holster with their elbows, retrieving them on the third or fourth bounce.

E. The hide-out holsters.

1. A hide-out holster can be positioned anywhere on the body.
2. Historically, the typical hide-out was an ordinary holster sewn to a square piece of leather and shoved into a detective's rear hip pocket. This holster was retained in position by a small piece of leather which buttoned over the hip pocket button thoughtfully provided in those days by most tailors - but not to anchor holsters.
3. Another was a shoulder holster which hung the weapon in the armpit with a complex system of leather and elastic.
4. In modern holster design, hide-out holsters are generally grouped into the following types:

a. The hip holsters:

- 1) These holsters provide a very fast and accessible draw.
- 2) F.B.I. agents and other federal law enforcement officers favor the hip holster.
- 3) It is also the most suitable holster for running the Practical Pistol Course - and the only one permitted by range officers conducting combat courses of draw-and-fire practice. Other holsters position the gun so that shooters on adjoining firing points may be endangered as the weapon is drawn.
- 4) In drawing from a hip holster, the shooter moves the gun through an arc starting at his side and ending down-range, and therefore doesn't endanger other shooters. The holster is usually positioned just to the rear of the center line of the officer's body and offers the gun to the officer butt first; that is, the butt is forward as the gun is worn, and the muzzle is to the rear.
- 5) A ten-degree angle is sufficient to assist in a fast draw, but many officers and agents prefer holsters which slant the gun forward as much as sixty degrees. These holsters have a marked tendency to move to the rear along a belt. Remedial action can be a wider belt or a retaining strap.

b. Shoulder holsters:

- 1) Usually these holsters are positioned so that the barrel is almost vertical, the muzzle of the gun is just above the belt line, and the butt up within the arm pit area.
- 2) The weapon is held in place with a leather-covered piece of spring steel gripping the revolver around the cylinder.
- 3) In drawing, the weapon is pulled out against the pressure of the spring. A semi-circular shaped flat spring with an open end toward the direction of the draw is the retaining device.

- 4) These holsters provide good concealment, some speed, and effective retention of the weapon.
- 5) Before the motion of drawing the weapon even starts to move the gun, the slack of the harness has to work out and the tension of the spring must be overcome.
- 6) When the gun moves, the officer must put the brakes on as he attempts to point the muzzle in the direction in which he wants to shoot.
- 7) These holsters are usually uncomfortable when first worn, but as the officer becomes accustomed to the unusual drag upon his shoulder they can be worn with some comfort, and they are ideal for hiding a gun under a coat or jacket.

c. The belly holsters.

- 1) These rigs were so named because they fit inside the belt of an officer. They are equipped with a metal clip, or a loop of leather joined with a snap fastener, for attaching to the belt of the wearer. Such holsters are not equipped with any retaining device as they depend on the compression of the gun between the waist belt of the wearer and the soft flesh of the abdominal area to retain the gun in the holster ready for instant use.
- 2) These holsters can be worked in the right front of the body with the butt to the rear for the right-handed shooters or in a cross-draw position.
- 3) Any barrel longer than two inches will usually cause a rude, probing sensation in the groin area when the officer sits down - and even a two-inch barrel sometimes needs a little adjusting when the officer gets into a car.

- 4) These holsters are ideal in hot weather when a jacket is not normally worn, a light sports shirt can be worn outside the pants. The shirt drapes over the gun and holster and provides effective concealment.
- 5) An "eight-ball" holster, while not a true belly rig, was also designed for hot weather or other circumstances requiring a police officer to "peel off" his coat and appear to be unarmed. Its outside shell fits the normal expanse of a side pants pocket, but the holster so positions the gun in the center of this leather panel that the bulk of the gun is not readily detected.

d. The cross-draw holsters:

- 1) At one time these rigs were scored because an opponent could pin the officer's arm at close range and prevent successful completion of a draw, but they are now gaining popularity because of the many problems with police and automobiles.
- 2) Detectives, off-duty officers, and the uniformed officer alone in a one-man radio car, have been disarmed by suspects or criminals while sitting in an automobile with weapons holstered on the right side.
- 3) Other officers, on and off-duty, could not get their revolvers into action without difficulty because of the cramping of the weapon between the seat of the car and their thigh or leg area.
- 4) A cross-draw rig permits an officer to drive a motor vehicle with his body fully between his weapon and any other passenger in the vehicle. In the event his right arm is pinned down by an assailant the weapon can be drawn equally well with the left hand from a cross-draw position.

- 5) In the event the officer wishes to get into action very fast, he can draw with his right hand and as soon as the muzzle clears the holster he can fire at opponents outside the driver's window.
- 6) If the action is to his right front, the officer can draw with his left hand and fire through the window to his right, keeping his finger off the trigger while the muzzle is crossing his lower pelvic area.

e. The hold-out holsters:

- 1) These holsters are designed for maximum concealment and utilize the Smith and Wesson Chief's Special, or the small butt Colt, in a 2-inch barrel length. These holsters imply that an officer could be "frisked" and not have to give up his weapon. These holsters also imply some accessibility when the officer wants to draw the gun.
- 2) One holster has been designed to hold a small derringer on the forearm of the officer; the classic two-barrel hide-out gun is now available in .38 caliber.

F. The gun belts are an integral part of the leather assembly.

1. The gun belt is an integral part of the gun rig - along with the holster - whenever a belt is used to support a weapon.
2. A poor fit between a belt and a holster creates two basic faults:
 - a. The entire rig will give as the gun is being drawn until the slack has been taken up and this is lost time when the gun is not moving out of the holster.
 - b. The holster will swivel as the gun is being drawn and effectively destroy any directional draw for which the holster might have been designed. When this swiveling forces an officer to draw in a direction away from his normal arc of swinging into a hip shooting position he becomes a victim of lost time. If the swiveling presents the butt of the gun in an unfamiliar position it may not only slow his draw, but might cause the officer to miss the butt entirely - or at least prevent him from getting a proper grip.

3. A collateral fault akin to swiveling occurs when the belt is so thin that the holster moves. This is most common with hip holsters, but it can happen to cross-draw holsters as well. The greatest hazard is that an officer reaches for his gun but it isn't where it's supposed to be and he has to grope for it, losing time which could prove fatal.
4. Belts with a thickness adequate to the belt loop of the holster are the best answer and this can be supplemented by the "anti-walking" strap. The modern, thin, dress belts look fine, but are not suited to carrying a gun.
5. A belt for small guns, weighing 21 ounces or less, should be at least 3/4 of an inch in width and preferably a full inch wide. Guns of heavier weight and with longer barrels require a belt measuring at least 1-1/4 inches in width.
6. Belts can be stiffened by adding leather to the inside of the belt on the side away from the holster. This slight additional weight seems to make the gun side of the belt slightly lighter and stiffens the entire rig against a difficult-to-reduce "give" on the side of the belt opposite the holster when a gun is drawn quickly.

VI. Gripping, Sighting, Aiming, and Squeezing the Weapon.

A. Introduction to the fundamentals of shooting.

1. It's necessary to break down the essentials of learning to shoot. A good shooting instructor never presents a quantity of instructional material to a shooter, because the majority can only absorb a few basic principles at a time.
2. The basic principles of shooting a hand gun are concerned with:
 - a. How to grip the gun to the best advantage.
 - b. The correct manner of aligning sights.
 - c. How to aim properly.
 - d. The mechanics of the critical stage of pistol and revolver shooting.
 - e. The trigger pressure period.

3. These techniques might also be described as the necessary elements with a high degree of interrelationship. If the shooter's performance in any of these basic elements falls below par, then the entire performance of the shooter will be below par.
4. Entire performance is important to successful shooting and it's vital for a new shooter to make his own analysis to correct the mistakes. These are questions that a shooter must answer in his own mind to fully realize the importance of each stage in the basic mechanics of shooting. The shooter must recognize the relationship of each basic element to the entire scope of revolver shooting.

B. Examining the weapon and adjusting to it.

1. The shooter can examine a gun, take a grip, then alternately tighten and loosen the grip and watch the effort on the position of the barrel. The shooter can hold the weapon pointed at a reference spot on a wall. The shooter should watch what happens when different fingers of the hand are used to put major pressure on the grip, or when it is gripped too tightly.
2. The importance of sight alignment need only be documented by noting the short distance between the sights. An individual must realize that a slight error in this short distance will be greatly magnified over the long distance the bullet has to travel to hit the target.
3. The word "aiming" implies the weapon must be pointed at what the shooter hopes to hit.
4. Trigger pressure must be exerted in a manner which does not disturb this aiming of the weapon. A correct grip is fairly easy for a recruit to understand and to adapt this gun grip to the conformation of his hand.
5. Proper aligning of the sights and aiming the weapon at the target does not appear to be a natural function with most individuals. Learning and understanding must be developed at this stage before incorrect pressures on the trigger can be readily detected from examination of a target.

6. As soon as an individual can be shown, on the target, how incorrect trigger pressures affect the accuracy of his fire, any shooting instructor is making strides toward training the shooter to be accurate.

C. Learning to shoot properly.

1. Proper shooting cannot be accomplished when the shooter does not sight and aim correctly, because the fire is not directed accurately enough for the patterns typical of improper trigger pressures to develop on the target.
2. The correct grip plus the manner in which the sights are aligned and aimed upon the target, and trigger pressure sums up the basic principles of pistol shooting.
3. These are the basic principles which must be learned before effective fire can be delivered at any target: bull's-eye, silhouette, or an opponent.
4. It may appear that directing fire from the hip, or shooting from any of the point-fire positions appears to imply only a need to "blast 'em off." All of these positions require directing fire regardless of the fact that the sights are not utilized - and also require a standard method of gripping the weapon and correct trigger pressure.

D. A good grip in revolver or pistol shooting.

1. A good grip should meet the requirements of holding the weapon in alignment on the target through the trigger pressure period and controlling the effect of the recoil sufficiently to permit rapid recovery.
2. The only correct grip is the one that is adjusted to these requirements, and also adapted to the hand of the individual shooter. Most novice shooters seem to grip the gun incorrectly at the very outset.
 - a. The backstrap - the metal strip between the stocks on the rear of the gun should be centered in the palm of the hand.
 - b. Then the lower three fingers are wrapped around the stocks as far as they can reach.
 - c. The thumb is placed in a low position on the side of the frame of the revolver.

E. Procedure for grasping the weapon.

1. Grasp the barrel of the revolver with the left hand and "fit" the gun into your right hand, moving the entire grip slightly to the right around the stocks as you do so. This is the correct grip, but it must be adapted to the individual hand.
2. The position of the revolver in the grip can be changed by moving it upward or downward, or to the right or left. The weapon should only be moved to the right when the shooter finds that he cannot conveniently manipulate either the hammer or the trigger. In adjusting the hand to the proper grip, remember that the rear portion of the hand can be moved up or down without moving the front portion - the fingers.
3. In single action fire the hammer must be cocked for each shot; it is easy to understand why the grip must be adjusted so that the thumb of the shooter can operate the hammer. Unless the grip is taken so that the center of the ball of the shooter's thumb actuates the hammer spur, a great deal of unnecessary twisting and turning of the gun will be required to complete the cocking motion. In double action fire, the crucial finger is the index finger, as the hammer is cocked by pulling on the trigger.
4. Some shooters feel their fingers are too short for this type of fire, but slight movement of the entire grip to the right (right-handed shooters) will permit them to insert the index finger well into the trigger guard.
5. In combat shooting, it is desirable to adjust to a good double action grip and then use the same grip whenever possible shooting single action.

F. Points of pressure on the weapon.

1. Once the gun is fitted into the hand of the shooter, the question of proper pressure comes up. The best points of pressure to hold the sights in alignment would be the two semi-flat surfaces on either side of the grip. The human hand cannot exert equal pressure on these various surfaces, and such pressure at these points will not overcome the effect of the recoil. The two points of pressure must be the front surface of the grip and the rear surface.

2. The muscular pressure is exerted on the front of the grip against that portion of the hand that backs up the gun. The inner surfaces of the palm of the hand that cover the backstrap of the gun as the stationary jaw of a vise, and that portion of the fingers resting on the front of the grip as the moving jaw of the vise. As the grip pressure is exerted, it is similar to the moving jaw closing in and holding the gun against the stationary jaw.
3. The thumb, its fatty base, and the palm of the hand are firm. The thumb should not exert real pressure on the gun.
4. A natural exertion of pressure on the grip will result in the middle finger doing most of the work and the little finger doing very little. If the shooter has more than average strength in the little finger, it may be necessary to relax it slightly. The middle and ring fingers should do all of the work, for pressure at the bottom of the grip causes trouble.
5. Many shooters curve the little finger around the front of the butt. In this position, it is out of the way and cannot exert undue pressure.

G. Constant pressure on the gun grips.

1. The pressure upon the grip must be constant; it cannot increase or decrease as the trigger is pressed to the rear.
2. To hold the sights in alignment, the pressure must be constant; any tightening causes the sights to move out of alignment, just as any loosening of the grip will do.
3. "Freezing" on the trigger is a common shooting mistake. The major cause is a tendency to tighten the pressure on the grip instead of increasing the pressure on the trigger.
4. All shots must be fired with the same pressure on the grip; otherwise the shots will spread noticeably on the target.
5. Any accuracy possible from either a pointing or an aiming position is ruined by movement as it disturbs the natural pointing position of the gun or ruins the position of the aimed weapon.

6. The amount of pressure that should be exerted upon the grip is determined by several variables, the most important of these being the condition of the muscles and the amount of practice and experience that the individual shooter has had in grasping the gun. The novice shooter is not expected to grip a gun as hard as a man who has practiced shooting a great deal, or as tight as a shooter who has a well-developed grip through exercise.
7. The novice shooter should grip a gun just as hard as possible, but not so hard that the revolver shakes because of muscular tension. The shooter should use some kind of exerciser to build up his ability to grip the gun even harder.
8. A good grip should never be changed except for good and sufficient reasons. The shooter who changes his grip will find that each change lessens the accuracy of his fire. Once a good grip is developed, the shooter should not make even minor changes, unless absolutely necessary.

H. Look at the sights when shooting.

1. The questions as to where the eye, or eyes, should be focused confuses a great many shooters. The eyes cannot be focused on two objects so far removed from each other as the sights and the aiming point, without having faulty vision in one or the other. It is a physical impossibility to focus the eyes on both sights and target at the same time; one or the other is not brought into sharp relief. The shooter must look at the sights by focusing his eyes upon them.
2. The target does not have to be perfectly clear, but the sights must be outlined distinctly. The relationship of the sights to each other is of primary importance. The relation of sights to target is secondary.
3. When the arm is extended, the initial sight alignment is usually good because the shooter is looking at the sights, but as the shooter starts to aim the gun to hold somewhere upon the target, sighting trouble starts.
4. Many police officers have a tendency to focus the eyes upon the target, to concentrate on the relation of the front sight and the bull's eye, and to keep the sights in alignment with each other only because they are in the field of vision. This is not unusual, since every shooter has experienced it. The warning signal is "fuzzy" or "hairy" sights.

5. When the sights are first lined up, they are nice and clear, sharply defined; but as the shooter continues to hold, the sight picture becomes fuzzy. Fuzzy, blurry, or hairy sights are the signal that the eyes are being on the target. The shooter is looking through the sights instead of at them. This fact must be realized: a shooter cannot normally focus his eyes on the sights and the target at the same time. While many individuals know this to be a fact, only a small percentage of shooters have the ability to remember it.
6. It is particularly strange when the shooter is also aware of the fact that the sights will only "fuzz" up when looking through them instead of at them.
7. Excellent shooting instructors sometimes insist on a shooter "talking to himself" as he shoots. They advise the use of these sub-vocal messages as a device to keep the importance of looking at the sights within the conscious thinking of the shooter at the all-important time of aiming his weapon.

I. Area aiming in revolver and pistol shooting.

1. Area aiming is a theory of handgun shooting directly opposed to the point-of-aim school of thought. Area aiming is based on the fact that it is difficult to hold a revolver on any certain "point" on a target. An aiming point is in reality an aiming area.
2. It is almost physically impossible for any person to hold a gun steady enough to aim either dead center or with a line of white. These shooters try to hold as close as they can to their imagined point and thus confine the natural movement of their gun to a limited area, with such point in the center of that area. It is simple enough for experienced shooters, but it has bewildered less experienced shooters for many years.
3. The experienced shooter may explain to a novice shooter just where to hold, but would fail to explain that anywhere close to that point was the best that could be expected. Every shooter's arm shakes or moves when he is aiming a gun, but the extent of the movement depends on muscles and nerves. The experienced shooter's muscles and nerves are conditioned and trained, so the natural movement is much less; thus the aiming areas are cut down.

4. The shooter may think he is holding on an aiming point because of slight movement away from it. The belief that one must hold on an aiming point is very harmful to the new shooter. The new shooter will try to do something that is **JUST NOT POSSIBLE**. The effort to hold an aiming point makes the gun go off, resulting in a sudden pressure on the trigger. This "jerking" of the trigger also leads to "flinching." Either fault can be ruinous in proper shooting techniques.
5. When the handgunner puts any sudden pressure on the trigger to make his pistol or revolver go off, he disturbs his aim, just at the critical moment prior to the ignition of the cartridge and "jerks" the shot low and left. This disturbance of a shooter's aim may be further complicated by the normal human reaction to the knowledge that a handgun is about to go off with its resultant noise and recoil - "flinching." This reaction is a lunge forward to meet the expected recoil; the heeling of the gun to produce a hit high and to the right.
6. A novice shooter should realize that he cannot hold a gun perfectly steady, but that he can hold it steady enough to confine the movement of his sights to an area. A newcomer to shooting can hold well within a ten to twelve-inch circle at twenty-five yards.

J. Hitting the target for which you are aiming.

1. If the shooter aligns his sights properly, presses the trigger properly, and aims within a circle, all his shots will hit in that area which is equal to the "kill" area on the silhouette target or in the area of the eight ring of a bull's eye target, meaning he should shoot a fair score.
2. Area aiming must be concentrated upon, as each and every shot is aimed; otherwise the motivation to shoot better scores is too strong and the shooter goes back to "framing" his shots, the attempt to surpass the ability of most humans, by making the gun go off exactly when it is hanging on the aiming point.
3. As a shooter gains experience, he can precision point-aim and fire six to eight shots out of each string of ten with remarkable accuracy.
4. There is a natural tendency to hold toward the center of any aiming area - bull's eye or silhouette target or an opponent - don't confuse area aiming with the

"center hold." In center holding, a shooter's aiming point is the exact center of the bull's eye. There is the sin of striving for over-precision, with a resultant jerk or flinch.

5. In silhouette shooting or in actual combat, there is little need for any greater attempt at precision than the center of the target. Some shooters will hold in the chest area, some a little lower, but it is unwise to attempt to hold on certain points such as the chin line. This only extends the undesirable habit of "framing" to silhouette targets or opponents.

K. Trigger pressure in revolver and pistol shooting.

1. Trigger pressure starts by placing some portion of the first point of the index finger upon the trigger. The tip of the finger may be used; this depends on each individual shooter, the length of his fingers, his grip, and what feels the most natural to the individual concerned.
2. When a shooter has secured his grip, he should place on the trigger that portion of the first joint of his index finger which seems to give him the best control. That is the correct finger position FOR HIM as the individual shooter. To bend the trigger finger into an unnatural position is incorrect.
3. In double-action shooting it is necessary to put the finger further into the trigger guard than in single-action fire, in order to secure a good "bite" on the trigger for the much heavier double-action trigger pull.
4. Several excellent shooters fire double-action with only the tip of their finger on the trigger - proving that despite the type of shooting every man must develop a "custom" finger position which permits effective trigger control for him.
5. Pressure on the trigger is directly to the rear along the same line as the barrel axis. Any pressure other than straight to the rear is transmitted to the entire revolver when the hammer is released and usually disturbs the sight alignment between the time of the hammer release and the actual ignition of the cartridge. Make every effort not to let any such tendency become a habit. A pressure on the trigger other than to the rear can be detected by lining up the sights, putting almost enough

pressure on the trigger to set it off, but not quite enough and carefully watching the sights, while releasing the pressure entirely. If the shooter has been pressing the trigger downward or to the side, the front sight will move in the direction of the released pressure. If the trigger is being pressed straight to the rear, the sights will not move out of alignment.

L. The assurance of correct pressure.

1. The easiest way to assure pressure directly to the rear is to pick a spot on the inner surface of your hand directly behind the trigger, then try to press toward such a spot with that portion of your finger that rests upon the trigger. Picking such a spot and pressing toward it every time you press on the trigger helps to overcome a natural desire to tighten up on the grip with the other fingers as pressure is placed upon the trigger. This tendency to tighten the grip must be guarded against, for any increase in pressure on the grip will ruin your alignment and also the control of the pressure on the trigger.
2. A shooter can put the proper pressure on the trigger all day when he knows the gun is empty, but let him fire it a few times and the desire to excel takes over; unless area aiming has become habituated, an attempt will be made to frame the shot and jerk the trigger when the shooter wants the gun to go off. After a few belts from the recoil of a heavy caliber gun, it is only normal to punch forward to meet the recoil when the shooter knows the weapon is about to go off.
3. "Skip loading" helps to detect gross faults such as jerking and flinching during range firing. Load the revolver with several empty shells mixed in with several live rounds and then spin the cylinder. Try loading the gun so the shooter will not be aware of the arrangement of live rounds to the empty shells.
4. The shooter takes his position on the range, lines up his sights, goes through his regular routine, but with this exception: when the hammer falls on an empty shell, the movement of the gun will indicate whether or not he has jerked the trigger (movement down and to the left of the front sight) or flinched (movement of the gun in a punching or heeling motion). The blast of recoil ordinarily hides this movement, but it can be readily ascertained when the hammer falls on an empty chamber.

5. A great many inexperienced shooters assume that the trigger can be swept through its motion in any manner just because they are attempting something called combat or "practical" pistol shooting on a range. Nothing could be further from the truth, or prepare less for actual delivery of accurate fire in combat situations.

6. A trigger can be pressed through its motion very rapidly - either in single or double action fire - but it must be actuated in such a manner that the aim or "pointing" of the weapon is not disturbed if the shooter wishes to hit the target at which he has been aiming or pointing his gun.

M. Bull's-eye target training.

1. It is difficult to conceive of a method of teaching combat shooting without some basic training on the bull's-eye target. The accuracy of fire that may some day be the difference between life and death should be a basic requirement before any high rate of fire is attempted.
2. The shooter must learn the basic fundamentals of revolver and pistol shooting. Unless these fundamentals are learned in the beginning, they may never be acquired.
3. The basic fundamentals of gripping, sighting, and aiming and trigger squeeze can be taught on any target, from blank white paper squares to blackened silhouettes.
4. The bull's-eye target offers a shooter an opportunity to evaluate ability more readily than these other targets. Another advantage of bull's-eye targets is the fact that in and of themselves they tend to bring out a latent tendency to shoot poorly.
5. Concentration on hitting the center leads to poor sight alignment and incorrect aiming, and the same attempts to be too precise result in an attempt to make the gun go off with a sudden pressure on the trigger, and this "jerk" moves the gun away from target center.
6. Once discovered, any fault may be corrected with diligent practice. It is more desirable to have these faults develop during the initial training stage when correction is less difficult, than to have them discovered after lengthy periods of indoctrination in faulty habits. These faults should be diagnosed by "reading" the target.

7. Hits tend to form groupings characteristic of the fault. The scores which can be ascertained from bull's-eye targets lend themselves to ready classification of shooters based on their ability to group their hits.
8. An individual shooter can arbitrarily establish any limit as a threshold to combat training, but the minimum score should be sufficiently high to insure that the shooter has learned the basic fundamentals. The minimum scores is usually around 70 per cent average in slow fire on targets, with a standard "time and rapid fire" bull's-eye. Twenty-five yards is a good minimal distance for bull's-eye training. Fifteen yards is acceptable for the initial ten rounds of indoctrination firing, but is too short for aimed fire to be meaningful in evaluating performance with a handgun.

N. The police revolver.

1. An efficient handgun must be dependable, powerful, capable of rapid controlled fire, and be "handy."
2. The .38 caliber revolver was chosen as the standard police weapon years ago because of the fact that automatic or self-loading pistols may misfire and require the officer to reach forward and "charge" the weapon by pulling the slide to the rear, ejecting the cartridge that misfired and placing a fresh round in the chamber.
3. Some pistols now have a double-action feature, which permits the trigger to ratchet back the hammer for another blow at the cartridge that misfired, but this will not put a fresh cartridge into the chamber; and in many instances a cartridge that misfired in the first instance will not fire when struck a second time. A policeman facing an armed opponent need not take this risk.
4. The revolver offers him an opportunity to rapidly revolve the cylinder by either thumb or trigger finger action and place a fresh cartridge under the firing pin whenever a misfire occurs. The revolver also is considered superior to the automatic type of pistol in that jams are almost unknown. A revolver's cylinder can swivel around without trouble until all cartridges have been fired, but an automatic may "jam" at any time until the magazine is empty. A pistol may jam as the empty shell is being extracted or ejected, or it may jam on the forward motion of the recoiling parts as they attempt to feed a new round into the chamber.

5. A revolver only offers a policeman six cartridges to down an opponent and a slower type of reloading before it can be fired again. The automatic is far superior in some ways, in that it provides up to ten cartridges in a magazine loading that facilitates reloading in a tenth of the time required to stuff cartridges into a revolver one at a time.
 6. Some years back, the regular .38 caliber cartridge was junked and the .38 Special adopted. In recent years the .357 Magnum has found favor with some police officers.
0. Some safety points in gun handling.
1. The weapon must be handled in such a manner that its lethal power is never used accidentally. The weapon was designed to kill in defense of life or property.
 2. It is seriously regrettable when any weapon kills or injures a person, as a result of an accident, and all accidents with firearms could be prevented.
 3. It is far better never to own a firearm than to be the cause of someone's death by careless handling of one.
 4. The following ten rules for safety are the general rules a shooter must know and practice until they become fixed habits.
 - a. Always unload your revolver if it is to be left where someone else may handle it.
 - b. Actually go through the motions of unloading your revolver every time you pick it up.
 - c. Develop safe habits whenever the gun is removed from the holster, or the gun and holster placed in a desk or locker.
 - d. Extend the trigger finger outside of the trigger guard until ready to fire.
 - e. Never point a revolver at anyone you don't intend to shoot and keep the muzzle pointed in a "safe" direction, which should be skywards.
 - f. Always keep the cylinder swung out when the gun is out of the holster, but not in actual use.
 - g. Know your gun, ammunition, and holster.

- h. Keep your fingers away from the muzzle.
- i. Quick-draw practice is hazardous - safety first.
- j. Be certain you have correct ammunition.

VII. Defensive Directed Fire.

A. Introduction to directed defensive fire.

1. Directed fire is weapon's fire in which the officer does not have time to use the sights of a weapon to aim. Directed defensive fire is utilized when an armed opponent is firing at the officer at close range, and presupposes a critical time element.
2. Directed defensive fire may be delivered from either the hip or the shoulder level. Hip shooting gives great rapidity in getting off the first shot, while point-shooting from the shoulder will usually mean greater accuracy.
3. The officer concerned is the only one to evaluate the situation and determine if he can afford the luxury of moving into a point-shoulder position. The officer's life is at stake and only he can make this decision.

B. Room-sized shooting in defensive directed fire.

1. As the distance to the target is increased, it is only natural that the accuracy of directed fire from the hip diminishes. Hip shooting is meant for what might be termed "room-sized" situations.
2. Hip shooting is effective within the confines of a small store, a narrow hallway, any room, or when what appeared to be a harmless traffic violator starts pointing a gun in the direction of the approaching policeman.
3. The apparent closeness of this range is deceptive in that it appears impossible to miss an opponent.
4. Hip shooting can be directed with great accuracy. It is a necessary phase of police training in combat shooting - perhaps the most important phase of the entire shooting program.

C. The basic hip shooting position.

1. The eyes, the elbow, and the wrist are the keys to good direction of fire from the hip position. The gun must become an extension of the wrist, the elbow must act to join the gun and wrist to the body in such a manner that the shooter's muscles will respond to visual cues.
2. The first step in successful hip shooting is to look intently at the area on an opponent, or a silhouette target representing an opponent, into which it is desired to place bullets.

D. Coordination is a primary prerequisite.

1. It appears simple - just look and the movements of the body can be coordinated to shoot a weapon where you are looking; but the necessary coordination requires intelligent practice.
2. The first step is to attempt some kind of coordinated practice without the gun.
3. During this training stage, forget about drawing the gun from a holster.
4. The starting position in this initial coordination practice is with the muzzle of the revolver down and pointed just beyond the toes of the shooter, and the practice is concerned with bringing the gun upward and forward into position for an effective first shot.
5. Try it in front of a mirror with an empty gun. Bring the gun up a few times in what seems to be the normal movement.
6. The grip must be tight, with the thumb locked in a downward position. The wrist must be locked, with the barrel and the forearm horizontal with the ground as the gun moves into firing position, so that it serves as a firm link between the hand grasping the gun and the forearm of the shooter. The elbow must be carried well into the body to better serve as a hinge joining the forearm and gun to the body, a hinge which not only must absorb recoil without loss of time in recovery of position, but which must also serve as the mount for the gun.
7. Originally, the crouch position was considered the most desirable because it reduced the target area into which the criminal could place hits, but a better understanding of hip shooting position has led to the conclusion that the crouch position tends to more body movements in response to visual cues.

E. Using a mirror to practice hip shooting.

1. Standing in front of a mirror, the shooter should practice going into a fairly deep crouch position as he moves his gun up to hip-shooting level.
2. Regardless of where the shooter may be looking on his mirror "opponent," normally the resultant point of aim-direction will be fairly low. Remember, the barrel and forearm must be level with the floor.
3. Turn sideways, level the barrel and forearm in the full standing position, and now go into a deep crouch. Now come up about halfway out of the deep crouch and watch how the muzzle comes up within the aiming area. This is the method of controlling vertical changes in directing fire. The gun, the locked arm, and the entire body are moved upward by flexing the knees to raise the level of fire.
4. In reverse, the same is true when it is necessary to lower the point of impact. Experiment with this, learn it, and adjust your visual point of aim to fit the depth of your crouch. This is the key to directing fire at the hip level.
5. If a tendency to point the gun to the left or right with some consistency becomes evident, check the position of the elbow. An elbow pushed too far into the body - possibly with the shoulder dropped too low - results in the muzzle coming up into position to the right of the target area. When the muzzle seems to come into position to the left of the area at which the shooter is looking, it is likely that the elbow is too far away from the body - too near the right hip socket for a right-handed shooter. If the elbow appears to be in the correct position, it may be necessary to move the feet to correct this condition.
6. The shooter should face his target squarely, with his weight slightly toward the balls of his feet, but with both heels solidly on the ground; then if he is hit, he'll fall forward into position where he may be able to get in another shot or two.

F. The stance in hip shooting.

1. Some men find the crouch position slightly more comfortable when they advance the left foot slightly.

2. Whatever the position may be, in the event the elbow is in a good position, don't move the elbow to secure horizontal correction.
 3. It is much more desirable to adjust the feet and learn the position necessary to come up squarely in the center of the target area, right where the vision is concentrated.
 4. Care should be exercised that the body is not bent forward solely at the waist in assuming the crouch position. There is only a slight leaning forward as the buttocks are drooped down when a shooter's knees are bent, but this position of the upper body remains the same regardless of the depth of the crouch.
 5. The legs are the major factor in this position from which fire from the hip can be directed with such great accuracy; they form two supports for the position.
- G. Bringing the gun into the secondary field of vision when shooting.
1. The gun is punched or swung into the field of secondary vision as the shooter looks intently at his target. The shooter does not actually "see" it, but he is "aware" that it is there and if the gun did not point at the target, the shooter would become aware of this fact. It is a visual cue to correct punching or swinging techniques. If he consciously looks down at the gun, then his eye control over muscular coordination is ruined.
 2. When practice at this position is first attempted, it is a good practice to look down and check the position of the muzzle to see if it is pointed at the target, but then the shooter must return his primary vision to the target. This observation of fire is of top importance all the way through hip shooting practice until some real proficiency is attained - some weeks later and only after consistent practice.
 3. The weapon is loaded with one cartridge - one round. The cylinder is closed so that the weapon will discharge when the trigger is pulled for the first time, and the muzzle is pointed at the ground in front of the shooter in a "ready" position. This is close to the "in holster" position, without actually placing the gun in a holster.
 4. At a signal, or your own cue, go into the crouch position and swing the gun up and forward, firing the first shot as the gun levels into position - being careful that the

trigger pressure doesn't disturb the pointing of the weapon. Observe the effect of the fire and determine if the gun had swung up too high or low, or too far to either side.

5. Unload, and if necessary, practice a few swings into position with the empty gun until fairly certain that the swing is grooved. Fire a few more single rounds, interspersing the fire with practice with the empty gun.
6. Now load the six chambers of the revolver, and fire one shot at a time at this latest stage of practice. The shooter should come back to the "in holster" position between shots, so that each shot is a true "first shot," but he should fire with sufficient rapidity to get the feel of his corrections from shot to shot.
7. The eye of the shooter is the key at this stage. After a short time, what can only be described as a "feel" develops for this position. It is the pairing of visual cues with muscle impulses, and it comes to most individuals after some practice.

H. Getting into action.

1. At this point in the practice sessions, the shooter can buckle on a holster and try drawing the empty revolver from the holster. The officer should move slowly at first, then slightly more rapidly, but never with any sense of hurry.
2. The policeman must get his gun out of the holster, but he must first get a correct grip on the gun before he draws it. Take it slow and easy.
3. The first thing to learn is how to get the correct grip on the gun while it is in the holster. Grip the weapon, draw it out, examine the grip, make minor adjustments, then holster the weapon and repeat the process until the gun can be drawn with the correct grip. Then coordinate the drawing motion with the punching or swinging motion utilized to get the weapon into position at hip level. This should be one continuous motion, and it has to be performed very slowly at first in order to combine the two motions before any attempt at speed is made.
4. Speed is not of essence in drawing the gun. The ability to secure the correct shooting grip while the gun is in the holster and to come up smoothly to correct shooting position are greater assets than mere speed.

5. Quick or fast draws are overrated in the police business. In most cases, an alert officer either has his gun in his hand or half out of his holster. No fast draw in the world equals a keen and alert mind, coupled with the ability of a trained police officer.

I. Point-directed shooting.

1. In the point-directed position, the weapon is not stopped at hip level upon drawing from the holster, and the punching or throwing motion is continued for the full natural extension of the arm. At arm's length, "pointing" is on a par with "punching" and "throwing."
2. At an arm's length, most individuals can shoot more accurately and almost as rapidly as from the hip - so long as they don't look at the gun!
3. The primary vision must be concentrated on the target in this position to such an extent that it may be termed tunnel vision within its narrowest definition. The gun is well into the field of secondary vision, but the shooter must look over or around the weapon if he is to use this position for directed fire similar to shooting from hip level. Once the primary vision is drawn from the target to the sights, then it is aimed fire - and the rate of fire slows down considerably.
4. It would not be good technical competence to ignore the gun entirely; the shooter should accept visual cues which tell him the gun is pointed to the right or left, or the muzzle is far too low or too high. These visual cues should be consciously accepted during the initial practice session only.
5. The most important job of the eyes is to coordinate the muscular structure of the body in pointing, punching, or throwing the weapon forward toward the target so that the line of fire will coincide with the line of sight.
6. Practice the position in the same manner as the hip shooting position was practiced. The shooter assumes the same crouch position for this point-directed fire as he did in directing fire from the hip level and the legs also serve as an elevating mechanism for this "mount," as they did for the hip position.
7. Horizontal corrections should be made with the entire body during initial practice, with the feet being adjusted as necessary. Minor horizontal corrections can be made by

swinging the body, either from the knees or the hips. An attempt should be made not to make traverse corrections solely by moving the arm at the shoulder socket or bending the wrist.

8. The welding of the muscular structure of the body into a unit which can be coordinated by vision and a "feel" developed through practicing this point-directed shooting position starts with a firm grip, and ends with a locked wrist, elbow and shoulder. The firm grip is the key to a locked wrist, and both of them aid in keeping the elbow and shoulder relatively immobile. In this position, it is much less difficult to keep the elbow and shoulder locked into position than it is in hip shooting, as the arm is fully extended.

J. The two-hand kneeling position.

1. In two-hand kneeling fire, the police officer faces the target just as he does in preparing to shoot from either the hip or the shoulder level of point-directed fire, but drops into a simple kneeling position.
2. The ideal position is that of the traditional rifleman; the left toe is pointed toward the target and the right knee swung as far to the right as possible, thus effecting a support for the body based on a 90° angle between the left thigh and the right thigh. As the shooter drops into this position, he directs his vision on a desired aiming area and points, punches, or throws his gun up into position.
3. This is the normal direction phase. Then he swings up his free hand to support his shooting hand and arm. The most desirable support point is just below the butt of the revolver or at the wrist.
4. This support by the shooter's normally free arm helps to hold the gun on the target area and speed up recovery from the effect of recoil.
5. This position is particularly helpful to officers firing .357 magnum cartridges, as it helps to control the effect of the recoil, as well as the general tremor set up in the shooting arm of most individuals after a few smacks from the recoil of this heavy caliber cartridge.
6. Officers who find difficulty in directing fire from the hip or shoulder level may find it advantageous to concentrate on this two-hand kneeling position.

K. Practicing on traverse targets.

1. Whenever an officer is confronted with more than one criminal in armed combat, he will find it necessary to swing from one target to another.
2. Usually there is little need for vertical correction, so long as the officer is seeking to hit the center of the mass of an opponent's body.
3. In range practice, targets are placed at varying distances apart, in order to secure practice at this very necessary phase of police combat shooting.
4. Try very short traverses at first to get into the swing of shooting at more than one target.

L. Night shooting from directed defensive fire positions.

1. Directed defensive firing positions are ideally suited to night firing, or situations in which time is of essence and visibility is limited.
2. There are combat situations in which there is sufficient light (and time) to pick up the sights and go into aimed fire, or in which the use of a flashlight would be suicidal.
3. In directed fire the officer points, punches, or throws his gun into position, and once this technique is learned - and the officer has sufficient practice to retain his learning - then the fire can be delivered just as accurately in very poor light as it can be delivered in bright sunlight.
4. The use of a flashlight in a dark cellar while searching for an armed opponent might very well be a death warrant; shoot fast and use the light from the flashes of the service weapon as it fires.
5. Maybe the officer won't see the sights, but he could see the gun and the target. Since night shooting is required in a very high percentage of combat situations, it is well worth the time spent on practice.
6. Use lights to get things set up and to provide the necessary margin of safety before going into this type of practice, but then try out directed fire at targets which cannot be seen except by a very poor light, or the flash of your gun.

7. Later, arrange some kind of audio signal to denote the target and learn to direct fire at a sound.

M. Aimed fire from directed defensive fire positions.

1. Sometimes the combat situation changes rapidly and may permit the officer to change to aimed fire.
2. The arm and hand can be moved into position where the sights can be used to aim the revolver from any of these positions without any other change in the position.
3. Both the crouch and the kneeling position cut down on target area and thus reduce an opponent's opportunity to ventilate an officer.
4. On the last shot in the weapon, the shooter could attempt a correct sight alignment, as it is the last shot.

N. The concept of defensive directed fire.

1. It takes practice to learn directed defensive fire because the key to accuracy is position.
2. The eyes and the body must coordinate, and to "groove" this coordination, the shooter must get the "feel" of the position. There is no other way to describe it; there is no other way to learn it.
3. If an officer had to select only one type of fire at which to become proficient, the defensive directed fire should be selected. It is the type of fire you must use when an armed opponent is shooting at you! In these situations, an opponent is afraid of the armed police officer and is ready to shoot fast.
4. The policeman always must shoot equally fast and more accurately to survive.

VIII. Aimed Fire.

A. Aimed fire for police officers.

1. Aimed fire is more concerned with the classic principles of shooting than is directed fire, particularly the areas concerned with looking at the sights and aiming.
2. Since the target of police gun fire is the criminal who lives by the no "sporting" or gentlemen's code, the classic off-hand shooting position has been junked.

3. The jungle or gutter code of the armed criminal supports shooting without warning or provocation.
4. The police officer must take a position which provides some protection and improves his ability to deliver effective fire.
5. In combat shooting, it is basic instruction to advise shooters that both eyes must be open when the sights are lined up and the weapon aimed at the target.
6. If an officer closes his one eye, he blinds himself to any accomplice of his opponent who might move into the combat on the side of the closed eye.
7. The accuracy of aimed fire on silhouette targets representing an opponent is based on effective use of the sights on the revolver, and the ability to aim and fire without putting a sudden pressure on the trigger - disturbing the sight alignment and aim at the moment of cartridge ignition.

B. Improvement of normal accuracy.

1. Normal accuracy is improved by taking positions which take advantage of every possible support - barricades, cars, trees, fences, and the ground itself.
2. In all these aimed fire positions, the weapon is held at the end of an extended arm, with the revolver as far as possible from the eyes.
3. The sights on a revolver are scaled to normal shooting at arm's length, and the shooter will be firing with more of a "rough" sight the closer he brings them to his eyes.
4. Another factor which may only change the point of impact slightly, but possibly means a "miss" at times, is the fact that the normal grip and recoil platform for the gun is usually at the end of an extended arm, and as the arm is bent and brought closer to the eye a slight change will occur.
5. This is not a factor in directed fire as the gun is zeroed in with the line of sight, through muscular coordination, but when an officer is shooting aimed fire with a gun sighted in for normal position, and he varies his position, it is likely he'll have changes in the point of impact.

6. In any aimed fire position, the head is held as erect as possible in order that the shooter's vision will not be obscured by his upper eyelashes.
 7. This is difficult with a very low prone position, and it is wise to bring the gun to a higher position if the sights "fuzz up" so that the head may be raised for better vision.
 8. In the sitting, kneeling, and standing positions, the head should always be held erect, the gaze directed at the target and the gun and sights brought up into the line of sight.
- C. The trend to double-action shooting.
1. There is a strong trend to double-action shooting apparent among police officers.
 2. Double-action shooting means to cock the hammer and fire the gun with a motion of the trigger finger only.
- D. "Weak hand" shooting.
1. In the more rapid phases of police combat shooting at short ranges, speed of getting into effective action was a defense against enemy fire. The strong hand is the one normally used in shooting.
 2. It must be remembered, though, that a disabling wound can occur at any time, and if time is available, a police officer should fire with his weak hand at every stage of combat shooting in order to gain experience and skill.
 3. The accuracy of fire, when the strong hand has been disabled and when an opponent might be moving in close for the kill, is certainly highly desirable. Practice is the only sure way of acquiring the necessary skill.
 4. The grip with the weak hand is the same as with the strong hand, and the basic principles of sights, aim, and trigger let-off also remain the same - and have equal importance in achieving accuracy.
 5. The need for shooting with the weak hand as well as the strong hand by a police officer is slowly driving the fancy grips out of police holsters and off the ranges used for practical course firing.

E. Loading and unloading of the revolver.

1. To unload, the following procedure is suggested:
 - a. The officer should reach forward with the weak hand, palm up and open.
 - b. At the same time, he should shift his thumb on the gun slightly to actuate the cylinder latch, and drop the gun into the palm of his weak hand.
 - c. As the cylinder swings open the shooter places the thumb of his weak hand on the ejector rod, curls his remaining fingers around the open cylinder and frame of the gun and ejects the fired cases.
 - d. As the shooter is ejecting the spent shells with his weak hand, he should be reaching with his strong hand for live ammunition.
 - e. With the muzzle of the weapon down slightly, but with the gun's position not changed too much, the shooter starts to stuff the new ammunition into the chambers of the revolver.
 - f. To facilitate loading, the thumb of the weak hand is moved from the tip of the ejector rod to the side of the cylinder.
 - g. In this position, it assists the middle finger of the same hand in rotating the cylinder as each chamber is loaded.
 - h. Placing the weapon in the palm of the hand as it is loaded is excellent protection against loss of time due to dropping cartridges on the ground.
2. Don't accept any other loading position. This is the best position that has been developed, because it is fast and effective. In the same connection, don't use obsolete methods of carrying ammunition.
3. The procedure of carrying cartridges in belt loops that require the shooter to punch them out one by one is growing obsolete. Leather pouches are available for officers on patrol which open at the bottom and deliver six rounds into the hand of the policeman when the snap fastener is opened.

4. A recent innovation by some modern police departments is training in reloading with the weak hand and simulating that the strong hand is helpless to assist. This is an aspect of combat shooting that has been ignored until recently. Only a small amount of experience may pay off some day, because the officer has worked out his own technique.
5. Some officers appear reluctant to lay the gun down as they dig for ammunition. Actually there is a great reluctance to place a costly revolver in the dirt, or even on a bench top, where it may get dirty or scratched. This attitude may stem from the fact that great care in handling the gun has always been emphasized in basic instruction, or from the fact that shooters have been warned for years to beware of dirt and other foreign objects lodging in the barrel, and causing a burst barrel when the weapon is fired.
6. In combat situations the blue finish on a gun is unimportant, and while it is dangerous to get dirt, mud, or such material in a barrel, it is even more dangerous not to load up and get back into action.

F. Firing from the prone position.

1. In the prone position the shooter not only presents a very small target, but also utilizes the best possible support for his firearm - the ground.
2. The body of the shooter is positioned directly behind the weapon, with the feet together, unlike the rifleman's prone position in which the body rests at a 45-degree angle to the line of fire and the feet are spread wide apart. The gun itself is not permitted to touch the ground, the shooter's free hand being utilized as a support between the ground and the gun.
3. The ideal position is one in which the flat portions of both forearms are rested upon the ground, with the gun butt and the hand grasping the weapon resting on the fist of the free hand, and the back of the free hand resting upon the ground.
4. Difficult terrain may force the shooter to move into a sitting or kneeling position in actual combat. Police officers should keep the prone position in mind, even in room-sized shooting situations.

5. In firing in the various combat courses it is required that the shooter drop to his knees, draw his revolver, assume the prone position and open fire, while in actual combat the officer might drop and roll as he draws his weapon - movement is always desirable when an opponent is shooting as it minimizes the criminal's ability to score hits.

G. Firing from the kneeling position.

1. The kneeling position, in which the free hand is used to support the shooting hand, has three variations.
 - a. The high position for very rapid directed or aimed fire.
 - b. The normal kneeling position.
 - c. The very low position in which the shooter leans well into the gun and is only a few inches from the prone position.
2. The two lower positions require more time to assume, and are therefore more suited to aimed fire. They also provide much greater support than is possible in the high position.
3. The high position provides no support for the arms of the shooter. Both the normal and low positions provide good support.
4. In these positions the gun arm is supported between wrist and elbow by the free arm as it rests on the forward knee of the shooter.
5. The steadiness of this position rests on the fact that the extended gun arm receives a truss-like support from the other arm as the inside, flat surface of the biceps area of this arm is supported upon the knee. In all kneeling positions the forward foot is pointed toward the target. The rear foot is placed far to the rear in the low position for more effective balance, but it is tucked under the body in the normal or high position.
6. In the normal position, some shooters sit on the heel of the rear foot, flexing the foot and resting upon the bent toes; others prefer a slightly lower position secured by turning the foot slightly and sitting on it.

H. Firing from the sitting position.

1. This position puts the body close to the ground, with both arms supporting the weapon, and is one of the positions for effective combat fire.
2. The shorter person can draw his revolver as he drops into position and have it in action almost before his buttocks stop bouncing from the impact with the ground.
3. The sitting position is excellent for shooting from behind the protection of low walls, buildings, breaks in the ground, etc. In the sitting position, the toes of both feet point toward the target and are fairly close together.
4. The knees are spread slightly to support the flat portion of each elbow, while the free hand supports the hand holding the weapon at the base of the gun.
5. In the sitting position, the shooter adjusts for major changes in elevation by moving both feet forward or to the rear, thus depressing or raising his knee level, which, in turn, brings about the desired vertical correction by lowering or raising both arms.
6. This is vital to top accuracy in this position as any pronounced bending of the wrist from a natural position means slower recovery of aim between shots - the wrist has to be readjusted after each shot, as it will return to its natural position. It is important that the gun be brought up to eye level, rather than the eye down to gun level.
7. Variations of this position which require a "squeezing" pressure by the legs or thighs of a shooter to steady the aim or adjust for elevation tend to lower the accuracy potential of this fine position by making muscular tension a factor, rather than depending on the bone structure of the body for support.
8. Excess girth is a problem when taking this position, but it may provide motivation for a determined effort to get rid of some of the excess fat.

I. The barricade shooting position.

1. In shooting from behind a protective wall, the side of a building or other barricade, the police officer seeks both protection and a support for his weapon.

2. Dramatic reduction of target area can be secured by shooting from the protection of a wall or the corner of a building. Support is very effective because in barricade shooting the weapon is almost as steady as the barricade itself.
3. In shooting from a position of rest, the officer must be careful that no portion of the weapon is permitted to rest directly on any barricade or other support. The weapon must be cushioned in some fashion or it may be damaged in recoil. In combat shooting it is usually cushioned with the free hand.
4. The muzzle of the firearm must be free of any obstruction of the barricade and clear of the supporting fingers of the free hand, or the shooter will be picking wood splinters, brick dust, or particles of lead out of his hand and possibly whistling for first aid through a neat hole in one of his fingers.
5. In shooting from behind a barricade simulating the side of a building, or the edge of a doorway, the shooter places his feet in what appears to be an unbalanced position in order to secure as much protection from the barricade as possible.
6. In shooting with the right hand, the left foot is forward, and in shooting on the other side of a barricade with the left hand, the right foot is forward.
7. The most common method of supporting a revolver in barricade shooting is to place the palm and extended fingers of the free hand flat against the barricade with the extended fingers up and the thumb spread out just beyond the edge of the barricade, thus forming a "v" into which the shooter places the wrist of his gun hand. The officer then places the flat underside of his wrist against the barricade with the hand positioned at the barricade's edge. The officer then extends his shooting hand and grasps it about the wrist firmly with his free hand.
8. This is an excellent position as the grasping of the shooting arm's wrist with the finger of the free hand not only provides a better support than the "v" normally used, but also helps to speed up recovery of the aim as it retards recoil.

9. Possibly the greatest error in taking barricade positions is the tendency to lean into the support too much. This usually occurs when the shooter places his feet too far from the barricade and is forced to bend into a half-crouch as he supports his hand. The ideal position is a standing position, with the weapon being brought up to eye level as the hands are placed against the barricade.
10. In preparing to fire, the shooter must learn to place the gun against the barricade uncocked. Some shooters, with years of experience shooting single action fire at targets, have a habit of cocking the weapon as the arm is extended; others attempting double-action shooting for the first time have a habit of putting too much pressure on the trigger - in some cases almost enough to actuate the mechanism and fire the weapon. Either habit can be dangerous.

J. Firing from the two-hand standing position.

1. The two-hand standing position is a development of the two-hand kneeling position.
2. Facing the target squarely, the shooter brings the gun up to his line of sight, and his free hand up to support the gun hand. In the two-hand standing position, the weapon is brought over to the center of the body.
3. As the shooter swings into position, he leans back and down, in a movement that can be best described as "shaking the kinks out of his spine."
4. The upper part of the body appears to "sit" on the pelvic area, which is supported by a widespread stance with both knees straight.
5. This is a surprisingly effective position. The two-hand control of the weapon certainly speeds up recovery from recoil.

K. Aimed fire at night.

1. Policemen must level with themselves and admit that aimed fire in the dark of night is not possible without revealing the officer's position to hostile fire from his opponent.

2. In night practice, holding a flashlight out at arm's length provides illumination in which to see the target and the sights of the revolver, but...every officer should realize the suicidal implications of this technique in a gun fight.
3. Police combat shooting is largely defensive, but in a few circumstances it may be termed a technique of offense:
 - a. Fleeing felons.
 - b. Barricaded killers.
 - c. Jail break attempts by felons, etc.
4. Police should use a type of fire which does not jeopardize the life of a single officer. If the combat situation occurs at night and it is defensive, then the officer will be at such close quarters, and in such danger, as to require defensive directed fire. If the situation poses no immediate hazard to the officer, why expose his position by turning on a flashlight and banging away?
5. If the situation demands aimed fire, the officer has no alternative, but a radio alarm or teletype has brought back many a fleeing felon without injury to a single officer.
6. An ideal device for night combat, being utilized more and more, is to use the lights of the police vehicle to illuminate the scene. In this case the police officers dismount from the car and move to protected positions, if possible, before opening fire.
7. A police officer can simulate these tactics by setting up a silhouette for night-time fire, then driving up in his own car to the desired range, dismounting and moving away from the area of return fire (the car) before he starts to shoot.
8. The key to safety in this instance is not only to move away from the car, but also to get set up for rapid, aimed fire before disclosing your position by firing.
9. In any night firing situation, the police officer should copy the tactics of the military and change positions frequently. Remember the flash which accompanies the

discharge of a cartridge is a telltale indication of your position. The firing of one or two shots, then moving fast to another position, and repeating this procedure may save an officer's life.

IX. Two-stage Double-action Shooting.

A. Introduction to two-stage double-action shooting.

1. Double-action shooting has the handicap of a heavy, lengthy, trigger pull, plus a tremendous trigger backlash. The trigger pull requires about 15 pounds pressure through about a half-inch of travel. The backlash results from the momentum of the trigger finger as it comes to a jarring stop against the rear of the trigger guard. This usually causes the muzzle of the revolver to dip downward, and also to the left, for right-handed shooters.
2. There is a telltale click of the Colt revolver to indicate the trigger is about three-fourths of the way through its full travel. This can be accomplished on the Smith and Wesson revolver with practice - the shooter becomes accustomed to judging about when full pressure has been applied. The use of either method requires determination.
3. Knowing the gun is about to go off puts the shooter under a tremendous handicap - one that traditionally leads to "jerking" the shot off its point of aim.
4. After the first shot is fired, the recovery from the recoil and the first stage of the trigger pull are almost simultaneous.
5. The realignment of the sights is completed at about the moment this stage is completed, and the movement of the weapon to the point of aim is coordinated with the beginning of the second stage of the trigger let-off.
6. As the sights settle around the point of aim, a steadily increasing pressure is exerted on the trigger until the hammer is released.

B. Trigger control in double-action shooting.

1. The theory of this form of double-action is trigger control.

2. By breaking up the trigger pull into two stages the shooter, in effect, is cocking the hammer with the most accessible finger in the first stage, and then squeezing off the shot in the second stage.
3. It is the ability to ease off a shot without knowing that it is about to go off that makes for good scores. This type of trigger control is possible in double-action.

C. The two-stage double-action grip.

1. As everyone who has shot single-action with a revolver must realize, there is some disturbance of the grip each time the hammer is cocked and the thumb returned to its resting place on the gun.
2. No matter how a shooter may concentrate on maintaining his grip when he cocks the hammer, sometimes there is a little movement. No matter how a shooter attempts to replace his thumb on the gun with the same pressure, there is sometimes a variation in this pressure. Most shooters claim they utilize the same grip in both timed and rapid-fire, but there are many who'll admit they tighten up on the grip in rapid-fire.
3. While it may help in getting the hammer cocked rapidly and the shots fired within the ten-second limit, it very often results in disastrous changes in the point of impact.
4. The need is to place the trigger finger in the same position for each shot, or string of shots, which forces the double-action shooter to adopt a uniform grip.
5. It is a grip which can be maintained from shot to shot because there is no need of loosening the hand even slightly to permit the thumb to reach up and cock the hammer.
6. There's a wonderful feeling of satisfaction in timed and rapid-fire to recover from the recoil of a preceding shot and find yourself concentrating on the alignment of the sights and the trigger let-off without any conscious thought of cocking the gun. The grip is locked, and the only concentration necessary is on the sights and the trigger let-off. The grip in this type of fire is governed by the size of a man's hand and by the shooter's positioning of his pressure point upon the gun.

7. A man with long fingers can set the gun in the V between his thumb and index finger, as though he were going to shoot single-action, and then position his pressure point by finding out where the tip of his trigger finger rests when the trigger is pressed to the rear far enough to release the hammer. Usually the trigger finger will rest on the rear edge of the trigger guard. A man with shorter fingers will find it necessary to move his grip to the right (for a right-handed man). A very short-fingered shooter will find that he may have to move his grip around too much to the right to get the tip of his trigger finger anywhere near the rear edge of the trigger guard.
8. The general rule is not to move the grip so far to the right that the thumb joint at the base of the thumb is centered on the backstrap. The short-fingered individual must forget about trying to reach the rear edge of the trigger guard with the trigger finger and locate his grip first.
9. Once the grip is located, a grip adaptor or grip pressure point can be installed far enough forward to meet the trigger finger and provide a suitable pressure point.
10. The best rule on locating the grip for such shooters is to place the second thumb joint just to the left of the backstrap, thus allowing some of the soft pad at the base of the thumb and in the palm of the hand to cushion the recoil.

X. Planned Practice.

A. Introduction to planned shooting practice.

1. Planned practice consists of shooting with the empty gun dry firing, and firing on a range with live ammunition. Dry firing is "dry" as it lacks any sustaining interest. It's much more interesting to fire on a range.
2. Dry firing can help every shooter - both the highly skilled shot and the beginner. Intelligent practice must have some plan, as mere practice itself only ~~strengthens the muscles.~~

3. In planning practice, the police officer should intersperse his sessions of dry shooting with the range practice. In one he prepares for the other: on the range he profits from his dry shooting, and during dry practice he works out faulty habits diagnosed from "reading the target" on the range.
 4. Both dry shooting and range firing should be progressive. Each session will consist of a certain number of shots and the manner in which they will be fired, and as the sessions progress they will move from the simple to the more difficult techniques of fire - from the basic fundamentals to advanced principles of shooting.
 5. The plan for each session should be pointed toward correcting some fault or stressing some particular type of fire. Too much practice should never be scheduled for any one session, as it is a sure way of losing interest.
 6. A beginning shooter will find it difficult to compress the time necessary to learn to shoot. It is more a case of developing little-used muscles during the initial stages than it is a question of coordination. As the ability of a shooter to "hold" improves, so too does his coordination.
 7. A minimum of six weeks will elapse before a shooter is usually satisfied with the results of his practice. This is based on three to six "dry" shooting sessions each week, and one to three times on the range. An accelerated course, with at least three times a week on the range and six dry shooting sessions, will show results in two weeks.
- ##### B. Basic training course practice.
1. This is a diversified course, working from slow through timed to rapid-fire, and is to be fired at 25 yards on the bull's-eye target with dry shooting simulating this range practice as much as possible.
 2. Students must practice on the range at least once a week and preferably twice a week with the two days being well separated, usually Tuesday and Friday.
 3. "Calling the shot" is a term used when the shooter attempts to estimate where the bullet hit on the target. The shooter notes just where the front and rear

sights were at the moment the revolver was fired: high, low, to the left, right, etc., and then checks visually as to just where the bullet hit on the target. In the instructing of shooting, the student calls the shot to the coach who scopes the shot or examines the target. If the bullet hit where it was "called," then trigger jerking or flinching is not one of the shooter's faults, but if it hit in any of the "normal" jerking and flinching areas, and away from the shooter's "call," then the trigger was actuated incorrectly. To a lesser degree the calling of a shot may also indicate incorrect sighting and aiming habits by looking at the pattern of hits on the target.

4. It should be noted that about 50 percent of the dry firing is on a plain piece of white paper about letter size. The shooter will not only learn to line up his sights properly on this plain target, but will also learn to watch them at the instant the hammer falls. It also serves to teach area aiming and prevents the shooter from becoming "bull's-eye conscious."
5. Such pieces of plain paper can be pasted over the bull's-eye target to blot out the black center at several of the range sessions if time permits. It is excellent practice for combat shooting as the silhouette targets used in combat training also lack any aiming point such as a bull's-eye.

C. The Practical Pistol Course.

1. This is usually termed the F.B.I. course because it was developed for the training of their own agents.
2. It has proven to be one of the giant forward steps in the history of police marksmanship training.
3. As part of the F.B.I. service program for local police, the personnel of F.B.I. training units instruct local officers in the techniques of combat fire over this reality-tested course of fire. Once a year, a few police officers walked down what appeared to be a city street with a loaded gun and fired at silhouette targets as they appeared in doors and windows of the buildings along the street.

4. This is a fine course, but it had little nationwide impact among the great mass of police officers. The F.B.I. developed a course suitable for police pistol ranges and trained local officers to "run" the course.
5. The police forces of the nation have been changed from a target-oriented group of men to a combat-oriented group of officers ready to protect themselves and cause havoc among their underworld opponents. The Practical Pistol Course teaches a police officer to attain maximum practical effectiveness in minimum time.
6. Safe handling of the revolver is stressed throughout this course and every safety precaution must be observed, or firing or range officers will direct the officer to cease fire and score his target as "no hits."
7. The essence of this course is that the shooter assumes he is under fire from an armed opponent at all times. The officer must seek to diminish his target area by adopting defensive firing positions and must race against a time limit.
8. Barricades are utilized at the 25 and 50 yard stages of this course so that the shooter will learn to seek protection as he fires and while reloading his gun.
9. The full course consists of fifty rounds fired at the silhouette target as follows:

Position	Range	Number of Rounds	Time Limit
Hip level directed fire - double-action	7 yds.	10	25 seconds (includes reloading the revolver in this time limit)
Prone	60 yds.	5	5 minutes and 45 seconds to finish the course
Sitting	50 yds.	5	
Prone	50 yds.	5	
Standing-barricade, weak hand	50 yds.	5	

Standing-barricade, strong hand	50 yds.	5
Kneeling--double- action	25 yds.	5
Standing-barricade, double-action, strong hand	25 yds.	5
Standing-barricade, double-action, weak hand	25 yds.	5

D. Procedures in running the Practical Pistol Course.

1. The first step is to check your weapon and examine the bore to make certain it is clear of any obstructions. Examine the firing pin and the mechanical functioning of your revolver.
2. An established procedure can be followed and this procedure can also be utilized from time to time before going on duty.
3. The weapon is unloaded and the bore examined from the muzzle while the cylinder is swung out. The cylinder is then closed - the weapon must be empty - and the shooter holds it up to a light source so that he can see through the space at the rear of the cylinder.
4. The shooter then cocks the gun and fires it as he watches for the nose of the firing pin to appear at the top of the space between the rear of the cylinder and the upper part of the frame where it would normally strike the primer of a cartridge. The officer then cocks the hammer single action and tests the front of the firing pin with his fingers. In some cases, a firing pin's tip will start to crystallize but will not break off for some time; a twisting and turning motion with the fingers tests the strength of the critical area just behind the tip of the firing pin. This is the point at which most revolver firing pins break off.
5. Prepare your "rig." This should be a hip holster unless the shooter is running the course alone and the range officer approves another type of holster.

6. Be certain you have 50 cartridges and place them in your pocket: If firing reloaded ammunition, check for defects; any imperfections in the vicinity of the crimp - where the bullet and case meet - will cause difficulty in loading. High primers will also cause difficulty when shooting double-action.

Note: Remember there are no alibis when running the P.P.C. course - nor in actual combat.

7. Load on command at the 7-yard line with five rounds and holster the pistol. Upon the command to commence fire, draw and fire the five rounds in the revolver, go through the unloading and loading procedure as rapidly as possible, and fire the next five rounds. When firing is completed, unload your revolver, reholster, and move to the 60-yard line (or abide by local range rules).
8. Prepare position on 60-yard line and wait for command to load from range officer. At command to load, the officer will place five rounds in the revolver and holster the weapon. At the signal to commence firing, the shooter starts to "run" the course.
 - a. At 60 yards the shooter drops to his knees, then draws his weapon, assumes the prone position, and fires five rounds.
 - b. When finished, the officer ejects the fired shells and reloads in the prone position at 60 yards. The officer then rises to the kneeling position, reholsters the revolver, and advances to the 50 yard line.
 - c. On arrival at the 50-yard line he assumes the sitting position, draws the revolver, and fires five rounds. (being careful to draw the weapon so that the muzzle rotates just outside the body area as it is brought to bear upon the target; too much movement away from the body causes the muzzle to point at shooters in adjoining lines).
 - d. The officer swings into the prone position as soon as his sitting string is finished, ejects the fired cartridges, and reloads with five rounds and fires five rounds from the prone position. The officer then rises and moves to a position behind the barricade, ejecting the fired cartridges during this movement, reloading with five rounds and fires with

the weak hand; unloads and reloads behind the barricade and fires five rounds with the strong hand; then unloading, reloads with five rounds, holsters the revolver and moves to the 25-yard line.

- e. The officer assumes the kneeling position, draws his weapon and fires five rounds double-action. When finished, he moves quickly behind the barricade, ejecting the fired shells during this move, reloads with five rounds and fires double-action with the strong hand. He again unloads and reloads with five rounds behind the barricade, assumes position and fires the last five rounds of the course with his weak hand. Modern training procedures often require all 25 yard firing to be double action.
 - f. The shooter unloads, reholsters the revolver, and moves forward on command of the range officer to score the target.
9. Scoring: Multiply the value of all "Kill" area scores. Unless local provisions of range rules permit scoring of "wound" or "disable" areas, it is preferable not to score these areas, as defensive shooting is keyed to the belief that a man that is shooting at a policeman can only be immobilized by hits in vital areas. Add up all "Kill" area hits and multiply by .4. This will give a percentage figure indicating the qualification achieved. Roughly, 93 percent equals an Expert's rating, 86 percent for Sharpshooter, and 75 percent for Marksman.
- E. The ten-shot Practical Pistol Course.
1. This is an excellent training course keyed to the conservation of ammunition and is the ultimate in practice at moving into position and running the course. The course is fired in exactly the same manner as the Practical Pistol Course except that one round is fired instead of a full cylinder load of five rounds at each position.
 2. The shooter loads one live round and four empty shells in the first stage of the course at seven yards, with the live round placed in the cylinder so that it will be the last shell to be reached in firing. The shooter "dry-shoots" in clicking the hammer on the empty shells four times, and then when he actuates the trigger for the fifth round, the live round is fired.

3. The reloading process, as an officer "runs" the ten-shot Practical Pistol Course, requires the man firing to pick out the empty shell which had just been fired and replace it with another live round and close the cylinder as he had on the first string fired.
 4. The shooter has the simulated practice of firing four rounds for each live cartridge, and the fumbling caused by the need for picking out an empty shell and replacing it with one live round accounts for almost as much time as the actual ejection and loading of five rounds - as in the regular P.P.C.
 5. At the completion of the seven yard stage, the gun is completely unloaded and holstered; then the shooter moves to the 60-yard line in normal P.P.C. procedure.
 6. Some range officers run this course on a "roulette" basis. The officer loads one round, spins and closes the cylinder, and keeps "shooting" until he reaches the live round. The officer then ejects the spent shell and repeats the process.
 7. This is position practice and dry-shooting with a minimum of ammunition necessary to maintain interest and provide some indication of the comparative accuracy of a shooter. It is excellent preliminary and refresher training.
- F. Advanced training course practice.
1. This is combat training exclusively, working from the lesser ranges and directed fire to the longer ranges and aimed fire.
 2. The sessions on the range should be as widely separated within the week as possible. Shooting on two consecutive days, and then not shooting for five to six days, is not as valuable to a shooter as shooting on one day, then resting and "dry-shooting" for a day or two before shooting again. This does not mean that an officer cannot shoot four or five days in each week. The Practical Pistol Course lends itself to almost daily shooting if an officer has time.
 3. At this stage of his marksmanship program, an officer should have progressed through the six-week basic course and accustomed his muscles to holding the weight of the revolver and also achieved some coordination.
 4. Planned practice requires a minimum of two periods a week of dry shooting and at least one period of range practice each week.
 5. These sessions can be doubled to four periods a week dry shooting and two range practice periods, if time is of the essence.

G. Refresher courses.

1. It is difficult to say just how much shooting will keep an officer at a sustained level of proficiency. Each officer must find this out for himself. Police training officers may set a minimum of once a month as a standard, but most of us need to shoot more often to maintain a basic improvement factor.
2. In the first year of shooting, a short layoff from shooting will cause much greater loss of ability than the same layoff after shooting for several years.
3. In the event a shooter does not have much time or ammunition for running the full course, utilization of the ten-shot Practical Pistol Course plus extensive shooting in the directed fire positions is recommended.
4. A full box of 50 cartridges can be fired from the hip level and another box burned up in a point-directed fire in a few minutes to a half-hour on the range. Once learned, the ability to direct aimed fire will stay with an individual without a great deal of practice, but the ability to direct fire is easily lost.
5. Fire from the hip or shoulder level must be practiced to conserve and maintain the learned coordination between eyes and muscles.

H. Close Combat Course.

1. Possibly the best course to utilize in maintaining the ability to shoot directed fire is the Close Combat Course. It is fired at the close ranges of 7, 15, and 25 yards and brings into the area of practice a necessary element of combat shooting in which a man needs training. This is the element of choice as to what type of fire best suits the combat situation.
2. In this course, the officer has the option of firing from one of two positions at each of the three ranges at which the course is fired. The officer must decide the best position at 7 yards, at 15 yards, and at 25 yards, and must also decide as to his type of fire - whether to shoot single-action or double-action. This is an important element of combat shooting frequently neglected in combat training.
3. True combat loading is also practiced as the shooter loads six rounds at each stage, except the final stage, where such loading is not possible because only two rounds are necessary to complete the course. Twenty

rounds are fired totally. This simplifies scoring and the comparison of scores. The "possible" is 100 and a 96 on this course can be compared with a 96.0 on the P.P.C. or the 10-shot P.P.C.

4. The Close Combat Course is fired as follows:

- a. 7-yard stage. All officers assemble on their assigned targets with empty revolvers, hip holsters, (no cross draw holsters), and 20 cartridges. At the command "Load," officers load six rounds in their revolvers and holster the weapon. At the command "Fire," officers draw their weapon and fire at either the hip-level or the point-directed (shoulder) level from the crouch position, all firing double-action. At the command "Unload," officers unload and holster the empty revolver. At the command "Move to the 15-yard line," officers move back to the designated firing line.
- b. 15-yard stage. Same procedure and commands are used here as at the 7-yard line, but at this range the officer exercises an option between shooting from the two-hand kneeling position or the point-directed (shoulder) level from the crouch position. Six rounds are also fired and the style is also double action.
- c. 25-yard stage. Same procedure and commands used as at previous ranges of this course. At this longer distance, the shooter has two options.
 - 1) Shoot from the two-hand position or the standing position using a barricade rest.
 - 2) Shoot either double-action or single-action. At this range, the officer shoots the first portion (six rounds) with his strong hand and the last portion of the stage with his weak hand. Only two rounds will be fired with the weak hand - the cylinder being loaded and "spun" as it is closed and the shooter continuing to actuate the trigger until he has fired the two rounds.
- d. In running this course the officer is required to draw his weapon three times.

5. Since safety is of paramount importance, no time limit is established. Emphasis is put upon drawing the weapon in a directional draw that does not endanger the shooter or any other person on the range and upon moving the muzzle "down range" without unnecessary motion. Emphasis should also be on the shooter securing a correct grip in his initial grasping of the weapon while it is in the holster.
6. This is also a safety factor as it eliminates "juggling" of the weapon as it moves toward the target. It is also a technique that spells out a fast draw once sufficient practice "grooves" an officer in this handling of his weapon.
7. After some experience with this Close Combat Course, an officer may feel confident in the safety of his technique of drawing his weapon and wish to introduce the element of time - vital in any combat. At this level in training, the officer should try to "beat" the following scores: 7 yards - 10 seconds; 15 yards - 12 seconds; and 25 yards - 25 seconds. The 25-yard stage time limit includes the time required for reloading of the weapon with the two rounds necessary to shoot the weak hand concluding portion of the course.

H. Competition and actual combat shooting.

1. Try not to shoot alone. Most outdoor ranges are in remote areas and any accident can have fatal results if no one is present to give the first aid and seek adequate assistance. Good safety habits will generally eliminate accidents, but where guns and ammunition are mixed, the potential for accidents is always present and should be recognized.
2. A fellow shooter can serve as coach and you can help him. This coach and student method has been utilized by the armed forces to good effect for many years. It is ideal for a calling-the-shot practice. In addition, it can be the start of some competition. Whatever fire may be attempted, try to put it on a personal, duel-like basis. If either officer far outshines the other in ability, they should bargain as to a suitable handicap to make the competition more even and stick to that handicap for that day. Fight to beat the other shooter; this is the key to improvement in combat shooting and will also be the key to success in later combat situations with criminal opponents. Later, look around for some other shooter with equal ability and challenge him to shoot over the course with you.

3. If several officers are shooting together, pick a team and challenge another group of officers in the same department. As improvement is shown with this practice, reach out to nearby departments. What you are striving for is competition because it tests your ability to shoot under pressure, and it needs learning. Competitive shooters term the tendency to shiver and shake and do wrong things under pressure the "big jitters."
4. Let's hope that in your lifetime as a peace officer, you never have to defend yourself or anyone in your company from the fire of a criminal opponent; but let's be certain you can shoot fast and accurately under the pressure of hot lead and discharge your obligations to your community, your family and yourself.

XI. Reloading Ammunition.

A. Introduction to reloading of ammunition.

1. There is a great deal of work to reloading, but it can be minimized by purchasing equipment keyed to the production of .38 caliber cartridges.
2. There are at least ten machines available at low cost to reload cartridges, but all of them require handling the cartridge case more than once, and a few require handling at each of the seven basic operations.
3. Several firms offer the police officer an opportunity to buy a reloading machine which only requires handling the cartridge case once to start it into the machine.
4. These cost more than most of the other machines, but their time-saving features more than compensate for this cost.
5. This "progressive" type of tool requires the shooter only to insert the brass case into its base, then the machine takes over the travel of the case as it moves through the operations of reloading.

B. Malfunctions in the mechanical process of reloading.

1. Almost any kind of malfunction can occur in the process of a mechanical operation such as reloading. Some of the most common malfunctions in this progressive type of loading process are:

- a. Base plate retaining washer-nut loosens.
 - b. Sizing die becomes loose.
 - c. Decapping pin breaks.
2. The base plate is held down in its rotary movement by a large, knurled, split washer-nut which fits around the spindle of the machine and is held in the locked position by a lock screw. When the lock screw loosens, the plate raises due to a spring action and the actuating handle cannot be pushed all the way down, or the base plate itself jams in its rotary motion. This lock screw should be kept tightened and checked occasionally, as a loose base plate means high primers. The seating punch cannot insert the new primer all the way into the cartridge when the base plate is loose, and high primers mean a malfunction in the gun when an attempt is made to fire the ammunition.
 3. All the dies on this tool have lock washer-nuts to hold them in place, but it appears that the die most likely to loosen is the sizing die. This sizing operation does put a great deal of stress on the die and no doubt accounts for this frequent malfunction. When it moves out of adjustment, it is readily detected by the failure of the actuating lever to complete its downward movement.
 4. Decapping pins are expected to break frequently; they are small nails of "brad" dimensions and easily replaced. It is always good to have a supply of these pins on hand or to learn the type of brads available in a local hardware store and try them out for size and fit. A decapping pin should fit the size of the flash hole of the cartridge without damaging the hole or sticking in its movement in and out of this portion of the cartridge. A well-aligned decapping pin will last for thousands of rounds.
 5. A warning of a broken decapping pin is prompt; the machine stalls. The actuating lever stops at the beginning of its downward motion as the primer punch cannot put a new primer in place as the old one is still in the case. The greatest hazard to decapping pins are .22 caliber empty cases or even .32 caliber cases which remain in the .38 caliber case as it is inserted into the machine.

6. It is highly important that all cases be turned over just before instertion into the machine to permit these smaller caliber cases to drop out. Whenever calibers are mixed in range firing, it is always possible that small cartridge cases will lodge in a larger case.
- C. Double charges and double bullets.
1. With the Star or Phelps tool it is difficult to put a double charge into a cartridge case unless the machine is cleared of a malfunction. Double charges are not thrown when the actuating lever is operated all the way down and all the way up without interruption or hesitation. When the actuating lever is operated partly through its downward motion and then jams, a double charge is possible.
 2. If it has passed that point at which a charge of powder is placed in the cartridge case, the the next time the lever is pushed down after the malfunction has been cleared, the machine will throw another charge of powder into the shell. In clearing malfunctions, an escape port is provided at the right rear of the machine through which the reloader can remove the primed cartridge case and dump the charge of powder back into the machine's powder hopper.
 3. The case is then re-inserted into the base plate in the same manner as it was removed and a fresh charge of powder is deposited in the case when the machine's lever is again operated. The safety plate should be pushed into place by hand before a malfunction is cleared as a safety reminder.
 4. When the lever of the machine cannot be pushed down because of the safety plate, the operator is reminded of the possibility of a double charge and the need to check on the cartridge case under the tube of the powder measure station of the machine.
 5. Double bullets cause a detonation instead of an explosion when a cartridge is fired because they drastically reduce the space in the cartridge case in which pressure can build up.
 6. Placing one bullet on top of a completed cartridge and overcoming the crimp of the first bullet as the second bullet is forced into the case is possible, but it is a highly unusual incident when working with a progressive type of loading tool.

D. Casting of bullets in molds.

1. Bullet molds date from the time people stopped throwing stones. Today's mold is a work of top craftsmanship with multiple cavities. These cavities are reamed out with a reaming tool which has the shape of the bullet the mold is to reproduce.
2. The lubricating grooves, the crimping groove, and the face of the bullet are carefully cut into the mold so that the resultant casting will be slightly larger than the "as-fired" diameter of the bullet. A mold is made in two halves with a simple hinge and two long handles.
3. The two blocks which constitute the mold are center-pivoted to permit some movement and a simple pin in each block aligns with a hole in the other half of the mold so that the cavities are perfectly aligned as the mold is closed. The handles are long and end in grips made of wood to reduce the transfer of heat.

E. The molds.

1. At least two gang molds are desirable for a police unit. The four-cavity mold is ideal for most policemen's muscles. Since most of the work of the police is not too muscular, attempts to cast bullets with gang molds having from six to ten cavities slow down production by tiring out the officers doing the casting. Four-cavity molds weigh little more than a hefty citation book and officers can work them for hours with little fatigue.
2. Another advantage of the smaller molds is that standard procedure is to alternate: to pour the hot lead into one mold, then let it cool; knock the bullets out of the other mold, fill it again, place it on the table to cool; and then return and clear the other mold. This permits the lead to cool slowly and better bullets normally result.
3. In working with a six or ten cavity mold, the hand loader will find that it cools slowly at a rate far behind his own patience. The result is that the cutoff plate is struck open before the bullet has cooled and lead "smears" wipe off on the bottom of this plate and on the top of the mold.

4. Molds are vented at the factory, but it is sometimes necessary to brush these vent "lines" on the mold if "snakes" or half-bullets indicate air is being trapped in a cavity of the mold.

F. The furnace for melting lead.

1. The best type of furnace is an electrically heated device designed for hand loaders. A furnace of this type maintains a specified level of heat. Large capacity pots are ideal.
2. Saeco manufactures an electric melting furnace of twenty pound capacity that is excellent for police units.

G. The dipper for pouring lead.

1. A small dipper for scooping up the hot lead and pouring it into the trough of the mold is necessary. This dipper should have a long handle ending in a good-sized wood grip.
2. Many police units have purchased electric furnaces which have a valve and nozzle and the men working such furnaces do not need a dipper. These valves and nozzles work very well on the larger capacity furnaces but poorly on the smaller units. The valve may not function due to dirt and other impurities in the molten metal, and the nozzle may clog up with hardened lead due to lack of heat at the nozzle's tip. Time is lost in clearing this malfunction, and sometimes a bad burn may occur.
3. Burns result from attempts to clear the stoppage with a piece of wire from below the furnace. When the stoppage clears, the hot lead runs down the wire into the hand of the operator.
4. This nozzle and valve feature permits holding a mallet or hammer in one hand continuously and thus speeds up production. The end of the mallet or hammer handle can be used to lift up the handle of the valve to fill the mold with lead, then used in striking open the cutoff plate and clearing the mold.

H. Use of gloves and the bullet box.

1. Gloves are necessary to protect against burns. The lead is heavy even when it is hot and whenever it lands on a surface, it not only burns, but it burns down.
2. A box should be arranged so that the bullets will be cushioned in their fall from the mold by a small pillow, a slanting piece of board covered with cloth, or some such arrangement. The important thing is that the bullets land in the box when ejected from the mold in such a way that the impact is lessened; otherwise, the bullets will be pushed out of shape. Remember that the bullets are still quite hot and fairly malleable at this stage of the casting process.
3. It is for this reason that hand loaders are cautioned to hold the mold as close to the bullet box as possible when ejecting cast bullets.
4. The greatest damage results when the base of the bullet is nicked or dented from impact upon falling into the bullet box or in rolling into another bullet upon landing in the box. Such bullets must be rejected upon inspection. Wax of some kind is necessary to "flux" the bullet metal.
5. A small mallet or hammer handle is also necessary to clear the mold. Rawhide mallets work very well, but are expensive. Rubber mallets melt when in contact with the mold and stink.
6. Lead-bullet metal is an all-encompassing term. The police unit can purchase ingots of bullet metal direct from police equipment and firearm and ammunition supply houses. Desirable alloy for revolver bullet is one part tin and 20 parts lead with some antimony, possibly from one to four parts antimony. In purchasing this material, the officer in charge should purchase a mixture that is not too hard, then on later orders change over to a harder mixture.
7. The reason for this is that the range lead can be recovered, once sufficient firing makes the digging and screening of lead from the backstop worthwhile. This once-fired lead is softened slightly by the heat of firing and the friction of barrel travel but when mixed with a good hard mixture of bullet metal, it will make fine bullets at low cost.

I. The bullet sizer-lubricator.

1. Bullets "as cast" are a few thousandths of an inch larger than the desired diameter and a sizer and lubricator is necessary to strip off the excess lead and "size" to an exact diameter.
2. Tools of this type most suited to police production of hand loaded cartridges are those designed so that the bullets are sized and lubricated with one motion of the machine lever.
3. The bullets are placed into position, the lever actuated once, and the sized and lubricated bullet falls out of the machine. Several brands of lubricant are available.
4. Some lubricants are loaded with graphite and blacken the hands of everyone and dirty everything from the top of the bench to the brass and lead of the completed cartridge, while others have so much tallow or other smoke-creating ingredients that visibility is noticeably impaired on indoor ranges after firing a few rounds.

J. The casting of bullets.

1. Hot bullet metal can cause some nasty burns, so be careful. In setting up the furnace for melting the metal, it is highly desirable for the hand loader to study out just how fast he can move in the event some of the hot lead land lands in his lap - one of the good arguments against casting bullets while sitting down. The furnace should be so placed that the operator can move away from it without disturbing the stability of the furnace by sudden movement. It should be placed on a solid table or bench which will not tip over at the least pressure. The bench or table should be covered with sheet metal in and around the casting area to protect against fire and to permit easy cleaning of the area when casting is finished for the day. Water and hot bullet metal do not mix. Keep water away from the furnace, molds and dipper. If any water should get into the hot bullet metal, a minor explosion usually results and a great deal of lead is splashed around, hopefully not on anyone.
2. Molds may be cooled in water, but let the experienced hand loaders use this technique. It is much safer to use two molds or even three and let them cool through alternating use. Molds can be heated but never do so by immersing them in hot bullet metal. Serious injuries can be sustained.

3. Preheat molds on or around the furnace, not over direct heat.
4. Another safety precaution is to have fire-fighting equipment available. The operator will be working with the makings of a good fire; therefore, be prepared. Ventilation is very important for the health of the officers; the smoke from melting metal can cause any number of minor complaints. Work near an open window at least and preferably under a good ventilating fan of the exhaust type. After the elementary safety precautions are completed, the operator should turn on the furnace and place several ingots of bullet metal in it.
5. It is a good idea to place the two molds on the top and sides of the furnace in order that they may pre-heat slightly.
6. The heat of the furnace must be sufficient to melt the bullet metal to a point where it pours like water. Low heat only melts the metal to a fudge-like consistency which will not flow into the cavities of the mold. All the operator will get is a good trough load of metal on the cutoff plate.
7. If the furnace is not equipped with a heat controller, it is possible to test the heat by throwing a half-inch fragment of newspaper on the top of the molten metal. The manner in which the fragment chars or burns will tell you if the metal is ready for casting. Usually a good, dry paper fragment will char and burn rapidly when the metal is hot enough for casting bullets.
8. Using a dipper to scoop up and pour some of the metal will also indicate if the lead is heated sufficiently to have the desirable fluidity. When the molten metal is ready for casting, a small piece of wax is dropped into the pot or the surface of the molten metal is touched lightly with a candle. After fluxing with wax, the mixture is then stirred with the dipper.
9. This treatment causes some gases to form, which some operators promptly ignite with a match just above the pot in order to clear the air, but if the ventilation is sufficient, this procedure will not be necessary.
10. This fluxing with wax improves the fluidity of the bullet and reduces slag.

11. The dross, a dull, sandy substance floating on top of the molten metal, should be cleared from the top of the pot after this fluxing with wax.
- K. The filling of the mold.
1. Assuming that the metal is now ready for pouring, the operator dons gloves, picks up the mold and the dipper, dips out a quantity of the hot metal, and with a rapid motion pours the metal into the trough on the cutoff plate until it is flush with the top of the plate or even spills over the side of the plate.
 2. This is a fairly fast pouring motion and is started at the far end of the mold and moved toward the operator as each cavity fills up with hot metal.
 3. The correct angle at which to hold the mold is learned in the first few times the mold is filled.
 4. It should be held at a slight slant to permit the hot metal to run from one hole to the other along the trough.
- L. The cleaning of the mold.
1. The operator now rests the dipper upon his table or bench, waits for the metal to cool - indicated by a change in the "complexion" of the metal on the cutoff plate and "sinking" in the center of the leaden mass in the trough - and picking up the mallet, he strikes the end of the cutoff plate, causing it to swing around and clear the center line of the mold.
 2. A flipping motion of the fingers of the operator's hand holding the mold opens it with sufficient shock to usually eject all the bullets, thus clearing the mold for a repeat performance. If some bullets stick in either side of the mold, the mallet is used to strike a light blow downward on the hinge button of the mold. Never strike the mold blocks a direct blow and never use a knife or other sharp instrument to pry out the bullets. If bullets stick time and time again in one or more cavities in a mold, it may be necessary to flux the metal more often with wax or even to tap the cutoff plate with a stick of wax just above the sticky cavity.
 3. This procedure will result in deformed bullets for a few castings, but should clear up the problem of bullets failing to eject from the mold easily. Many bullets are not perfect when bullets are cast for the first few

times or when a new mold is used. The secret of good bullets is in having the metal at a temperature which will insure a good flow into all the crevices of the mold and in keeping the mold hot enough to permit this flow without sudden cooling. Metal that is too hot will give "frosted" bullets which will crumble under pressure and which will also have a poor sectional density.

4. Molds that are too hot will waste a lot of the operator's time unless he can alternate with other molds. Metal or molds that are cold or not hot enough produce ingots of metal, half-bullets, or "snakes" along the side of the bullet.

M. Inspecting cast bullets.

1. All bullets must be inspected after casting and after cooling. Any deformation which destroys the distribution of weight within the projectile is reason for rejection and return to furnace for another try.
2. A "snake" along one side, an incomplete nose, or such deformation means that a bullet will lose its delicate balance in flight and, therefore, cannot be fired with accuracy. Bullets with "fins" along the sides or upon the base should be discarded as they put a stress upon the die of the sizing tool, and this additional metal is sometimes trapped by the lubricant in one of the grooves, thus imparting an undesirable off-center weight influence to the spinning bullet.
3. The base and the edges of a bullet are given a close examination. This is a vital area and any unevenness, from holes or depressions in the base to dents or nicks on its edges, calls for rejection.
4. As an operator gains experience, it is possible to inspect bullets as they are cast - as they are flipped from the mold - and thus determine if his bullet metal and molds are at the correct temperature.

N. The sizing and lubricating process.

1. In using the Star or Phelps sizer and lubricator, the handle at the top of the tool is turned slightly to keep pressure on the lubricant so that it will flow smoothly into the grooves of the bullet. The lower grooves of the bullet are the lubricating grooves, while the one at the top of the projectile is termed the crimping groove.
2. A box to catch the bullets should be close to the machine and have some material on its bottom sufficiently soft to cushion the bullet's fall from the machine.

3. As the first few bullets are sized and lubricated, the operator should examine them to ascertain whether or not sufficient lubricant is being placed in the grooves. The operator can then learn just how often he must tighten the top tension handle to keep the correct pressure in the machine. Usually this handle must be turned every five to ten bullets processed, depending upon room temperature. Too much pressure is indicated when grease escapes and can be seen on the nose or base of the bullet.

O. The storage of bullets.

1. Once the bullets are sized and lubricated, they should not be "poured" into other containers. Bullets should be lifted individually from the box into which they have fallen from the sizer and lubricator and the base wiped free of lubricant by "stroking" across a piece of cloth which has been stretched across the top of a table or bench. Cardboard separators can be used between layers of bullets so that a cigar box or a metal tray will hold several layers of bullets.
2. Trays or boxes should be covered to protect bullets from dust or dirt which might damage the bore of a weapon. "Pouring" bullets into containers may nick or dent the base of the bullet - a vital area when accuracy is desired in hand loaded ammunition. It may also cause some of the lubricant in the grooves or upon the side of a bullet to be wiped off upon the base of another bullet as they roll together.
3. Grease on the base of a bullet will pick up powder grains from the cartridge when the bullet is seated and the hand loaded operation is completed. This means that these grains of powder will pick up sufficient moisture from contact with the lubricant to ruin their ignition qualities, and this causes varying points of impact due to variations in the powder charge.
4. The base of the bullet must be wiped clean upon storage and a good rule to follow is to once again "stroke" a bullet across a rag to clean its base just as the bullet is being inserted into the top of a cartridge case for the final seating operation.

P. The cleaning and storing of molds.

1. When hot, lead can be cleaned from a mold with a soft brass brush such as is used for cleaning the bores of firearms. A heavy piece of canvas is also effective for this purpose. Do not use sharp-edged tools.
2. After a mold has been used in a casting session, the last set of bullets should be left in the mold after striking the cutoff plate to remove the excess metal.
3. If the bullets are not left in the mold while it is cooling, it is likely that the mold will warp.
4. Then the outside surfaces of the mold are lightly oiled and the mold placed on a shelf.

Q. The economy factor in reloading ammunition.

1. Factory ammunition is expensive and commercially reloaded ammunition is more costly than reloading.
2. When a reloader can recover bullet metal from a range, it is possible to reload at very little out-of-pocket expense.
3. Police units can buy sufficient factory ammunition to recover enough empty cases to initiate a program, then purchase bullet metal for their first reloading sessions, and later utilize the bullet metal recovered from the back stop of the pistol range.
4. Either the police officer or the police unit can save money by reloading and thus practice much more often on the same budgetary allowance, and in combat shooting, practice is a vital element in training.

XI. Maintenance and Inspection of the Revolver.

A. Cleaning.

1. The revolver is a precision tool made of steel. Steel exposed to moisture, especially to the perspiration always on your hands, will rust easily. Perspiration contains salt and acid that quickly mars the finish on a handgun. The residue of burnt gunpowder impressed into the walls of the bore and chambers by the high heat of explosion also attracts moisture and should be cleaned out soon after firing.

2. Cleaning a pistol is a simple process. A custodian of weapons should be charged with overall responsibility for the proper maintenance of weapons, but each individual issued a revolver should be held personally responsible for care and cleaning, and provided with the means.
3. A gun carried in a holster needs frequent attention because of exposure to dust, dirt, and dampness. The burden of enough care to prevent rust should be a matter of judgment and the person charged with the gun held responsible.
4. After shooting, scrub bore and chambers with bristle or nylon brush (use bronze bristle if residue is stubborn), dipped in powder solvent. Brush should clear bore at end of each stroke. (Any attempt to reverse brush in bore will bind it.)
5. When residue is softened, push clean cloth patches through until powder stains do not show on the cloth. When bore and chambers are clean, dampen a patch with light oil and run through bore and all chambers so that all inner surfaces are thinly covered with oil. Run same patch over outside of gun for same reason. Only a very thin oil film is needed to prevent corrosion. Before shooting the gun, it is desirable to wipe bore and chambers dry of oil, and incidentally, free of dirt that may accumulate.
6. The main effort in protecting the gun will be in continual attention to the outside surface that comes in contact with the hands. A good rule is to wipe the gun free of fingerprints daily. This need not be burdensome.
7. Run a cloth patch slightly dampened with rust inhibiting oil through bore and chambers and over the outside surface as often as necessary.
8. A covered container should be handy for pieces of lint-free cloth dampened with oil. A quick rubdown is sufficient before turning in the gun for safekeeping. A modern method of rust protection for guns to be holster-carried or kept ready for instant use is to wipe the outer surface with a silicone-treated gun rag or to wax with high grade automotive paste wax.
9. Sometimes the cylinder of a Smith and Wesson revolver opens with difficulty. The extractor rod may be loose. Tighten with flat jaw pliers being careful not to mar

the rod; mask plier jaws with thick cloth. It is a good idea to place a couple of empty cases in chambers when tightening rod.

10. Removal of heavy rust in spots on the outer surface may require use of fine steel wool in combination with penetrating oil or kerosene. Steel wool removes bluing and must be used with care. Light rust film can often be removed by brisk rubbing with coarse cloth moistened with kerosene or penetrating oil. If revolver is to be stored for long period, exposed surfaces including bore and chambers may be given coating of rust-inhibiting grease. Instead of greasing gun, it may be wrapped in special Vapor Phase Inhibiting paper and placed in sealed box. Guns are shipped from factory in this manner.

B. Revolver inspection checklist.

1. Note exterior finish for signs of rust or corrosion.
2. With cylinder out, note various corners and interior surfaces where powder fouling and gummed lubricant may accumulate. (A toothpick and an old tooth brush are good cleaning tools.)
3. Tip of firing pin should be smoothly polished and protrude far enough to dent bullet primer deeply. Chipped or worn pin may cause misfire and should be replaced. In order for firing pin to protrude as in picture, trigger must be held back. Otherwise, safety bar between hammer and frame prevents firing pin from coming forward far enough to strike and explode primer. The safety bar in modern revolvers makes it safe to keep all chambers loaded.
4. With cylinder out, hold thumb nail so that reflected light will reveal condition of bore.
5. With cylinder out, examine all chambers for powder fouling.
6. With cylinder out, push extractor back and forth. It should operate freely.
7. With cylinder closed, cock hammer by thumb to see if cylinder turns and clicks firmly in place.

8. Check cylinder for looseness. Slight movement will be present but movement sufficient to cause obvious misalignment of chambers with bore, or failure of cylinder locking mechanism, are serious defects indicating need for repair. Check excessive looseness or gap between frame and crane. Slight movement will normally be present.
9. Firing pin well in frame should be free of foreign matter. Clean with toothpick or pointed plastic rod. Place drop of oil as needed on firing pin and test for vertical movement with fingertips. Firing pin on most modern, centerfire revolvers is movable.
10. Use small screwdriver to verify tightness of frame and grip screws. Unsightly burring of screwheads can be prevented by use of screwdriver blade to match width and length of slots.

C. General suggestions for good maintenance.

1. All parts and surfaces of revolvers in ready-to-use condition should be lubricated lightly. Do not permit overlubrication. Oil residue may eventually gum up moving parts so that they operate with difficulty. Too much oil in chambers will eventually penetrate ammunition left in chambers a long period making gunpowder defective so that it misfires.
2. When firing gun, beware of explosion less than normal. Defective gunpowder may have forced bullet only part way through bore. Gun should be opened and bore checked to see that it is clear before firing a second round. A second round fired against one stuck in barrel will expand or burst the barrel.
3. If a revolver is water soaked or clogged with dirt so that the action must be cleaned, the sideplate must be removed carefully. Do not pry out sideplate. After removing pistol grips and holding screws, tap the handle frame with a wooden object such as the butt of a screwdriver; sideplate will work loose. Only experienced personnel should disassemble action. Normal cleaning requires only wiping and re-oiling accessible surfaces.

XII. Care and Cleaning of the Weapons.

A. Introduction to the care and cleaning of the revolver.

1. Although sturdily constructed and not prone to malfunction, the modern revolver must be maintained properly if it is to give long and dependable service.
2. Proper maintenance requires periodic inspections and adoption of a thorough, systematic cleaning procedure.
3. The revolver should be checked daily for cylinder rotation, firing pin protrusion, ejector rod operation, bore cleanliness, cylinder locking and alignment and hammer fall. This inspection can be methodically completed in less than a minute.
4. Internal cleaning, repairs or adjustments of the revolver's locking mechanism should be entrusted only to a competent gunsmith, except for minor adjustments.
5. All weapons should be unloaded before any inspection or cleaning is attempted.

B. The revolver barrel.

1. The bore of the revolver should be cleaned with a proper caliber bristle nylon brush. The brush should be pushed completely through the barrel at each stroke. Attempting to reverse the brush inside the barrel will result in binding the brush and will ruin it. When necessary, use a bronze bristle brush dipped in solvent to remove residue from the bore.
2. Lead in the bore or barrel throat which resists removal by the ordinary bristle brush can be removed by soaking the barrel in solvent. This is accomplished by placing a cork plug in the barrel, then filling the bore with solvent and allowing it to stand for twenty-four hours. The solvent will loosen the lead and facilitate its removal by a bristle brush.
3. Use a cleaning patch moistened with solvent on the "jag" tip of a cleaning rod to polish the bore. After inspecting the bore, apply a very light coat of protective oil to it if the weapon is to be maintained in a ready to use status.

C. The crane assembly group.

1. A thorough cleaning of the cylinder with a bronze bristle brush will remove ordinary residue from individual chambers.
2. Stubborn residue may be removed by scrubbing the chambers with fine steel wool tightly wrapped around the tip of a cleaning rod. If lead still remains in the chambers, the cylinder should be removed and soaked in solvent overnight.
3. The cylinder locking notches (i.e., the bolt slots) should be cleaned with a small chisel-shaped piece of wood or a toothbrush dipped in solvent.
4. The ejector should operate freely and may be examined by pushing the ejector mechanism back and forth. The ejector ratchet should be inspected to insure that it is aligned properly with the cylinder and is seated correctly in its recess. This mechanism can be lubricated by placing a drop of oil on the ejector rod and spline shaft while pushing the rod back and forth. Correct tightness of the ejector rod may be determined by exerting slight pressure on the knurled tip of the rod.
5. If the rod is loose, tighten the tip with a pair of common pliers. Avoid marring the knurled tip by covering it with a thick piece of paper or a cloth before tightening. It is especially important that the knurled tip be tight on a Smith and Wesson revolver since a loose ejector rod tip will interfere with the rotation of the cylinder and can easily "freeze" the action of the weapon so that it is useless.
6. Accumulated residue and debris on the crane assembly may be removed by scrubbing it with a toothbrush dipped in solvent. After the cleaning has been completed, wipe the surface with a dry cloth and apply a light coat of protective oil.

D. The revolver frame.

1. The interior surfaces of the frame should be cleaned with a toothbrush dipped in solvent. The presence of foreign material on the frame will tend to cause corrosion and may create malfunctions.

2. Light rust can be removed by scrubbing the surface with a coarse cloth moistened with solvent or penetrating oil. Removal of heavier rust spots, however, may require the use of fine steel wool and solvent. Steel wool will remove the finish on the weapon's surface and must be used with great care.
 3. Use a small screwdriver to tighten frame and grip screws. The setting of the "strain" screw located in the front grip strap of the Smith and Wesson revolver should not be altered except as necessary to insure that the screw is tight. To prevent unsightly marring of the screw heads, always use a screwdriver with a blade that matches the width and length of the screw slots.
 4. The firing pin should be checked for excessive play and should be capable of slight movement on its hinge; this is necessary to prevent firing pin breakage due to misalignment of the pin with the firing pin hole in the frame. The tip of the firing pin should be round and smoothly polished. Badly worn or chipped firing pins will cause misfires and should be replaced at once.
 5. Correct protrusion of the firing pin may be checked by pulling the trigger and holding it back against the rear of the trigger guard. With the trigger in this position, the firing pin can easily be seen protruding through the recoil plate.
- E. The holster for the revolver.
1. The holster should be cleaned weekly with a toothbrush or a wire brush.
 2. Lint and other materials which accumulate in the bottom of the holster usually attract moisture which can rust the barrel of the revolver.
- F. Storage of the revolver.
1. When the revolver must be holstered, yet ready for instant use, adequate rust protection can be provided by thoroughly wiping the weapon with a silicone treated gun rag.

2. If the revolver is to be stored for a long period of time, exposed surfaces, including the chambers and the bore, should be coated with rust-inhibiting grease.
3. A newer and less messy procedure is to wrap the weapon securely in a special "vapor phase" paper which minimizes the necessity for greasing.
4. Stored weapons should not be placed in leather holster, since leather also has a tendency to attract moisture.

XIII. Shotguns.

A. Riot shotguns.

1. The secondary weapon of the police officer is the 12-gauge riot shotgun. Many departments use a Remington model 870 pump shotgun.
2. In recent years the riot shotgun has become a standard police firearm, valuable both as a defensive weapon in the protection of police officers and as an offensive weapon in the control of riot conditions.
3. The shotgun is an ominous looking weapon, one which produces a distinct and generally immediate quieting effect on belligerent persons when it is displayed.
4. Although this weapon has adequate fire power for use at close range, it does not have the long range of a rifle, and its limited range makes it particularly suitable for use in metropolitan areas.
5. The Remington 870 weighs seven pounds. The 870 is ruggedly constructed and its simple, uncomplicated design affords easy repair and maintenance. The weapon has interchangeable barrels which can be replaced in a very few minutes without special tools. The barrels, twenty inches in length, are cylinder bored (as opposed to full or modified choke), and are designed to cause buckshot projectiles to spread rapidly when the weapon is fired. The weapon is equipped with a cross-bolt type safety which is located at the rear of the trigger guard.

B. Ammunition for the riot shotguns.

1. The 870 will accommodate various types of ammunition, including regular shotgun shells, certain types of tear gas shells and rifled slugs. The weapon is chambered

for the 2-3/4 inch shotgun shell which may contain a light or a heavy factory loaded powder charge. It will also accept the more powerful 2-3/4 inch magnum shells, but not the three inch magnum shell. When fully loaded, the shotgun will hold five rounds, four in the magazine and one in the chamber. In normal use the weapon is loaded with four shells in the magazine and none in the chamber.

2. "00" buckshot is usually the most effective ammunition which can be used in the riot shotgun. One 12-gauge "00" shell contains nine pieces of buckshot, each of which is approximately .33 caliber. Buckshot forms a round pattern when it is fired, with the pattern expanding as it leaves the muzzle of the gun. As a general rule, buckshot spreads about one inch for every yard traveled up to fifty yards.
3. The shotgun fired with "00" buckshot is a lethal weapon at distances up to one hundred yards. The effect of buckshot at close range is much more devastating than any other form of small arms fire.
4. Although the effective killing range of this weapon may exceed one hundred yards, buckshot begins to lose its velocity beyond this range with a consequent loss of accuracy and killing power. Most combat shooting with the riot shotgun takes place within twenty yards. If the weapon is fired accurately, all of the pellets from a "00" buckshot load will strike a human target which is within that range.
5. Tests have been conducted with the "00" load to determine its accuracy, effectiveness and penetration from various distances. Results of such tests indicate that this type of ammunition is not particularly effective against automobiles, especially when an appreciable distance is involved.
6. The shotgun will also accommodate rifled slug ammunition. The rifled slug is a solid lead projectile weighing one ounce which has a rifling on the sides, causing it to spin like a rifle bullet when it is fired. This ammunition is quite accurate and has tremendous shocking power. From twenty-five yards a rifled slug has the capacity to completely penetrate the body of an automobile, including the trunk and the passenger compartment.

7. The department may maintain a supply of rifled slug ammunition since this ammunition is not normally needed in municipal areas.

C. Loading the shotgun.

1. To load the model 870, pull the fore-end all the way to the rear, making sure that the action is clear. Close the action by pushing the fore-end all the way forward.
2. Move the safety to the "off-safe" position. The safety is a round button located just behind and above the trigger on the trigger guard assembly. The weapon is "on-safe" when the button protrudes to the right, and is "off-safe" when the button protrudes to the left.
3. Pull the trigger to release the tension on the hammer.
4. Return the safety to the "on-safe" position and the weapon is ready to be loaded.
5. Press a shell inward against the carrier and into the magazine until it snaps past the shell latches inside the receiver.
6. Repeat this process to fill the magazine, remembering that only four shells may be inserted into the magazine.
7. To load the chamber, pull the fore-end all the way to the rear and then slam it all the way forward. The chamber will then be loaded and the weapon ready for firing when the safety is moved to the "off-safe" position.
8. After firing, you may load another shell into the chamber by repeating the procedures described above.

D. Unloading the chamber.

1. If you find it unnecessary to shoot after you have pumped a shell into the chamber, you may remove the live round in the following manner:
 - a. First, make certain that the safety is in the "on-safe" position.
 - b. Then extract the shell from the chamber by pressing the action bar lock.

- c. Slowly pull the fore-end back until the front end of the shell is just even with the front portion of the ejection port.
 - d. Remove the shell from the ejection port.
 - e. Close the breech, being extremely careful that the carrier does not pick up another live shell from the magazine and load it into the chamber.
2. If you desire to extract a fired shell from the chamber, use the procedures just described except that you do not have to depress the action bar lock in order to pull the fore-end back.
 3. It is unnecessary to actuate the lock when a shot has been fired since this must be done only when the trigger has not been pulled.
 4. After the action has been closed and you are certain that another shell has not been inadvertently loaded into the chamber, move the safety to the "off-safe" position, pull the trigger to drop the hammer and then return the safety to the "on-safe" position.
 5. Then load the live shell which you removed from the chamber back into the magazine and the weapon will then be ready to return to the shotgun rack in the patrol car.
 6. Remember, NEVER RETURN A SHOTGUN TO THE RACK WITH A LIVE ROUND IN THE CHAMBER!
- E. Unloading the magazine.
1. To unload the shells in the magazine, push the carrier inward and press your thumb against the shell latch located inside the receiver; the shells contained in the tubular magazine will then be freed and will slip out into your hand.
 2. DO NOT UNLOAD THE MAGAZINE BY "RACKING" THE ROUNDS THROUGH THE FIRING CHAMBER. This bends the rounds and destroys them at an unprecedented rate.

F. Shotgun shoulder shooting.

1. When firing the shotgun from a standing position, you should lean slightly forward and place the butt of the weapon firmly against your shoulder.
2. Push the safety to the "off-safe" position with your index finger.
3. Raise the weapon so that you are sighting down the barrel at the target.
4. Keep your neck erect and in a natural position, remembering not to bring your cheek down onto the stock.
5. Do not bend your head forward, but rather, bring the stock up to the cheek where it can be rested without strain.

G. Shotgun hip shooting.

1. When firing the shotgun from the hip, grasp the weapon firmly by the fore-end and tuck the stock under your arm just below the armpit.
2. From the hip position the shotgun must be held as rigidly as possible with the forearm parallel to the ground.
3. Never put the butt of the shotgun against your hip since the recoil of the weapon may cause injury.
4. Remember to keep the muzzle down when pulling the trigger because of the tendency to shoot high from this position.

H. Safety procedures in the use of the shotgun.

1. Because the shotgun is such a lethal weapon, be extremely careful to take safety precautions at all times to protect fellow officers and yourself from accidental discharge.
2. When loading, unloading, or carrying the shotgun, the muzzle must always be pointed straight up.

3. Shotguns, as with all firearms, should never be pointed at anyone unless the person is a criminal suspect and the circumstances so warrant.
 4. Before firing to apprehend a fleeing suspect, consider the following factors:
 - a. Distance.
 - b. Probable shot spread.
 - c. Proximity of innocent persons.
 - d. The type of construction.
 - e. Possible occupancy of buildings beyond the suspect.
 5. Shotguns should be carried in the patrol car with four shells in the magazine, none in the chamber, and the safety in the "on-safe" position.
 6. The tension on the hammer should always be released when the shotgun is carried in the patrol car.
 7. Never leave the shotgun unattended unless it is secured by the locking device in the patrol car, and be sure that the lock holding the shotgun is secure and that the doors of the patrol car are locked.
- I. Care and cleaning of the shotgun.
1. The rangemaster should be responsible for proper maintenance and control of the department shotguns and provide weekly cleaning and oiling of each gun assigned to patrol cars.
 2. Individual officers have the responsibility for providing proper care for the shotgun while it is in their custody.
 3. When removing a shotgun from a vehicle, take it to the armory for servicing from the rangemaster.
 4. Shotguns are unloaded when they are checked out and must be returned in the same manner - unloaded, with the breech open and the safety in the "on-safe" position. Turn a shotgun into the armory for routine cleaning.

5. If there is a shotgun which is in need of repair, or which has been so exposed to the elements that immediate maintenance is necessary, the weapon should be turned in to the armory.
 6. As in the case of all weapons brought into the police building (except for the service revolver), the shotgun will be unloaded before being brought into the building.
 7. By following these procedures officers will help to maintain their department's riot shotguns in proper operating condition and will aid the rangemaster in his preventative maintenance program.
 8. Remember, protect the shotgun while it is in your vehicle. Proper care of this weapon while it is in your custody will insure its proper operation when it is needed to protect your life.
- J. Auto and burglar shotgun.
1. The department may have auto and burglar shotguns which are 20-gauge double-barreled weapons with barrels ten inches in length.
 2. These weapons are intended only for interior or close range shooting and are primarily designed for use in "stakeout" situations, particularly inside rooms or in close quarters, where they can be maneuvered or concealed.
 3. The auto and burglar shotgun is a better and safer weapon for such purposes than the revolver because of its accuracy, great shocking power and short range.
- K. Ammunition for the auto and burglar shotgun.
1. Ammunition used in the auto and burglar shotgun consists of number 5 shot cartridges, each of which contains 170 pellets which are .12 inches in diameter or number 6 shot cartridges, each of which contains 225 pellets which are .11 inches in diameter.
 2. Both types of cartridges have a maximum effective range of approximately 15 yards.

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3. This size shot is used because it provides maximum safety and will not endanger innocent people by penetrating walls.
- L. Care and handling of the auto and burglar shotgun.
1. When checking out an auto and burglar shotgun, examine it thoroughly to insure that it is operating properly.
 2. The safety on this weapon is located at the rear of the receiver on top of the pistol grip stock. Always test the safety before unloading this weapon. Break open the breech, then examine the chambers to insure they are empty and that the barrels are free from debris. Set the safety, close the breech and pull each trigger to assure that the safety will lock the trigger mechanism. Examine the ammunition to make sure that it is 20-gauge, number 5 or 6 shot.
 3. When firing this weapon, hold onto it tightly since the barrel will tend to jerk upwards and out of your hand when the gun is discharged.
 4. To hold the weapon properly, place the palm of your hand over the top of the barrels and grasp them tightly; this will enable you to retain control of the weapon when it is fired. Hold the stock firmly in your other hand and position the weapon in front of you about waist high.
 5. Carry the auto and burglar shotgun with a shell in each chamber with the safety in the "on-safe" position.
 6. The same safety precautions concerning carrying, pointing and firing the weapon described for the riot shotgun should be observed when using the auto and burglar shotgun.
 7. Any malfunctions of the weapon should be reported immediately to the rangemaster so corrective action can be taken. Auto and burglar shotguns are stored in the armory and routine cleaning is conducted by the rangemaster.

XIV. Submachine Guns.

A. Submachine guns.

1. The department may have different types of submachine guns in the armory which should be issued to personnel only after authorization has been received from a command officer.
2. The three basic types in police use are:
 - a. The Thompson submachine gun.
 - b. Guide M-3 submachine guns - also called Grease Guns.
 - c. H & R Reising submachine guns.
3. These weapons are designed for use when continuous or sustained fire is needed.
4. Submachine guns are not particularly valuable as police weapons except for the deterrent value gained from their appearance.
5. The criminal, riotous mob and general public have a great respect for submachine guns as they are strange and formidable looking weapons which have been highly publicized.
6. Departmental personnel may have occasion to use a submachine gun against an armed, barricaded suspect or an armed mob after all other means have failed, but only in those extreme cases where the killing of all suspects would be justified.
7. Routine cleaning of all submachine guns is conducted by the rangemaster. Any malfunctions should be immediately reported to him so that corrective action can be taken.

B. Ammunition for the submachine guns.

1. Ammunition used in all three submachine guns consists of .45 caliber automatic rimless cartridges.
2. This cartridge is a standard copper-jacketed bullet which weighs 230 grains and has an accuracy range of approximately 300 yards.

3. The bullet, because of its construction, has more penetrating power than the standard .38 caliber bullet and will usually penetrate a vehicle from a distance of 25 yards.
 4. Although submachine guns become more effective as the distance to the target decreases, the obvious danger of ricochet at close ranges makes short distance shooting with this weapon an extremely hazardous practice.
 5. Because of the submachine gun's high rate of fire, an extra clip of ammunition should be drawn from the armory.
- C. The .45 caliber Thompson submachine gun.
1. Operation of the Thompson submachine gun.
 - a. The Thompson .45 caliber submachine gun operates by the standard recoil or "blowback" system. When the trigger is pressed, the bolt is released and is driven forward by a recoil spring.
 - b. The bolt during its forward travel picks up the top cartridge from the magazine and forces it into the firing chamber; as the action closes, the hammer strikes the firing pin and fires the round. The pressure of gas from the explosion in the firing chamber drives the bolt backwards during which the expended cartridge is ejected and the weapon is cocked for further firing.
 - c. A cocking handle, also known as the actuator knob, is mounted on either the top or the side of the receiver and must be pulled back before the first shot can be fired.
 - d. The selector switch, located on the left side of the receiver above the pistol grip, may be positioned to "single" or "auto" to select semi-automatic or fully automatic fire respectively.
 - e. A thumb safety is located on the left side of the weapon above the pistol grip and has two positions - "safe" and "fire."
 - f. The gun must be cocked before either lever can be set.

2. Loading and firing of the Thompson submachine gun.
 - a. To load this weapon, pull the actuator knob back and put the safety on "safe."
 - b. Although it is possible to insert a magazine into this weapon when the bolt is in the forward position, this procedure is not recommended. Insert the magazine into its recess in front of the trigger guard, being careful to align the rib of the magazine with the slot in the rear of the magazine recess. Push the magazine into the recess until you hear a click indicating that the magazine catch has engaged.
 - c. The weapon will be ready to fire as soon as the safety has been moved to the "fire" position. Type of fire will depend on the position of the fire control selector switch.
 - d. The Thompson submachine gun should be carried with the bolt back, the safety in the "safe" position, and a magazine inserted in the receiver. If the weapon has been cocked and you decide not to fire it, you should move the bolt forward to prevent straining the recoil spring. Remember, however, when the bolt goes forward in this weapon, a cartridge is fired.
 - e. You must remove the magazine from its recess and place the safety selector on "fire" before you pull the trigger to allow the bolt to go forward.
- D. Guide M-3 submachine gun.
1. Operation of the M-3 submachine gun.
 - a. The Guide M-3 .45 caliber submachine gun operates by the standard recoil or "blowback" system. When the trigger is pressed, the bolt is released and is driven forward by dual driving springs. The bolt, during its forward travel, picks up the top cartridge from the magazine and forces it into the firing chamber; as the action closes, the firing pin strikes the cartridge and fires the round.

- b. The pressure of gas from the explosion in the firing chamber drives the bolt backwards during which the expended cartridge is ejected and the weapon is cocked for further firing.
 - c. The bolt is equipped with a fixed firing pin which strikes the chambered cartridge with the full force of the spring loaded forward movement of the bolt. This firing design provides improved accuracy and is largely responsible for the fact that the gun does not "climb" while being fired.
 - d. The cocking handle of this weapon, also called a "rocker-arm," is located on the right side of the gun just behind the magazine housing. To draw the bolt back, pull the rocker-arm backwards as far as it will go. After the weapon is cocked, the arm will return to the forward position and will return to the forward position and will remain in this position while the gun is being fired. The cocking handle in most other submachine guns travels back and forth with the bolt and is often a disturbing factor to the shooter.
 - e. The Guide submachine gun does not have a lever to select type of fire and will only fire fully automatic.
 - f. The only safety on this weapon is the hinged breech cover which, when closed, prevents the cocked bolt from going forward. The hinged cover is also used to provide protection for the working mechanism when the weapon is being carried or stored.
2. Loading and firing of the Guide M-3 submachine gun.
- a. To load this weapon, pull the cocking handle back and close the breech cover. Insert a magazine into the receiver recess and push it in until you hear a click.
 - b. The weapon will fire as soon as the breech cover is raised to the open position and the trigger is pulled.
 - c. The Guide submachine gun should be carried with the bolt back, the breech cover closed and a magazine inserted in the receiver. If the weapon has been

- cocked and you decide not to fire it, you should move the bolt forward to prevent straining the recoil spring. Remember, however, when the bolt goes forward in this weapon, a cartridge is fired.
 - d. You must remove the magazine from its recess and raise the breech cover before you pull the trigger to allow the bolt to go forward.
- E. H & R Reising submachine gun.
- 1. The operation of the H & R Reising submachine gun.
 - a. The Reising .45 caliber submachine gun operates by the standard recoil or "blowback" system, but its operation is different from the Thompson and the Guide submachine guns in that the bolt is always closed before the trigger is pulled. When the trigger is pulled, the hammer, rather than the bolt, is released and is driven forward by a compressed spring. The hammer drives the firing pin against the cartridge and fires the round.
 - b. Pull the action bar backwards as far as it will go, release it and let it slide forward. A round is now in the chamber and the weapon will be ready to fire as soon as the selector has been moved to "SA" or "FA."
 - c. The Reising submachine gun should be carried with the chamber empty, bolt forward and the safety on.
 - d. If this weapon is loaded with a round in the chamber and you decide not to fire it, you should move the hammer forward to prevent strain on the hammer spring. When the hammer of this weapon goes forward, a cartridge is fired.
 - e. You must remove the magazine from its recess and eject the chambered round by pulling the action bar backwards before you pull the trigger to release the hammer.

XV. Rifles.

A. Automatic rifles for police use.

1. The department may have in the armory several types of automatic rifles which are issued to personnel only after authorization of a command officer.
2. These may include military carbines, the AR-15 automatic rifle, and other types of automatic rifles.
3. Routine cleaning of the department's automatic rifles is conducted by the rangemaster. Any malfunctions of these weapons should be reported immediately so corrective action can be taken.

B. The AR-15 automatic rifle for police use.

1. General description of the AR-15 automatic rifle.
 - a. The Colt Armalite AR-15 is the most modern light-weight rifle combining the accuracy of a sniper rifle with the firepower of a machine gun. Fundamental to the reliable and versatile operation of the Colt AR-15 is a new concept of design.
 - b. The offset structure as well as the added weight of the long operating rod and piston found in conventional automatic weapons has been eliminated. An entirely new gas operated system using a patented bolt and bolt carrier is used in the AR-15. In addition to their individual functions, the Colt AR-15 bolt and bolt carrier together form a unique piston and cylinder.
 - c. Gas taken from a port near the muzzle is carried back through a gas tube and fed directly into a chamber formed by the bolt and bolt carrier.
 - d. The essential parts are so aligned that all forces involved are directed in a straight line from the barrel to the stock, minimizing recoil.
 - e. A rifleman can carry an additional 120 rounds into action at no increase in the overall load weight. The Colt AR-15 features a quick loading principle embodying the use of a very light weight preloaded

magazine which can be thrown away. Because of the extreme light weight of this magazine, a rifleman can carry his ammunition preloaded without penalty of weight. With the use of preloaded magazines, the rifleman can fire 100 rounds of .223 ammunition in 30 seconds.

- f. As soon as the magazine is emptied, the release button is pushed with the finger and the empty magazine drops. Firing is instantly resumed upon insertion of the next loaded magazine. Rapid fire is wasted fire unless the weapon is controllable.
- g. The straight line stock and well balanced design of the Colt provides ease of handling and accurate control. Recoil in the Colt AR-15 is reduced substantially.
- h. Corrosion resistant materials facilitate the assembly and interchangeability of parts and reduce the service and maintenance of the Colt AR-15 to an absolute minimum.
- i. Firing of the Colt AR-15 with complete absence of lubricants in a chemically cleaned condition has resulted in a performance far exceeding any requirements. The Colt AR-15 rifle will fire longer without cleaning or oiling than any other known rifle.
- j. Another condition in which the Colt AR-15 excels is the sub-zero temperature test, including exposure to icing and freezing. The sand test is one that stops many of the world's best weapons. The Colt AR-15 has gone through the most severe of these tests without malfunction. None of the various adverse condition tests including sand have left any ill effects on this weapon.
- k. Performance in mud is probably the most difficult of all adverse conditions; the close fitting dust cover makes it possible for the Colt AR-15 to outperform all other automatic weapons in this test.
- l. An occasional simple cleaning will keep the weapon functioning indefinitely. Working parts can be cleaned by wiping with a cloth.

- m. Twenty grenade launcher cartridges fit the standard magazine, meaning that grenades can be launched in rapid succession. Only on the Colt AR-15 can this be accomplished without adjustment of any kind. Instant change from grenade launching to combat ammunition or vice versa is then provided.
- n. Quick, on-the-target performance means maximum effectiveness and less wasted ammunition.

2. General operation of the AR-15.

- a. The six pound AR-15 is a .223 caliber, air cooled, gas operated rifle. It is fed from a 20 round magazine and may be fired from the shoulder or hip either full automatic or semi-automatic.
- b. With suitable cartridges and the grenade sight, it may also be used to launch grenades.
- c. The barrel is air-cooled and is provided with a flash suppressor which also serves as a grenade launcher and a front support for the bayonet. The barrel is surrounded by a heat resistant glass fibre material which serves as a hand guard and forearm. A heat reflecting inner shield keeps the hand guard cool.
- d. The sights are adjustable at front and rear.
- e. The magazine holds 20 rounds of .223 caliber ammunition and is made entirely of non-corrosive material.
- f. The butt stock is made of a synthetic material of high impact strength and is provided with a soft rubber butt plate.
- g. Pressing the take-down pin to one side permits the rifle to be opened, exposing the working parts for cleaning and inspection.
- h. In this weapon, the bolt is locked to the barrel by means of locking lugs, like small gear teeth, on the bolt. Similar lugs on the barrel extension engage the bolt lugs, holding the bolt firmly against the barrel. The full force of the explosion of the cartridge is absorbed by the barrel and bolt alone.

- i. For this reason the receiver can safely be made of lightweight aluminum alloys.
 - j. The safety, durability and proper functioning of the rifle is in no way reduced.
3. Semi-automatic firing of the AR-15 rifle.
- a. The functioning of the various components during firing is a basic operation.
 - b. With the weapon loaded and the safety set on "SEMI" fire, the trigger is pulled. The trigger rotates on the trigger pin causing the trigger sear to release the hammer. The hammer is then thrown forward by the pressure of the hammer spring, striking the firing pin which in turn causes ignition of the cartridge.
 - c. When the cartridge fires, the pressure of the explosion causes the bullet to move down the barrel. When the bullet passes the gas port, which is a small hole under the frong sight, a small amount of gas is piped through the gas tube back into the bolt carrier. This gas, under pressure, expands in the cylinder between the bolt and bolt carrier, driving the bolt carrier to the rear.
 - d. As the bolt carrier moves to the rear, the cam track in its upper surface acts upon the bolt cam pin, causing it and the bolt through which it passes to rotate until the locking lugs of the bolt are no longer in line with the lugs of the barrel extension. The bolt is now in the unlocked position, and as the bolt carrier continues its backward motion, the bolt assembly is also carried to the rear. As the bolt carrier and bolt recoil, this compresses the action spring and returns the hammer to the cocked position.
 - e. The expended cartridge case is withdrawn from the chamber by means of the extractor which is pinned to the bolt.
 - f. The ejector, also carried in the bolt, then throws the empty case out through the ejection port.

- g. The backward stroke of the bolt carrier is arrested by the buffer assembly and action spring guide, which strikes the bottom of the receiver extension. The action spring then forces the bolt carrier and bolt toward the chamber. On the forward stroke the face of the bolt picks up a cartridge from the magazine and thrusts it into the chamber.
- h. As the bolt lugs enter the barrel extension, the ejector is compressed against the left side of the cartridge face, and the extractor snaps into the cannellure on the right side.
- i. As the bolt carrier enters the final one-half inch of its closing stroke, the bolt cam pin emerges from the bolt carrier guide channel in the upper receiver, and the bolt carrier cam track then rotates the bolt counterclockwise into the locked position. This completes one loading cycle.
- j. When the trigger is pulled, the firing action of the rifle is so much faster than human reaction that it is impossible to release the trigger quickly enough to prevent firing several shots instead of one.
- k. For this reason, a "disconnect" is used to catch and hold the hammer until the trigger is pulled again for a second shot.
- l. When the trigger is pulled, the disconnect is rotated forward with the trigger by the action of the disconnect spring. After firing, the hammer is cocked by the recoil of the bolt carrier and the hook of the disconnect engages the upper inside notch of the hammer, holding it back and preventing a second shot. When the trigger is released, the trigger spring causes the trigger to return to the normal position carrying the disconnect backward with it. The hammer is then released from the hook on the disconnect.
- m. Before the disconnect hook actually releases the hammer, the trigger sear has moved in front of the hammer notch and the hammer drops from the disconnect to the trigger sear. The arm is then ready for a second shot.

4. Full automatic firing of the AR-15 rifle.

- a. When the safety is set for full automatic fire, the trigger mechanism functions in a basic manner. When the trigger is pulled, the trigger sear releases the hammer. The disconnect is prevented from moving forward to engage the hammer by the center cam of the safety.
- b. After the first shot when the hammer is moved into the cocked position by the bolt carrier, the disconnect does not catch the hammer, but the notch on the top outside edge of the hammer does engage with the automatic sear. The hammer then stays in the cocked position, held by the automatic sear, until the bolt carrier at the end of its forward movement strikes the upper edge of the automatic sear, causing it to release the hammer.
- c. The hammer then falls to fire the next shot of the burst. This cycle repeats itself until the magazine is emptied or the trigger is released. If the trigger is released, the hammer falls from the automatic sear as described but is held by the trigger sear, thus ending the cycle of automatic fire.
- d. When the last round from a magazine has been chambered, the magazine follower rises into contact with the bolt stop. As the bolt carrier moves to the rear following the firing of the last cartridge, the magazine follower, under the action of the magazine spring, forces the bolt stop up into the path of the bolt face, thus holding the bolt to the rear.
- e. Removal of the magazine does not release the bolt, since the force of the action spring on the bolt holds the bolt stop in place.
- f. Removal of the magazine does not release the bolt, since the force of the action spring on the bolt holds the bolt stop in place.
- g. Caution: If a loaded magazine is in place, the arm is not loaded and ready to fire.

- h. Pressing the lower part of the bolt stop will cause the bolt to be held back when the charging handle is retracted. The weapon is now safe and open for inspection of the chamber. Pressing the magazine Catch Button will release the magazine.
5. Firing procedure for the AR-15
- a. Loading the AR-15 rifle.
- 1) Press the magazine release and remove the magazine. Pull the charging handle backward as far as possible and release.
 - 2) Set the safety on "SAFE." Load the magazine by pressing cartridges down from the top until 20 are in place.
 - 3) The bullet must point toward the smooth face of the magazine with the large end of the cartridge under the magazine feed lips. Insert the loaded magazine into the rifle, pushing upward until the catch snaps into place.
 - 4) Pull the charging handle fully to the rear and release quickly, allowing the bolt to move forward to battery position by the force of the action spring. If no firing is to be done immediately after charging, it is advisable to close the dust cover. This cover will open automatically when firing is commenced.
- b. Firing the AR-15 rifle.
- 1) Rotate safety to "SEMI" or "AUTO" position.
 - 2) Squeeze trigger.
- c. Reloading the AR-15 rifle.
- 1) Since the bolt and bolt carrier are held to the rear upon emptying a magazine, reloading is simply a matter of pressing the magazine release button and replacing the empty magazine with a loaded one.
 - 2) When the bolt catch button on the left side of the receiver is pressed at the top, the bolt will close and chamber the first round from the new magazine.

- 3) The rifle is then ready to fire again.
- d. Unloading the AR-15 rifle.
- 1) Set safety latch to "SAFE."
 - 2) Remove the magazine.
 - 3) Pull the charging handle to rear.
 - 4) Inspect the chamber and bolt face.
 - 5) Release the charging handle.
- e. Sight adjustment - windage for the AR-15 rifle.
- 1) Windage adjustment is made by using a bullet point to depress the detent and release the windage drum.
 - 2) At the same time, the windage drum may be turned one hole.
 - 3) Rotation of one notch in the direction of the "L" and the arrow will change the point of impact of the bullet one inch to the left at 100 yards (one minute of an angle).
 - 4) Reversing the rotation of the windage drum will cause the bullet to strike to the right the same amount.
- f. Sight adjustment - elevation for the AR-15 rifle.
- 1) Set rear sight on normal range setting for distances of 0-300.
 - 2) For distances of 300 to 500 yards, rotate rear sight to "L" (long range) position.
 - 3) To adjust the sights for elevation, depress the front sight detent with a bullet point and rotate the sight post.
 - 4) Rotating the post clockwise as indicated by the arrow and word ("up") will raise the point of impact; reversing the direction of rotation will lower the point of impact.

C. The carbine.

1. Ammunition for the carbine.

- a. The carbine will fire only .30 caliber carbine ammunition.
- b. It has a rounded nose and an accuracy range of 300 yards.

2. Operation of the carbine.

- a. The military carbine is a gas operated, magazine fed, semi-automatic or fully automatic weapon.
- b. When the trigger is pulled, the hammer is released to strike the firing pin and discharge the cartridge. When the fired bullet passes a gas port in the barrel, gas from the explosion strikes a piston with sufficient force to drive the piston and bolt backward.
- c. During this backward movement the expended cartridge is ejected and the weapon is cocked for further firing.
- d. As the bolt returns forward, it picks up the top cartridge from the magazine and drives it into the firing chamber.
- e. An operating slide, used to move the bolt backwards and cock the hammer, is located at the top of the receiver on the right side. The operating slide must be pulled back and released to chamber a cartridge before the first shot can be fired.
- f. Some military carbines will fire only semi-automatically, that is, the trigger must be pulled each time a round is to be fired.
- g. Selecting the type of fire on the automatic carbines is accomplished by positioning the fire selector switch located on the top left front of the receiver, to a backward position for semi-automatic firing, or pushing it forward until an "A" appears on the side of the switch for fully automatic firing.

- h. Many police department carbines are equipped with two types of safeties, both of which are located on the forward section of the trigger guard.
- i. Carbines equipped with a push-button safety may be placed "on safe" by pushing the safety button to the right. Carbines equipped with a turn-button safety may be placed "on safe" by positioning the safety switch over the red dot on the trigger guard so that the green dot is fully exposed.

3. Loading and firing of the carbine.

- a. To load this weapon, position the safety button in the "on safe" position and insert a loaded magazine into the receiver recess and push upwards until the magazine catch engages it. Pull the handle of the operating slide backwards as far as it will go, then release it and let it slide forward.
- b. A round will then be in the chamber and the weapon will be ready to fire as soon as the safety is moved to the "off safe" position. The carbines should be carried with the chamber empty, bolt forward and the safety on.
- c. If this weapon has been cocked and loaded and you decide not to fire it, you must pull the trigger to release tension on the hammer spring.
- d. To avoid firing the chambered round, remove the magazine from its receiver and eject the chambered round by pulling the handle of the operating slide backward.

D. Sniper rifles for use in police operations.

1. Introduction to the use of sniper rifles.

- a. The department may have in the armory several types of rifles which should be issued to personnel only after authorization of a command officer.
- b. They may include Springfield and Savage rifles. Sniper rifles are high-powered weapons. They are generally not suitable for patrol purposes.

because of their high power and long range. Special circumstances in police work occasionally arise which make these weapons necessary to the police arsenal.

- c. Rifles are very accurate weapons and may be used for precision shooting when armed suspects are barricaded in distant or elevated areas.
 - d. In riot control tactics, rifles supplement other police weapons being carried by riot squads and provide protection against the fire of snipers.
 - e. Personnel who carry rifles may be stationed behind the riot squad formations or may be deployed in strategic positions on elevated locations.
 - f. Routine cleaning of departmental rifles is conducted by the rangemaster. Any malfunctions of these weapons should be reported immediately so corrective action can be taken.
2. Ammunition for sniper rifles.
- a. Although the carbines and rifles are classified as .30 caliber weapons, they will not all fire the same ammunition.
 - b. The carbine will fire only .30 caliber carbine ammunition, which has a rounded nose and an accurate range of 300 yards.
 - c. More powerful .30-06 ammunition is required for the Springfield rifles.
 - d. The .30-06 cartridge, larger than the .30 caliber carbine cartridge, has an accurate range of at least 600 yards and a maximum deadly range of approximately 2000 yards.
 - e. The Savage rifles in the arsenal are designed to fire only .300 Savage cartridges, which are commercially produced for hunting purposes.
 - f. These cartridges have an accurate and maximum range approximating the .30-06.

E. Springfield rifle for sniper suppression.

- 1. Operation of the Springfield rifle.
 - a. The Springfield rifle, model 1903, is a manually operated bolt action weapon.
 - b. The shooter must chamber each round to be fired by actuating a bolt handle.
 - c. The weapon is equipped with a safety, located at the rear and on top of the bolt.
 - d. The safety is "on safe" when it is turned to the shooter's right, and "off safe" when it is turned to the shooter's left.
- 2. Loading and firing of the Springfield rifle.
 - a. Cartridges are loaded into the chamber from the built-in magazine by the shooter's operation of the bolt action.
 - b. Loading of cartridges into the chamber from the magazine can only be accomplished if the magazine cutoff lever, located on the left side of the receiver, is in the "up" position; otherwise, the bolt will not be able to move backwards far enough to allow the top cartridge in the magazine to raise sufficiently to be picked up by the bolt during its forward travel.
 - c. To load the magazine, turn the thumb cutoff lever up until the stamped word "on" can be seen on the receiver. Lift up and pull back on the bolt handle as far as it will go.
 - d. Hold the weapon so that the muzzle is pointing upward at about a 45-degree angle and insert a maximum of five cartridges into the magazine by pressing them down, one on top of another. The weapon will be ready for firing as soon as the bolt is fully closed.
 - e. The Springfield rifle should be carried with the chamber empty and the bolt closed. To close the bolt without chambering a round after loading the magazine, push down on the top cartridge and slowly push the bolt forward over the cartridge until the bolt locks in the forward position.

- f. The trigger may now be safely pulled to release tension on the hammer.
- g. To unload the weapon after a round has been chambered, slowly open the bolt until the chambered round can be removed with you fingers. The four cartridges remaining in the magazine can then be removed.
- h. The magazine floor plate can be removed and the entire magazine assembly, including all cartridges, will drop out of the rifle stock. To release the floor plate, the nose of a bullet may be used to depress the floor plate release catch.
- i. The other method of unloading the rounds in the magazine is to slowly chamber each round through the firing chamber so that each round may be removed in the same manner as the first, chambered round. The latter method of unloading the magazine is the preferred method, since it is less difficult and time consuming.
- j. It is imperative that great care be exercised when "racking" live rounds through the chamber to preclude an accidental discharge, and the operation must be done slowly so that the rounds will not be damaged by falling to the ground.

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I. First Aid.

A. Definition.

1. First aid is the immediate and temporary care of the victim of an accident or sudden illness until the services of a physician can be obtained.

B. Purposes of first aid instruction.

1. To prevent accidents; the person trained in first aid has fewer accidents.
2. To prevent added injury or danger to a victim, due to mishandling of an injury or illness.
3. To provide proper transportation for the victim if necessary.

C. The need for first aid training.

1. Accidents and sudden illness are very common, and often extremely serious.
2. Proper, immediate care is sometimes absolutely necessary to save life, and always is of help. Improper treatment can cause increased pain, can make injuries more severe, and can even result in death.

D. General directions.

1. Position of victim. Keep injured person lying in a comfortable position, head level with body, until you know whether injuries are serious.
2. Examination.
 - a. Look for serious bleeding, stoppage of breathing, and poisoning, in that order, first. These must be treated first.
 - b. Look for wounds, burns, fractures, and dislocations; be sure you find all injuries.
 - c. Find out if patient was unconscious or semi-conscious. If so, a head injury may be present.

3. Maintain body heat; carefully place blankets underneath victim.
4. Keep calm. Do not be hurried into making mistakes, or moving patient prematurely.
5. Do not give water or other liquids to an unconscious person and do not give whiskey or other alcoholic beverages to an injured person.
6. Keep onlookers away from the injured.
7. Make patient comfortable and try to keep him cheerful.
8. If possible, send for physician or ambulance at once.

II. Wounds.

- A. Dangers: hemorrhage (severe bleeding) and infection.
- B. Definition: a break in the skin or the mucous membrane lining of any of the body cavities.
- C. Types of wounds.
 - 1. A puncture is a wound of small diameter, penetrating.
 - 2. Abrasion is a shallow wound caused by rubbing or scraping.
 - 3. Incisions are cuts made by sharp objects, such as razor blades, etc.
 - 4. Lacerations are jagged or torn edges.
- D. Wound coverings.
 - 1. Dressing.
 - a. Sterile material (free from germs).
 - b. Placed directly over wound.
 - 2. Bandage.
 - a. Used to hold dressings in place.
 - b. Used for support.
 - c. Used for applying splints.
 - d. Not sterile, but should be clean.
 - e. Types.
 - 1) Cravat.
 - 2) Triangle.
 - 3) Roller.
 - 4) Adhesive.

E. Infection.

- 1. Definition: a wound in which germs have already multiplied.
 - 2. Prevention: proper immediate care of even smallest wound.
 - 3. Symptoms - some or all may be present.
 - a. Pain.
 - b. Redness.
 - c. Local heat, sometimes generalized fever.
 - d. Swelling.
 - e. Sometimes pus.
 - f. Sometimes red streaks.
 - g. Sometimes swollen lymph glands.
 - 4. Treatment.
 - a. Physician's care is necessary; first aid until he can see patient.
 - b. First aid treatment.
 - 1) Keep patient at rest.
 - 2) Elevate the part slightly.
 - 3) Hot, wet dressings.
- F. First aid for wounds.
- 1. Not severe bleeding.
 - a. Do not touch wound with hands or unsterile material.
 - b. Do not wash toward wound - wash away from wound in all directions. Preferably use sterile water.
 - c. Apply antiseptic.
 - d. Apply sterile dressing and bandage.

2. Severe bleeding.

a. Stop the bleeding.

- 1) Direct pressure - pressure onto, or even into the wound. Cloth material, preferably sterile at least clean; or bare hands.
- 2) Digital (finger) pressure.
 - a) Definition - pressure on the artery supplying the wound.
 - b) Digital pressure alone does not completely stop blood flow. Direct pressure must also be applied.
- 3) Tourniquet (Toor'-ni 'ket) - use only as a last resort on extremities. This is used much too frequently and unnecessarily.
- 4) Added helps in controlling bleeding.
 - a) Elevation of bleeding part.
 - b) Keep patient quiet.
 - c) Give no stimulants.

3. In all cases, applying sterile dressing and bandage. Consider need for medical attention.

III. Shock.

A. Definition.

1. A depressed state of all body functions caused by failure of the circulation and by loss of body fluids.
 - a. Severe shock is a very dangerous condition because of the possible consequences.
2. Shock cannot be cured by first aid, but it can be prevented.

B. Contributing factors.

1. Pain.
2. Rough handling; including improper transportation.
3. Bleeding.
4. Exposure to cold or heat.
5. Fatigue.
6. Disease.
7. Age; shock is more severe in the aged and very young.

C. Dangers of shock.

1. May itself lead to death.
2. Predisposes to infections such as pneumonia and wound infections.
3. May lead to loss of body part.

D. Symptoms of shock.

1. Skin.
 - a. Pale.
 - b. Clammy, cool.
2. Weakness and faintness.
3. Pulse.

- a. Weak.
- b. Sometimes rapid.
- 4. Nausea and vomiting may occur.
- 5. Patient may be indifferent to surroundings.
- 6. Patient may be unconscious.
- E. First aid.
 - 1. Position.
 - a. Keep patient lying flat.
 - b. Elevate lower part of body if injury is severe.
 - c. Elevate head and chest slightly if breathing is difficult.
 - 2. Heat.
 - a. Maintain body warmth.
 - 1) Do not cause sweating.
 - 2) Do not try to warm extremities.
 - 3) In cold weather, additional warmth desirable.
 - 3. Fluids.
 - a. Give in small amounts.
 - 1) Water with salt and baking soda.
 - 2) Warm coffee or tea.
 - b. Do not give alcoholic drinks.
 - c. Do not give in case of abdominal wounds.
 - d. Stimulants are of no value.
- F. Pitfalls.
 - 1. Symptoms usually develop gradually. Usually not noticeable until some time after the accident.

- 2. Patient may seem to react well after an injury and collapse later. This is usually dangerous because of lack of treatment facilities.
- 3. Sometimes a patient will be in deep shock and demonstrate few visible signs.
- 4. Be alert for fainting.

IV. Artificial Respiration.

A. Purpose: To maintain life in the person who is not able to breathe for himself.

B. How we breathe.

1. Air passageways: air passes through nose and down into windpipe. This branches into two bronchial tubes, one going to each lung. Each tube further branches into smaller tubes leading, finally, to the air sacs. Oxygen passes through the walls of the air cells into the blood, and carbon dioxide is expelled by the blood into the sacs.

2. Chest cage and diaphragm.

a. Chest cage: consists of ribs and their supports, the backbone and sternum or breast bone. The ribs are held into a bellows-like shape by connecting muscles. The ribs expand and the air enters the chest by atmospheric pressure.

b. Diaphragm: a partition at the base of the chest cage which depresses during breathing, permitting more air to enter the cage.

3. Breathing. Normal rate is 16 to 18 times per minute. Faster in small children.

C. Cases benefited by artificial respiration.

1. Non-breathing, but living, victims of:

a. Suffocation, such as drowning, choking, injury, hanging, gas, etc.

b. Drugs, such as sleeping pills, alcohol, anesthetics, etc.

c. Electric shock.

d. Prolonged exposure to cold.

e. Some illnesses, such as polio.

2. Does not help where illness or accident does not permit life.

D. Types of artificial respiration.

1. Back pressure - arm lift (Holger Nielsen). Compression and expansion of chest cavity.

2. Mouth-to-mouth. Blowing of air into lungs through mouth or nose of patient.

3. Other types such as Sylvester, Schaeffer, etc. are not used under normal circumstances.

E. Important points to remember.

1. Get started immediately.

a. Loss of time can be cause of failure to recover.

b. After breathing has stopped and artificial respiration has started, the chances for recovery are:

<u>Minutes Without Breathing</u>	<u>Chances of Recovery</u>
1	98 out of 100
2	92 out of 100
3	72 out of 100
4	50 out of 100
5	25 out of 100
6	11 out of 100
7	8 out of 100
8	5 out of 100
9	2 out of 100
10	1 out of 100
11	1 out of 1,000
12	1 out of 10,000

2. Air passages open.

a. Tongue forward or chin forward.

b. Mouth clear of obstructions. Remove false teeth, mucous, vomitus, etc.

3. Maintain body warmth.

4. After recovery, treat as for shock.

5. Oxygen inhalation.

a. Desirable, but don't wait for it.

b. Inhalators do not breathe for patient, must be used in conjunction with artificial respiration.

F. Back pressure - arm lift method.

1. Lay victim in prone (face down) position.

a. Clear mouth of foreign materials.

- b. Chin jutting forward.
 - c. Elbows bent, one hand on top of other, head on hands, face to one side.
 - d. Kneel at victim's head on either knee.
1. Place hands on victim's back. Fingers spread, thumbs touching, heel of hands below imaginary line connecting victim's armpits.
 2. Apply pressure.
 - a. Rock forward slowly until arms are vertical.
 - b. Keep elbows straight.
 - c. Don't jerk or bounce.
 3. Release pressure.
 - a. Rock back slowly.
 - b. Slide hands down patient's arms to elbows.
 - c. Continue backward, pulling on elbows.
 4. Lift arms.
 - a. Raise arms until tension is felt.
 - b. Lower - DO NOT DROP arms.
 - c. This completes one cycle.
 5. Timing. Cycle should be repeated 12 - 16 times per minute.

G. Mouth-to-mouth method.

1. Lay victim in supine (face up) position.
 - a. Clear mouth and throat of foreign material.
 - b. Tilt head back so chin points up.
2. Push or pull chin to "jutting out" position. This assures open air passage.
3. Place mouth tightly over patient's mouth. Close the nostrils with fingers.

4. Blow into mouth until chest rises.
5. Remove mouth to let air escape.
6. Repeat cycle every 5 seconds.
7. If unable to get air in, reposition head, or roll onto side, strike sharply on back, re-clear mouth and try again.
8. Don't become discouraged and stop too soon. Some recoveries occur after as much as four hours of treatment.

V. Poisons.

A. Scope: this section is designed to cover only poisoning by mouth.

B. Importance of study of poisoning.

1. Third cause of fatal home accidents among children. Aspirin is leading offender.
2. Common in suicide attempts among adults.
3. Occasional accidental poisoning in adults.

C. Prevention.

1. Keep drugs and harmful chemicals locked up away from children.
2. Keep all medicines labeled. Read the label before taking and again after taking.
3. Never take medicines in the dark.
4. Improper storage of chemicals.
 - a. Solvents in soda pop or liquor bottles.
 - b. Storage of hazardous materials in unlabeled containers.

D. Symptoms.

1. May be extremely varied; depending upon:
 - a. Drug or substance taken.
 - b. Dosage.
 - c. Time elapsed since taking.
2. May have no early symptoms.
3. Pain, cramps, convulsions or deep sleep may occur with others.

E. Determining whether poison has been taken.

1. Patient often tells, even in suicide attempt.
2. Presence of telltale bottle.

3. Signs about mouth.

4. Possible onset of digestive pain, or of sudden illness among several people at the same time.

F. First aid.

1. Remember "FDR" meaning "fill, drain, refill."

a. Dilute poison immediately (fill).

b. Induce vomiting (drain).

1) May be caused by diluting fluid. Salt and soda repeatedly taken will cause vomiting.

2) Tickling the back of the throat will cause vomiting.

c. Repeat above procedures (refill). Continue until no trace of poison is found in vomitus.

2. Antidote, if known, may be given in diluting fluid, or after stomach is washed out.

3. Special measures for alkali, such as lye, or acids.

a. Do not attempt to induce vomiting in these cases.

b. For acids - give baking soda water, lime water, milk of magnesia, powdered chalk or plain water. Follow with milk, olive oil, or egg white.

c. For alkalies - give weak acid such as vinegar, lemon juice and milk. If not available, give water.

4. Universal antidote - for use with unknown poisons. One part each of strong tea and milk of magnesia, two parts of burned toast (scraped).

G. Poison control centers.

1. Located in most cities.

2. Check your area for the nearest center, which is more than likely located in one of your larger hospitals.

VI. Fracture First Aid.

A. Backbone (spine) fractures.

1. Spinal cord (the large nerve cord) injury sometimes present.
 - a. As a result of the accident.
 - b. As a result of improper handling.
2. Causes of spine fractures. Falls, even when landing on feet or buttocks, car accidents, diving accidents, explosions, direct heavy blows, crushing accidents.
3. Symptoms.
 - a. Backache or pain in the neck (sometimes the only symptom).
 - b. Swelling and tenderness.
 - c. Paralysis or partial paralysis of one or more limbs, or parts thereof. This is by no means always present.
 - d. Shock, occasionally severe.
4. First aid.
 - a. Transport on a rigid frame.
 - 1) Support head and neck very carefully, especially if injury is in neck or upper back.
 - 2) Slide patient upon the frame very carefully.
 - 3) If patient is found on abdomen or side, roll gently to back, rotating neck in line as body rotates.
 - 4) Bind patient to frame, use no head pillow, but place effective supports at sides of head.
 - 5) Place a small padding under the small of the back.
 - 6) Do not bind head, twist body, flex body, or permit patient to sit up.

- b. The rigid frame may be placed on a stretcher for transportation.
- c. If a firm frame is not available, transport patient on abdomen on a stretcher; however, especially in neck fracture cases, this method is not as good as the use of a firm frame.
- d. Drive cautiously to a physician or hospital, avoiding jars and sudden stops.
- e. In neck fracture cases, it is much better to get a physician to the scene, for danger to life is especially great. If this is impossible, first aider may well steady the patient's head throughout the transportation period. Don't let the neck tilt forward, sideways, or backwards.

B. Pelvis.

1. Internal organs occasionally also injured.
2. Symptoms.
 - a. Patient may have swelling and tenderness; often these findings are not noticeable.
 - b. Patient may have little or no pain when lying down, however, he may have pain, especially in lower abdomen, when trying to stand or walk.
3. First aid.
 - a. Transport on back on firm frame.
 - b. Bind knees and ankles together.
 - c. Bend or straighten knees, according to comfort of victim.

C. Thigh or hip fracture.

1. Symptoms.
 - a. Shock may be severe, though not always evident at once.
 - b. Extremity often turns outward.
 - c. Patient will very seldom support himself on the extremity. He should never try to do so.

- d. If fracture is near the very top of the bone, there may not be any local signs, but the patient, while on his back, often won't lift his heel from the ground.
 - e. If fracture is lower, deformity, tenderness, swelling may be evident.
 - f. Even with fracture of thigh, victim can move ankle and toes.
2. First aid.
- a. Splint on the side of the body from armpit to just beyond the foot.
 - b. Second splint, full length of body and leg, may be applied.
 - c. If splints are not at hand, bandage limb to opposite limb.
 - d. Give proper shock care always.
- D. Kneecap.
1. Symptoms.
- a. Usually evident on careful examination. Break usually extends across, not up and down.
 - b. May occur simply from muscle action.
2. First aid.
- a. Splint below extremity from buttocks to heel.
 - b. Leave knee exposed because of swelling.
 - c. Pillow or blanket may suffice if splint is not available.
- E. Leg (the leg is the body part between knee and ankle).
1. First aid.
- a. Pillow or folded blanket extending above and beyond the knee, and below and beyond ankle.
 - b. A splint may be applied outside this pillow or blanket on each side.

- c. If a pillow is not available, two splints may be used, one on each side, extending from heel to well beyond knee.
- F. Ankle fracture.
1. First aid.
- a. Pillow.
 - b. Splints, if pillow is not available, one on each side, from heel to just below knee.
 - c. If fracture is just above ankle, this is a leg fracture and should be so handled.
- G. Fractures of crushing of foot and toes.
1. First aid.
- a. Remove shoe and stocking.
 - b. Apply large padded dressing or pillow and bandage snugly but not tightly.
- H. Fractures of the arm (the arm is the part above the elbow). These are often not suspected at first.
1. First aid.
- a. One splint from shoulder to elbow, outer side of arm.
 - b. CRAVAT sling to support forearm, bandage arm to side of body; always protect armpit by padding.
- I. Elbow fracture.
1. First aid.
- a. If elbow is found straight:
 - 1) Apply splint on palm side of arm from armpit to fingers, after heavily padding armpit.
 - 2) Arm may be bound to side of body, if more comfortable.
 - b. If elbow is found bent:
 - 1) Apply full arm sling.
 - 2) Bind arm to side of body.

J. Forearm and wrist fractures.

1. First aid.

- a. On palm side, place a splint extending from elbow to fingertips.
- b. On opposite side, place a splint extending from elbow beyond the wrist; bandage both splints into place.
- c. Apply arm sling.

K. Hand fracture or crushing.

1. First aid.

- a. One splint, palm side, from middle of forearm to beyond fingertips.
- b. Arm sling.

VII. Burns.

A. Definitions.

1. Burn - caused by dry heat or flame.
2. Scald - caused by steam or hot liquid.
3. Chemical burn - caused by chemical action upon the tissue.
4. Electrical burn - caused by passage of electrical current through tissue, usually deep and severe.
5. Electrical flash burn - caused by electrical flash; usually less severe.

B. Degrees of burns.

1. First degree: skin reddened.
2. Second degree: blisters present.
3. Third degree: destruction of tissue.

Extensive burns are usually of different degrees in different areas.

C. Dangers.

1. Shock.
 - a. Loss of body fluids.
 - b. Pain.
2. Infection.
 - a. Unprotected tissues.
 - b. Disruption of blood flow.
3. Healing is slow, often requiring long periods of hospitalization; death results from many extensive burns.

D. First aids.

1. Small burns - both in area and in degree.
 - a. Burn ointment provided.
 - b. Sterile dressing and bandage.

2. Extensive burns.
 - a. If in auto or public place, wrap in blanket, take to medical care.
 - b. If at home (or on ship).
 - 1) Remove clothing, except that which sticks to burned area.
 - 2) Wrap in wet sheets.
 - 3) Maintain body warmth, treat for shock.
3. Alternative treatment.
 - a. Immerse in cold water immediately.
 - b. Keep burned area in cold water until pain is gone.
4. Some DON'TS.
 - a. Don't use absorbent cotton on a burn.
 - b. Don't remove wax or metallic substances from burn.
 - c. Don't open blisters.
 - d. Don't cover with lubricating grease, oil, etc.
5. Sunburn - treat as burn due to heat.
6. Chemical burns.
 - a. Wash skin with copious amounts of water
 - b. Apply ointment, dressing and bandage.
 - c. If eye is affected, after washing, apply ophthalmic ointment.
 - 1) Olive oil and milk may be used.

VIII. Illness Due to Heat and Cold.

A. Illness due to heat.

1. Sunstroke or heart stroke.
2. Heat exhaustion.
3. Heat cramps.
 - a. Cramps usually start in abdomen, spread to arms and legs.
 - b. Cramps leave in order of occurrence.

B. Prevention.

1. Use of salt.
2. Proper clothing.
3. Good dietary habits.
4. Adequate intake of fluids.
 - a. Not including alcohol.
 - b. Extremely cold drinks not desirable.

C. Comparative symptoms of heat stroke and heat exhaustion.

<u>Heat Stroke</u>	<u>Heat Exhaustion</u>
1. Hot, dry skin.	Pale, moist skin.
2. Flushed face.	Pale face.
3. Fast, full pulse.	Weak pulse (normal to rapid).
4. High temperature (104-107).	Low temperature to normal.
5. Possible unconsciousness.	Usually conscious.
6. Headache.	Headache.
7. Dizziness.	Dizziness.
8. Nausea and vomiting	Nausea and vomiting.
	Muscular weakness.

D. First aid.

1. Heat stroke.

- a. Place in cool, shady place.
- b. Apply cold applications to head.
- c. Cool body gradually.
 - 1) Wrap in sheet and saturate with cool water.
 - 2) Give cool bath with massage.
 - 3) Sponge with cold water or alcohol.
 - 4) Give salt water (no liquids if unconscious).
- d. Seek medical assistance.

2. Heat exhaustion.

- a. Remove to circulating air.
- b. Keep patient lying flat and warm.
- c. May give stimulants.
- d. Give salt water (if conscious).
 - 1) One teaspoonful per pint.
 - 2) Sip slowly.

3. Heat cramps.

- a. Same as heat exhaustion.
- b. Sometimes firm hand pressure on muscles will give relief.

E. Illness due to cold.

1. Frostbite.

- a. Bring to warm room.
- b. Warm member in tepid water.
- c. Warm drinks, preferably coffee or tea.

2. Prolonged exposure to cold.

- a. Bring to warm room.
- b. Hot drinks, preferably coffee or tea.
- c. Bathe in tub of warm water (not hot).
- d. Rewarm as rapidly as possible.
- e. Seek medical assistance.

IX. Medical Emergencies.

A. Heart failure.

1. Symptom types.

- a. Cases resembling fainting.
- b. Cases having pain.
 - 1) Chest or upper abdomen.
 - 2) May extend along left arm.
 - 3) Fear of death may be great.
 - 4) Nausea and vomiting may occur.
- c. Cases marked by shortness of breath.

2. First aid.

- a. Keep patient lying down; if short of breath, may propped up to aid breathing.
- b. Keep patient quiet.
- c. Provide moderate warmth.
- d. Oxygen inhalation.
- e. Medical assistance.

- 3. General note: when the patient is unconscious, it will probably be impossible to know whether heart failure has occurred. If conscious, patient may give helpful information. A mild attack may be followed by a serious one. The first aid procedures cannot be harmful if followed when you are in doubt as to the cause of unconsciousness.

B. Apoplexy (stroke or cerebral hemorrhage).

1. Symptoms.

- a. Usually unconscious (always severe).
- b. Face usually flushed.

- c. Pulse full and slow.
- d. Pupils may be unequal in size.
- e. Breathing may be very heavy (almost snoring).
- f. Paralysis may be present.

2. First aid.

- a. Head and shoulders raised, rest of body flat.
- b. Cold applications (ice bag) to head.
- c. Loosen clothing.
- d. Moderate warmth.
- e. Keep quiet.
- f. Oxygen inhalation.
- g. NO stimulants.

C. Epilepsy (fits).

1. Symptoms.

- a. Onset sudden, although patient sometimes realizes attack is coming.
- b. Patient sometimes cries out, then falls to floor.
 - 1) Loses consciousness.
 - 2) Thrashes about.
 - 3) May bite tongue.
 - 4) Duration may be a few minutes or much longer.
- c. Some show only a moment's unconsciousness and no other symptoms.
- d. Drowsiness usually follows attack.

2. First aid.

- a. Protect patient from injuring self while thrashing about; use only mild restraint.

- b. Protect the tongue, such as with a pencil as a bit so that patient cannot bite his tongue.
- c. Give no stimulant.
- d. Do not rub arms or legs, etc.
- e. Permit patient to sleep.

D. Abdominal discomfort.

1. Appendicitis.

a. Symptoms.

- 1) Varied.
- 2) Pain usually, may be over entire abdomen or in right lower quadrant.
- 3) Nausea and vomiting possible. When accompanied by pain, suspect appendicitis.
- 4) Constipation is common.
- 5) Remember, it can occur at any age.

b. First aid.

- 1) Give NO laxatives.
- 2) Give NO food or water.
- 3) Apply ice bag for pain relief, use NO heat.
- 4) Get medical assistance promptly.

2. Diarrhea.

- a. Water, if no danger of appendicitis.
- b. Withhold food for day.
- c. See physician if problem persists.
 - 1) Use medication recommended by physician.

3. Gas or "acute indigestion."

- a. Always be suspicious of heart disorders, particularly if pain and discomfort are continuous.

E. Blisters (not due to burns).

1. First aid.

- a. Cleanse area thoroughly with soap and water.
- b. Sterilize needle in open flame.
- c. Puncture blister at edge.
- d. Apply sterile dressing and bandage.

F. Miscellaneous conditions.

1. Boils and carbuncles.

- a. Caused by germs penetrating hair roots and glands of skin.
- b. Treatment.
 - 1) DO NOT squeeze, this can drive infection into deeper tissues.
 - 2) Boils on face or inside nose are especially dangerous.
 - 3) Apply hot packs (salt or epsom salts in water 3 to 6 tablespoons per quart).
 - 4) DO NOT touch or rub discharge from boil.
 - 5) Medical assistance is desirable.

2. Colds.

- a. Rest.
- b. Fluids.
- c. Aspirin.
- d. Other medication as prescribed by doctor.

3. Corns.

- a. DO NOT cut; wounds on feet heal slowly and are potentially dangerous.

4. Hernia (rupture).
 - a. Caused by loop of gut pushing against weak spot in abdominal wall and becoming pinched by muscular contraction.
 - b. First aid.
 - 1) Seek medical assistance if possible; some hernias can be emergencies.
 - 2) Lay patient on back, use cold compresses to area.
 - 3) If this does not help, lay patient on back and bring knees gradually to chest so buttocks are elevated.
 - 4) If this does not help, revert to item (2) above.
5. Insect bites.
 - a. Cold compresses.
 - b. Ammonia water compresses.
 - c. Calmitol ointment or calamine lotion.
 - d. Paste of baking soda and cold cream.
 - e. If poisonous insect; quiet, and a hot tub bath for abdominal cramps, adequate warmth.
 - f. Medical assistance if poisonous.

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FIELD NOTETAKING

1. Field Notetaking.

A. The importance of field notetaking in general.

1. Field notes can be considered investigative crutches.
2. Notes are an essential tool of trade of police work.
3. It is important that a new police officer begin by forming proper habits in the use of field notetaking so it will eventually become second nature.
4. Field notetaking assists the officer in several ways.
 - a. The officer's memory and recollection are aided by notes taken in the field.
 - 1) An officer may be called to testify years after an incident has occurred. Notes are necessary at that time because memory alone would not suffice.
 - 2) The jury will be aware of the limitations of memory. Notes that were taken at the scene give the officer's testimony more weight, especially if the officer impresses the jury as being a capable and reliable person. The jury knows that notes do not change with time and personal feeling.
 - b. Report writing and investigations conducted by a patrolman.
 - 1) An offense report is not always written immediately. Other calls may be responded to, prior to writing the report.
 - 2) Be aware that time will affect memory and retention, just as other intervening cases will have an effect.
 - 3) Use the notes to bring back memories of what happened. They will help review the steps taken. Looking at the notes the officer can decide if anything has been overlooked.
 - 4) Notes generally contain opinions not listed in the completed offense report.
 - c. The notes can be useful as an aid to interrogation.

- 1) Details are important in interrogation.
 - 2) They may make or break the interrogation. Memory alone lacks full details.
 - 3) They may be used to counteract changes in a person's story. Many persons change stories for various reasons. Notes emphasize what was said in the first instance the story was related.
 - 4) Signature of person on an original statement is generally advisable. This helps in court in the event the witness tells a different story and reduces the chances of a fabricated story.
- d. These notes can be used to reconstruct the crime scene.
- 1) Fitting the pieces of a confused scene is difficult.
 - a) Pressure of protecting the crime scene is added to the job of interviewing witnesses.
 - b) Instructions from supervision frequently tend to add to the confusion.
 - c) Marking evidence confiscated is an important task which obliterates the crime scene from memory without notes.
 - 2) Notes extensively and comprehensively compiled help lay out the scene.
 - a) They insure that the officer will have organized thoughts at the station. They get the picture "straight" in the mind.
 - b) They show if something is missing by chronological and systematic detailing of what was done.

B. Equipment needed for field notetaking consists of the following:

1. The notebook carried by the officer should be about 3 x 6 inches. This makes it small enough to be carried at all times. Paper in the notebook should be lined since it allows more to be put on the paper and tends to make it neater.

2. Writing implements are tools as important as the flashlight or nightstick. The officer should always carry two writing implements. It can be embarrassing to run out of ink in the middle of a notetaking session. It would even be more embarrassing if no one else has a pen.
3. A tape measure is handy but not absolutely necessary.
 - a. It aids in making good reports.
 - b. A tape measure is helpful for certain measurements to be taken such as the width of a jimmy mark or the size of a broken window or measuring the length of a knife blade to see if it is a concealed weapon. A ten-foot steel tape would be adequate.
4. Graph paper is also very handy to the officer.
 - a. Neat and accurate drawings can be made with graph paper.
 - b. Graph paper enables you to draw good overhead views of the object.
 - c. It requires only a little practice to use graph paper.
 - d. It also enables you to draw three-dimensional views.
5. Tracing paper can be used in the following ways:
 - a. It can be used to describe an object that was stolen.
 - b. It can be used for drawing a facsimile to attach to your report.
6. A compass and/or drawing map may be of value to some officers, but most will know the streets.
7. Chalk can be of value to the officer.
 - a. It can be used to outline the position of a body in an assault case.
 - b. It has value in traffic cases when an auto must be moved.
 - c. Measurements still can be taken at a later time.

C. Upkeep and utilization of the notebook.

1. Good procedures regarding utilization and maintenance of the notebook should be developed and followed. They are:
 - a. Make sure that your name is in the book.
 - 1) Since most police-type notebooks are grain surfaced, it is difficult to put the name on them.
 - 2) Don't lose or misplace the notebooks - they are continually found lying around the squad room or at victims' homes.
 - 3) A lost or mislaid notebook may present a problem in identifying the owner.
 - b. Keep the notebook supplied with paper.
 - 1) It is easy to run out of paper. The officer should keep extra paper in his carrying case.
 - 2) Too often an officer puts the information on 3 x 5 cards that are to be used for field interrogation or abandoned vehicles. It is poor policy to start this habit.
 - c. Every officer should have a notebook. Don't rely on the backs of roll call or other scrap paper.
 - 1) Such a system lacks uniformity.
 - 2) It is easy for the notes to get lost.
 - 3) The notes may not be available when needed most.
 - 4) Such a habit tends to promote sloppy notetaking.
 - 5) This system tends to produce information which is generally incomplete.
 - d. The officer should file old notes properly.
 - 1) Full notebooks should be filed in a handy place.
 - 2) The officer should retain all notebooks he has used.

- a) An appeal of the case is possible.
- b) Civil actions may be started, which would require having the notes at hand.
- 3) Filing the notes properly saves time in the long run.
- e. The officer should not crowd the paper.
 - 1) Paper is cheap.
 - 2) Sacrificing clarity for economy of space is a bad bargain.
- f. A rubber band or paper clip may be used as a marker or page separator.
 - 1) In use, the officer should place a thick rubber band around the cover of the notebook and then around the last page used.
 - 2) This will make it very easy to open the book to the next clean page to be used. This will save the officer the unnecessary thumbing through pages in trying to locate a place to start writing.
- g. The officer should be generous with the time notations.
 - 1) When taking notes at the scene, it is easy for the officer to obtain time estimates.
 - 2) The next day, or in the many days to follow, this becomes increasingly more difficult.
 - 3) In court, the defense attorney will often spend time harping on the exact time or the estimated times of certain happenings.
- h. The officer should make use of capital letters as abbreviations to denote who a particular person is and his relationship to the case.
 - 1) A capital letter should be used for this purpose - for example, "C" for Complaint, "V" for Victim and "S" for suspect.
 - 2) If there are several victims or suspects, they should be numbered "S-1," "S-2" and so on.

- 3) They may be indicated by putting the circled letter in front of the name.
- i. The officer should use uniform habits in the location of certain information.
 - 1) If each special piece of information is located in the same spot each time, then it will be easy to check on the possibility of something being missing.
 - 2) Each officer can set up his own individual system.
- j. Make sure that the notes are legible, understandable, concise, accurate and complete.
 - 1) If you have to scribble, immediately recopy the notes legibly when the pressure is off. The second set of notes will still be acceptable in court.
 - 2) The law will allow two officers to make just one set of notes for both of them to use, so this makes it more important that they are legible.
 - 3) The notes should be understandable in that they convey the intended message and not mislead the reader. The writer should always write with the thought in mind that others may have to read and understand the notes.
 - 4) The notes should be concise in that they do not contain unnecessary material or that they are repetitious in content. Striving for the facts will help in this matter.
 - 5) The notes should always be accurate, because when an officer's memory fails him, the notes are actually what is sworn to when testifying on the stand under oath.
 - 6) They can be complete if they answer the basic questions of: what; when; where; why; and how.
- D. When to take notes.
 - 1. Generally speaking, the officer should not start taking notes right away.

2. First hear what the complainant has to say.
 3. Many people restrict their information when they see it all being written down.
 4. There is also the possibility that after the officer has written several pages in his notebook, there will be the realization that the complainant is insane and is expressing a delusion. Taking this type of complaint is a waste of time and effort.
 5. Let the complainant or witness talk for a little while until the gist of the problem is obtained, and the officer has a chance to size up the complainant.
 6. When the whole story is heard once, it can make a difference to the legibility of the notes because the officer has a general picture of the problem.
 7. Notes are taken whenever there is information to be secured, but generally they are taken when:
 - a. The officer is taking a routine complaint.
 - b. The officer is investigating a crime scene for evidence.
 - 1) The officer should restrict activity to writing down the location of evidence, not collecting it.
 - 2) The key is: record, but don't touch.
 - c. After the officer has met a possible informant.
 - 1) The notes should always include the names of people met.
 - 2) In addition, they should include the possible use as informants.
 - d. When the patrol officer notices something that arouses his suspicion. The notes should include all the known people in the group as well as all the license numbers.
- E. The process of obtaining information and recording it in a notebook.

1. There are two types of persons who possess information.
 - a. The person who willingly imparts information to the officer.
 - b. The person who hesitantly imparts information to the officer.
2. The complainant in the case is generally willing to give information and to identify some witnesses.
3. Some witnesses do not want to get involved.
 - a. Part of this reluctance stems from a fear of court.
 - b. Another common reason for reluctance of witnesses is a fear of reprisals by culprits or friends.
4. Don't approach crowds with "Who saw the shooting or accident?"
5. Some techniques will assist you in obtaining information for your report. They are:
 - a. Note license numbers of all vehicles leaving the scene when you arrive.
 - 1) They could be the perpetrators.
 - 2) They could be additional witnesses.
 - b. Upon arrival, stand back and look the crowd over.
 - 1) Look for people explaining things to those standing next to them.
 - 2) Approach the person with, "They tell me you saw this thing happen; would you mind telling me what you saw?"
 - 3) Try applied psychology on the witnesses.
 - a) Scratch your head as though confronted with a very difficult problem.
 - b) Say, "Boy, this is really a tough one to figure out; we're really stymied on this one."

- c) Open the invitation for someone to be the "big wheel" and tell the "experts" how it all happened.
- c. With large crowds and many witnesses, the officer should observe the following:
- 1) Do not spend too much time with one person.
 - 2) Obtain a quick general statement of what happened from one person.
 - 3) Obtain the names, addresses and phone numbers of the rest.
 - 4) By the time the officer is finished with one long-winded witness, the others will have left.
 - 5) When the officer has talked to one witness, ask him if he saw anyone else at the scene when the incident happened. The witness can often point out someone for the officer to talk to next.
- d. The officer should be alert for planted witnesses, particularly in traffic cases. There have been many cases on record where a passenger of one car might jump out and mill with the crowd, then when officers arrived, volunteered information that would help the driver of the car in which he was riding.
- e. The average citizen is not an expert witness.
- 1) Some police officers in the field are often poor witnesses themselves.
 - 2) They should not expect too much from the average citizen. The citizen can be helped to a great extent by receiving a series of guidelines from the patrol officer.
 - a) The officer must be very careful not to suggest answers to the victim or witness.
 - b) The best method of determining height and weight is through comparison. The officer can point out someone else, or he can use himself as a standard, in which cases he should know the exact height, his hairline, the bridge of his nose, the tip of his nose, his chin and his shoulders. Then when

- the officer is questioning the witness as to height, he can move his hand up and down in front of his face, and when the witness indicates the approximate height, the officer can compare it to his own facial anatomy and get a fair idea of the suspect's height.
- c) If the witness states that he can't describe the suspect, and is probably sincere in his belief that he can't, the officer should not let it drop there.
 - d) Very good descriptions can be obtained from witnesses when the officer tries to draw out particulars, the officer might start with the various aspects of Portrait Parle, and when each possibility is presented, it might stimulate the witness' memory on each particular feature.
- f. In sex offense cases, particularly where obscene phone calls are involved, the Modus Operandi or Method of Operation is most important.
- 1) This means that the victim must relate the exact words of the phone call.
 - 2) Often the Modus Operandi alone will identify the suspect, since the offender usually sticks to one method of operation.
 - 3) Many times a woman, the usual victim of such calls, is quite embarrassed to repeat the exact "filthy" language used in the phone call.
 - 4) The complainant will sometimes even be reluctant to go into the general theme of the calls, and just refer to them as "nasty."
 - 5) There are two techniques that can be used here.
 - a) If the woman is married, she can tell her husband, and then the husband can repeat it to the officer.
 - b) The woman can write the exact text of the message down on paper. The officer should assure her that the message will not be looked at until he leaves. This will save the complainant some embarrassment.

F. What notes to take.

1. The officer need not be a literary genius to write a good report.
2. If an officer obtains the basic information, the report will be complete even though it might not be a literary masterpiece.
3. The following is a list of the variations that can be derived from the above.
 - a. WHO.
 - Who was the victim?
 - Who was the complainant?
 - Who discovered the crime?
 - Who saw or heard anything of importance?
 - Who had a motive for committing the crime?
 - Who committed the crime?
 - Who helped him?
 - Who was talked to?
 - Who had access to the means of committing the crime?
 - Who worked on the case?
 - Who had access to the crime scene?
 - Who search for, identified, and gathered the evidence?
 - To whom was the evidence turned over?
 - With whom did the victim associate?
 - ~~With whom did the suspect associate?~~
 - With whom was the victim last seen?
 - With whom did the suspect commit the crime?
 - With whom did the officers talk, seeking information?

b. WHAT.

- What was the crime that was committed?
- What are the elements of the crime?
- What actions were performed by the suspect, before and after the crime?
- What actually happened?
- What do the witnesses know about it?
- What evidence was obtained?
- What was done with the evidence?
- What tools were used?
- What action did the officers take?
- What further action should be taken?
- What knowledge, skill or strength was needed to commit the crime?
- What other agencies were or need to be notified?
- What witnesses were not contacted?
- What time was the crime committed?
- What time was it reported?
- What time did the officers and the investigators arrive?
- What time were the witnesses contacted?
- What type of transportation was used?
- What was the motive for the crime, or suspected motive?
- What weapons were used.
- What other crime could be associated with this one?

c. WHERE.

- Where was the crime committed?
- Where was the crime discovered?
- Where was the entry made?
- Where was the exit made?
- Where were the tools obtained that were used in the crime?
- Where was the victim found?
- Where was the suspect seen during the crime?
- Where was the suspect last seen?
- Where were the witnesses during the crime?
- Where did the suspect live, and where does he now live?
- Where did and does he now hang out?
- Where is the suspect now?
- Where would the suspect likely go?
- Where was the evidence marked?
- Where was the evidence found?
- Where was the evidence stored?
- Where was the perpetrator when he "cased" the job?

d. WHEN.

- When was the crime committed?
- When was it discovered?
- When were the authorities notified?
- When did they arrive at the scene?
- When was the victim last seen?

- When was any arrest made?
- When will a complaint be signed?
- When did the witnesses hear anything unusual?
- When did the suspect "case" the job?

e. HOW.

- How was the crime committed?
 - How did the criminal get to the scene?
 - How did the criminal leave the scene?
 - How did the perpetrator obtain the information necessary to commit the crime?
 - How was the crime discovered?
 - How were the tools for the job obtained?
 - How were the tools or weapons used?
 - How was the crime reported?
 - How was the arrest made?
 - How much damage was done?
 - How much property or money was taken?
 - How much did the victim claim was taken?
 - How much known information is being withheld?
- f. WHY.
- Why was the crime committed?
 - Why was the crime reported?
 - Why was the crime reported late?
 - Why were the witnesses reluctant to give information?
 - Why is the suspect lying?

Why did the perpetrator pick the particular time to commit the crime?

Why did the perpetrator pick the particular day to commit the crime?

G. The procedure to be used in notetaking.

1. Always use the exact terminology of the person used in giving the statement. If it is an actual statement, use quotation marks. Do not correct it grammatically, or interpret it.
2. When taking statements from several witnesses, separate them. If the witnesses are present during each other's statements, it may affect their own statements. People are also sometimes reluctant to tell everything in front of other people.
3. Strive for facts rather than opinions, and never label an opinion as a fact. Sometimes it is important in a case to obtain personal opinions, but they should be very carefully labeled as opinions.
4. Since these reports are usually the basis of an offense report, it is important that phone numbers be obtained on all witnesses.
5. Since an investigator might have to follow up on the case the next day, it is most important that phone numbers be obtained on all witnesses.
 - a. Not only should the home phone number be obtained, but also the phone number of the place of employment and extensions, if any.
 - b. The next day when the investigator wants to talk to the witness, he might spend half an hour driving out to his home just to learn that the witness is not home and then spend another half-hour driving back to headquarters. One phone call would have saved an hour's time.
6. Don't be too skimpy in the details. It might look complete right now, but how will it look a year from now? Will the officer be able to recall the whole case a year from now just from the notes?

H. The three basic styles of notetaking.

1. There are three basic styles of notetaking.
2. They are:
 - a. The narrative style in the language of the witness, taken down as the witness tells it.
 - 1) The narrative style has the advantage of giving the officer free rein and not restricting the witness to the point where he leaves out vital or important information.
 - 2) The narrative style has the disadvantage of being too long and a burden in notetaking.
 - b. The question and answer style of notetaking. This style is usually restricted to the obtaining of specific information from witnesses, such as in the investigation of traffic accidents.
 - 1) The question and answer style has a limited use.
 - 2) The question and answer style is commonly used in confessions and statements of admission.
 - 3) The question and answer style has the advantage of brevity and the fact that it only contains the crux of the matter.
 - 4) The disadvantage is that something can easily be disregarded.
 - c. The chronological style of notetaking. This style is often used in taking notes from a suspect or person whose time must be accounted for. It is also used in taking notes on occurrences covering a long period of time.

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REPORT WRITING

1. Report Writing.
 - A. The definition of a report.
 1. To give an account of and/or give information about, something seen or investigated.
 2. A report may be oral or written.
 - B. The purpose of a report by a police officer.
 1. The main purpose of a report is to communicate to others the information you have obtained and/or the action taken. Frequently such reports are used in a court of law.
 2. A report is also an administrative tool.
 - a. A report is sometimes used by the detective or special investigator to learn what has occurred at the scene of a crime.
 - b. A prosecutor uses reports to formulate the prosecution of a case.
 - c. Officers on the other shifts frequently use reports to learn what is happening on their beat.
 - C. The requirements of an effective report.
 1. A report must be factual.
 - a. Do not use your opinion as a factual statement.
 - b. No half-truths which make the writer look good can be tolerated.
 - c. Correct spelling of proper names is essential to a good report.
 2. It must be clear to the extent that statements in a report have only one meaning and be capable of only one interpretation.
 3. An effective report must be complete.
 - a. Who is involved at the incident?
 - b. When did it happen?

- c. Where did it happen?
 - d. What happened?
 - e. Why did it happen?
 - f. How did it happen?
4. Reports must be concise to be efficacious.
- a. If a statement has no direct bearing on the matter it should be omitted.
 - b. A long report is not necessarily a good report.
 - c. Don't pad the report in an attempt to impress your superiors.
5. A report must be impartial.
- a. Do not automatically assume the complainant in a matter is right; remember the other subject in a dispute must have an equal opportunity to present his side of the case.
 - b. Be fair and honest and avoid preconceived ideas in a report.
- D. Writing techniques used in reports.
1. Make every word in your report count. Avoid using unnecessary words.
 2. Put life into your verbs. The verb "stated" doesn't describe how a man said something. Did he shout or cry or whisper?
 3. Express yourself simply without fanfare.
 4. Keep your sentences and paragraphs short.
 5. Learn what your supervisor expects in a report and adhere to it.
 6. Reread your report and correct the grammatical errors prior to submission to supervisor.
 7. If your supervisor makes changes in your report, find out why he did, so that you won't repeat the mistakes the next time.

E. Writing rules to be used in reports.

1. Three areas of difficulty in writing reports are the following:

- a. Spelling is frequently a problem for patrolmen.
- b. Punctuation of words is important for both spelling and oral reports.
- c. Diction is difficult for many recruit and veteran officers.

2. Definitions and examples of the use of words.

- a. Adjective is a word used to describe a person, place or thing.

EXAMPLES: It is a hot day.
He wore a green suit.

- b. Adverb is a word used to modify an adjective.

EXAMPLES: He became very tired.
The witness spoke rapidly.

- c. Antonym is a word of opposite meaning.

EXAMPLE: Good is the antonym of bad.

- d. Conjunction is a word that joins words or groups of words.

EXAMPLES: He purchased the boat and the motor.
He tried to swim but he could not.
I will go, if I have the money.

- e. Consonant: Any letter in the alphabet other than the vowels (a - e - i - o - u).

- f. Infinitive: Usually consists of two words; the first word is always to, and the verb which denotes the action or state of being.

EXAMPLES: To shoot.
To drive.
To write.

- g. Interjection: A word or group of words which expresses emotion.

EXAMPLES: Oh!
Hurrah!
Ha!

- h. Noun: The name of a person, place or thing.

EXAMPLES: Tom.
Detroit.
Gun.

- i. Participle: A word that partakes of the nature of of a verb and of an adjective. The present participle ends in the suffix "ing." The past participle usually ends on the suffix "ed," "d," "t," "en," or "n."

EXAMPLES: The taking of a human life is serious.
Informed of the death, he cried.

- j. Prefix is one or more letters or syllables combined with the beginning of a word to modify its meaning.

EXAMPLES: Premarital.
Oversimplify.
Nontaxable.

- k. Preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to show its position, direction or location.

EXAMPLES: He works in a hardware store.
The bird flew into its cage.
The plane landed at the airport.

- l. Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

EXAMPLES: He saw the gun.
Tom, who smokes, has cancer.

- m. Suffix: Consists of one or more letters or syllables combined with the ending of a word to modify its meaning.

EXAMPLES: Certainly.
Attainment.
Fearful.

- n. Synonym is a word having nearly the same meaning as another word.

EXAMPLES: Accept as to receive.
Fearless as to intrepid.
Hopeless as to despondent.

- o. Verb is a word expressing action or the state of being.

EXAMPLES: Run.
Seem.
Is.

- 1) Active voice: Verb used when the person or thing performs the action.

EXAMPLES: The car struck the onlooker.
Officer Stevens arrested the driver.

- 2) Passive voice: The class of verb which asserts that the subject is acted upon.

EXAMPLES: The man was struck by the car.
The driver was being arrested by Stevens.

- p. Vowels: The letters a - e - i - o - u.

- F. Spelling rules to be followed in report writing.

1. The letter "i" before "e," except after "c," or when sounded as "a," as in neighbor or weigh.

- a. EXAMPLES: "i" before "e."

believe	shield
chief	relieve
field	retrieve
niece	thief
piece	wield

- b. EXAMPLES: "ei" after "c."

ceiling	deceive
receive	receipt

c. EXAMPLES: "ei" sounded as "a."

freight	neighbor
sleigh	vein
surveillance	weight

d. EXCEPTIONS to the "ei" or "ie" rule:

weird	height
foreign	seize
either	leisure

2. To form the plural of nouns ending in "y" or the third person singular of verbs ending in "y," follow these two rules.

a. If "y" is preceded by a vowel, add an "s."

EXAMPLES:	chimney	chimneys
	valley	valleys
	monkey	monkeys

b. If "y" is preceded by a consonant, change the "y" to an "i" and add "es."

EXAMPLES:	butterly	butterflies
	cry	cries
	try	tries

3. If a noun ends in "ation," spell the adjective with "able;" if the noun does not end in "ation," spell the adjective with "ible."

EXAMPLES:	commendation	commendable
	deduction	deductible
	adoration	adorable
	permission	permissible

Some words which do not follow this rule are:

honorable	feasible
breakable	eligible
unforgettable	

4. For words that end with "oo" or "ee," add suffixes without any change.

EXAMPLES:	flee + ing = fleeing
	see + ing = seeing
	woo + ed = wooed
	coo + ing = cooing
	taboo + ed = tabooed

G. Punctuation in report writing.

1. A period indicates the end of a written sentence or short statements. A period is also used after initials or abbreviations.

2. A comma is equivalent to a short pause in speaking.

a. A comma is placed before and after an appositive (a word or group of words which follow a noun or pronoun and describe or explain the appropriate noun or pronoun). If the appositive appears at the beginning of a sentence, the comma is used only after the appositive.

EXAMPLES: Tom, who spoke first, lied.
John Jones, a police officer, was married.
A good shot, Vic Smith, stepped forward.
A citizen of Flint, I voted Republican.

b. A comma is placed before and after a parenthetical expression (words that break the even rhythm of a sentence).

EXAMPLES: Henry, by the way, shot very well.
Bill, on the other hand, shot badly.
I feel, nevertheless, that Bill should go.

c. Contrasting expressions beginning with not, but not, or though not, are set off with commas.

EXAMPLES: Bill, not Luther, won the match.
The score, though not high, was sufficient.

d. A comma is used to set off the name of a person addressed.

EXAMPLES: Bill, are you ready?
You look sick, Mr. Jones.

e. Many introductory words are followed by a comma.

EXAMPLES: Yes, the time is short.
Well, are you or aren't you?
Now, do you believe me?
Why, I thought you were single.

- f. Commas are used to set off quoted material of one sentence.
- EXAMPLES: "Shoot first or I will," Tom yelled!
The doctor said, "Either slow down or stay home."
- g. When introducing participial and prepositional phrases, commas are used.
- EXAMPLES: Having no friends in town, John stayed at the hotel.
Of the jobs available, the one he liked best was that of a policeman.
- h. When an introductory infinitive phrase is not the subject of the sentence, a comma is used.
- EXAMPLE: To break the record, John had only to bowl his average score.
To find the clue, one must have keen eyes.
- i. Phrases and clauses that describe a person, place or thing and are not essential to the sentence, require commas.
- EXAMPLES: Joe Johnson, who is Chief of Police, writes novels.
- j. Essential phrases and clauses that describe a person, place or thing do not require commas.
- EXAMPLES: The officer who is chief of police writes novels.
- k. A comma is used before such conjunctions as for, though, although and because.
- EXAMPLES: I won't be home, although I should.
Bill lost the match, because his revolver misfired.
- l. Items in a series of three or more require commas.
- EXAMPLES: In his bag were cartridges, his gun, and brushes.
He stood up, aimed, and fired.
Tom, Henry, and John shot well.

- m. A comma is used between independent clauses if they are joined by a conjunction.
- EXAMPLES: Tom gave his version of the story, and then he walked to the pool's edge.
The scores ran high, but all the shooters were experts.
- n. A comma is used to separate words that otherwise might be mininterpreted.
- EXAMPLES: Before bowling, the men ate supper.
Below, the sea foamed a milky white.
He shot, one of the police shot back.
After the car stopped, the mare turned and ran.
- o. A comma is used to separate a dependent clause from an independent clause, however, the dependent clause must come first.
- EXAMPLES: When he ran, the officer yelled a warning.
3. The semicolon is classed in the range between a comma and a period.
- a. A semicolon is used between the clauses of a compound sentence if they are not connected by a conjunction.
- EXAMPLES: Men plant; birds reap.
You must write; I'll read.
- b. A semicolon is used before certain connecting words, such as moreover, consequently, thus, hence, therefore, besides, also, however, etc., which link two closely related clauses.
- EXAMPLES: Victor Smith is on the pistol team; moreover, he is the Captain of Detectives.
The competitor shot all bull's-eyes; consequently he was top scorer.
4. A colon is used to introduce a list of items, and in a direct quotation of two or more sentences.

EXAMPLES: The following conditions will be adhered to:

Interest at 6%;
 Payment in two years;
 No second mortgages;
 Life insurance for the amount of the loan.

The judge ruled: "In my opinion the corpus delicti has not been proven. Therefore I must insist the prosecutor refrain from attempting to introduce any admissions."

5. Quotation marks are used to delineate exact word usage. Periods and commas are placed inside quotation marks. Semicolons and colons are placed outside.

6. The question mark is used after a direct question.

EXAMPLES: What time is it?
 Where is the book?

7. The exclamation point is used to emphasize an expression.

EXAMPLES: Don't shoot!
 Halt!
 Ouch!

8. The dash is used, primarily, to indicate an abrupt change in thought.

EXAMPLES: He shot four - no, five - times.
 Today is Monday - no, Tuesday.

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POLICE COMMUNICATIONS

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I. Police Communications.

A. Introduction to police communications.

1. Police communications is the backbone of police operations. Without proper communications, the modern police department would be lost.
2. When police vehicles were first used, there were no police radio communications as we know them today. The system of notifying patrol vehicles of emergencies and calls for service was handled by the installation of red lights at the major intersections of the town or city.
 - a. When headquarters wanted to contact a police car, they would pull a switch that would send power to the red lights at the intersections.
 - b. The next time the patrol car passed the intersection and saw the red light on, the driver would go to headquarters for the assignment.
 - c. When telephones became more common, the officer would call headquarters when he observed the light signal.
3. When radios were first installed in police vehicles, they were usually just receivers and did not have transmitters for answering calls. The radio operator would broadcast the calls, and hope that they were received.
4. Today most departments have three-way radios where the patrol car in the field may not only carry on a two-way conversation with the base radio, but may also carry on the same type of conversation with other police vehicles in the field. Recent developments by the military in the area of field communications, indicate that law enforcement communications will have much to look forward to in the future.

- B. The ABC's of radio transmission. A department can have some of the finest communications equipment in the country, but its use becomes greatly impaired if the officers in the field are not familiar with the proper use of the equipment, and do not adhere to the basic rules of radio procedure. One of the best ways to insure the proper use of air time is to follow the ABC's of radio transmission.

1. Accuracy is necessary to get the desired information to the receiving party without having the message later re-checked over the air for possible errors. There is also the danger to the officer in the field, should improper information lead him to believe that there are "no wants" on a suspect that he has just stopped, when in fact that suspect is wanted and classed as dangerous.
 - a. This lack of accuracy can be the fault of either the officer who first checked the suspect, or the records and radio personnel at headquarters.
 - b. The major cause of inaccuracy is haste and impatience. The old saying that "haste makes waste" certainly applies to police communications.
2. Brevity is increasingly important due to the expanding volume of radio traffic. This makes it essential there be no unnecessary repetitious words in the transmissions.
 - a. The English language involves quite a lot of redundancy. The important point in good communication is understanding and clarity. Sometimes we can make a simple message confusing just by saying too much.
 - 1) Officers should avoid starting "word battles" over the air because of personal animosities.
 - 2) If an officer has some legitimate complaints, he should direct them through channels rather than make smart remarks over the air.
 - b. It takes a mature officer just to remain silent when he has borne the brunt of some derogatory remark over the air, or when the tone of the dispatcher's voice was sarcastic or cynical.
3. Courtesy is necessary for rapid and efficient service.
 - a. The courtesy in police communications is more of a form of respect than it is flowery words. In fact, brevity demands that courtesy not be expressed in words; the officer who says "thank you very much" over the air is practicing good human relations, but he is taking up very much valuable time.
 - b. Anger and disrespect can also be shown in the tone of voice, and it should be guarded against since it promotes a similar reply.

- c. There is a practice in many departments of juggling the transmitter button when someone "goofs up" on the air, or says something that is humorous to the other officers in the field.
- 1) This is a bad procedure, and can jam up the air just when a fellow officer may be trying to call for help.
 - 2) There have been many instances on crowded frequencies where officers in trouble could not get through to transmit their call for help.
4. Clarity, the second "C". Clarity in police communications depends heavily upon semantics and phonetics.
- a. Semantics: Semantics is defined as, "significant meaning, the science of meanings," as contrasted with phonetics (the science of sounds). Proper semantics would be the transference of thoughts or ideas between people through communication without a loss or perversion of the original meaning or intent. The following are two ways to improve semantics.
- 1) Learn through experience what the most common errors are.
 - a) If an officer tries to communicate with someone and finds that he is misunderstood or has trouble getting the idea over to him, he can give the problem some thought with the intent of finding a better way of expressing it the next time.
 - b) He can talk to others and, if he can, find out how they would express this thought, or just listen to others when then try to communicate in the same or similar situations.
 - c) Experience helps considerably, since in law enforcement as in all fields, there is eventually a repetition of most situations and problems.
 - 2) Think before talking. If an officer will just spend a few seconds thinking before he transmits, he will find that he has little trouble with most communications over the air.

- a) Too many officers grab for the mike, press the transmitter button and then think of what they want to say. This is quite easy to do when the situation involves an urgent matter.
 - b) The important think to remember is that the message be received and UNDERSTOOD, or the time made precious by the emergency would be wasted.
- b. Phonetics: Phonetics is the science of sounds - the understanding of a communication through the proper sounding of words.
- 1) Radio interference and distortion. This can often be corrected to some extent by the proper adjusting of the "squench" control. Changing geographic position or having the message relayed by other units can also help.
 - 2) Poor pronunciation. An officer should not transmit over the air if he has gum or food in his mouth.
 - a) He should face the microphone at all times, and speak about one inch from it.
 - b) If he is traveling at high speed with the siren going, he may cut out the noise by placing the microphone on the side of his throat and then transmitting his message.
 - c) Similar sounding words and letters. There are many words in the English language that sound similar. There are also many letters in the alphabet that sound the same. They follow:
 B C D E G P T V Z
 A J K
 I Y
 M N
 Q U

- 3) Phonetics may be improved through various efforts on the part of the officer, such as, by not speaking too fast, or not speaking slovenly; by talking with the mouth open, forming words well, and by using the phonetic alphabet when the word is likely to cause trouble; for example, in the case of unusual surnames.
5. Other aids to better communications.
- a. Don't assume anything. In the field of law enforcement, matters are often of a serious nature. Make sure that it is plainly stated, and that all the important facts are included.
- b. Don't make extra-long transmissions. Someone may have an emergency message and could not cut in.
- 1) It is best to take breathing spells between long sentences in case an emergency should arise.
 - 2) This would allow them to cut in between sentences. It also makes it easier on the person who is copying the message.
- c. Don't hang your hat on the microphone. Many times an officer will take his hat off while in the police car, and because it is convenient, will hang it on the transmitter button. Sometimes the weight of the hat will depress the microphone button, and two things can result.
- 1) First, the activating of the transmitter can interfere with other messages being transmitted.
 - 2) Secondly, and it has happened, everything either officer says to his partner will be broadcast.
- d. Don't shout into the microphone. Shouting will not make the dispatcher hear you any better.
- C. Operation of the police radio. Since many police departments use Motorola equipment in their vehicles, this will be the type of equipment discussed.
1. On-off switch. On all late model radios the on-off toggle switch is located in the upper right-hand corner of the control head, and is used to turn the radio on and off.

2. Volume control knob. This knob is located on the lower right-hand corner of the control head, and is used to control the volume of the receiver to the loudspeaker. It increases the receiver volume when turned clockwise.
 3. Squelch control knob. The squelch control knob can eliminate the objectionable background noise of the receiver. To utilize this device properly, the knob should be turned counter-clockwise until static is heard. Then it should be turned clockwise just enough to eliminate the static.
 4. Receiver pilot lamp. The receiver pilot lamp is green in color and is usually on the left side of the control head. When on, it indicates that the equipment is in the standby position, ready to receive or transmit.
 5. Transmitter pilot lamp. The transmitter pilot lamp is red in color, and is to the right of the receiver pilot lamp. When it is lighted, it indicates that the transmitter button on the microphone has been depressed, and that the transmitter is operating.
- D. Legal responsibility.
1. Depending on the rules governing the particular class of station being operated, the larger departments will not hire a radio dispatcher unless he holds at least a second-class radio license. All police officers using a radio, while this man is on duty, do so using this man's license, and the dispatcher is responsible for the manner in which each man conducts himself while on the air.
 2. Federal law forbids:
 - a. Obscenity.
 - b. Profanity.
 - c. Indecent language.
 - d. Any unauthorized disclosure or use of messages.
 - e. Making of superfluous, false, deceptive or unassigned call signals.
 3. The dispatcher can refuse you permission to use the radio on his license since any of the above prohibitions could cause the F.C.C. to cancel his license.

E. The radio as a tool for the officer's safety.

1. If you must be out of hearing for any length of time and have time in advance to call the station, let the dispatcher know that you will be off the air.
2. If there is any possibility that you will be in any danger in what you are about to do, let the dispatcher know what you will be doing before you do it.
3. Should you observe anything requiring your attention while on patrol, let the dispatcher know the location and something of the circumstances.
4. If working alone in a one-man car, some departments require the officer to call in the make and license number of any car being stopped for any traffic violation, as well as the location. These calls are for your own protection.
5. If you do not call back into service within a reasonable length of time, nor answer when called, another car will be sent to determine what is wrong. To prevent this from happening, be sure to call back into service the moment you return to the car.

F. The radio dispatcher. As a new man you may not realize the importance and value of having a good radio dispatcher, whether he is a civilian or a police officer. His value may not become apparent on the small department, but on a large one he becomes an expert in assisting a large number of men and cars.

1. The dispatcher, being the nerve center of the department, can perform many services for you.
 - a. He usually keeps a record of, or has access to, information regarding all of the following:
 - 1) Streets or highways temporarily closed for some reason, such as for sewer construction.
 - 2) The names and locations of little-known streets and how to get to them.
 - 3) The names of various concerns, hotels, and buildings cross-indexed by street number.
 - 4) The emergency phone numbers of many establishments that can be called in case of an emergency.

- 5) A current list of stolen cars.
 - 6) A directory of automobile registrations containing the license number, make and address of the registered owners.
 - 7) A city directory listing the name, address, occupation and the wife's name, if married, of every resident of the city.
- b. By phone, radio, teletype, or intercom he can check with any division of the department or with other agencies for information you may request; this includes agencies of other states.
 - c. Where one-man cars are used, the dispatcher's knowledge of the city and of police work is especially beneficial, for only experienced men should be used as dispatchers under these circumstances.

G. Courtesy and patience are the only demands made of the officer by the dispatcher.

1. When the dispatcher calls and gives you some order or information, honor his call by letting him know that the call was received, and don't force him to repeat the call because of your lack of attention.
2. If you are told to "stand by" while attempting to contact him, it indicates that he is busy even though he is not broadcasting on the air. He may be on a telephone or intercom, so don't call again unless it is an emergency or until you are reasonably sure that he has forgotten you.
3. Don't bother a busy dispatcher for information not immediately needed.

H. Base station authority.

1. All things being equal, radio control has the supreme authority and priority on police communications. There are two exceptions:
 - a. First, any mobile unit who signifies that he has radio traffic of an emergency nature, receives top priority.

b. Secondly, a field supervisor who is involved in a tactical situation can take command of the immediate communications because he is there in the field and is in a better position to assume command.

2. According to federal law (Ch. 8, Section 605, Communications Act of 1934), any message is the property of the one who originates it, and the cancellation can be made only by that party or department. Legally, however, this authority may be delegated. The essence of this matter is that it is the responsibility of a person originating a message or alert to issue a cancellation or a change to the original message when appropriate.

I. Walkie-talkies in police work.

1. In the past, one of the major complaints against the foot patrolman was the fact that he lacked communications.
2. Today, with the new developments in small transistorized radios, it has become quite practical for the foot patrolman to carry a small walkie-talkie on his person.
3. There are unlimited situations in which the foot patrol officer can utilize this form of communications.

J. The field telephone.

1. The field telephone is quite expensive to maintain, and because of this, there has been a tendency in many cities to discontinue some of these units. They are usually found in the business area where the foot patrol beats are located.
2. The advantages of the field telephone are:
 - a. It can be used by the general public as an emergency phone.
 - b. It can be used to call in fires. Some cities make them combination fire alarm and police call boxes since they both go into the same communications center.
 - c. It can be used for confidential messages that should not be transmitted over the air. Many people have police receivers, so an officer should not assume that a message transmitted over a police call frequency will have any particular amount of security.

d. It allows the foot patrolman to check with headquarters frequently to obtain the latest information, or to call for a police vehicle when an arrest is made.

K. Television.

1. Educational television has been with us for some time, but the use of television as a means of police communications is relatively new.
2. Basically it involves broadcasts throughout a county, just before the major shifts start. A large television set is placed in each squad room and specialized police division.
3. The broadcasts contain information on wanted persons, identification lineups, and also include an unlimited number of training sessions, including training films.

L. Teletype and police communications.

1. With the American public becoming ever more mobile, there is the increasing need for inter-departmental police communications. The backbone of this form of communications has been and will continue to be the police teletype.
2. There have been many innovations in the teletype since it was first started, many of them because of the increasing loads that teletype systems are now required to handle.
3. Most modern teletypes are now able to take a message automatically and hold it until there is a line clear on which to transmit it, with the use of small tapes increasing the speed of teletyped messages.

M. Sign language - its importance to the police.

1. The patrol officer finds this valuable in communicating with mute persons, but if he works with a partner, he will find it handy as a means of communications when silence is necessary.
2. This would be in the case of a stakeout, or when a prisoner is in the back seat of the police car, and it is essential that he not overhear the conversation.

N. Subject classification for transmissions.

1. Subject classification is used for the following persons.

- a. Wanted persons.
- b. Escapees.
- c. Missing persons.
- d. Runaways.

2. The basic race patterns:

- a. Caucasian - those whose skin is light or of the so-called white race.
- b. Negro - those whose skin is dark enough to approach the negroid race.
- c. Oriental - those whose background is obviously Asian.
- d. Mexican - those of obvious Mexican or South American Indian descent.
- e. Indian - those of American descent.

3. The form for describing persons.

- a. Authority.
- b. Reason wanted.
- c. Name.
- d. Sex.
- e. Race-class.
- f. Height.
- g. Weight
- h. Hair color.
- i. Eye color.
- j. Complexion.
- k. Build

l. Clothing description, from head on down.

m. Where and when last seen.

n. Description of vehicle if one used.

o. Whether armed, if known.

p. Possible location or destination.

O. Stolen vehicle classification and broadcasts.

1. When a vehicle has just been stolen, and there is a great likelihood that it is still in the area, or when it is believed that it might be headed toward a certain area, it can be very important to broadcast the pertinent information over the air. However, there are certain procedures to be followed.

2. The details should be broadcast in the following manner:

a. The authority (and if a waiver was signed).

b. The location - where the vehicle was stolen.

c. How long ago that the vehicle was stolen - by minutes and hours.

d. The license number of the stolen vehicle.

e. The year, color, make, and model of the stolen vehicle.

f. Other descriptive information.

3. When an officer in the field desires registration information on a certain vehicle, he should contact radio control.

4. Registration information can usually be obtained from the State Motor Vehicle Licensing Authority when the officer can provide either:

a. The vehicle license number.

b. The make of the vehicle and the motor number.

c. The name and address of the suspected registered owner.

5. In order for the officer to obtain this information over the air, it should be of an emergency nature. Routine information and driver's license information must be obtained through the use of the teletype rather than the police radio.

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THE ARREST PROCESS

I. The Job: The Process of Arresting, Detaining and Transporting Malefactors.

- A. When a police officer may arrest - generally a police officer takes someone into custody:
1. When he is ordered to do so in compliance with a warrant or court order.
 2. When the police officer observes someone perform a criminal act.
 3. When the police officer is requested to do so by another person who is making a complaint.
- B. Arrest with a warrant.
1. If you are given a warrant or court order for the arrest of a person, be sure to read the paper carefully.
 - a. Examine the date to see if the order is valid on the particular day and hour it is served. An order may be outdated or it may be good only on weekdays or before 6 PM, etc.
 - b. Check to see if the territorial jurisdiction, county or city, is accurate.
 - c. Make sure that the signature of the authority for the order is upon it.
 2. Always enter all the appropriate information in your memo book, including the number of the document.
 3. Should there be any trouble in making the arrest or should there be any future difficulty, like a court action, resulting from the arrest, the few extra minutes you spend examining the paper and entering the data in your memo book will prove well worth it.
 4. When you make an arrest on the basis of a warrant or a court order, you should:
 - a. Identify yourself.
 - b. Inform the person that you have a warrant for his arrest.

- c. If he asks, show him the document.
- d. If he wants to read it, have him do so in your presence.

C. Arrest in performance of an on-view criminal act.

1. If a crime is committed or attempted in your presence, your duty is clear:
 - a. Stop the action.
 - b. Arrest those whom you have reason to believe committed the crime.
2. Whenever practical, inform the suspect or suspects of your authority and the cause for their arrest. This may not be possible during the commission of the crime or while in hot pursuit.

D. Action on a complaint for misdemeanor.

1. At times, you will be asked to arrest a person on the complaint of another for a crime allegedly committed when you were not present.
2. If it is a misdemeanor, inform the complainant of the particular procedure which he should use to secure enforcement.
3. You can aid him in two ways:
 - a. By helping to establish the identity of the person who allegedly committed the violation.
 - b. By giving the complainant correct information on how to file a complaint and the procedure in getting a warrant.

E. Action on a complaint for a felony.

1. To arrest on a crime not committed in your presence, the violation allegedly committed not in your presence must have been a felony.
2. Have the complainant identify himself and record this information in your memo book.

- a. A felony has been committed.
 - b. Reasonable grounds exist for believing that a particular person committed that felony.
 - c. You may arrest that person.
4. Once arrested, the prisoner is in your custody. Never allow him to be out of your control.
 5. During discussion with the complainant about the crime, while the complainant attempts to show you damages, injuries or evidence amidst a group of curious onlookers, the prisoner may try to get away.
 6. The man in custody is your prisoner; you must maintain custody of him.
 7. Keep the complainant with you, too.
 - a. Insist that he accompany you to the station house.
 - b. If he protests, tell him of his obligations as a complainant.
 - c. When the case involves a serious crime, remind him that he can be held as a material witness, under arrest.
- F. Guarding and transporting prisoners from the scene.
1. A person is taken into custody for a crime he is alleged to have committed.
 2. The person is not guilty of the crime until proven so in court.
 3. The police are responsible for apprehending persons who are suspected of committing crimes and retaining these persons until arraignment.
 4. A patrolman taking and keeping a person in custody may exercise as much force as is reasonably necessary to do his duty.
 - a. To use force upon a person who peacefully submits to arrest is to deprive him of his rights as an American; it constitutes a violation of the law.

- b. A patrolman who fails to apprehend a suspect or allows him to escape from custody due to willfulness, carelessness, cowardice or neglect commits a violation of the law.
5. Once you have made an arrest and taken a prisoner into custody, you must decide how best to transport your prisoner to the station house.
 6. There are times in which you should call for assistance to bring the prisoner in:
 - a. When the crime is a major one.
 - b. When the distance is excessive or the prisoner is unable to walk.
 - c. When the prisoner's appearance is offensive to public decency.
 - d. When there is more than one complainant and/or more than one prisoner, particularly if the adversary is hostile.
 - e. When the situation at the scene is charged with tension.
 - f. When you are in need of transportation.
 7. While awaiting assistance, watch the suspect and be suspicious of all of his actions.
 - a. If he wants to get his coat, refuse his request. You get the coat or have someone else do so and examine it for weapons and evidence before handing it to him.
 - b. Keep others away from him, particularly friends or members of his family; they may sneak a hidden weapon or items of incriminating evidence from his person.
 8. Protect yourself from assault and hinder the prisoner's escape by following these suggested procedures:
 - a. When suspects have their hands in the air, have them turn their open palms toward you so that you can be assured that they do not have concealed weapons in their hands.

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- b. If there are one or two suspects, frisk them, then handcuff them.
- c. If you have one prisoner who is flailing his arms about, first get the handcuffs on one wrist - behind the back, preferably. Then, get the second flailing arm cuffed. If there are two prisoners, have them face in opposite directions and handcuff one right arm to the other right arm. In this position they cannot team up and pinion you, each using an uncuffed arm.
- d. If there are many prisoners, order them to lie down, spread-eagle, head to feet. With each suspect's head next to the feet of those adjacent to him, the prisoners will not be able to whisper to one another. Have your gun out, covering them at all times.

G. Protecting your prisoners.

- 1. The prisoner is in your custody. That means you must protect him against an assault by others.
- 2. When particularly heinous crimes are committed, some people may try to take the law into their own hands.
- 3. The officer must cast personal feelings aside and handle the situation in an impersonal manner.
- 4. If one person succeeds in striking the prisoner, it may unleash a whole torrent of human emotion which may engulf and injure your prisoner, innocent bystanders and you.
- 5. Tell the other people that you have the prisoner in custody and that you will not allow any harm to come to him.
- 6. If an officer sees an aroused mob forming, he should take the prisoner to some enclosure with only one entrance, a location in which he will be protected from assault from behind - against the wall, if necessary.
- 7. The officer should handcuff the prisoner to a steampipe or other immovable object, then station himself at the entrance, facing the mob, until additional policemen arrive.
- 8. A particularly difficult situation arises when your prisoner is suspected of injuring or killing a policeman.

- a. Feelings run high and members of the police force are all armed with weapons and skilled at using them.
 - b. Whether it be on the street, in a vehicle or in a station house, be it a brother officer, detective or superior, the policy is the same: "Hands off! This is my prisoner."
 - c. The officer will have to be present in court on the next morning with the prisoner. The officer wants him before the court in the same condition in which he was arrested.
9. When a vehicle has arrived in which to transport the prisoner to the station house, you may have the opportunity to examine the area surrounding the place of apprehension.
- a. Look in, around and on top of toilet tanks and refrigerators.
 - b. Peer behind mirrors and wall pictures.
 - c. Walk about and observe the ground and the floor and look underneath carpets and linoleum.
 - d. Inspect the interior of trunks of automobiles by lifting out the seats, checking under the floor mats, behind sun visors and behind the dashboard, searching all compartments and all possible hiding places.
 - e. This examination may uncover evidence concealed or thrown away by the suspect just before arrest.
10. When any evidence is discovered, mark it by tag, initial or other mark and wrap it in some way, if you can.
11. If a district car is to provide transportation, the officers riding in it will want to frisk the suspect themselves. This is good police procedure.
12. When any patrolman is going to be in a position in which he may be assaulted by a suspect, he should take nobody else's word that the suspect has been completely frisked; he should perform the frisk himself.

13. In the event there are several suspects, a police van will arrive to transport you and them.
 - a. Have the driver keep any curious onlookers out of the possible line of fire.
 - b. Keep your gun on the prisoners.
 - c. Order them to place their hands on top of their heads, fingers entwined, as they walk toward the van.
 - d. Repeat this procedure when they alight.
 - e. You should ride in the body of the wagon with the prisoners, not up front with the driver.

H. The station house.

1. In the station house, the officer may have to walk a distance from the prisoner to perform some duty, like filling out arrest cards or interviewing a complainant.
 - a. Don't leave the prisoner unless it is absolutely necessary.
 - b. When the officer must leave, he should handcuff the prisoner to an immovable object.
 - c. Never handcuff a prisoner to anything that is portable or breakable.
 - d. Bring the arrest cards, complainants and any work to do into the room in which the prisoner is handcuffed or ask to have them brought to you.
2. To move a battling prisoner, stand behind him and place one hand on the bar of the cuffs and the other upon his shoulder.
 - a. It is difficult for a prisoner to kick you while you stand to the side and rear.
 - b. An officer can render the prisoner powerless by lifting up and out on the cuffs, forcing him to bend forward, or by pulling his hair, impelling him backwards.

3. Don't relax your guard in the station house. Other officers may be careless about safeguarding their nightsticks and guns.
 4. If the prisoner must use the toilet, accompany him.
 5. Be especially careful when he washes his hands; policemen shave at the basins and there may be used razor blades around.
 6. Whenever an officer lodges a prisoner in a cell, he should always assist the the turnkey or attendant.
 - a. Many officers carefully guard their prisoner through the booking at the desk and while he is being interrogated by detectives, only to relax their vigilance when the prisoner is about to be locked up.
 - b. The turnkey, usually an older man, is in no condition to battle a muscular suspect or to chase a fleeing youth.
 - c. Stay with the prisoner until he is actually behind bars.
 7. When an officer turns the prisoner over to another authority, such as a detective or court attendant, get a signed receipt for him.
 8. If no official documents are provided, have the person accepting responsibility for the prisoner sign a notation, including date and time, in your memo book. Should anything go wrong after that, you will not be held responsible.
- #### I. Guarding prisoners in hospitals.
1. Whenever you are assigned to a hospital or a hotel to guard a prisoner, it is a good idea to take along a copy of the departmental regulations concerning who may be permitted to see the prisoner.
 - a. If the department does not issue special forms with this material upon it, put the information on a small card and insert it in your memo book.
 - b. Frequently, visitors will ask to see the prisoner and there will be doubts as to whether or not it is permissible.

- c. Superior officers are not present and an officer cannot leave the post to telephone.
2. If the prisoner is in a ward, be sure the officer you are relieving identifies the particular patient you are to guard.
 - a. The other patrolman may be anxious to go off duty.
 - b. The officer may give you all the necessary papers and, after pointing in a general direction, tell you that the prisoner is "over there." That is not enough.
 - c. Insist that he take another moment to show you the particular patient who is in custody.
 3. Ask the officer you are relieving about anything unusual the patient has done and what you should watch out for. This includes attempts at suicide and escape.
 - a. Ask about the prisoner's mental state; for example, does he hate policemen or is he cooperative.
 - b. Ascertain the crime the prisoner is being held for and whether or not there is a past criminal record.
 4. All this information is helpful to an officer in performing a tour of duty during the next eight hours. You should pass it along to the officer relieving you.
 5. Remember, prisoners who are in a sickbed can be dangerous.
 - a. A crutch, a cast and traction weights make effective weapons.
 - b. Don't allow the hospital atmosphere to lull you into a sense of false security.
- J. Guarding and transporting prisoner, in general.
1. Prisoners run the range of personality.
 - a. Some are belligerent; they will threaten you with dismissal, transfer, lawsuit and political influence.
 - b. Other prisoners are silent, brooding, perhaps scheming.
 - c. Still others are talkative, possibly attempting to distract you.

2. Don't converse with suspects excessively.
 - a. Listen to what they have to say.
 - b. Make a mental note of statements which will be helpful to detectives or at a trial.
 - c. Record them in the memo book as soon as you can.
 3. An officer's attitude should be neither hostile nor friendly, but impersonal. You are an officer on the job; this person is a prisoner in your custody.
- K. Be prepared, and take nothing for granted.
1. Some of the most ghastly crimes have been committed by quiet, soft-spoken, well-mannered gentlemen.
 2. A slow-moving, dumb oaf can suddenly become an agile, quick-witted escapee.
 3. Always try to place yourself between any avenue of escape, like windows and exits, and the prisoner.
 4. Keep all objects which may be employed as weapons out of his reach.
 5. Be especially careful in areas where other patrolmen work; in detectives offices and station house back-rooms, departmental personnel may leave their nightsticks on a wall or their guns in an unguarded position.
 6. Don't allow the prisoner to be at your gun side.
 7. There may be times in court, while awaiting trial or arraignment, when you have to go to the lavatory.
 - a. At these times, some patrolmen leave their prisoner with another officer.
 - b. This is a bad practice, particularly if the other officer has prisoners of his own.
 - c. Put the prisoner back behind bars.
 8. An officer may have occasion to transport a prisoner in a car without another officer accompanying you.

- a. If this happens, handcuff the prisoner as follows: handcuff his right hand; slip the cuff under his left thigh and handcuff his left hand.
- b. In this position, only slightly uncomfortable, the prisoner cannot touch the door handle on his side and cannot interfere with your driving.

II. Principles of Arrest.

A. An introduction to the principles of arrest.

Arrest is the act of depriving an individual of his freedom and must be made with the knowledge that an element of danger is always present. No two people will react the same when faced with the prospect of jail. There is no such thing as a routine arrest. The unpredictability of human behavior makes all arrests serious business. Common sense demands that the arresting officer remain alert at all times. The officer who falls into the trap of thinking that arrests are routine becomes a dangerous liability to himself and to his department. There are no exceptions; every arrest must be considered to have an element of danger. The subject improperly approached, the inadequate search, and the poorly guarded prisoner are due more to officer laxity than to a lack of knowledge or proper procedures. The veteran is just as vulnerable as the rookie to the consequences of failing to remain alert or to use all available safeguards while making an arrest. Though inexperience is a factor, a major cause of police officer injuries is the false sense of security and overconfidence developed by past "routine" arrests which temper the judgment of the arresting officer.

B. Methods of making safer arrests.

The element of danger present in each arrest can be reduced if the arresting officer follows certain basic, operational safeguards. These include the following factors:

1. Courage in approach.

- a. A police officer must respond to any emergency with courage. The slacker or "timid soul" cannot be tolerated.
- b. The officer who always appears to discover another assignment when he is needed and the loiterer who lags behind or remains hidden from view until other officers have preceded him to the scene, have no place in law enforcement.
- c. Lack of courage can and does jeopardize the safety of others.

2. Bravery does not imply recklessness.

- a. The courageous officer does not shy away from danger nor does he take unnecessary chances.
 - b. He plans his every move and follows the rules designed to reduce the hazards of the operations.
 - c. He does not needlessly expose himself to possible injury, but neither does he hesitate to confront and overcome the criminal.
 - d. He knows how to approach a suspect or a stopped vehicle.
 - e. He awaits his opportunity to obtain surprise or superiority before he acts.
 - f. He realizes the importance of properly searching a prisoner and never takes anything for granted.
 - g. In the final analysis, bravery and caution are inseparable.
3. Preparation and planning.
- a. While each situation varies, an arrest must never be attempted without some plan of action.
 - b. The officer knows, however, what is expected of him and what his plan of action will be, even when he must act without the benefit of pre-planning.
 - c. Officers assigned to a planned arrest must be thoroughly briefed. They should know the criminal's background, his crime, his physical description; and they should be shown the latest photographs.
 - d. If the arrest is to be made indoors, the officers involved, and the floor plans of the building in which the person is to be arrested.
4. Superiority in manpower and its advantage.
- a. The first tendency of an officer caught in the excitement of the chase may be to "go it alone" for his foremost thought is to capture the suspect.
 - 1) Impulsiveness can be dangerous, since it may result in injury to the officer and others.
 - 2) It may also increase the criminal's chances of escaping.

- 3) An arresting officer should never hesitate to call for assistance.
 - b. The more manpower available the greater the prospects for success, which is to secure the arrest.
 - c. When the person being arrested can recognize that he is outnumbered and confronted by superiority of weapons, surrender becomes his only recourse other than death.
- C. Controlling the arrest.
- 1. Whenever a police officer is called upon to make an arrest, he must, by necessity, control and remain the master of the situation.
 - 2. The tone of voice is of prime importance in obtaining attention and obedience, and the officer's attitude, bearing and appearance help him to achieve this objective.
 - a. The voice communicates confidence or inadequacy.
 - 1) Fear, doubt or lack of confidence are quickly transmitted by the voice in what is said and how it is said.
 - 2) An officer should raise his voice only to be heard, not to camouflage inadequacies. Hesitancies or over-emphasis are indications of nervousness or inexperience and may lead to difficulties.
 - 3) The tone commands obedience.
 - 4) Profanity should be avoided since it is unbecoming any professional.
 - b. Actions speak louder than words.
 - 1) The arresting officer must remember that he is the symbol for law and order, performing an official act.
 - 2) The officer who radiates authority and strength by his erect stand, his neat appearance and

businesslike attitude is less apt to encounter a "fighter" than the man who approaches with "a chip on his shoulder."

- 3) Criminals are apt to interpret the blustery, authoritative and antagonistic attitude of the officer for just what it is - a mask to hide feelings of personal inadequacies and the ability to properly handle the situation.
 - 4) Extremes in behavior can incite a panic response from a youthful offender or a less experienced criminal
 - 5) Rather than frighten the suspect into submission, belligerence can trigger a violent impulse to escape.
- D. Use of force in effecting an arrest.
1. In every arrest the officer must be firm and prepared to protect himself as well as others.
 2. The force used may vary from that of a command to actual physical contact causing injury or death.
 3. Police officers operate within a legal framework which defines the amount of force which may be used in a given situation.
 - a. If excessive force is used, the officer is liable to civil suit and to criminal prosecution as well.
 - b. But fears of being so accused must not influence an officer to the extent he will jeopardize his safety.
 4. The determining factors must be the circumstances surrounding the arrest, the evaluation of the situation and the officer's judgment.
 5. The officer must consider the following factors combined when he is assessing the need to use force:
 - a. Is the suspect submitting peacefully or is he resisting?
 - b. Is the suspect armed?
 - c. The nature of the crime committed.

- d. Previous arrest record and reputation for violence.
 - e. The number of subjects involved and the police support available at the scene.
- E. The use of deadly force.
1. The arresting officer must always be prepared for the unexpected.
 2. His service revolver must be readily accessible in all arrest situations.
 3. It is self-evident that the hazard potential of each arrest differs with the circumstances.
 4. The service revolver is normally kept in the holster when approaching a traffic violator or when the officer believes the circumstances of an arrest do not present an immediate danger.
 - a. This does not imply that the arresting officer must be less vigilant.
 - b. The officer cannot approach everyone he meets in the course of his duty with his gun drawn.
 - c. Numerous arrests are made without displaying a weapon.
 5. However, the officer must be able to act quickly in case of attack.
 - a. In such circumstances, the officer may choose to approach the subject gripping his holstered weapon for immediate use.
 - b. As a matter of habit, he grips the butt end of his gun as he approaches any suspect, regardless of the apparent nature of the offense.
 6. In situations presenting the greatest apparent danger, such as felony arrest, the officer must approach the criminal with gun in hand, prepared for any eventuality.
 - a. An officer arresting a known felon approaches with gun in hand (uncocked) and aimed at the suspect.
 - b. The weapon should not be holstered until the prisoner has been thoroughly searched and handcuffed and assistance has arrived.

F. Warning shots.

1. It is not a recommended practice to fire warning shots to stop a fleeing person or to gain control of an arrest. The improper use of a weapon may lead to serious consequences. It may injure or kill an innocent person and cause property damage as well.
2. Poor judgment can lead to civil or criminal action against the officer.
3. If the weapon is to be used at all, it must be done with the intention of taking life in order to protect others. The weapon must then be aimed at the suspect, not over his head.

G. Responsibilities of an arresting officer.

1. While arrest techniques may vary, the fundamental responsibilities of a law enforcement officer never change.
2. In all arrests, the officer must consider his obligation to himself and other law enforcement officers, to innocent bystanders and to the person being arrested.
 - a. Responsibilities to himself and fellow officers.
 - 1) Self-preservation should be a prime concern of every law enforcement officer.
 - 2) Vigilance must always be maintained even in the "inconsequential arrest."
 - 3) Every prisoner must be thoroughly search for weapons or escape devices after arrest. Too frequently an improper search or no search at all has resulted in the injury or death of an unsuspecting officer.
 - 4) Granting of personal privileges following arrests must be carefully weighed. Requests for water, use of the bathroom, change of clothes and the like should be denied or closely supervised.
 - 5) A prisoner must not be permitted to talk with bystanders, because he may be attempting to contact a friend or an accomplice.

- 6) If the prisoner attempts to incite a disturbance or riot, he must be immediately maneuvered from the scene. Failure to act with speed may endanger the safety of all present.

b. Responsibilities to bystanders.

- 1) Whenever a police officer is apprehending a criminal suspect or a traffic violator, the officer must take steps to safeguard the general public.
- 2) The officer must carefully evaluate the use of deadly force when other people are present.
- 3) Safe driving techniques must be followed when in pursuit of a motorist.
- 4) If at all possible, the arresting officer must select the place of arrest. It should be to his advantage, but also it should be selected with thought given for the safety of bystanders.

c. Responsibilities to persons arrested.

- 1) The officer must identify himself, inform the person he is under arrest, and specify the charges.
- 2) It is a good policy, especially at night or when the suspect may be unable to properly observe the officer, to verbally announce in a clear, audible voice, "Police, you are under arrest."
- 3) A detective or an officer in civilian dress must display police identification when announcing his office and purpose. The suspect must then be informed of the charge as briefly as possible.
- 4) The merits or justification for the arrest is not discussed.
- 5) After a suspect has submitted to arrest and is in custody, the arresting officer must protect the prisoner.

- a) The officer must remove the prisoner from the reach of an angry mob. Bystanders or the victim's family must be prevented from assaulting him.
 - b) No one must be permitted to use physical force on a suspect after he has been taken into custody.
- 6) When handcuffs or other restraints are used, they must be humanely applied and should be kept on the prisoner until such time as he is ultimately incarcerated.

III. Techniques of Arrest.

A. Introduction to techniques of arrest.

During the six year period of 1960 through 1965, two-hundred seventy-eight police officers were murdered in the United States in the line of duty. Eighty-four (thirty per cent) of these officers were murdered while effecting arrests or transporting prisoners after the arrests. While direct cause for these murders may be a moot point, it can be assumed that inexperience was not a major contributing factor because the average police experience of the murdered officer was six years. It is more likely that lack of training in techniques of arrests and control of prisoners was a larger contributing cause.

1. The dangers of the arrest process. The arrest and subsequent handling of criminals is part of the many duties a police officer is called upon to perform.
 - a. While the average arrest is accomplished with no undue difficulties, there is always the danger that the arresting officer may be killed or injured.
 - b. The well-trained and alert officer should be able to minimize the risks involved in the arrest procedure.
2. The techniques will be directed to the mechanics of arrests and not to the legality of the arrests. Law of arrest is a subject to be covered in other sections.
3. No hard and fast rules can or should be made regarding arrests. The time, place and method of arrest will be determined by the circumstances prevailing at the time of the arrest.

B. General considerations of the arrest process.

1. Routine arrests and the dangers surrounding them.
 - a. "Routine arrests" are potentially the most dangerous to the officer because of the over-confidence of the officers involved.
 - b. Self-protection is of primary importance in these as well as for "non-routine" arrests and require that the officer be alert at all times.

2. The arresting officer should gain and maintain the advantage during the arrest and subsequent transportation.
 - a. An arrest is not a contest between the officer and the arrestee.
 - b. The officer should make use of available assistance from others.
 - 1) This assistance provides additional safety to both the officer and the arrestee.
 - 2) It will also provide witnesses to criminal acts that might subsequently take place during and after the arrest.
 - 3) In addition, it will provide witnesses, to facts, statements, and happenings contemporaneous with the arrest.
3. Place of arrest is often important to the success of the arrest. The officer should, when possible, attempt to pick the best place to effect the arrest. Generally, he should:
 - a. Avoid crowded streets, which would prevent the safe use of firearms.
 - b. Avoid intersections, which provide avenues of escapes.
 - c. Avoid arrests in the presence of crowds, in particular, in the presence of the subject's associates.
4. The officer should follow closely the dictates of ethics and reason in the application of force in the arrest.
 - a. Use of force should be limited to that which will effect the arrest with least danger to either officer or arrestee.
 - b. Use of too much force could jeopardize the officer's case, his performance records, and could result in his being prosecuted in a civil court as the arresting officer.

- c. Safeguards in this direction should not act as a deterrent to the officer's using what force would normally be required to safely effect the arrest, and should not cause the officer to retreat in the face of resistance.
- C. There are basic factors to be considered by the officer, and which will increase the chances of an arrest being completed successfully.
1. The officer should have confidence in his arrest.
 - a. He should know the applicable laws.
 - b. He should know what he is doing and why he's doing it.
 - c. He should avoid over-confidence as he might tend to underestimate his adversary.
 2. The officer should maintain the proper attitude.
 - a. He should act naturally.
 - b. He should make the job to be done, as effortless as possible.
 - c. He should keep his personal feelings hidden and avoid personalities.
 3. The officer should use applied psychology in handling the arrests.
 - a. He should offer no favors to the arrestee until absolute security is assured.
 - b. He should make no promises that cannot be carried out.
 - c. He should tactfully infer, if necessary, that the arrestee is under the complete control of the arresting officer(s).
 - d. He should assure the arrestee that he, the officer, is only doing his job in effecting the arrest.
 - e. He should, if the circumstances permit, appeal to the reason of the arrestee in the arrestee's understanding of the situation.

4. The officer should have a plan of action developed prior to the execution of the arrest.
 - a. Simple plans are generally the best and most easily applied.
 - 1) Circumstances will determine the type of plan to be used.
 - 2) Flexibility of plan should exist, since conditions might suddenly change.
 - b. The officer should possess as thorough a knowledge of the arrestee as is possible to obtain prior to the arrest.
 - 1) The officer should know the subject's past record, if possible.
 - 2) The officer should be aware of the subject's possible reactions to the arrest, if such knowledge is available from prior arrests.
 - 3) The officer should be aware of any abnormalities - physical and/or mental - of the person to be arrested.
 - c. The officer should have as thorough a knowledge of the area where the arrest is to take place as time will permit, a reconnaissance of the street plan, as well as the floor plan of the house, if any is involved.
 - d. Unity of command must be maintained. One officer should be in command of the arrest, should do all the talking, and should brief all others involved in the arrest as to available knowledge regarding the persons, surroundings, etc.
 - e. The officer should make a determination of manpower necessary to safely and efficiently effect the arrest. This should include an estimation of firepower necessary, as well as the tactical deployment of the manpower.
 - f. The officer should follow a logical and diplomatic approach to the arrest.
 - 1) He should notify the subject that he is being arrested, telling him (an exception to this is when a chase or vehicular pursuit takes place).

- 2) He should, if in plainclothes, show the person his credentials.
 - 3) The arrest process should be made as inconspicuous as possible.
 - 4) The officers involved should be courteous but firm, dominating the situation in a decisive way.
 - 5) He should perform the contemporaneous search as soon as practicable, after which time the subject should be removed to a location where he can be thoroughly searched, if this is not possible at the time of arrest.
- D. Arrests with warrants differ from other non-warrant arrests.
1. With a warrant arrest, there exists the opportunity to employ more available manpower. This gives the arresting officer superiority over the manpower available to the arrestee.
 - a. The advance notice of the warrant for arrest makes planning possible.
 - b. Use of available manpower permits arresting officer(s) to gain and maintain complete control of the situation more quickly.
 - c. Such advance notice permits officers to take advantage of the available cover when effecting the arrest.
 2. With an warrant arrest, there exists also the opportunity for the officers to avail themselves of adequate and appropriate weaponry, in addition to permitting more time for the officers to clear the area of bystanders to minimize danger in the event of gunfire.
 3. The officer should consider the plan of attack to be utilized. It should be one that is relatively simple and understood by all officers involved. It should run as smoothly as possible, the result of coordinated efforts, and taking advantage of surprise. The announcement can be made either by voice, telephone call, or through a voice amplifier (loudspeaker, "bullhorn," etc.).

E. Arrests without warrants do not have the advantages of the warrant arrest. There are some considerations regarding this type of arrest which should be reviewed by the officer executing this type of arrest.

1. The officer should identify himself and announce his intent, authority and reason. There are some exceptions to this prerequisite, such as:
 - a. During the attempt or actual commission of a crime.
 - b. During an escape by incarcerated persons.
 - c. During a chase of a criminal, either on foot or in a vehicle.
2. The officers involved do not generally have the time to plan the technicalities of the actual arrest process. Therefore, some basic techniques must be considered for their value as procedures to be followed by all officers in all such cases.
 - a. Street arrests.
 - 1) The approach to the suspect should be either from the side or the rear.
 - 2) If two officers and one suspect are involved, there should be formed a triangulation of the three, with the suspect at the apex of the triangle, the two officers at the two remaining points of the triangle.
 - a) If two officers and two suspects are involved, the same type of triangulation is involved, with the one suspect standing between the officers and the other suspect.
 - b) This method of triangulation minimizes the possibilities of the officers being in each other's line of fire.
 - b. Arrests at or in buildings.
 - 1) This type of arrest, like the others, should be planned, insofar as possible, prior to execution.
 - 2) The officers should approach the building separated, so that any gunfire will have to be directed to two spots instead of one.

- 3) The officers should place themselves at either side of the door, so that any gunfire through the door will not injure them.
- 4) If this is the subject's home, consideration must be given the following:
 - a) The subject will know the layout of the house, any hiding places, and the location of all weapons.
 - b) The officers, particularly in this instance, must gain and maintain control of the situation as soon as possible.
 - c) No favors should be granted and no freedom of movement should be permitted. The suspect's hands should be kept in sight at all times.

IV. Reasonable Force - Correct Application.

A. Verbal restraint and command.

1. Most people are law - abiding and will obey the requests and orders of a uniformed officer. In most cases, verbal restraint is all that is necessary to make people stop what they are doing and cooperate with the patrolman.
2. The proper use of the voice at the right moment may immediately halt a criminal or cause a potential suicide to hesitate.
 - a. A firm tone with the right inflection may halt a potential fight before it starts.
 - b. To use verbal restraint effectively, the officer must be in command of the situation.
3. Let us say you come upon some people arguing or threatening one another. It is your job to stop the disturbance.
 - a. You may find that everyone wants to tell his story first. Be patient but firm, insisting that only one person talk at a time. Tell them that each one will be heard in turn; and if everybody talks at once, nothing can be solved.
 - b. In the time it takes to tell the story, emotions may cool off a bit.
4. Never allow a member of the group to place his hands upon you.
 - a. If anyone does, interrupt whatever is going on, forget the story for the moment, and focus your attention on whoever pushed or grabbed.
 - b. A stern command ("Take your hands off my uniform") is called for. Never allow yourself to be manhandled. If someone gets away with that, it may be the start of assaults upon your person.
 - c. You are not one of the involved parties; you should be in command of the situation. Make it definite that you will not tolerate any interference.

5. The cause of the argument may be unearthed and may be found to be a foolish thing to fight over.
 - a. If they are still angry, ask if any of the participants would like to press a charge. This may serve as a cooling-off technique. The arguers may find that their disagreement is not really so serious after all.
 - b. In any case, the group should be dispersed, so that the argument will not start up again after you leave.
 6. The command is an important tool of the patrolman.
 - a. Nasal, high-pitched or weak tones will not get results.
 - b. If a patrolman has difficulty developing a commanding tone, he may want to practice such a commanding tone with such commands as "Halt," "Stop," and "Move!"
 - c. In voicing commands, try to take full advantage of your diaphragm; the abdomen should snap inward as the command comes from down deep.
 7. The command, along with the courteous request, is a tool of verbal restraint.
- B. Reasonable force - what is it?
1. The various state courts have not arrived at a single definition of reasonable force in a police action. Generally speaking, reasonable force is that amount which must be used to do the job properly in a particular situation and no more.
 2. Deciding how much force to use on an opponent is not an easy matter.
 - a. During or immediately after the commission of a crime, this decision must be made quickly. Any hesitancy may cost the life of the officer or of others around him or may mean that a criminal is needlessly at large.
 - b. If he uses the method and amount of force that fits the particular opposition in a situation, the patrolman will be using necessary, reasonable and legal force.

C. Physical restraint.

1. The patrolman must restrain people in a variety of situations. The patrolman's position is different from that of a soldier, since in wartime, the soldier attempts to kill the enemy, any way he can and any time he can.
2. As a peace officer, the patrolman must capture his opponent, injuring only when it is necessary and killing only as a last resort.
 - a. He must wait until a possible attack becomes real, until his suspicions are confirmed, before he may attack so as to defend himself.
 - b. The patrolman cannot avoid violence when violence occurs. If he employs force, it must be competent, swift, relevant to his opposition and with due regard for the protection of others around him.
 - c. He must be able to use force well if his community is to be protected and if he is to stay healthy. To be able to use force well, an officer must keep in good physical condition.
 - 1) A young rookie, fresh from police school, is in top shape.
 - 2) This condition can be quickly lost if he does not pursue some course of physical exercise. As a result, he might develop shortness of breath and endurance, flabbiness and slow reflexes.
 - d. If you are mentally alert and physically fresh, you are able to choose and apply the right force at the right time.
3. The wrestling and jiu-jitsu holds of police school are important for self-confidence, but sometimes they may not be practical on patrol.
 - a. In school, recruits face each other and, at the count of the instructor and with mutual consent, they place an arm here or leg there and throw their classmates.
 - b. When the patrolman goes out on actual patrol, conditions are not the same. Instead of a spacious,

well-lighted gym, he could be on a narrow, dark stairway. Instead of his friendly classmates, he may be faced by a knife-wielding thug. Instead of gym clothes, he may be wearing long underwear, sweaters and a heavy winter overcoat.

- c. Prepare yourself by realistic, intensive practice, preferably supervised by an experienced instructor.
 - 1) Practice until your reactions are automatic, until the techniques of defense against all kinds of attack and the techniques of restraining and subduing are virtually reflex actions just waiting to be triggered by your decision to act.
 - 2) As you learn these actions and reactions, you are adding weapons to your personal armory to be employed when the situation calls for their use.
 - 3) Always observe your opponent, especially how he is dressed. Note his weakest point and take advantage of his disadvantages.

D. Preventive force.

1. When you look over an unarmed opponent, start from the bottom.
 - a. He may be barefoot, quite frequent in calls made to hotels, rooming houses and homes. If so, when he raises his clenched fists, a stomp with the heel of your shoe on the top of his toes will probably disable him.
 - b. He may be wearing shorts. If so, a forceful kick in the shins will transform an aggressor into a sufferer.
 - c. Make use of your opponent's clothing to restrain him.
 - 1) A man's suit jacket, taken by the rear of the collar and pulled downward to his elbows, will hamper his activities. Or, by grasping the bottom of the rear of his jacket or topcoat and throwing it over his head, you will hamper his vision and arm movements, making him swing wildly, if at all.
 - 2) If your opponent has a shirt with a closed, tight neck, place your hand inside the collar (front,

side or back), twist and lead him. Any downward pull will cause pressure, usually enough to keep him in check.

- 3) An opponent's tie can be an effective weapon against him.
 - a) With a quick motion, grab the inside flap of the tie and pull downward toward you. As he bends, grab the knot with your other hand and push up.
 - b) You have an effective noose; but you must be careful, as too much pressure will cause unconsciousness.
 - c. Use the tie hold to move the suspect about; he is usually too busy clutching at his collar to go on fighting you.
- 4) A cap or hat, pulled down over the eyes with a quick motion, will momentarily blind your opponent, allowing you to gain an effective hold.

E. Force to restrain.

1. Holding people against their will and leading them from one place to another while they resist movement is part of the job of a patrolman. In order to do his duty, he may have to use force.
2. If he fails to use restraining force effectively, a battle may follow; the officer will have to subdue his opponent vigorously.
3. By successfully restraining an adversary, by causing some controlled pain and injury to the person, the patrolman is protecting himself and innocent bystanders.
 - a. In using restraining force, the patrolman does not intend to disable or injure. He wants to restrain the person from further activity, or he wants to compel the person to go along with him.
 - b. The officer should apply only as much pressure and cause only as much pain as is needed to do the job at hand. If too much power is used, a fracture or other serious injury may result.

4. There are several restraining techniques in which you use your hands or arms:
 - a. Grasp one or two of your opponent's fingers and bend the fingers backward. To gain additional leverage, you can place your thumb against the back of his hand while continuing to bend his fingers with your hand.
 - b. If the opponent is pushing you, grasp his wrist with one hand and hold him to you. Apply the finger bend with your other hand. If the suspect has a grip upon you, force the end of your thumb or a knuckle between the bones on the back of his hand or bore your thumb tip into the place where his thumb joins his wrist.
 - c. If the opponent has grasped you from behind, a stamp of your heel upon the toe of his foot or a backward kick with your heel striking his shin may cause him to release you.
 - d. Grasp his thumb (with his thumbprint against your palm) and bend backwards or away from his palm.
 - e. Using your thumb, one or two fingers or a knuckle, you can apply concentrated pressure under the chin, on the Adam's apple, under the nostrils, at the back and bottom of the ears or in the soft part of either temple.
 - 1) This concentrated pressure may be sufficiently painful to force the opponent to break his hold upon you, another person or an object.
 - 2) A sharp tug or pinch applied to the hair, nose, ears or sensitive parts of the body (nipples of the breast or body hair) can accomplish the same objective.
 - f. The most commonly used arm hold is accomplished by twisting your opponent's arm behind his back while grasping his wrist. If he continues to struggle, the arm should be bent upward, at the same time applying a finger or thumbhold if needed.
 - g. An opponent can be held against a wall by a forearm press to the throat from the front. Stand close to him, with the side of your hip thrust into his body (to avoid getting kicked in the groin yourself and to hinder his sideways movements) and, with your arm in front of you and your elbow bent, press your

forearm against his throat. Use the weight of your body to press forward. Your other hand is free to apply additional force if necessary.

- h. A forearm press from behind can also be employed. Grab the opponent from behind by placing your forearm against his throat and, with the same hand, firmly gripping his shoulder or clothing. To restrain the person, bend him backward. With your other hand, you can grab his wrist or hand, bend it backward (toward you) and apply finger or thumb holds or an arm twist behind his back.
5. In lieu of your hands or arms, the nightstick can be used as a restraining instrument.
- a. Instead of a forearm press to his throat, you can employ your nightstick to keep your opponent against a wall.
 - 1) With your hands grasping either end of the stick, stand in front of your opponent and press it against his throat.
 - 2) Stand close, with the side of your hip thrust into his body, exactly as executed without the nightstick.
 - b. A nightstick throat press can be employed from behind your opponent, as well as from the front.
 - 1) Slip the stick across the throat, grasp the ends and bend him backward toward you. Relatively safe from his hands and feet, you can use your body to best advantage.
 - 2) A knee placed in the back of a particularly violent suspect provides additional leverage.
6. Restraint or come-along holds cannot be maintained over a long period of time against an opponent who has the ability and determination to break them. The extended restraint or leading of a battling suspect necessitates the use of mechanical devices, like handcuffs.
- F. Force to subdue.
- 1. There are times when the patrolman must forcibly subdue an opponent.

- a. If a suspect is about to use or, in fact, is using violence against those around him or the officer trying to restrain him, there is no other choice; the patrolman must fight.
- b. More than that, he must quickly and effectively subdue his adversary, with least risk to himself and to others and in a manner consistent with law.
- c. The officer must choose the best method of using his body and equipment to get the job done. Here are some practical tips to help him make that choice:
 - 1) Try not to use your fists in a fight.
 - a) The knuckles in your hand are hard, but there are many fragile bones in your hand that can be broken if they come into contact with the hard, bony parts of your opponent's face and head.
 - b) In addition, a punch, aimed for the face, sometimes lands on some teeth. If you do not break your hand or severely cut it, you may end up with a serious infection (the mouth is the most germ-laden body cavity), sometimes resulting in amputation or permanent disability to the fingers.
 - 2) If you must punch with your fist, use the solar plexus as a target. An upward motion - quick, forceful and surprising - is effective. But, if the suspect is wearing heavy clothing, such a blow is useless.
 - 3) When you use your hands, learn to use the side or heel of the hands. Severe damage can be done with such blows. There are some hand blows which should be employed only when the danger is great.
 - a) A quick chop with a flat hand, with the lower side of the hand hitting the opponent's Adam's apple, bridge of the nose or behind the base of either ear.
 - b) An upward thrust with the open, cupped hand (arm facing the opponent), with the heel and base of the palm striking under the jaw or nostrils.

- c) A clenched fist, used with a hammer effect (the lower side of the hand landing first) instead of a punching motion, downward or sideward, striking the base of the skull, behind the neck, against the temple or side of the jaw.
 - d) Two fists, next to one another (hands touching, but not entwined), used with a hammer effect, as described in (c).
 - e) One of two stiff fingers jabbed to the eyeballs.
 - f) Two fingers inserted into the nostrils from above and yanked upwards.
- 4) There are some knee and foot blows which should be applied only when the danger is great. The best is the knee to the groin of your opponent but here are others which are rarely mentioned.
- 5) Suppose you have knocked your assailant to the ground. Be careful! As far as he is concerned, the fight may be far from over.
- a) If he reaches for a dangerous weapon on the floor near him, stamp on his fingers or wrist.
 - b) But what do you do when he reaches for a gun in his clothing? If he is lying face up, kick to the groin or stamp down upon the solar plexus. If he is lying face down, stamp on the back of the neck or between the shoulder blades.
- 6) A toe-first kick should be avoided. A slight movement by your opponent will cause you to miss; and if you miss your target, you will be off balance. Stand sideways to the target. Bend your body away from the kick, raise your leg and lash out. In this manner, more of your shoe is presented to the target than is the case in a toe-first kick; and if you miss, you will still retain your balance.
- 7) Suppose you are knocked to the ground (assuming you are unarmed). Until you are able to stand, kicks are the best means of holding off your opponent. Spin on your back so that your feet are always toward your assailant.

- 8) You may be battling with a very strong opponent, one who earns his living by using his strength or fists. Remember, the strongest man in the world has the same weak points: eyes, nose, throat or scrotum.
- 9) If you can avoid using your fists and feet on a suspect, so much the better. Employing your body as a weapon increases the possibility of your getting hurt, even if you win. Try to use your equipment or other objects as weapons in close combat.

G. Using the nightstick.

1. The nightstick is a versatile and effective weapon.
2. Make sure that it is made of heavy, seasoned wood, smooth-grained and without knots.
3. The proper use of the nightstick depends upon the situation.
 - a. It can be employed as a lethal weapon, ranked just one step below your gun.
 - b. Or, it can be used merely as an extension of your arm, to rap or jab an opponent without your hands coming into direct contact with his body; it is safer for you and harder for him that way.
 - c. Do not use the nightstick with a slapping effect.
 - 1) The nightstick slap does not hurt or disable, but it does sting; and this may annoy or even infuriate your opponent.
 - 2) Slapping with the stick leads to poor public relations and may lead to violence where none existed before. If you do not want to hurt, do not use your nightstick.
 - d. When you have to use your stick to subdue an opponent, do not hit him on the head if you can possibly avoid it. Such a move is an error.
 - 1) First of all, the head is the hardest part of the body. It is so solid that you tend to hit it with all the power you can muster, and the force of your blow could result in mortal injury to your opponent.

- 2) Secondly, you can break your nightstick on an opponent's head; and in a fight with more than one assailant, this can be dangerous to you.
 - 3) Thirdly, even if you hit with just enough force to disable and subdue the suspect, his head is going to have a turban of bandages. There are few sorrier sights than an officer standing before a judge with a prisoner whose head is swathed in bandages.
4. To hold the nightstick properly, put the thong on your thumb and wind the leather around the back of the hand. This will enable you to have a secure hold on the stick; and at the same time, it will allow you to free yourself from it easily, should such action be necessary.
 5. If you can, handle the nightstick with the hand opposite to your gun hand. This habit can be learned by repeated practice; otherwise, you are limiting your effectiveness by being unable to use more than one hand at a time.
 6. The stick should be applied to bony parts of the body, as fatty parts of the body tend to absorb the force of the blow.
 - a. Sometimes a solid smash at the shinbone, side of the ankle, knee or elbow point will end all resistance.
 - b. A person holding on to a pipe or door handle, refusing to move, can be made to let go by a sharp blow across the knuckles or fingers.
 7. Use a rap (a short, hard sideways blow) or jab (a short, hard, tip-first blow) with a nightstick. Avoid the full overhead swing as much as possible. It is not a good technique for several reasons:
 - a. First of all, unless your opponent is caught by surprise, the overhead swing is not fully effective.
 - 1) The suspect will generally lift his arms to protect himself.
 - 2) Your blow may fall upon the several layers of clothing covering the upraised forearm, and its force will be partially absorbed.

- b. Secondly, the stick may strike a low ceiling or overhead obstruction and be knocked from your grasp.
 - 1) It may get caught on an overhead pipe, clothes line or electric wire.
 - 2) If there is more than one assailant, the nightstick may be torn from your hand, particularly from behind, and used as a weapon against you.
 - c. Thirdly, the public reaction to an overhead swing is decidedly unfavorable, and understandably so.
 - 1) Without knowing the facts of the matter, the citizen is confronted with a terrible sight: a uniformed policeman taking a full roundhouse swing with a big club. This unfavorable public reaction may be a hindrance when you need assistance, witnesses or cooperation of any kind from the public.
 - 2) A short rap or jab with the stick is more effective in the fight and does not have such an adverse effect upon public opinion.
8. When you rap or jab, shorten your grip depending upon the situation.
 - a. If you must go into the close quarters of a cab to subdue a suspect, hold the nightstick near the end, with about three inches protruding.
 - 1) Jab with it, straight from your body, like a knife stab, or from the side, like a left cross.
 - 2) Make sure the jutting end of the stick reaches its mark before your hand does.
 - b. In the less confining quarters of a hallway, hold the stick about halfway up. Rap or jab with it. You may find it effective to feint with your free hand before rapping with your stick.
 - c. An effective jab can be accomplished by a bayonet thrust movement with your nightstick. With one hand on the handle and the other hand at the middle,

jab the stick to exposed (unclothed or sparsely clothed) areas of the body.

9. In open areas, like a park or street, where you have a greater freedom of movement, the nightstick can be swung like a baseball bat.
 - a. Grasping the stick with both hands at the handle, the swing can be a downward chop from the shoulder at a 45 degree angle.
 - b. There are some stick blows that should be employed only when the danger is great: jab to the face, throat, groin, solar plexus or under the heart.
 10. If an opponent is trying to strike you with an object, the nightstick can be used to block the blow.
 - a. Aim the stick at his forearm or wrist, not the object. If you try to hit the object, you may miss altogether.
 - b. If you hit it, the object may be so hard that the blow may continue undeflected or your nightstick may break.
- H. Using the daystick.
1. A wooden daystick should never be used with a swinging motion; it is not effective. A swinging blow with a wooden daystick has a cutting effect; and when used upon the face, it will lacerate and cause profuse bleeding.
 2. Jab with it. Jab to the ribs, the side of the jaw, the pit of the stomach or under the breastbone.
- I. Using the blackjack.
1. Although very effective, the use of the blackjack is against regulations in many police departments.
 2. The blackjack is more compact than the nightstick.
 - a. For this reason, plain clothesmen and detectives use it because it is easy to carry and conceal.
 - b. Uniformed patrolmen use it when they do not have a nightstick or when they are in confined quarters.

3. Do not use a blackjack in your fist for added power when you punch an adversary. You may hurt your hand far more than you do him.
 4. Use a sideways swing, allowing the protruding end of the blackjack to land first. Or, a short over-the-shoulder swing can be employed, making maximum use of the spring action in the blackjack.
 5. If two or more patrolmen are involved in subduing an opponent, they should take care not to hit one another with nightstick or blackjack blows. When an officer has his arm around a battler's throat attempting to restrain him from behind, other policemen's blows, intended for the opponent's face or head, may strike the officer's head or elbow.
- J. Using available objects.
1. An officer confronted with an armed or dangerous suspect is justified in drawing his gun. In most instances, he can use other weapons assigned to him as part of his equipment; sometimes he must use available objects instead of, or to supplement, his regular weapons.
 2. When confronted by a person with an object in his hands, the officer should pursue the following:
 - a. To begin with, use verbal restraint; try reasoning with him. If this fails, you must subdue him.
 - b. Look around you. Think, and improvise.
 - c. Use any handy object that will enable you to subdue the person without killing him. Use that object as a weapon or shield so that you can get close enough to use your nightstick.
 - d. Make sure to notice other objects that your opponent can grab and use as weapons: a bus sign, a broken beer bottle. Get between him and the potential weapon as you advance.
 - e. When you get close enough, subdue him quickly. You may have to hurt him; but you have saved his life by being mentally alert, thinking clearly and improvising on the spot.

K. Using the gun.

1. When facing a man armed with a dangerous weapon, the officer should, if possible, find some object which he could use as a shield to ward off the attacker. Under no circumstances should the officer unnecessarily expose himself or others to the danger of being seriously wounded or killed in an effort to disarm someone armed with a deadly weapon.
 - a. The officer, if he can do so without exposing himself to immediate attack, should command the attacker to drop the weapon. If the adversary continues his assault without responding to the command, the officer should feel no compunction in shooting the attacker.
 - b. Disarming techniques are reserved for the experts and should never be attempted by the police officer unless that officer has no access to his gun or does not have the time to get it out and use it. Such a condition might prevail in the event the officer entered a business establishment and was immediately confronted by an armed adversary.
 - 1) Under such circumstances, it is possible that the officer might not be able to get his gun out fast enough to avert the attack; or that shooting in crowded rooms or areas might unnecessarily endanger the lives of many others.
 - 2) In this situation, such disarming tactics as those employed in jujitsu, karate, savate, etc. might be the only alternative. This leaves little choice for the officer confronted with such a predicament.
 - c. However, any time that the officer has the time to draw his weapon to avert an attack by someone armed with a deadly weapon, he should do so without hesitation. He need not expose himself or others to needless bodily attack nor to the danger of sustaining mortal injury when he could avert it through the use of his weapon.
2. If you are being fired upon, take cover. Get behind anything that will stop a bullet - an automobile, a tree, a building.

- a. Cardboard store displays and thin plaster or wooden walls will afford concealment but no protection.
 - b. Avoid taking cover near any glass windows, as fragments of shattered glass can cause you severe injury.
3. If no cover is available, present the smallest possible target to your assailants - crouch, or better still, fall to the ground and return their fire from a prone position.
 4. If firing the weapon is necessary to prevent the commission of a felony, or if, in fact, a felony has been committed and the fleeing suspects have not halted at your command and identification as a police officer, then you may fire on them.
 - a. Never point your gun at anyone unless you intend to fire it, should the circumstances demand such action.
 - b. Don't fire your gun while running. You may not hit the person you are firing at, and you will be endangering the lives of others in the area. Stop and take aim.
 - 1) Aimed fire, if it is to be accurate, depends upon the weapon's being maintained in a fixed position.
 - a) The unsupported, extended arm sways; a sway of a fraction of an inch may mean a miss of many feet; a sway of inches may result in a miss of several yards.
 - b) Support your gun hand against a stationary object. You will be better able, thereby, to hit your target.
 - 2) Deliberate, aimed shooting may not be possible in certain situations.
 - a) To protect your own life or the lives of those around you, you may have to hastily discharge your weapon after pointing it in the direction of the assailants. You take a risk if you do and you take a risk if you don't. The decision depends upon your evaluation of the particular situation confronting you.

- b) For quick firing, shoot from a semi-crouch, with the weapon held in front of you. Practice, in shooting from this position, should increase your accuracy.
5. Since the use of a weapon is fraught with the dangers inherent in its use, proficiency in its use by the officer should be considered one of the most important objectives of his practical training.

V. The Use of Personal Protective Weapons.

A. Introduction to the use of personal protective weapons.

1. Michigan is fast approaching the point where a man will no longer be given a badge, gun, and club, and then told to "go out and enforce the law." This will come about because of the increasing demand by the public that they deserve top quality law enforcement.
2. The courts have made it quite clear that communities have a definite responsibility to train their law enforcement personnel properly in the skillful use of their personal weapons, and that any lack of training that results in injury to the public at large makes the community employing that officer civilly liable for these injuries.

B. The side arm.

1. One of the greatest misconceptions among new police officers relates to the use of their side arms. Because of television and the movies, many young officers get into serious trouble because of a lack of understanding of the practical as well as the legal aspects of using their gun.
2. The purpose of the gun is to kill; that is what it is made for. If an officer wishes to maim or disable a person there are other weapons, such as the club, that could be used for this purpose.
 - a. More criminals are wounded by police officers than there are actually killed by them. The answer might well lie in chance or fate.
 - b. It is a very rare and skilled officer who, under combat conditions, can say with 100 per cent accuracy that he can shoot a person and not kill them or can hit them in the leg or arm only.
 - c. This being the case then, an officer should only fire his weapon when he fully intends to kill the person he is shooting at, or is willing to accept the responsibility of the person dying as a result of the action.

3. Since we cannot guarantee that a bullet will not kill the person at whom it is fired, we must seek refuge in the law that allows us to kill another person.
- a. A homicide by a police officer is justifiable under the following conditions:
 - 1) When necessarily committed in overcoming actual resistance to the execution of some legal process, or in the discharge of any other legal duty.
 - 2) When necessarily committed in retaking felons who have been rescued or have escaped, or when necessarily committed in arresting persons charged with a felony, and who are fleeing from justice or resisting such arrest.
 - b. It is important for an officer to realize that this law does not give him carte-blanche privileges in such cases, and that his action should be a last resort when all other means have failed, or when it is obvious that this is the only course open to him.
 - c. If it would appear to a prudent and reasonable person that such extreme force was not necessary, the law would not protect the officer.
 - d. It should also be pointed out that the law applies only to a felony and not a misdemeanor. The law feels that it is better that a misdemeanant escape than be killed, for this would be a punishment far in excess of the crime.
 - e. The law gives further justification to homicide, not only to police officers, but to citizens in general. The conditions necessary for such action are as follows:
 - 1) When resisting any attempt to murder any person, or to commit a felony, or to do some great bodily injury upon any person.
 - 2) When committed in defense of habitation, property, or person, against one who manifestly intends or endeavors, by violence or surprise, to commit a felony, or against one who manifestly intends and endeavors, in a violent, riotous or tumultous

- manner, to enter the habitation of another for the purpose of offering violence to any person therein.
- 3) When committed in the lawful defense of such person, or of a wife or husband, parent, child, master, mistress, or servant or such person, when there is reasonable ground to apprehend a design to commit a felony or to do some great bodily injury, and imminent danger of such design being accomplished; but such person, or the person in whose behalf the defense was made, if he was the assailant or engaged in mutual combat, must really and in good faith have endeavored to decline any further struggle before the homicide was committed.
 - 4) When necessarily committed in attempting, by lawful ways and means, to apprehend any person for any felony committed, or in lawfully suppressing any riots, or in lawfully keeping and preserving the peace.
- f. Again it must be remembered that these laws are to be availed of only when this action is a last resort, and that it is expected that a police officer would exercise greater care than the average citizen in these matters because his training and judgment would better prepare him to meet the situation with a cool head.
 - g. The law is quite explicit in justifying a homicide only when the intentions of the perpetrator are manifestly exhibited or when the controlling actions are reasonable.
4. There are practical aspects of shooting to be considered.
- a. The practical aspects regarding the use of the side arm can be condensed into two rules:
 - 1) Use it to save your own life.
 - 2) Use it to save the life of another.
 - b. These rules are certainly more restrictive than those allowed in the law. However, it is wise to consider the taking of a human life from a more conservative viewpoint.

- c. A professional police officer should be a person with a conscience. A person with a conscience does not lightly weigh the taking of a human life.
 - d. His action might be approved by a court or review board as falling within the limits of justifiable homicide, but in his own mind, for the rest of his life, he might ask himself if his action was truly a last resort.
5. Know the facts before shooting: Don't guess.
- a. Because we are all human beings and are fallible to chance appearances and circumstances, it is quite possible to take an innocent life while performing what we consider to be a legal duty.
 - b. Is the case actually a felony, or does it just appear to be one? The following are examples of actual cases:
 - 1) An armed robber held up a grocery store. There were several people inside the store. As the robber left by the front door, one of the people ran out the back door and over to a gas station to call the police. In the station getting gas was an off-duty officer. On hearing what happened, he ran to the front of the store. In the meantime the owner of the store had picked up a revolver and took off after the perpetrator. When the officer arrived at the front of the store, he saw the owner running with the gun in his hand, and yelled for him to stop. The owner turned and saw the officer in plain clothes with a gun in his hand, and thinking that he was the partner of the other gunman, he fired at the off-duty officer, who in turn returned the fire, and a gun battle ensued while the real perpetrator got away. Luckily no one was killed. If someone had been killed, it would have been declared excusable or justifiable homicide, but the person doing the killing might have been bothered for the rest of his life.
 - 2) Two persons held up a downtown bank and the alarm was tripped. As a businessman was about to enter the bank with a bag of money, he saw

- one of the perpetrators fire a shot, and he turned and ran down the street. Just then a police car arrived at the scene and saw the businessman running down the street with a money bag in his hand. The officer yelled at him to halt, but the running had apparently jarred the businessman's hearing aid loose, and he didn't hear the order. The officer fired at the businessman and killed him.
- 3) At a bank holdup, the perpetrators, while going through drawers, accidentally set off the silent alarm. When the first officers arrived, a gun battle ensued. A man living next door to the bank, saw what was going on and grabbed his revolver so he could assist the police. As he ran across the parking lot of the bank with his gun in his hand, another police car drove up. The officers jumped out, and one of them started shooting at the citizen with the gun in his hand. Fortunately, the officer was a bad shot and the man was not hit.
 - c. Apart from the cases of mistaken or supposed identity, the officer should also consider the possibility of hitting innocent bystanders when he becomes involved in a gun battle; there are, unfortunately, many cases of innocent bystanders being shot as a result of an officer firing at a criminal and missing, and for this reason, extreme caution should be used when firing a weapon in a congested area.
6. Shooting at juveniles presents many problems for the police officer.
- a. He should never underestimate the capabilities of a juvenile or the potential danger that the juvenile might possess; yet there are many times that an officer is completely justified from the legal standpoint in shooting at juveniles, and yet from the practical standpoint it is ill-advised.
 - b. It is common for police officers, when they begin chasing a stolen car containing juveniles, to start shooting at them. This tendency is strong, especially if they finally stop the car and the juveniles start running.

- 1) They justify this action by the magic word "felony"; "If it is a felony you can shoot at them."
 - 2) It should be remembered that the majority of juvenile car theft cases are reduced to the misdemeanor, "joyriding."
 - 3) Many departments now prohibit firing at stolen cars first. The safety of the public is an important factor here.
7. Panic firing is where one officer opens fire and everyone else follows suit.
- a. The first shot can be, and in many cases has been, an accident.
 - b. It seems that when the first shot is fired, many officers tend to panic and follow suit, feeling that there must be some good reason for the first shot being fired.
 - c. The power of panic reaction is greater at night when darkness breeds, insecurity and often hides the reality of the situation.
8. Despite the issuance of orders, in most departments, forbidding the firing of warning shots, their use is still prevalent in police work. It probably results from the frustration of the officer at having someone running away from him, and yet having a reluctance to shoot him.
- a. What is wrong with warning shots?
 - 1) What goes up must come down. The question is, where will it come down? The chance of a warning shot coming down and hitting a person in the head is rather remote, yet it has actually happened.
 - 2) Angle shots can cause damage. Many officers fire their warning shots over the suspect's head. This is more dangerous in that it can easily ricochet and cause property damage, as well as injury and death.

- 3) It seldom stops the suspect. Officers usually fire warning shots when the suspect is too far away to chase. When the suspect is that far away, he will seldom stop when the shot is fired. If anything, he will run faster because the shot has stimulated the adrenal fluid in his body, and has given him more energy.
 - 4) A report must be filed. Usually a copy of this report goes into the officer's personal folder, and can be considered derogatory in nature.
9. Use of side arms in dispatching injured animals.
- a. Most officers seldom fire their side arm in an actual combat situation, but many of them use their gun regularly in putting injured animals out of their misery when it is obvious that nothing can be done for them.
 - b. In dealing with animals under any condition, it is wise to remember that some people love animals more than they love other people, and will be very critical of any decision that involves shooting them.
 - c. The following steps are recommended when it appears that an officer will have to shoot an animal that is injured:
 - 1) Obtain the owner's permission if possible. If the owner is not around, or is unknown, obtain the names of witnesses who can verify that the animal was in a condition that warranted its being shot to put it out of its misery. If the owner of the animal later sues the officer on the grounds that the action was unjust, the officer can call on the witnesses to back up his action.
 - 2) Use special ammunition. An officer should carry one or two extra "wad cutter" type bullets to be used in "dispatching" injured animals. It is very embarrassing for an officer to shoot an animal and then have him jump up and go yelping down the street. Neither a magnum load nor

a penetrating load should be used because they have a greater chance of going through the animal and ricocheting to cause injury or damage.

- 3) Clear all children from the scene. Young children do not understand the situation and it is possible that they might subconsciously hate all policemen for the rest of their lives because in the back of their minds they remember a policeman in uniform shooting their pet that they loved so much. They might have forgotten that the animal was injured, or they might not have been present when it was actually hit by the car. The thing that sticks in their minds is the policeman shooting it.
- 4) Move the animal off the pavement. To reduce the chance of the bullet ricocheting, it is best to remove it to a dirt or lawn area.
- 5) Muzzle the animal. For safety's sake, it is best to muzzle the animal even though it may appear to be almost dead or even unconscious. The animal should not be moved without first muzzling it. This can be done with the officer's belt, handkerchief, or a piece of rope.
- 6) Don't shoot the animal in the head. If it is possible that the animal might be rabid, the laboratory must have the head intact in order to perform its test. If there is no suspicion of rabies, then it may be shot in the head, down into the body. This increases the chance of killing the animal, and decreases the chance of the bullet coming out the other side. If the animal is suspected of rabies, it should be shot in the neck and down into the body.
- 7) Breaking the neck is another way. Many times an officer is reluctant to shoot the animal because the area is congested with people, and there is no area without pavement (downtown area). This can be done by holding the animal up by the hind legs in one hand, until the neck arches back, taking the club in the other hand and then giving a snapping blow to the back of the neck. This is the common method of killing rabbits. It reduces the danger of shooting, and is less messy.

- 8) When the animal is dead. Many times an officer will shoot an injured animal, notify headquarters to call the pound and give them the location, and then take off. Under these conditions, it is not uncommon for a dead animal to lie in the gutter for two days. The reaction of the residents in the neighborhood is often quite strong, for they feel that the job was only half done by the officer. People expect more from the modern police department than they ever have before. After the officer has shot the animal, he should solicit one of the neighbors to allow the animal to be put in their garbage can (if it fits) until the pound car can arrive.
10. Liability as a result of shooting.
 - a. An officer who shoots an innocent bystander during a gun battle may not be found criminally guilty because it would be classified as excusable homicide, but if a jury was to find that the officer did not exercise reasonable care and caution, he could be sued for everything he will ever own.
 - b. It is important to remember that the board or jury that decides on the action is a "Monday morning" board, and was not there during the heat of battle. Their thinking can be quite a bit different.
 - c. When the law refers to actions as being those of a reasonable and prudent man, they usually mean such a man when he is without pressure of fear.
 11. A matter that is of as much concern to police administrators as the improper firing of the side arm is the failure of the officer to use it when he should.
 - a. Police administrators are becoming more aware of situations where the police officer has "buck fever," and cannot fire his weapon.
 - b. In many cases the officer has been wounded or killed as a result. The killing of another human being is a serious matter, and should not be taken lightly. However, the officer's life and safety is much more important, and steps should be taken to discover these tendencies and either correct them or direct the officer into another field of employment.

- c. Since the average officer rarely fires his weapon in a real combat situation, it is conceivable that he could spend many years on the department without being aware of this "buck fever."
- d. By the use of wax bullets and a reverse projection movie screen, it is possible to train an officer to react to real danger situations by having him draw his gun and fire it when the situation is presented on the screen. With enough practice, this would become a "conditioned response."

C. The police club and its significance as a police tool.

1. The use of the police club often causes problems for new officers.
 - a. Most people will agree that the police club is both a defensive and offensive weapon, but there is much confusion about its use.
 - b. It seems natural for the club to be used on the opponent's head, yet if there were a cardinal rule for the use of the police club, it would be "Do not hit a person on top of the head with the police club."
 - c. So natural is this tendency to so use the club, that veteran officers who know better have, on occasion, because of the excitement of the fight, hit his opponent on the head.
 - d. Why then, if this tendency is so natural, shouldn't an officer hit his opponent on the head?
 - 1) It can kill them. If you want to kill the person, use the gun; that what it is for.
 - 2) You seldom knock them out. In most cases, the purpose of using the club is to subdue the opponent or knock him out. With the police club, this seldom occurs. Many times the club will break and still not knock the person unconscious.
 - 3) The victim usually bleeds profusely. Even though the break in the skin is small, the bleeding is quite profuse, and this will gain the sympathy of bystanders and may promote charges of police brutality.

- 4) The officer opens himself for attack. When the officer raises his club, as he must to hit a person on the head, he opens himself for any number of defensive actions. It puts him in a very bad position strategically.
2. Generally speaking, the best places to use the police club are where the skin is close to the bone. They are as follows:
 - a. Collarbone.
 - b. Shins.
 - c. Hands and wrists.
 - d. Kneecap.
 - e. Nose.
 - f. Adam's apple.
 - g. Ankle.
 - h. Elbow.
 - i. Solar plexus.
 3. The best position for holding the club is a horizontal position in which the right end of the club is held in the right hand, palm down, and the left end of the club is held in the left hand, palm up.
 - a. When ready to deliver a blow, the club is snapped from the left hand to the target, and is immediately returned.
 - b. If the subject grabs the club, a quick twist will remove his grip. If both hands were gripping the club, palm down this could be done.
 - c. When carrying the club in the police car, it should be kept in exactly the same position so that when it is needed in a hurry, it can be grabbed immediately.
 4. There are other uses of the police club in addition to its use as a weapon.

- a. The club can be used as a "come along." One of the most common is where the club is inserted from behind and between the legs and then lifted up.
 - b. The club can be used as a splint for broken bones.
 - c. The thong can be used in a splint for broken bones.
 - d. It can be used to break in a window or door when forced entry is required. (The gun should never be used for this purpose.)
5. Carrying the club involves certain safety precautions.
- a. When carrying the club, the thong should not be hung around the wrist as is commonly seen in many cities.
 - b. It should be hung on the thumb and back across the back of the hand. In this way, it can be released in case the subject gets a firm grip on the club and starts to swing the holder around.
- D. The Yawara stick. It is a small dowel-shaped weapon of any material - with knobby ends which protrude from the hand when gripped by the officer, and is now carried by many officers in addition to their police club. It has the following advantages:
- 1. Because it is small, it can be held in the hand and hardly noticed; the officer can have it ready without alerting his opponent. By folding the arms, it can be completely hidden. This reduces the possibility that the officer might have to fight.
 - 2. If an officer comes at someone with a police club in his hand, he can expect a fight, because the opponent often feels that he has no choice. There have been fewer charges of police brutality in departments where Yawara sticks have been used.
 - 3. It cannot be grabbed from the officer's hand. The size and the spikes prevent it. The small spikes can be used as come-alongs.
- E. An ever-increasing number of police departments are equipping their men with the tear gas spray.
- 1. It is primarily designed to momentarily stun a person who is:

- a. Assaulting an officer.
 - b. Resisting an officer.
2. Tear gas spray has the following advantages:
- a. It is carried in a compact container which can be held in the hand.
 - b. It has a sudden, surprising, stunning effect.
 - c. Its use requires no physical contact.
 - d. It creates a good image for the department - leaves no marks or scars - there is no bloodshed.
 - e. It is effective when properly used, in the majority of instances.

VI. The Frisk and Search.

A. Frisk and search by the policeman.

1. To protect himself and others and to uncover evidence of criminal activity, an officer performs a frisk and a search.
2. A search is a methodical and comprehensive examination of a suspect's person, possessions and clothing in an effort to uncover hidden weapons, articles that may be used to facilitate escape or evidence of illegal activity.
3. The person who is searched has been arrested and/or is searched in compliance with a warrant.
4. A frisk is something less than a search.
 - a. A patrolman does not place his hand inside, but moves his hand along the outside of a person's clothing.
 - b. He does not pat - it is possible to miss a small weapon or item of evidence that way - but feels by running his hand against the garment.
 - c. The officer feels for any hard objects that can be dangerous weapons in the hands of a person desiring to flee or to do injury to himself, the officer or others.

B. When and where to frisk.

1. Always frisk prisoners.
2. Upon arriving at the scene of a fight, separate and then frisk the participants. Someone may have a gun in his coat pocket, an ice pick in his belt or a knife strapped to his shin.
3. The frisk prevents further and more hazardous disorder.
4. As you frisk, be sure to take note of any peculiarities of apparel and possessions:
 - a. Extra-large pockets or metal clips sewn into a garment may indicate that the suspect is a shoplifter.

- b. Slits in the clothing are a mark of a pickpocket.
- c. Several can openers may be the tools of a car burglar or thief.

5. At night, choose a well-lighted area nearby to conduct the frisk.
6. During the daytime, select a location away from the public, because bystanders may inadvertently and unintentionally interfere with your duty through their curiosity.
7. Another reason for frisking a suspect away from public view is that the suspect's reputation should not be jeopardized unnecessarily.

C. How to frisk.

1. One technique entails ordering the suspect to stand three feet from a wall or an automobile, with his feet spread far apart and his hands outstretched before him.
 - a. The suspect leans his body forward until his open palms are against the wall or car roof.
 - b. In this position, the suspect can rather easily be thrown off balance by kicking one foot out from under him.
 - c. When using this technique, place your left foot in front of the suspect's left foot.
 - d. At any suspicious movement by the suspect, kick his foot away from the wall or car to send him sprawling.
 - e. Start at the head and frisk downward.
 - f. When you pass the suspect's jacket or coat, grasp the rear bottom and thrust it over his head.
 - g. While he is momentarily blinded by this action, you get a clear view and are able to perform a more complete frisk.
 - h. As you get to frisk below the knees, seeking for anything in his socks or shoes, you should crouch, not bend from the middle.

- i. When you remove your left foot from in front of him, replace it with your left hand.
 - j. Once you are finished with the suspect's left side, switch your gun to your left hand and move to his right side.
 - k. Place your right foot in front of his and perform the frisk of this side in the manner described above.
2. When you frisk a young, agile suspect and the circumstances prevent your using your gun should he try to escape, use the following procedure.
- a. While you frisk the upper portion of his body with one hand, grasp the back of his shirt collar with your other hand. When you frisk the lower part of his body, grasp the back of his belt or pants waistline with your other hand.
 - b. By keeping a firm grip upon him, you make it difficult for a suspect to dart away from you.
 - c. As you frisk, your eyes should be upon the suspect's head and hands at all times.
 - d. The movement of these parts of the body will give you the first signs of any false moves on his part.
 - e. Your hands will feel anything suspicious; you don't have to watch them at work.
 - f. If you find anything worth examining, take it and back away from him before you inspect it.
 - g. Your momentary diversion while in close proximity to the suspect may give him an opportunity to attack you and/or attempt to escape.
3. There are officers who use the above technique with some slight variations. Instead of the suspect keeping his balance with outstretched arms, some patrolmen prefer to order him to clasp his hands behind his head, fingers entwined and palms against the back of his head, and use his elbows to lean against the wall or car.
- a. The advantage of this technique is that any suspicious movement can be countered by ramming the suspect's head against the wall.

- b. There is a drawback in using this technique: the suspect may have a razor or other small but dangerous weapon secreted at the back of his shirt, jacket, or coat collar.
4. Some officers prefer to lean a suspect against a stoop or automobile fender; they reason that the lower the object the suspect leans against, the easier it is to throw him off balance.
5. There are various other techniques which are used to frisk a person.
6. These are used when you are certain that a crime has been committed or when you believe the suspect will assault you and flee at the first opportunity.
7. One involves having the suspect lie down on his belly, spread-eagle fashion.
- a. Frisk from the side opposite the direction he is facing; that is, while the suspect is facing to the right, you would frisk from his left side, and vice versa.
 - b. With his legs spread out, have him turn his feet toward one another, in a pigeon-toed manner.
 - c. Start to frisk from the feet and work up. At all times keep your body, especially your feet, away from his hands.
8. Some patrolmen take a dangerous suspect to a nearby enclosure which is removed from public view but is large enough to allow freedom of movement.
- a. Once inside, the suspect is ordered to drop his trousers about his ankles.
 - b. Then he is ordered to lean against a wall, in the manner described earlier.
 - c. With his pants about his ankles, the suspect will find it hard to assault you or to escape from you.
9. When you frisk, tell the suspect what you are doing and tell him of the consequences should he give you any trouble. If you have reason to believe the suspect has a gun or other dangerous weapon upon his person or he is desperate or not completely rational, have your gun out and ready to use but uncocked.

10. Do not assume that, because you are a police officer acting with legal authority, everyone will do as he is told.
- A suspect who thinks himself larger, stronger, faster or younger than you may attempt to assault you.
 - A person familiar with the surrounding area may chance a sneak attack upon you. He may reason that with his knowledge of the nearby alleys, rooftops and backyards, if he could only get one punch or kick in - enough to knock you down - he would make a successful getaway.
 - Order the suspect to assume the frisk position and be ready to back up your order.
11. Suppose there is more than one suspect to be frisked.
- If there are many, a patrolman should, with his gun in hand, order them to assume a frisk position and call or send a reliable person to call for assistance.
 - Suspects should remain in the frisk position, with the officer covering them with his gun from ten to twenty feet away, until assistance arrives.
12. Do not stop frisking when you find a weapon.
- A suspect may have two or more weapons upon him.
 - If you cease frisking when you discover a gun in a shoulder holster, you will miss a knife that is taped to a leg.
 - Professional gunmen have been known to hide a small-caliber gun beneath another in their holster, hoping that the police upon discovering the first weapon, will not inspect the holster for the second.
 - Your life depends upon a good frisk.
13. The proper procedure depends upon several factors.
- Location. If you are in a confined area, like a hallway, room or small backyard, only one suspect

- can be frisked with safety by a lone patrolman. The presence of additional suspects necessitates calling for assistance.
- Time. At night, when the light is so dim that you cannot see their movements clearly, assistance is needed to frisk even a few suspects.
 - Bystanders. If innocent bystanders, curious spectators or children crowd around the scene, the number of suspects you can safely frisk is very limited. The other people may be grabbed and used as shields.
 - Should the suspects flee among them or attempt to assault you, you cannot fire your gun for fear of injuring someone in the crowd.
 - The presence of other people milling about is reason enough to call for assistance.
 - Physical obstruction. If there are nearby objects behind which suspects can dodge (a line of parked cars, for example), or which the suspects may use to assault you (e.g., loose lumber, bricks, metal sanitation baskets), it is dangerous for you, alone, to frisk more than one man. Call for assistance.
- D. Hazards to the policeman in frisking.
- The greatest hazard to a lone patrolman attempting to frisk more than one suspect is derived from his own mental state.
 - Because he has performed frisks many times before, is anxious to get his meal or go off duty, believes the complainant to be a crank or doesn't think the suspects look like criminals, an officer may take on more than he can handle.
 - Doing so, he is neglectful of his duty and is needlessly exposing himself to great risk.
- E. Two man frisk team.
- One officer should stand about ten to twenty feet away from the suspects, with his revolver covering them, while his partner, with his gun in his holster, does the frisking.
 - The patrolman holding the gun should always be on the side opposite his partner.

- b. At no time should the partner get in the line-of-fire, between the revolver and the suspects.
 - 2. When they change sides, the officer doing the frisking should pass behind his partner.
 - 3. The officer doing the frisking should never get between suspects.
 - a. There are two ways he can avoid doing so.
 - 1) One involves frisking the left side of the first suspect, moving him to the end of the line and frisking the left side of the next suspect.
 - 2) When the left sides of all suspects are frisked, the officer does the right side of each suspect, one at a time, returning each suspect to the end of the line when he is finished with him.
 - b. A second technique entails removing one suspect from the line altogether.
 - 1) While the remaining suspects are covered by his partner, the officer frisks this suspect completely.
 - 2) After returning him to the far end of the line, the patrolman takes the next one aside for a complete frisk.
 - 3) The officer should make sure that the person already frisked is back in line before he takes the next suspect out of line.
- F. The search of a suspect.
- 1. A search of a suspect entails the very thorough examination of his person, possessions, and clothing.
 - 2. It should be performed on a person in the station house under the supervision of a superior officer or in a hospital under the supervision of hospital authorities.
 - 3. Another patrolman should stand guard while the arresting officer performs the search.
 - 4. All garments should be searched. Nothing should go unexamined.

- a. A razor blade, file or package of narcotics may be secreted in the sweatband of a cap or in the lining of a tie.
 - b. Watch for portions of a seam that are sewn in a different stitching than the rest of the seam.
 - c. Feel for anything that is lumpy or hard.
 - d. Examine garments for hidden pockets and shoes for hidden compartments.
 - e. Hiding weapons and evidence under collar lapels, pocket flaps or in trouser and shirt cuffs is a favorite trick of criminals.
5. All possessions of the arrested suspect should be laid out on a table, away from the suspect, and searched methodically. This includes things he has in his pockets.
- a. Wallets, paper pamphlets, key cases and handkerchiefs should be opened and their contents placed upon a table.
 - b. Fountain pens and cigarette lighters can be remade in such a way as to fire a small-caliber bullet, so examine them carefully.
 - c. Any garment or article already examined should be placed far apart from those which remain to be searched.
6. When there is more than one prisoner, thoroughly search one at a time.
7. Follow all the orders of your superior officer. If you are not certain about the disposition or importance of any article, ask him.
8. Weapons and evidence can be taped or strapped to parts of the body.
- a. A prisoner's person should be carefully examined, including the soles of the feet, armpits, fatty creases and between the legs.
 - b. A search must be thorough or it is a waste of time. Do not be rushed.
9. If the person or article are exceptionally filthy or lice-ridden, take off your jacket and roll up your shirt sleeves.

- a. Wash your hands and forearms thoroughly when you are finished.
- b. Do not let odor or filth deter you from a careful examination of the person's body, possessions or clothing. You are after evidence and evidence is necessary for complete investigation and conviction.

VII. Transporting Prisoners.

A. An introduction to methods and safeguards in transporting prisoners.

The unpredictable nature of man creates a serious threat to the officers removing a man from the scene of a crime or an arrest. The prisoner, facing the loss of freedom, can become desperate and extremely dangerous. The fact that a prisoner submits peacefully does not guarantee that he will not resort to violence or trickery minutes later. Any prisoner - even the "friendly drunk" - may be some dangerous wanted man plotting his escape. Therefore, transporting officers must be prepared to cope with any eventuality - including an attack on their persons, or deception - to carry out a plan of escape. Transporting officers are required to act in a manner which will assure the safety of their prisoners. From the time of arrest until the moment of incarceration, the prisoner is their responsibility and they are required to take any necessary precautions in order to provide for the prisoner's safety.

B. Preliminaries to transporting a prisoner.

1. An officer should never attempt to transport more persons than he can safely control.
2. Searching a subject is the first of many precautionary measures to be taken and applies to every prisoner transported.
 - a. Do not depend on another officer to search a prisoner for you. Personally search each person you will transport.
 - b. Confiscate any article that can be used as a weapon.
 - 1) Items such as a pen, a heavy belt buckle, a pen knife, must be removed.
 - 2) A woman's large purse, a hat pin and high heeled shoes can be used to inflict injury.
3. Any person arrested for a serious offense, regardless of sex or age, must be handcuffed. This precaution is also taken with any person who has resisted arrest or who shows signs of belligerency.
4. Although the interior of a police vehicle is searched for a hidden weapon or evidence after a prisoner has

been booked, it is also a good practice to re-search the vehicle before transporting another prisoner.

- a. This permits the officer to remove any article which could be a potential weapon.
 - b. Tools, flares, a flashlight or even a weapon hidden by a previous suspect can all be used by a prisoner attempting to escape.
 - c. It assures that there are no weapons or evidence hidden in the vehicle before the prisoner is placed there.
 - d. If a subsequent search conducted after the prisoner is delivered discloses a weapon or evidence, it is easier to establish that this contraband was hidden by the suspect.
5. The transporting officers are required to act in a manner that assures the safety of their prisoner.
 - a. The driver of the cruiser or transportation van must obey all traffic regulations.
 - b. Excessive speeds are unnecessary and needlessly endanger the occupants of the police vehicle and the motoring public. The transporting officers must also care for the prisoner.
 6. The intoxicated prisoner also presents the greatest number of hostile or uncooperative prisoners.
 - a. Whenever you are dealing with such an individual, it is best to apply restraints immediately to obtain cooperation by firm direction.
 - b. If you must resort to force, do so only after other attempts have failed.
 - c. Then the officer should use only such force as is necessary to control the subject.
- C. Using the patrol wagon as a means of transportation.
1. The patrol wagon is the ideal vehicle to transport prisoners, but its availability does not eliminate precautions of searching or handcuffing prisoners.

2. The patrol wagon should be searched for any articles which could be used for weapons.
 3. The prisoners are seated as far forward as possible, while the guard officer is seated near the back doors.
 4. The interior light is kept on to permit a better watch over the occupants and to enable the driver to check the rear compartment periodically.
 5. The guard officer should not allow prisoners to conduct a conversation among themselves.
 6. After the prisoners are delivered to jail, the inside of the patrol wagon should be searched again for any discarded evidence.
 7. Women prisoners can be transported by male officers if the procedures are adjusted.
 - a. No officer should ride in the back with a female prisoner.
 - b. Both officers remain in front of the van or cruiser and watch the prisoner through the compartment window.
 - c. The interior light should be turned on to facilitate observation.
 8. Male and female prisoners, unless involved in the same crime, should not be transported together.
 - a. In those cases involving the transportation of mixed sexes, the guard officer rides with the prisoners.
 - b. If extreme hostility exists between the parties arrested, it is better to place them in separate vehicles.
- D. Using the patrol car as a means of transportation.
1. The one-man patrol car.
 - a. Sound field procedures generally direct that whenever you have a subject in custody, you are to inform the dispatcher and request transportation assistance.

- b. If no other units are available and you must transport the prisoner to jail, inform the dispatcher of the following: The identity and description of the prisoner, the reason for the arrest, your location and your destination.
 - c. This procedure not only keeps the dispatcher informed of your movements, but the knowledge that other police units are aware of his identity may deter a prisoner from attempting to escape.
 - d. The handcuffed prisoner is placed in the car through the driver's door, to prevent any escape effort when the officer walks around the car. The prisoner is seated on the front seat.
 - e. Additional restraints can be applied by using the safety belt to secure the subject to his seat.
 - f. As a precaution, the officer should place his weapon on his left side.
 - g. If at any time the officer feels he cannot handle the situation, he should remain at the scene until additional help arrives.
 - h. Two prisoners may be handled in much the same manner.
 - 1) They are restrained by interlocking their arms and handcuffing their hands behind their backs.
 - 2) One suspect is handcuffed with his arms behind him.
 - 3) The left arm of the second prisoner is then passed under the right arm of the first subject before applying the handcuffs.
 - 4) The prisoners are seated on the front seat and the safety belt is used to secure at least one of the subjects.
2. One-man car and assistance.
- a. If a unit assigned to assist in transporting a prisoner is another one-man car, only one police vehicle is used for transportation.

- b. The other is parked legally out of traffic and locked while both officers transport the subject to jail.
 - c. If restraints are used, they are applied in the usual manner.
 - d. The prisoner is seated on the right rear seat of the transport vehicle while the guard officer, after placing his service revolver on his left side, is seated directly in back of the driver.
 - e. When two subjects are to be transported, they are handcuffed in a manner which will be most effective and yet, will not prevent them from leaving the police vehicle in an emergency.
 - f. The two are seated on the rear seat - one on the right side, the other in the center - while the guard officer is seated in back of the driver.
 - g. The front seat is used if a third suspect is to be transported.
 - h. Under no circumstances must the guard officer seat himself in the front while the prisoners are placed in the back seat.
 - i. At least two officers should transport a female prisoner if a policewoman is not available, noting time, location and destination with the dispatcher and reporting to the dispatcher the time of arrival at the destination.
 - j. The prisoner is seated in the police vehicle as any other prisoner - on the right rear seat with the passenger officer next to her.
 - k. As with a male suspect, the officers must remain alert for any attempt to escape, hide evidence, fight or interfere with the driver.
- E. Transporting juveniles.
- 1. Any person, including a juvenile, who is suspected of committing a felony or who may be dangerous to himself or to you, should be handcuffed while en route to jail. A juvenile should also be searched.

2. A male juvenile is transported by police vehicles in much the same manner as an adult.
 3. Local exceptions may exist where the statutes may prohibit the transportation of juveniles with adults.
 4. Departmental policy may also restrict the transportation of juveniles to unmarked vehicles.
 5. The fact that exceptions may occur should not be interpreted to mean that an officer should be less vigilant when transporting a juvenile.
 6. Female juveniles are transported in much the same manner as an adult female.
 7. If a policewoman or matron is not available, the transporting officers follow the same procedures that apply to the transportation of adult females.
- F. The importance of time in transporting prisoners.
1. The time between arrest and incarceration is critical.
 - a. The potential for false accusations is reduced by expediting the transportation of a prisoner to jail.
 - b. Always take the most direct route from the scene to jail.
 - c. If too great a period of time elapses between the arrest and the booking, and an allegation of officer misconduct is made, the more difficult it is for the officers to account for their time.
 - d. Stopping on the way to jail to make a field interrogation or for other less pressing business has resulted in criticism of officers.
 2. Both officers must remain with the prisoner throughout the entire period of transportation.
 - a. The officer who leaves his partner for any reason provides the opportunity for the prisoner to file a false complaint.
 - b. It is advisable to obtain a time and mileage check from the dispatcher and record the information in the notebook before leaving the scene of an arrest.

- c. In addition, the names and addresses of responsible persons who witnessed the arrest will help the officer to refute any false accusations of misconduct; these should be secured before leaving the scene.
- G. Limiting your conversation with prisoners.
1. A police vehicle is not the best place to question a suspect.
 2. The driver is preoccupied with operation of the vehicle and may not be a good corroborating witness.
 3. A hostile, intoxicated or emotionally upset suspect can be difficult to handle if attempts are made to question him enroute to the police station.
 4. Questioning may serve only to arouse a suspect and make him more resistive.
 5. It is not necessary to avoid all conversation.
 - a. You may use this time to calm an emotional prisoner.
 - b. Being a good listener often can accomplish this purpose.
 - c. You can engage in general conversation to distract the suspect and prevent him from developing an alibi.
 - d. Such conversations can also serve to break down any defenses and make the subject more cooperative at the police station.

VIII. The Stopping of Vehicles and the Control of Occupants.

A. The chasing of vehicles.

1. The changing attitude of the public.

- a. The ancient philosophy of law was "The safety of the people is the supreme law"; a new philosophy of "The safety of the individual is greater than the safety of the people" has arisen.
- b. In a similar vein, police departments are receiving an increasing number of complaints whenever the newspaper describes a chase through the town by a police car pursuing a criminal suspect. Letters are written to the editor, and the Chief of Police is visited by both individuals and committees. The gist of their complaint in simple; police cars should not endanger the lives of innocent citizens by chasing criminals at high speeds through populated communities.
- c. Their feeling is that it is better to let the suspect escape rather than endanger innocent persons who may be crossing the street, or who may be driving into an intersection on the green light when the pursued vehicle hits them broadside.
- d. Since the police department is a servant of the public, wise police administrators lend a heavy ear to public demands and since our towns and cities are growing so fast, the problem will become more acute as the areas become more populated.
- e. Again it boils down to the safety of the general public versus the safety of the individual. The answer to this problem is not simple, but it can be greatly helped by the proper training and attitude of the patrol officer.

2. The personal involvement of the patrol officer.

- a. It is quite easy for the officer pursuing a suspect to become so personally involved in the case that he will take unnecessary chances and will endanger his own personal safety and the safety of his vehicle, not to mention the safety of citizens in general.
- b. It is wise to remember that when we become emotional, our intellect is either impaired or blocked, and we are at the mercy of our emotions and our habits.

- c. In such a situation as a police chase, an officer needs every bit of intelligent thought he can muster. Such a chase can often amount to a battle of wits; an officer must, therefore, learn through practice to control his temper and remain cool during emergencies.
- d. This is harder for some than it is for others, but it is something that can be developed in every officer.
- e. An officer should, therefore, carefully develop good habits in his driving and general police procedures so that when he finds himself in an emergency situation he will automatically perform the tasks that his habit patterns indicate.
- f. In a police chase the officer usually has greater advantages, and need not take chances that are unnecessary. These advantages are:
 - 1) Police communications for tactical operations such as interceptions and roadblocks.
 - 2) Numerical superiority. The officer can call on the other units of his own department and of those from other agencies and neighboring communities.
 - 3) The officer usually has a better knowledge of the streets and the general area.
 - 4) The officer usually has more experience and skill at high speed driving.
- g. Experience indicates that a police officer "loses his head" more in a "hot chase" than at any other one time. As a result, there is a high degree of unnecessary shots fired during a chase, and a high degree of suspects assaulted by police officers when the chase comes to a climax.
- h. It is very natural for an officer to build up internal tension during the chase, and it is hard for him to turn it off when the chase ends.
- i. This same feeling persists in the driver of the vehicle being pursued. Many times he will come out of the car fighting because his body is so stimulated by the adrenal glands as a result of the chase. Pride also enters into the picture.
- j. When an officer has chased a suspect for some time, and the suspect finally halts the car or has an accident, and then makes a run for it, there is a terrible temptation

for the officer to halt the suspect by the use of his side arm. This occurs even if the suspect is obviously a juvenile.

- k. It is hard for anyone to turn his emotions on and off like a faucet, but the responsibility that a police officer holds demands that he give it some concentrated effort.

3. The person being pursued.

- a. In making a chase as effective as possible, it is wise to evaluate the feelings and pressures of the person being chased, and analyze his motives.

- b. The pursued usually has the disadvantage because of the following:

- 1) The pursued is under more pressure to escape and make decisions. He has more to lose. Decisions under pressure, as a rule, are often not the best ones.

- 2) Unless the person is drunk or under the influence of narcotics or drugs, he is usually more emotional and scared, and will take more chances. Often the fact that he is fleeing is a sign of panic.

- a) Many officers will play this to their advantage by just staying on their tail rather than trying to overtake them through dangerous maneuvers.

- b) The result is that the officer insures greater safety, and the suspect often crashes his vehicle or "spins it out" because he took too many chances.

- c) Keeping a safe distance also prevents the officer from "rear ending" the pursued car, and it allows him to maneuver more easily. It also gives him a better view of the overall traffic so he can prevent collisions with other cars on the road.

- 3) If the pursued driver is under the influence of drugs or alcohol, his senses and reactions will be affected.

- 4) Because of watching movies and television, the suspect might have the added fear that he will be shot at. This fear might increase as the chase lengthens. It is possible that he has been chased before and was shot at, and the fear may be a real one.

- 5) The siren and red lights tend to make the suspect think

that the police car is closer than it really is, and that it is going much faster than it really is. As a result he may take unnecessary chances.

4. Pointers during a chase.

- a. The patrol officer would do well to review the following pointers on a regular basis. He will not remember all of them during the first chase, but by being given a continued review, they will eventually become part of his habit reactions. They are:

- 1) Notify headquarters immediately when the chase begins.

- 2) Weigh the seriousness of the violation against the possibility of wrecking the police car and causing self-injury. Some violations are just not that serious that an officer should gamble so much just to catch the fleeing vehicle. But remember, fleeing is an arrestable offense for:

- a) Eluding police.

- b) Reckless driving.

- 3) Do not actually begin the chase until the seat belt is fastened securely.

- 4) Don't pursue a vehicle if you are carrying passengers or prisoners unless it is a dire emergency. The courts might award them a considerable sum if any injury occurred.

- 5) Don't make quick starts or "dig out" when first starting a chase. It can stall the engine, and it can also cause an accident.

- 6) When not actually accelerating, keep your foot on top of the brake without depressing it. The split second that will be saved in applying the brakes when some danger presents itself, will mean that the police car will stop many feet sooner, and may save your life.

- 7) Take into consideration the condition of the road, the degree of traffic and the weather, when chasing a suspected vehicle. All of these conditions should have an effect on your driving.

- 8) Plan on a car entering each blind intersection that is approaching. Remember how easy it is for a person in a noisy car with the windows rolled up not to hear your siren.
- 9) Keep radio control informed of each change in direction so that the other police cars may be directed to a proper interception.
- 10) Don't use the siren unless you are the immediate chasing police car. It is unfortunately common for emergency vehicles to collide in a blind intersection because they both had their sirens on and could not hear the other emergency vehicle.
- 11) Don't accelerate on oil slicks, ice, or slippery parts of the road. It can cause skidding.
- 12) If you have a partner, let him do the radio broadcasting. Also have him sweep the approaching intersections with the spotlight if it is at night; this is to warn vehicles approaching from side streets that you are approaching their intersection. (DO NOT SHINE YOUR SPOTLIGHT INTO ONCOMING VEHICLES, as this can blind the driver and cause him to drive into your vehicle head-on.)
- 13) When approaching another vehicle from behind, slow down gradually before actually arriving just behind him.
 - a) Applying brakes at the last minute presents a greater danger of accidents and results in a greater loss of speed.
 - b) It is harder to regain this speed in order to properly pass, than it would be if the police vehicle was slowed slightly when the vehicle ahead was first noticed, and then the speed gauged accordingly.
- 14) When driving at fast speeds, it is difficult to take evasive action when one of the vehicles ahead suddenly decides to make a turn. Therefore, give all cars ahead plenty of pre-warning when you are about to pass them.
 - a) This can be done with the horn or spotlight if the siren is not being used.
 - b) At night put the spotlight very briefly on the rear view mirror. If it is left there too long, it might blind the driver and cause an accident.

- 15) If at all possible, avoid passing other vehicles at intersections. This requires a little planning, but the safety factor is worth it.
- 16) Generally, don't pass on the right. If it is a necessity, it should be done very slowly and only when the car ahead has had some warning and seems to be aware of what is taking place. This is very dangerous, though.
- 17) Don't brake on turns. Pump or fan the brake pedal intermittently; don't jam the brakes on. This causes skidding, and could overheat the brakes to the point where they might fail completely.
- 18) When going into a turn at high speeds, accelerate slightly. This gives the rear wheels a little traction and will help the vehicle stay on the road. Race drivers use this technique on the track.
- 19) If there is a strong wind blowing from either side, plan on the police vehicle swerving sharply when passing large trucks or when going into an underpass, because these act as wind blocks, and have the same effect as if a person were leaning against you with his arm, and then suddenly pulled his arm away.
- 20) If the suspect begins firing at your vehicle, be very cautious about returning the fire. Do not panic and use all shells in your gun; if the chase should suddenly end, you might have to face him with this empty gun.
 - a) Be aware of possible bystanders or innocent motorists on the road when you return the fire.
 - b) If it is a two-man car, the passenger should jump in the back seat and roll down the windows on both sides. He can quickly go from one window to the other in order to return the fire according to the best vantage point.
- 21) In a long chase, the accelerator should not be given full throttle for a long period of time. The pedal should be released for a second to give the pistons, rings, and cylinders an oil bath. This little precaution may insure that the police vehicle does not have an engine failure that would end the chase.
- 22) In a long highway chase, the siren, if it isn't the electronic type, should be used sparingly or it can

burn out. The tone should be constantly varied, and when there are no other vehicles or intersections around, the siren should be released. Save it for when it is really needed.

23) If the officer sees that he is about to collide with an oncoming vehicle, it would be better, if possible, to run off the road.

- a) Even if he were to hit a tree, it would result in less impact than colliding with an oncoming vehicle.
- b) If the oncoming vehicle were traveling at the same speed as the police vehicle, the impact force would be double.
- c) Sometimes when the police vehicle runs off the road, there are small fences and bushes that tend to slow it down. In such a case, the officer should bring his face down toward the seat to prevent its being cut from flying glass.
- d) If the police vehicle is traveling at a very high speed, it is sometimes best to roll the vehicle rather than hit trees on the side of the road. To roll the vehicle, the steering wheel should be jerked quickly to one side, and then both the brake and the accelerator jammed to the floor. (This should only be done when the safety belt is very secure.)

24) An officer often forgets to use turn signals during a chase because his whole attention is devoted to the vehicle being chased. The other drivers on the road are not mind readers, and any turning signal given by the officer will further insure his own safety. And after all, his safety is one of the prime considerations.

B. Stopping the vehicle.

1. When it is expected that the vehicle driver might respond to your command to pull over, the first consideration is to pick the best location.
2. When a location is decided upon, radio control should be notified of this proposed location. It will also enable other vehicles to intercept if the occasion demands it.
3. The prime considerations in picking a location are:
 - a. To present as few escape routes as possible, such as side streets.

- b. To present as little traffic hazard as possible. The street should be wide enough to make the stop without putting the persons involved in danger from passing cars.
- c. To take place in an area as little populated as possible. There have been many cases recently throughout the country where large groups of bystanders have formed around the suspect and stopped vehicles and because of sympathy for the person stopped, they have attacked the officer. In case there might be some shooting, it is best that there not be bystanders around to get hit.

C. Routine stops.

1. The majority of vehicle stops made by the average officer are for routine or minor violations, mainly traffic violations. Unfortunately, these routine stops cause an officer to let his guard down.
2. It is quite impractical to treat each person or vehicle stopped as you would a known or dangerous criminal.
3. This does not mean that the officer must be left to the mercy of all criminals. There are basic procedures that, if followed, would greatly reduce the hazard involved in making so-called routine stops.
4. It might be well to first look into the word "routine." Routine is defined as "any regular procedure adhered to by habit." Too often we associate boredom and unimportance with the word routine.
5. The key to routine stops is to make ourselves adhere to GOOD habits, so that they become built-in safety devices. You can take many precautions without giving the person stopped the feeling that he is some kind of dangerous criminal.
 - a. Procedures to follow before getting out of the car.
 - 1) ALWAYS call in the license number on all vehicles stopped and be sure to include a description of the vehicle. The plates might be stolen or later changed. This does not stop the driver from shooting the officer, but it might mean that assistance will arrive at the scene sooner and get the officer to the hospital in time to save his life. Even if the officer were to die, the license number might lead to the eventual arrest of the perpetrator and possibly the saving of the lives of future victims.

- 2) As a routine matter, check all vehicles stopped against the "hot sheet," and give radio a chance to check the license number through their master files before getting out of the car. Too often an officer will call in the number and then get out of the car before the answer is received.
- 3) Keep an eye on the driver of the stopped vehicle. Even though it appears to be a routine stop, the officer may observe him hide something, or change places with his passenger. He may also not always know exactly why he was stopped. He might have just committed a crime and believe that he has been identified.
- 4) If it is at night, turn one spotlight on the subject's rear view mirror ONLY WHEN THE VEHICLE HAS STOPPED, and the other along the side of the car to observe objects being thrown out. If it is an isolated area, the officer should open and slam both of his doors to make the driver of the stopped vehicle believe that there are two officers.

b. Approaching the suspect vehicle.

- 1) Check the trunk during the approach. See if it is ajar or weighted down. Check the back seat and the floorboard during the approach.
- 2) If it is at night, the flashlight should be held in the hand other than the gun hand. It should be held in the club position rather than the carrying position. In this way it can be used as a flashlight for checking identification, and in an emergency, it can be quickly used as a club.
- 3) Stop just before the doorpost and check for the ignition key. If the key is missing, chances are the car has been hotwired. This simple routine takes but a second to perform.
- 4) Do not go further than the doorpost.
 - a) If the subject were to open the door quickly, it would knock the officer down, or possibly push him into oncoming traffic.
 - b) If the subject has to turn in order to talk to the officer, it puts him at a psychological

disadvantage. A criminal usually weighs all of the facts before taking some overt action against the officer, and will take this action only when he feels that the odds are in his favor, or when it is a last resort.

- 5) The officer should always stand with his side facing the subject. Should the subject decide to kick or deliver a blow to the groin area, the hip would take the blow instead.
- 6) If the officer were to sense that something was wrong, he might approach the vehicle from the right side. In this way, he would have a clear view of the driver, and would force him to move over to the officer by getting out of the car, or by moving over to the right side of the seat. This would put the driver at a disadvantage.

c. Talking to the driver.

- 1) Ask him to turn the engine off if it is still running. This will decrease the chance of the driver's suddenly taking off. It will also promote better communications.
- 2) DON'T reach in for the ignition keys. The officer puts himself at a great disadvantage when he reaches his hand through the window and down to the key. His arm could be broken, or an armlock could be placed on him. If the driver is trying to get the car started, it might be warranted to grab for the keys, but caution should be taken.
- 3) Explain the purpose for the stop and ask the subject to step out of the car. Then ask the subject to step over to the edge of the road so the matter can be discussed. This prevents:
 - a) The person from driving off.
 - b) The officer from being hit by passing cars.
 - c) The driver from pushing the officer into the passing cars.
- 4) Instruct others in the car to remain in the car if it appears that they might be getting out. If they are "hoods" and the officer is alone, they can quickly

surround him in an innocent manner, and then his safety would be in jeopardy. If there were several of them, the officer could not reach for his gun or club before they would be on top of him. If they were to get within two feet, the officer would have little chance to draw his gun. Keeping them in the car is a good preventive measure. However, if the situation were such that the officer suspected some type of criminal activity, he would then be wise to order all of the persons out of the car with his gun drawn and then have them assume a security position against the vehicle until help arrived. The best type of security position will be discussed later in this chapter.

- 5) If it is at night, and the officer is alone, and something makes him suspicious, he might call back to the police car as though his partner was there, and ask him to call headquarters to check something. This bluff might be the deciding factor in a decision by the suspects not to attack the officer. There are many cases on record where the occupants of the stopped vehicle were planning to shoot the officer, but refrained from doing so because they could not see the exact position of the officer's partner and take a bead on him also.
- 6) The officer should make it a firm habit never to stand in a position where the subject is on the same side as his gun. At first this requires a conscious effort, but after a while it becomes second nature. When writing a citation, the officer might put his gun side toward the vehicle so it cannot be easily grabbed.

D. The stopping of vehicles that contain suspected criminals.

1. Spotting the suspects.

- a. The spotting of criminal suspects require that the patrol officer be constantly alert, not just when some specific crime has been committed and an alert has been broadcast.
- b. Since it is a common routine for the criminal to change automobiles for the "getaway" an officer should be alert for the persons who fit the descriptions of the perpetrators, not just the automobile.

c. He should plan on there being slight variations in the description of the vehicle because:

- 1) The suspects may change things on the car or change to another car.
- 2) Human error may occur in:
 - a) The victim's description or the witness' description.
 - b) The officer's recording of the description at the scene.
 - c) The radio dispatcher's transcription of the description.

2. Notifying headquarters when the suspect vehicle is spotted.

- a. When a patrol officer spots a suspected vehicle, he should immediately contact radio control and give the following information:
 1. The fact that the vehicle has been spotted.
 2. The location of the vehicle at the time of reporting.
 3. The direction that the vehicle is going.
 4. The relationship of the police vehicle to the suspect's vehicle.
 5. The speed of the suspect vehicle, if the police vehicle is behind it.
- b. It may be important that the suspect vehicle not be immediately stopped.
- c. It is possible that the driver has not seen the police vehicle and this would give the patrol officer time to plan a little strategy before the suspect would take some evasive action.

3. Method of stopping. Though there are any number of possible means of stopping a suspect vehicle, the following method seems more universally applicable to most police problems. It offers the maximum protection in most situations, in addition to eliminating the necessity of selecting one method from a number of alternatives at a time when the actions of the officers involved should be the end product of an almost-reflex action. A brief description of this method follows:

- a. Once there is an indication by the driver of the suspect vehicle that he intends to pull to the curb, the police vehicle should remain directly to the rear of the suspect vehicle at a distance of about two car-lengths.
 - b. When the suspect vehicle is fully stopped, the police vehicle should be parked behind it in such a manner as to have the left front fender of the police vehicle projecting into the traffic lane by approximately two feet.
 - 1) The reason behind this is that the fender of the police car will project far enough into the traffic lanes to deflect any passing vehicles.
 - 2) Also, this will afford the officer approaching the suspect vehicle a barricade behind which he can place himself in the event that a gunbattle ensues.
 - c. The headlights of the police vehicle should be on "high beam" not only in order to illuminate the interior of the suspect vehicle but also to blind the driver of the suspect vehicle in his vision to the rear. If spotlights are available to the police officers, these should be trained on the sides and/or rear window of the car. Using all available light is best for two reasons:
 - 1) It conceals the location of the second officer, if there is one; and if there is only one officer in the police car, this fact will not be so readily apparent to the occupants of the suspect vehicle.
 - 2) With the areas near the side of the suspect vehicle well illuminated, the disposal of contraband, weapons or fruits of a crime become that much more difficult for the occupants of the suspect vehicle.
4. Leaving the police vehicle.
- a. Adjust the radio volume so that it can be heard outside the car. It should not be on too loud, or the suspects might be confused between the radio and the officer's commands.

- b. Put the car keys in a pocket. More than one suspect has escaped the scene in a police vehicle.
- c. Radio control should be notified when the officers leave the police vehicle.
- d. The doors of the police vehicle should be used as shields until it is felt that a safe advancement can be made.
 - 1) The doors will not offer a lot of protection against bullets, but they can deflect any bullets that come at an angle.
 - 2) They do offer a certain psychological protection in that the suspects feel that the officers are protected, and it might curtail their shooting.
- e. If using a flashlight, it should be held out from the body in the hand other than the gun hand. If the light becomes a target, the officer wants it to be as far away from the body as possible.
- f. Handguns should be drawn, but not cocked. In an emergency, the officer can fire the gun double action in a hurry, but if it is cocked, it might go off accidentally.
- g. The suspect vehicles should never be approached by going between the police vehicle and the suspect vehicle. The suspects could place their vehicle in reverse and back up, crushing the officers. There is also the disadvantage of being outlined by the headlights of the police vehicle.
- h. An order should be directed to the occupants of the suspect vehicle, using words similar to the following:
 - 1) "POLICE OFFICERS. DON'T MOVE UNLESS YOU ARE TOLD BY US TO DO SO, OR WE WILL SHOOT. KEEP LOOKING STRAIGHT AHEAD."
 - 2) Always use a firm, forceful voice. The officer should make a point of always using the plural form of "we," whether he is alone or with another officer.

- i. The officer should at this point give the occupants of the suspect vehicle the following command:
 - 1) "Driver, lay both hands on top of the steering wheel, palms up."
 - 2) "You in the front seat on the right - put your hands on the windshield, palms against the glass."
 - 3) "You in the rear seat - lay your hands on the back of the front seat, with the palms up."
 - 4) "All of you - keep looking straight ahead and do not move until told to do so."
5. Immobilizing the suspect vehicle.
- a. To make sure that the chase does not start all over again, the suspect vehicle must be immobilized. This is best done by removing the keys to the vehicle.
 - b. This can be quite dangerous, since any removal of the suspect's hands from view can mean that the suspect is reaching for a weapon.
 - c. There are two methods used in removing the keys from the suspect vehicle. Before this is attempted, one officer must first place himself in a position where he could see the ignition switch if the door were open.
 - d. Method # 1 - when the driver's window is rolled down.
 - 1) Order the driver to move his left arm slowly out of the window.
 - 2) Order the driver to move his right hand slowly from the steering wheel and out the window to open the door from the outside with his right hand. This puts him at a physical disadvantage. Now the officer who is in position can have a clear view of the ignition, and the inside of the vehicle near the driver's seat.
 - 3) Order the driver to put his right hand back on top of the steering wheel.
 - 4) Order the driver to slowly reach for the keys with his left hand, and slowly drop them on the ground.

- e. Method # 2 - when the driver's window is rolled up.
 - 1) In this situation, the driver would have to remove his hand from sight to roll the window down anyway, so this movement might as well be utilized to open the door.
 - 2) He should be ordered to raise his left elbow up in the air, then keeping his elbow high, open the door with his left hand.
 - 3) In this position the driver would find it more difficult to attempt evasive action than if his arm were completely out of sight while opening the door.
 - 4) Order the driver to put his right hand back on top of the steering wheel.
 - 5) Order the driver to slowly reach for the keys with his left hand, and slowly drop them to the ground.
6. The approach to the vehicle and removal of the suspects.
- a. In approaching and taking control of the suspect's vehicle, the following steps should be observed:
 - 1) Don't give the suspects so much attention that you are oblivious to oncoming traffic. Traffic can kill just as well as the criminal, and usually does.
 - 2) Watch that you don't get into a position where you are in the crossfire of your partner.
 - 3) Watch for the trunk lid being slightly ajar. Someone might be hiding in the trunk.
 - b. Removing the suspect. In removing the suspects from the vehicle, the following procedures should be used.
 - 1) The driver. The driver should always be removed first.
 - a) Have him grip the top of the steering wheel with both hands, and then back out of the open left front door with his hands still on the steering wheel.

- b) When his feet are on the ground, have him then place his hands high in the air. Then have him slowly back up to you.
 - c) He must then be placed in a position where he may be watched and later searched.
- 2) The front passenger. Have the front seat passenger slide over to the driver's side of the car and put his hands on top of the steering wheel. Then have him repeat the same procedures as were followed with the driver.
 - 3) The rear passenger (s). Have the rear seat passenger(s) put both hands out of the rear door windows and open the doors from the outside with their hands remaining on the outside. When their feet are on the ground, have them raise their hands high and back up toward you. If the windows are rolled up, have the passenger in the left rear side raise his left elbow and open the door with his left hand, then place both hands back on top of the front seat. He can then back out in the normal way. The passenger in the right rear seat should then slide over to the left and repeat the process.

E. Searching of occupants.

1. The wall search.

- a. The wall search is the most common and the most practical of all searches; it can be used on automobiles as well as walls. There is seldom a situation where this type of search cannot be utilized.
- 1) An officer should always be careful about getting too close to a person when the officer has his gun drawn. There are too many ways to take it from the officer.
 - a) It is best to give your partner your gun, and then use the free hand to control his body by grabbing his belt or clothing at the waist.
 - b) If you do not have a partner, do not attempt a search until another officer arrives, unless it is an unusual situation where one is

just not available and an immediate search is of utmost importance. In that case, hold your gun close to your body and twist the body so that the gun is as far away from the suspect as possible.

- 2) Order the suspect to put his hands against the wall and:
 - a) Spread his arms apart.
 - b) Spread his fingers apart.
 - c) Spread his legs apart.
 - d) Move his feet back until the suspect is off balance and must rely on the wall for support. It is important that he assume this position or he may be able to make some counter-action. If he refuses to move his feet back, or stalls, kick his feet back.
- 3) If the suspect is dangerous, you might loosen his belt and allow his trousers to fall. This would both immobilize and embarrass him.
- 4) Grab his clothing or belt in your left hand from the rear as a means of control.
 - a) Place your right foot next to his right foot, so that you may kick his foot from under him if he tries anything.
 - b) This will also allow the officer to push down on the suspect's waist and cause him to fall on the ground if his feet are as far enough out as they should be.
- 5) Begin searching the suspect with your right hand on the right side only. Use the following order of search:
 - a) Wrist, fingers, arms and armpits.
 - b) The hair and neck. If he has a hat, remove it from behind him.
 - c) The torso. (Chest, stomach, sides and back, including clothes.)

- d) The belt and waist area.
 - e) The groin and crotch. Many are a little squeamish about doing this. Yet this is a favorite hiding place. You have only your life to lose.
 - f) Legs, ankles, socks and shoes. Look inside the edge of the shoes. Have the suspect lift one shoe at a time to inspect the bottom.
 - g) If he has a hat, step back and look at the inside and under the band. Be careful that he does not take advantage of this distraction.
- 6) Repeat the same procedure on the left side, this time using the opposite hand and foot for control.

2. The kneeling search.

- a. The kneeling search is used when there is no vertical surface for a wall search.
- b. Before conducting this type of search, it is best to have all other suspects lie on the ground in a "spread eagle" fashion, facing the other direction.
- c. They should be instructed to keep their eyes straight ahead.
- d. When a suspect cannot see the officer, it discourages countermeasures.
- e. This can be done with the wall search, also.
- f. Bring one suspect at a time back for the search.
- g. The person to be searched kneels down and crosses one leg over the other.
- h. The officer can put his foot on top of the top leg and then grab his belt or the collar of his shirt for control.
- i. The rest of the search is the same as the wall search as far as order is concerned.

3. The spread leg standing search.

- a. Because of a fault in the kneeling search, the spread leg standing search was developed.
- b. On several occasions, suspects have secreted thin knives in motorcycle boots, and when one leg was crossed over the other in the kneeling search, the officer was not able to find the knife.
- c. The spread leg standing search is used under the same conditions as the kneeling search, and it involves the suspect standing with his legs as far apart as he can move them.
- d. The officer grabs the suspect by the back of the belt or trousers, and then kicks each leg out a few more inches.
- e. The officer can test the effectiveness by pushing slightly forward and feeling that the suspect is completely off balance.
- f. The suspect is then ordered to raise his hands straight up in the air.
- g. Should the suspect make a false move, the officer can easily push him down on his face.
- h. In this position, the suspect is helpless to make a move without first falling to the ground and then regaining his balance.
- i. This type of search is not as good as the wall search, but is better than the kneeling search.

4. Considerations in searching.

- a. Do not just pat the suspect, search his person by grasping the clothing; otherwise it is possible to miss a flat object such as a blade or a hacksaw.
- b. If you have a female suspect, the law allows you to search her, but the search depends upon the situation.
- c. Obtain as many witnesses as possible to counter any accusation later that you molested her.

- 8) Heel of shoe (false cavity).
- 9) Rings.
- 10) Narcotics in handkerchief hem.

6. Body search.

- a. When the suspect is taken to headquarters or to jail, the search should be more intensive and should include the body itself.
- b. Some of the more common hiding places are:
 - 1) The hair.
 - 2) The ear.
 - 3) The mouth.
 - 4) The nose.
 - 5) The armpit.
 - 6) Under skin bandages.
 - 7) Under the soles of the feet.
 - 8) Under the testicles or foreskin of the penis if not circumcised.
 - 9) In the anus.
 - 10) Between the toes.

F. Handcuffing of occupants.

1. Pointers on use of handcuffs.

- a. Always handcuff the suspect's hands behind his back unless transporting a long distance, in which case a transportation chain would be used.
- b. Handcuff the hands back to back. This prevents any manipulation of the handcuffs.

- d. Your main concern with women at the scene is to locate concealed weapons. It is common for criminals in the company of their girlfriends to pass weapons to them.
 - e. Anything concealed in the body cavities can later be found by the matron at headquarters, and if the woman is properly handcuffed, she cannot gain access to these items. Therefore, the search should be restricted to her purse, her hair and the torso.
 - f. If an officer feels hesitant about grabbing or feeling a woman during a search, he may use his club to tap the suspected areas, and if there is a gun or knife hidden in these areas, the sound will be quite distinctive when the club hits them.
 - g. A favorite hiding place for guns is in the woman's panties. At one time it was common for girlfriends of the criminal to hide small knives in their hairdos.
5. Clothing search.
- a. Since many criminals plan for their eventual capture or arrest, they will hide both escape tools and narcotics in the clothing that they normally wear.
 - b. They will also occasionally hide money in the clothing to be used for bribing and the buying of favors.
 - c. Some of the favorite parts of the clothing used for hiding articles are:
 - 1) Hat band.
 - 2) Tie.
 - 3) Lapels (underside).
 - 4) Inside belt.
 - 5) Pant cuffs.
 - 6) Socks.
 - 7) Instep of shoe.

- c. Double lock both cuffs. This prevents shimmiing. Otherwise any thin metal object such as a hairpin can be used to shim the ratchet and release the cuff. This also prevents unnecessary injury to the wrist by having the cuffs tighten up on the suspect, and cut his wrist.
 - d. When going some distance, put the suspect's belt through the cuffs and then secure the belt with the buckle on the opposite side of the body from the cuffs.
 - e. Search prisoners for handcuff keys and ballpoint pens. Check the mouth. Ballpoint pens can be used as both:
 - 1) Weapons (they can be used to stab).
 - 2) Handcuff keys (they can be modified so that the ink barrel will serve as a key).
 - f. When a prisoner is handcuffed and in the car, use the seat belts to secure him to the seat.
 - g. Even though the prisoner is handcuffed behind his back you should slide your gunbelt around your waist to the side away from him if he is sitting next to you. There have been cases of handcuffed prisoners grabbing an officer's gun from his holster.
 - h. Handcuffs are not escape-proof. They are just meant to be a temporary restraint. Don't put too much faith in them.
 - i. Always carry an extra handcuff key. They are easily lost.
2. Applying the handcuffs.
- a. Handcuffs should be applied if at all possible when the suspect is in the wall search position.
 - 1) Take the handcuffs in the closed, single locked position, and grip them by the links with the left hand so the movable arm of the cuffs is on the bottom, and the keyhole is facing the suspect.
 - 2) Tell the subject to put his right hand behind his back with the back of his hand facing his body.

- 3) Grab the suspect's fingers on the right hand with your right hand as though you were shaking hands with him, only gripping lower to prevent his "Indian wrestling" you. Then bend the fingers outward.
 - 4) Lay the right cuff on his wrist and then give a quick downward snap so the swinging arm of the cuff swings around and locks.
 - a) You can complete the swing with your fingers if it doesn't complete it by itself. With a little practice, an officer can become quite proficient at this.
 - b) Do not bring the cuffs down on the suspect's wrist with great force. It is not required, and it can hurt the suspect's wrist. The cuff should touch the wrist before the downward snap is given.
 - 5) Grab the handcuff links with your right hand and tell the suspect to put his head against the wall, and then bring his left hand back in the same manner as before with the right hand.
 - 6) Grasp his left hand with your left hand as you did with the right hand, and apply the handcuffs with your right hand as was done before.
 - 7) Double lock both cuffs.
 - 8) Put your hand over his shoulder and pull him back to a standing position.
3. Handcuffing more than one prisoner.
- a. When alone with one pair of handcuffs.
 - 1) Put both prisoners in the front seat with the left hand of the man next to you cuffed to the right hand of the other prisoner. Put the man to the far right in the seat belts.
 - 2) Put one prisoner in the right front seat, and the other in the right rear seat, then handcuff both their left hands together, but through the open windows of their doors and around the doorpost on the right side of the police car.

- a) This position is one of the safest to the police officer, but some do not recommend this technique because they feel that in case of an accident or fire, the prisoners would not be able to escape from the car.
 - b) It is a good policy never to handcuff a prisoner to a permanent part of the car for this reason.
 - c) However, in the above case, when both windows are rolled down, the prisoners could crawl out should an emergency arise, and they would be free of the car.
- b. When there are two officers, two prisoners and two sets of cuffs.
- 1) Handcuff both prisoners with their hands behind their back and put one in the front seat right side, and the other in the right back with the other officer sitting behind the driver.
 - 2) Handcuff one prisoner with his hands in front of him palms outward, and then handcuff the other prisoner through the first man's arms. Place them in the back seat next to the other officer who sits behind the driver.
 - 3) Place both prisoners in the back seat. Handcuff prisoner # 1's left hand behind him to prisoner # 2's left hand. Prisoner # 2 is sitting to prisoner # 1's right. Then handcuff # 2's right hand behind his back to prisoner # 1's right hand.
- c. When there are two officers and three prisoners, use any of the combinations previously mentioned for one and for two prisoners.
- d. When there are two officers and four prisoners.
- 1) One prisoner sits in the right front seat and another in the right rear seat. Their left hands are handcuffed around the right doorpost.

- a) The other two prisoners sit next to them, one on the left of each man.
 - b) The left hand of the prisoner in the rear seat is handcuffed to the right hand of the prisoner in the front seat. One officer drives and the other sits behind him.
- 2) Two prisoners in the front seat and two in the back seat are handcuffed in pairs, left hand to left hand. The other officer sits behind the driver.
- 3) Handcuff prisoner # 1 in the left front seat by the left hand. Then place the other set of cuffs through the open cuff of the first set, and then close the cuff on the left hand of prisoner # 2 in the right rear seat. Now cuff the right hand of # 3 in the right front seat to the right hand of # 4 in the left rear seat. This joins all four hands together over the center of the front seat. This may also be used with three prisoners, by placing one prisoner in the front seat, and cuffing his right hand with the free cuff.
- e. REMEMBER, NEVER ALLOW A PRISONER TO SIT BEHIND THE DRIVER, EVEN THOUGH CUFFED.
- G. Searching vehicles.
- 1. Whenever suspects are arrested in a vehicle, a search of that vehicle should be automatic.
 - 2. Since the vehicle will be impounded, a preliminary search is all that is necessary in the field.
 - 3. There is a limited number of places that a person could hide things in a vehicle after being stopped by officers.
 - 4. Most of the objects hidden in automobiles are put in places where they can easily be accessible to the person hiding them. Some of the more common places are:

- a. Glove compartment.
- b. In the back of the sun visor.
- c. Under or in armrests.
- d. In back of the dash board.
- e. Under the floormat.
- f. Under the front seat or inside the stuffing, around the springs.
- g. Behind the body or seat lining if it is loose.
- h. Behind the back seat, including through the back seat into the trunk.
- i. The ash trays.
- j. Under the hood.
- k. Under the fenders (attached to "hide-away" magnets).
- l. Under the frame.

IX. The Automobile Search

A. Introduction to the automobile search.

The automobile offers the criminal convenient and hard-to-detect hiding places for weapons, the fruits of his crime, and for the transport of contraband.

The many recesses, the maze of wiring under the dashboard or the hood, and normally inaccessible areas, such as the spaces behind upholstery panels, are all utilized to hide items. These unusual places of concealment often are supplemented by cleverly constructed electronically controlled compartments, removable panels, or by alteration of standard automotive equipment. The ability to detect and recover this evidence will rest with the searching techniques developed by the officer. These should include knowing what to look for, knowing where to look, and knowing how to look.

The courts have generally ruled that an officer is authorized to conduct a search incidental to an arrest when it is necessary to protect the arresting officer from attack, to prevent the prisoner from escaping, or to recover the fruits of a crime. The circumstances of the arrest will determine the degree of the search.

B. An officer's responsibility to search.

1. The search of a motor vehicle normally is undertaken by the same officers who have arrested the occupants.
2. A parked or abandoned automobile usually will be searched by the officer whose suspicions are aroused and who has grounds to believe the vehicle was used in a crime.
3. One such exception occurs when a departmental message requests that a vehicle used in a serious crime, or its contents, are not to be touched or disturbed by the recovering officer until the arrival of technicians and special investigators.
4. If any occupants are found in such a vehicle they are immediately removed. The vehicle is treated as any other crime scene.
5. Search responsibilities for the officer.
 - a. One-man search of a vehicle.

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- 1) A police officer occasionally will have the opportunity to search an abandoned vehicle.
- 2) Even though the car may have been parked for some time and the occupants are no longer present, the search must be as methodical and complete as if it were occupied.
- 3) The usual method is to begin the examination on one side.
- 4) The automobile is then searched from the front to the rear; then back again to the front.
- 5) This same procedure is repeated on the opposite side.

b. Two officers' search of a vehicle.

- 1) The officers position themselves on each side of the automobile.
- 2) The officers then start the search from the front and proceed toward the rear.
- 3) The officers exchange positions after each has carefully examined his portion of the automobile.
- 4) The search then proceeds from the rear to the front.
- 5) This variation in the search pattern serves as a check on the first examination.

c. Search by one officer at a time.

- 1) Situations arise in which only two officers are present at the scene of an arrest. It then becomes necessary for them to divide the work.
- 2) One guards the suspects while the other examines the automobile.
- 3) After both sides have been thoroughly searched the officer guarding the prisoners is relieved.
- 4) He then repeats the systematic search of the vehicle.

- 5) The search should not be limited to one individual.
 - 6) This practice decreases the possibility of overlooking or failing to recognize evidence.
6. The officers are operating within the legal framework of the statutes when they conduct a reasonable search: after the occupants are arrested, if the automobile is found to be abandoned, or there are reasonable grounds to believe it has been used in a felony, and the officer has a search warrant.
- C. Never conduct a vehicle search while the occupants are still in the automobile.
1. A search while the suspects are in the car makes the officer a target for criminals who intend to escape.
 2. Another hazardous practice is to allow the unguarded occupants to stand alongside the searching officer while the interior of the vehicle or the trunk compartment are being examined for the safety of the searching officer.
 - a. A police officer should not try to search an automobile without assistance.
 - b. If an officer has probable cause to arrest the occupants and to search their vehicle, he must regard them as potentially dangerous.
 3. After the suspects have been removed from their automobile, they are positioned far enough away to prevent them from interfering with the search.
 4. The officer guarding the suspects must maintain a close watch to prevent them from discarding evidence or weapons.
 5. Any article, no matter how innocent or unimportant it may appear, which has been dropped or thrown away by the suspects, must be immediately recovered for future evaluation.
- D. The search of an automobile must be conducted methodically and thoroughly.

1. The officer should have some definite notions as to where to look - motor and dashboard recesses, the seats and trunk compartment are the most widely used.
2. The smaller the evidence being sought - as in the case of narcotics or jewelry - the easier concealment becomes and the more numerous become the hiding places.
3. The search must be unhurried and complete.
4. If some evidence or a weapon are found before the automobile has been thoroughly examined, the officer must not stop until the whole vehicle has been closely checked.
 - a. The experienced officer also recognizes the ingenuity and mechanical talents of some criminals.
 - b. The officer is aware that certain craftsmen are capable of devising unusual means of concealing weapons, evidence or other contraband.
 - c. The officer must, therefore, be prepared to dirty his hands and perhaps soil his uniform.

E. Search of the front end of a vehicle.

1. The grill, the bumper and the fender areas provide excellent hiding places.
2. Evidence may be placed in a container between the grill and radiator or secured to the grill.
3. Contraband has been discovered attached to the inner surface of the fender by means of a magnet, a magnetized container or tape.
4. The license plates must be checked to determine if they have been altered or if the identifying numerals and letters are the same on both front and rear plates.
5. The back of the license, the bumper and the underside of the gravel pan also should be examined.
6. The numerous recesses and the automotive equipment of the motor and the adjacent area are frequently used to hide weapons and other evidence.

7. A small item of contraband such as jewelry or narcotics may be placed in a watertight container and suspended inside the radiator.
8. The battery, the battery case, the engine block, the clutch and starter housing all have been used to support weapons or other large objects such as burglar tools.
9. Close attention must be paid to the ventilating ducts or any container found attached to the sides of the motor well.
10. In narcotics searches, the air filter of the carburetor should be examined.
11. The body frames and supports also provide places of concealment and should be checked.

F. Search of the interior.

1. The back of the dashboard is the most frequently used place of concealment for items ranging from small narcotics packages to hand guns.
 - a. The profusion of electric wires, the almost inaccessible recesses and its ready availability to the occupants, all contribute to the popularity of this location.
 - b. It is not uncommon to find within this area items attached by tape or pinned to the wiring.
2. The outside top surfaces of the radio and the glove compartments offer sturdy supports for weapons.
3. The fresh air ventilating outlets are also frequently used to hide a weapon or other evidence.
4. The ability to locate evidence in this area will necessarily depend on the search tactics.
5. The rear portion of the dashboard can be thoroughly scrutinized without the need for crouching on the floor.
 - a. With a mirror held in one hand and the flashlight pointing up under the dash, the officer can search effectively.

b. Merely glancing into the general direction of this area and groping blindly in these dark recesses can result in overlooking evidence.

6. The area alongside and under the seats is used rather frequently to hide contraband.
7. Removing the seats whenever possible, rather than merely looking or feeling under and between the cushions, is a more effective method of searching. A closer and better inspection of the webbing and springs can be made.
8. The front and rear floor mats are also removed whenever possible as narcotics or currency are often hidden under them.
9. The ashtrays and their contents should be examined.
10. The upholstery must be checked for bulges, rips, or sewn portions.
11. Any flashlight, book, magazine or container found in the automobile must be closely scrutinized.
12. Occasionally, one will hear of an alert officer finding a hollowed-out book designed to conceal a weapon or narcotics.

G. Search of the rear end of the vehicle.

1. The trunk must be given a complete examination and any item found in this compartment must be critically evaluated.
2. Clothing, rags, containers, tools, the spare tire well and the area under the spare tire must be checked.
3. The interior of the trunk lid must also be examined for possible contraband.
4. The underside of the rear fenders, the bumper and the gravel pan must all be carefully searched.

H. Search of the undersides of the vehicle.

1. The framework of the automobile should be carefully examined for objects attached by magnets or secured in place by tape or wire.

2. A check also should be made for hidden compartments attached to the frame in which items might be hidden.

I. Recording evidence.

1. Any article found during the car search which may be useful as evidence must be recorded in the officer's notebook.
2. Notes should be made describing the article, the location of its discovery and the identity of the witnesses present.
3. Whenever possible, another police officer should be asked to verify the finding of any evidence.
4. This will then permit two officers to qualify as witnesses in the court proceedings.

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