

# Automated Fingerprint Identification



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The Cover: A regional automated fingerprint identification system significantly improves the law enforcement officer's ability to identify criminals. See article p. 1.

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#### Technology

In the background, 4 disks can store 3,650,000 prints. The computer on the right can search data in seconds. The printer on the left identifies listing of suspects.

# Automated Fingerprint Identification Regional Application of Technology

COL. CARROLL D. URACKER Chief of Police Fairfax County, Va. Ind VILLIAM K. STOVER Chief of Police Irlington County, Va. "... when police chiefs work together and police agencies are able to consider the collective good, the public is better served, more criminals are identified, and cases are solved."

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Colonel Buracker



Chief Stover

The most significant technological innovation in American law enforcement in decades is the automation of finderprints for classification and matching. Since 1970, technological advancements and availability of computers to the law enforcement community have generated much interest as a means of enhancing the use of fingerprint files for identifying suspects. The speed at which computers can sort, search, and match data has been seen as a way to make cold file searches feasible and productive to law enforcement agencies. This concept is now a reality made possible by the development and implementation of what is called minutiae-based automated fingerprint systems (AFIN), originally developed under the auspices of the Federal Bureau of Investigation by Rockwell International and now manufactured and sold by De La Rue Printrak, Inc., of Anaheim, Calif.

Although computers have been used for fingerprint storage and identification in other ways (e.g., physical descriptor and fingerprint index classification systems), the De La Rue minutiae-based system is recognized as the state-of-the-art technology in automated fingerprint identification. The system uses sophisticated computer equipment, fingerprint characteristic matching software, and associated digital storage and input equipment. The equipment scans high resolution television images of fingerprints (10print or latent) in the computer's storage and classifies and digitally encodes information which describes the minutiae.

#### **Regional Application**

The Washington, D.C., metropolitan area is served by three automated fingerprint systems that improve significantly the law enforcement offi cer's ability to identify criminals These three computerized systems tied together in a single network, rep resent the largest regional application of fingerprint technology in the Nation As a result, 3.5 million citizens are better served by the individual police agencies. This regional network in the Montgomery County, cludes George's County systen Prince (Maryland), the Washington, D.C. system, and the Northern Virginia system.

The Northern Virginia Regiona Identification System (NOVARIS), in corporating the counties of Fairfax Arlington, and Prince William and the cities of Alexandria, Falls Church, and Fairfax, began operation in April 1984 and 17 criminal hits were made during the first month. It is located adjacen to the Fairfax County police/fire dis patch center and is staffed by person nel from each of the participating ju risdictions. Each jurisdiction has copies of original fingerprints at the center for immediate comparison i the computer matches a laten against a known print.

Using a mathematical algorithm the computerized fingerprint system will classify automatically a fingerprin and identify up to 250 minutiae or that fingerprint. The prints are placed in disk storage, and when an unknown print is searched against al other prints in the system, the computer will instantaneously match the minutiae data of all fingerprints with the same classification as the unknown fingerprint.

Another important feature of the system is the ability to match a laten



"... NOVARIS and the regional metropolitan AFIN network represent a giant step forward in the application of automated fingerprint technology to law enforcement agencies and the public they serve."



fingerprint with other latents (unknown prints). Generally, the public is under the impression that lifting a fingerprint at a crime scene will somehow enable the police to apprehend the culprit. Without a suspect, however, the matching process is laborious at best, and because of the numbers involved, particularly for property crimes in a large regional area, the matching process is usually impossible. In many cases, the fingerprint may not even be on file. However, by using NOVARIS, a latent print or a partial taken from a crime scene can be searched against all others in the system.

For example, when a suspect is arrested in Northern Virginia, the suspect's fingerprints are matched against the latents filed in the entire Washington metropolitan area, regardless of the crime committed. Thus, it is possible to determine the arrested suspect's involvement in other crimes throughout the region. Aliases are immediately identified, allowing for case closures and arrests. Previously, any attempt to match fingerprints was very narrowly limited to a particular offense.

The Montgomery County/Prince George's County network already has identified 600 criminals who may have avoided detection without this system. The Washington, D.C., Police Department reports that prior to implementation of the automated system, only four cases on cold searches were made. The department is now making 100 cases per month on cold searches. The California Department of Justice and the cities of Miami, Fla., Houston, Tex., St. Paul and Minneapolis, Minn., and San Jose, Calif., have also reported outstanding success with an identical automated fingerprint system.

The advantages of an automated fingerprint system are incalculable. For officers and investigators, the technology will assist them in apprehending more criminals, a capability already proven in other jurisdictions. And the clearance rate, often the only national yardstick for measuring police effectiveness, should increase dramatically.

#### Funding

A major consideration for any department purchasing such technology is funding. Of course, many jurisdictions nationally would have a major problem with such a purchase. Rather than attempting to secure individual fingerprint systems which cost approximately \$1.5 million each, a regional program allows participating jurisdictions to not only share in the cost but also assign their respective staffs to a central facility. The jurisdictions in Northern Virginia were able to realize an estimated savings of \$4.5 million collectively by employing a joint venture.

A department contemplating the acquisition of an automated fingerprint information system—or any technology for that matter—should explore the

wide variety of formulae for cooperative regional funding. If a system costing \$1.5 million is prohibitive, police departments can use a 5-year lease/ purchase method for system acquisition.

In Northern Virginia, the participating jurisdictions elected to use population of each jurisdiction as a basis for proportionate funding. By using a proportional funding method, maximum participation was assured. Smaller jurisdictions, for example, serving populations of 19,849 (Fairfax City, Va.) and 9,430 (Falls Church, Va.) assumed yearly costs of approximately \$9,000 and \$5,000 respectively, while the area's largest jurisdiction, Fairfax County, pays approximately \$160,000 each year for 5 years to purchase the system. With this funding method, the sophisticated AFIN technology was certainly an affordable bargain for all involved.

Of course, the county executive/ city manager is a key figure in such endeavors. However, once these officials are convinced of the constraints placed on local law enforcement by the manual use of fingerprint data and what an automated fingerprint system can accomplish in terms of cost avoidance and more productivity, the response is likely to be very enthusiastic. At least that was the case in Northern Virginia.

#### **Optional Benefit**

Another spinoff from this technological advancement is in the application of controlling access to sensitive facilities. Already in the production stage, the capability exists to place a terminal at a strategic location to screen individuals entering secure areas. For example, all employees in a communications center can have their fingerprints placed in the system, and thereafter, entry into the communications center can be controlled by an employee placing his or her fingerprint on an access terminal. If unauthorized individuals attempt entry, the system will activate an alarm, camera, or another security device. Using the remote terminal, the computer will also maintain records of all individuals who enter the facility, time of entry, and the frequency.

Obviously, this kind of technology will reduce the cost for expensive manpower and will enhance security for access to sensitive and controlled operations.

#### Summary

In the 1980's and 1990's, public officials will be confronted with more demands for greater productivity with fewer personnel. The unique NO-VARIS arrangement truly represents what police agencies can accomplish when the advantages of technology are demonstrated and applied. There is little doubt that NOVARIS and the regional metropolitan AFIN network represent a giant step forward in the application of automated fingerprint technology to law enforcement agencies and the public they serve. Each time a criminal is taken out of society, regardless of which community, the crime rate for all communities is directly affected, and as a consequence, the quality of life is improved and officer safety increased.

NOVARIS and the Washington metropolitan AFIN network demonstrate that when police chiefs work together and police agencies are able to consider the collective good, the public is better served, more criminals are identified, and cases are solved.

FBI

# State and Local Law Enforcement Training Needs

By

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In the spring of 1983, over 16,000 State and local law enforcement agencies were surveyed for the purpose of identifying and setting priorities in their field operations training needs. The research project was designed to provide information to the U.S. Department of Justice in its efforts to make the best use of resources earmarked for law enforcement training. The findings of the study provide information that should be of interest to the law enforcement community.

In response to a request by the U.S. Department of Justice to provide information on the nature and extent of State and local law enforcement training needs, the Institutional Research and Development Unit of the FBI's Training Division undertook a long term comprehensive analysis of law enforcement agencies throughout the United States. The objectives of this research were:

- To determine the type and extent of any State and local law enforcement training need as perceived within the context of their individual organizational missions and environments;
- To identify any differences in the nature of the training needs at the various demographic levels of relevance; and

3) To provide training needs information which would facilitate any Federal law enforcement training program developed to meet the needs of the State and local law enforcement agencies.

For the purpose of this article, the term "training need" is defined as a gap between what law enforcement personnel perceive as the level of expertise required to carry out law enforcement responsibilities in an optimum manner and what they perceive as the level of expertise currently possessed by law enforcement officers.

#### **Information Collected**

After careful review of needs assessment and job analysis literature. the project staff concluded that a needs assessment based solely on the size of the expertise gap would provide insufficient information for setting priorities in training needs. As a result, data were collected on not only the size of the gap that existed for specific job tasks, duties, and characteristics but also on the amount of time spent performing each and on the amount of harm that would most likely result from inadequate performance in each job task, duty, and/or characteristic. (The term "activity" will be used to refer to job tasks, duties,

and/or characteristics.) These two ad ditional factors (time and harm) allow the size of any gap in a law enforce ment activity to be considered in the context of the relative importance o that activity to officers' jobs. Thus, ar activity judged to have a large exper tise gap, but on which little time is spent and from which little harm would come as a result of inadequate performance, would be rated lowe than a different activity with the same size gap, but on which much time is spent and/or from which substantia harm would come as a result of inad equate performance.

Following the review of the litera ture, a questionnaire was developed tested, and found to be valid and reli able. The questionnaire consists of 1 questions intended to determine how training needs differ by agency type size, and other demographic classifi cations. The actual training needs in formation was gathered using a list of 127 law enforcement job activities de veloped after a careful analysis o nearly 3,000 activities appearing in 12 law enforcement job/task analysi studies. The list of 127 activities wa compiled with the cooperation of the Bureau of Education Research of the University of Virginia,1 Internationa Association of Chiefs of Police, Na tional Association of State Director



Mr. Phillips

of Law Enforcement Training, National Sheriffs' Association, Police Executive Research Forum, U.S. Department of Justice Drug Enforcement Administration, and U.S. Department of Justice, Justice Management Division.

In order to facilitate the development of any training programs intended to reduce identified needs, related activities were grouped into seven major job categories—common, detective/juvenile/vice, patrol, intelligence, drug enforcement, traffic, and other.

In the initial phase of the project, the needs assessment was restricted to those activities required to carry out field operations. Field operations were selected as a focus over other major categories, such as administrative services and support/auxiliary services, because field operations command a major portion of agency human resources. In fact, the vast majority of the agencies responding to the survey indicated that between 80 and 100 percent of their sworn officers were engaged in field operations. Thus, field operations provide the highest potential for effectively using law enforcement training resources.

#### **Questionnaire Recipients**

During February 1983, questionnaire packets were mailed to the chief or sheriff in each of 16,144 State and local law enforcement agencies which participate in the FBI's Uniform Crime Reporting program. Agencies with fewer than 500 sworn officers were sent one survey packet. A total of 103 agencies with 500 or more sworn personnel were contacted by telephone prior to the survey to determine the number of questionnaire packets each required in order to provide a representative picture of the organization. These larger agencies received between 5 and 100 survey packets each.

Of the 16,144 agencies contacted, 7,294 (45.2 percent) provided 8,400 usable responses. This overall response rate was influenced by the very low rate of return of small agencies. Only 14.7 percent of the agencies with 1 to 4 sworn officers responded, while the response rate for agencies with 10 or more sworn officers averaged 75.3 percent. The highest rate of response (98.1 percent) came from agencies with 500 or more sworn personnel. (See fig. 1.) The 7,294 agencies responding represent 90 percent of all sworn State and local law enforcement officers in the Nation.

Of the 8,400 usable responses, 4,730 (56.4 percent) were provided by police chiefs/assistant chiefs or sheriffs/deputy sheriffs. An additional 2,204 responses (26.2 percent) were provided by sworn officers at the level of sergeant or higher. The remaining 1,466 responses (17.4 percent) were provided by others, such as corporals, patrolmen, and troopers.<sup>2</sup>

#### **Training Priorities**

Data were gathered in a manner that allowed law enforcement training needs to be analyzed from the perspectives of agency types, size, and geographic location. Regarding the latter, it was found that the training needs of law enforcement agencies do not vary greatly based on geographic location. In fact, training needs of agencies in different geographic locations were found to be so similar as to make it unnecessary to report needs by geographic region.

As would be expected, some training needs were given high priority by all agencies regardless of type or size, while other needs were rated high for some types or size of agencies but not others. Those training needs given average or higher training



priorities regardless of agency type or size will be described on two levels or specificity—individual law enforcement activities and major law enforcement job categories.

Training resources are rarely sufficient to allow simultaneous treatment of all training needs. The efficient and effective allocation of these resources is facilitated when those job categories and the specific activities within the categories which represent the highest priority training needs can be identified. (See tables 1 and 2 and fig. 2.)

Of the total 127 activities, 54 (42.5 percent) were given average or higher training priority regardless of agency type or size. These 54 activities are listed in descending order of priority in table 1. The job category is shown in parenthesis following the activity statement.

When all 127 law enforcement activities are assembled into the seven job categories and the training priority of each category is evaluated, the "common" category, which is comprised of activities such as "handle personal stress," performed by virtually all State and local law enforcement agencies, emerges as the category of highest priority. The common category is followed by the four categories detective/juvenile/ vice, patrol, intelligence, and drug, all of which were rated fairly close to one another in terms of training priority. The traffic category was ranked sixth. Lowest rated was the "other" category which is made up of specialized activities such as "act as hostage negotiator." Figure 2 illustrates the training priority for each of the seven job categories when all 127 activities are taken into account.

#### Job Category Priorities Within Agency Clusters

Four groups or clusters of agencies were identified as having distinct sets of training needs. These were:

- All agencies with 500 or more sworn personnel, with the exception of State police/ highway patrol agencies.
- All agencies with fewer than 500 sworn personnel, with the exception of State police/ highway patrol agencies and sheriff's departments.
- Sheriff's departments with fewer than 500 sworn personnel, and
- State police/highway patrol agencies.



#### Table 1

#### Training Priorities for All Agencies (n=8,400)

#### Activity

А			
	R		

Handle personal stress (common)	1
Conduct interviews/interrogations (detective/juvenile/vice)	2
Drive vehicle in emergency/pursuit situations (common)	3
Maintain appropriate level of physical fitness (common)	4
Promote positive public image (common)	5
Determine probable cause for arrest (common)	6
Write crime/incident reports (common)	7
Handle domestic disturbances (patrol)	8
Collect, maintain, and preserve evidence (common)	9
Respond to crimes in progress (patrol)	10
Develop sources of information (common)	11
Perform patrol activities (common)	12
Search, photograph, and diagram crime scenes (detective/juvenile/vice)	13
Carry out first-line supervision of sworn personnel, including planning, organizing,	
scheduling, appraising performace, etc. (common)	14
Take field notes (detective/juvenile/vice)	15
Testify in criminal, civil, and administrative cases (common)	16
Conduct followup on investigations (detective/juvenile/vice)	17
Make arrest with/without warrants (common)	18
Provide on-the-job training (common)	19
Identify and develop probable cause for obtaining warrants (common)	20
Conduct onscene suspect identification (patrol)	21
Identify crimes/laws being violated (common)	22
Protect crime scene (common)	23
Conduct frisk/pat down searches (common)	
Fire weapons for practice/qualifications (common)	
Prepare supplemental reports (common)	
Coordinate major case investigations (detective/juvenile/vice)	
Investigate citizen complaints (intelligence) Control individuals placed under arrest (common)	
Identify and resolve legal issues in obtaining search warrants (common)	
Detect, gather, record, and maintain intelligence information (detective/juvenile/vice)	
Conduct detail search of suspects/prisoners (common)	31
Act as hostage negotiator (other)	
Maintain confidentiality and security of cases/information (common)	
Drive vehicle in routine situations (common)	
Execute search warrants (common)	
Develop and maintain control of informants in other than drug investigations (detective/	30
juvenile/vice)	37
Use tape recorders/handwritten notes when conducting interviews or interrogations	5
(common)	38
Supervise placement and use of sworn personnel and equipment (common)	
Conduct stationary/mobile surveillance of drug suspects to include cover surveillance on	0.
undercover buys (drug)	40
Administer first aid (common)	
Search persons, dwellings, and transportation conveyances for illegal drugs (drug)	
Use two-way radio in police communications (common)	
Search persons, dwellings, and transportation conveyances for other than illegal drugs	
(common)	4
Write affidavits for search warrants (common)	
Transport suspects/prisoners (common)	
Investigate conspiracy to illegally import, manufacture, distribute controlled substances (drug)	
Plan strategy for conducting searches (common)	4
Provide assistance to citizens (common)	4
Coordinate investigation with law enforcement officials from other agencies (common)	
Conduct stationary/mobile surveillance of other than drug suspects (common)	
Provide crowd/riot control (patrol)	
Use undercover techniques in other than drug investigations (common)	
Conduct tactical operations, e.g., raids, large scale searches, etc. (common)	

The identification of a distinct set of training needs for each agency cluster allows for the design of curricula tailored to the needs of specific groups of agencies. Such curricula can help increase the efficiency of resource use by optimizing the match between the content of training courses and the needs of the participants.

Differences in training needs among agency clusters are illustrated by figures 3 through 6 in which priorities are set in the job categories for each cluster. In these figures, the height of the column above the name of each job category indicates the relative training priority for that category, with "8" representing the highest possible priority and "0" representing the lowest. Agencies can use the appropriate figure to identify the relative training priority of various job categories shared by agencies of similar type and size. The ratings in figures 3 through 6 illustrate variations in training needs which reflect the different missions and environments of the agencies in one cluster as compared to those of the agencies in the other clusters.

## Job Activity Priorities Within Agency Clusters

The specific activities given high ratings by some agencies but not others are listed in tables 3 through 6. Each of these four tables provides two types of information regarding the activities. The numbers in the column headed "agency rank" show the rank order of each activity when the 127 activities are listed from highest priority (1) to lowest priority (127) for the types and sizes of agencies indicated in the title of the table. The designation code in the column headed "comparison" indicates how the cluster of agencies named in the title of the table rated an activity as com-

#### Table 2

#### Training Priorities for All Agencies by Job Category (n=8,400)

Common Category	Rank Within Category	Activity Rank
Activities		
Handle personal stress	1	1
Drive vehicle in emergency/pursuit situations	2	3
Maintain appropriate level of physical fitness	3	4
Promote positive public image	4	5
Determine probable cause for arrest	5	6
Write crime/incident reports	6	7
Collect, maintain, and preserve evidence	7	9
Develop sources of information	8	11
Perform patrol activities	9	12
Carry out first-line supervision of sworn personnel, including planning,		
organizing, scheduling, appraising performance, etc	10	14
Testify in criminal, civil, and administrative cases	11	16
Make arrest with/without warrants	12	18
Provide on-the-job training	13	19
Identify and develop probable cause for obtaining warrants	14	20
Identify crimes/laws being violated	15	22
Protect crime scene	16	23
Conduct frisk/pat down searches	17	24
Fire weapons for practice/gualification	18	25
Prepare supplemental reports		26
Control individuals placed under arrest	20	29
Identify and resolve legal issues in obtaining search warrants	21	30
Conduct detail search of suspects/prisoners	22	32
Maintain confidentiality and security of cases/information	23	34
Drive vehicle in routine situations		35
Execute search warrants		36
Use tape recorders/handwritten notes when conducting interviews or		
interrogations	26	38
Supervise the placement and use of sworn personnel and equipment		39
Administer first aid		41
Use two-way radio in police communications	29	43
Search persons, dwellings, and transportation conveyances for other than		
illegal drugs	. 30	44
Write affidavits for search warrants		45
Transport suspects/prisoners	. 32	46
Plan strategy for conducting searches	. 33	48
Provide assistance to citizens		49
Coordinate investigations with law enforcement officials from other agen-		
cies		50
Conduct stationary/mobile surveillance of other than drug suspects	. 36	51
Use undercover techniques in other than drug investigations	. 37	53
Conduct tactical operations (raids, large-scale searches, etc.)	. 38	54
Detective / Inventie /Vice Category		

#### Detective/Juvenile/Vice Category

#### Activities

Conduct interviews/interrogations	1	2
Search, photograph, and diagram crime scenes	2	13
Take field notes	3	15
Conduct followup on investigations	4	17
Coordinate major case investigations	5	27
Detect, gather, record, and maintain intelligence information	6	31
Develop and maintain control of informants in other than drug investiga- tions	7	37

pared to the rating given that activity by the group composed of all agencies, regardless of type or size. The meanings of the comparison codes are:

> MH—Much Higher SH—Somewhat Higher AS—About the Same SL—Somewhat Lower ML—Much Lower

For example, the third activity listed in table 3 is "disseminate information/intelligence to special units." This activity was rated as a much higher (MH) priority by large municipal and county police agencies and large sheriff's departments than it was by the group composed of all agencies, regardless of size or type. Conversely, the 10th activity in table 3, "develop and maintain control of informants in drug investigations," was rated as a somewhat lower (SL) training priority by large county and municipal police agencies and large sheriff's departments than it was by the group composed of all agencies, regardless of type or size. Table 3 shows the 11 activities given average or higher training priority ratings by all non-State agencies with 500 or more sworn personnel.

Table 4 shows the 15 activities given average or higher training priority ratings by municipal and county police departments with fewer than 500 sworn personnel, city transit or port authorities, and other agencies not elsewhere specified.

Table 5 shows the 14 activities given average or higher training priority ratings by sheriff's departments with fewer than 500 sworn personnel. As might be expected, activities such as "serve civil court papers" were rated much higher (MH) by these sheriff's agencies than by the group composed of all agencies, regardless

Table 2—Continued	Rank Within Category	Activity Rank
Patrol Category		
Activities		
Handle domestic disturbances	1	8
Respond to crimes in progress		10
Conduct onscene suspect identification		21
Provide crowd/riot control	4	52
Intelligence Category		
Activity		
Investigate citizen complaints	1	28
Drug Category		
Activities		
Conduct stationary/mobile surveillance of drug suspects (to include cover surveillance on undercover buys)	1	40
Search persons, dwellings, and transportation conveyances for illegal drugs	2	42
Investigate conspiracy to illegally import, manufacture, distribute controlled	4	46
substances	3	47
Traffic Category		
Activity		
None		
Other Category		
Activity		
Act as hostage negotiator	1	33

of type or size. Sheriff's ratings of the training priority for drug-related activities are generally somewhat higher (SH) or much higher (MH) than the ratings provided those activities by the group composed of all agencies.

Table 6 shows the 19 activities given average or higher training priority ratings by State police/highway patrol agencies. Noticeable, while not surprising for this grouping of agencies, are the high ratings for traffic-related activities.

#### **Comment Form Content Analysis**

In addition to being provided with the printed questionnaire, each agency surveyed was provided a comment form, which allowed those responding to make narrative comments on any training-related issue of relevance to the agency. Of the 7,294 agencies responding to the printed questionnaire, 534 (7.3 percent) also completed and returned comment forms, providing a total of 1,127 comments of relevance to this study.



Since use of the comment form was voluntary, a random sample was not obtained. This fact, in combination with the 7.3 percent response rate, indicates that the comments submitted must not be considered statistically representative of the opinions of State and local law enforcement personnel across the Nation. However, the comments are of relevance to this study in that they represent the opinions of those law enforcement personnel who took the additional time necessary to provide narrative input regarding training issues of the law enforcement community.

A great number of the 1,127 comments (487 or 43.2 percent) referred to a lack of resources within agencies. In all cases it appeared, as one would expect, that acquiring resources is more of a problem for agencies with fewer than 500 sworn personnel than it is for larger agen-



cies. The most frequently cited comment (158 or 29.6 percent of the agencies returning comment forms) was that agencies did not have sufficient funds to conduct necessary training. A related comment cited by 94 (17.6 percent) of the agencies responding concerned a lack of time for training.

Other comments dealing with resource-related problems included the lack of necessary equipment to carry out effective and efficient operations (77 agencies or 14.4 percent), the need to educate public officials regarding law enforcement agency needs for monies (40 agencies or 7.5 percent), and the desire on the part of 46 agencies (8.6 percent) to see the reestablishment of the Law Enforce-Administration ment Assistance (LEAA). Programs and equipment funded by LEAA a decade ago are now outdated due to the lack of resources following the agency's demise.

With regard to drug and narcotics trafficking, 61 (11.4 percent) of the agencies responded that they were in need of assistance to suppress effectively this organized criminal activity within their respective jurisdictions. These agencies indicated that while they have experienced some limited success in their pursuit of street-level drug dealers, advanced training and sophisticated equipment and resources would be needed in order to penetrate criminal enterprises.

Comments from 153 agencies (28.7 percent) indicated that the questionnaire appeared to be intended primarily for large agencies. Nearly three-fourths (74.5 percent) of the 153 agencies providing this comment employed fewer than 20 sworn officers. Although the list of 127 activities used in the questionnaire was intended to describe field operation activities in law enforcement agencies of all types and sizes, it was necessary to include activities that deal with highly specialized techniques or the use of sophisticated equipment most often found in the larger agencies.

#### Conclusion

Extensive analysis revealed that



#### "Extensive analysis revealed that the activities given high training priorities were very similar across all agency sizes and types."

Table 3									
Additional Training Priorities for Municipal and County Police Agencies and Sheriff's Departments With 500 or More Sworn Personnel* ( $n=869$									
Activity (Category)	Agency Rank	Comparisor							
Counsel juvenile (detective/juvenile/vice) Provide assistance in potential suicide situations, e.g., counsel, comfort,	45	SL							
Disseminate information/intelligence to special units, e.g., intelligence,	50	SL							
detective, etc. (intelligence)	53	МН							
Conduct police community relations/crime prevention programs (other)	55	AS							
Handle juvenile matters (detective/juvenile/vice)	56	SL							
Extricate trapped persons from buildings, vehicles, etc. (patrol) Use analytical investigative methods, e.g., link analysis, path analysis,	58	SH							
VIA, etc. (common)	59	SH							
Determine whether incidents are criminal or civil (common)	60	SH							
Identify high-crime area (other)	62	SH							
Develop and maintain control of informants in drug investigations (drug)	63	SL							
Use SWAT tactics (common)	65	SH							
* These training priorities are in addition to those shown in table 2.									

Table 4

Additional Training Priorities for Municipal and County Police Agencies With Fewer Than 500 Sworn Personnel, City Transit and City Port Authorities, and Other Agencies Not Elsewhere Specified \* (n=5,851)

Activity (Category)	Agency Rank	Comparisor
Provide assistance in potential suicide situations, e.g., counsel, comfort, rescue etc. (common)	33	AS**
Counsel juveniles (detective/juvenile/vice) Investigate possession with intent to distribute and/or sale of illegally	38	AS
imported/manufactured controlled substances (drug)	39	AS
Develop and maintain control of informants in drug investigations (drug)	44	AS
Handle juvenile matters (detective/juvenile/vice)	47	AS
Use undercover techniques in drug investigations (drugs)	52	AS
Conduct police community relations/crime prevention programs (other)	57	AS
Photograph and diagram accident scene (traffic)	58	AS
Provide public assistance in drug abuse education and prevention (drugs)	60	AS
Issue traffic citations/warnings (traffic)	61	AS
Check security of businesses and residences (common)	63	AS
Determine whether incidents are criminal or civil (common)	65	AS
Prepare complaints (common)	66	AS
Interview drivers/witnesses about motor vehicle accidents (traffic)	68	AS
Provide accident scene maintenance/security (traffic)	69	AS

\*These training priorities are in addition to those shown in table 2.

\*\* NOTE: The consistency with which the "AS" appears in the comparison column in table 4 is a result of the high correlation (r=.99) between the responses of the agencies covered by table 4 and the responses of the group composed of all agencies, regardless of type or size.

the activities given high training priorities were very similar across all agency sizes and types. Fifty-four activities represented 59.3 percent of all training areas given average or higher priority ratings. Moreover, the remaining 37 (40.7 percent) activities of average or higher training priority found among the four agency clusters also included some overlap. These 91 activities, therefore, represent an appropriate focal point for Federal support of State and local law enforcement training.

Two high-priority activities warrant comment at this point. The activity "handle personal stress" was consistently rated as the number one priority by all four agency clusters. Stress and the job burnout syndrome with which it is often associated are factors affecting performance in all types of human service organizations. The feelings of emotional exhaustion which result sometimes lead to cynicism toward the job and the citizens served, seriously reducing organizational effectiveness. However, training in stress management is becoming widely available for law enforcement agencies. It is, therefore, possible that the high priority rating given this area is due more to the training being "in vogue" than to an actual need for increased expertise in coping with stress. On the other hand, since most training in this area is offered by health professionals, the high priority may reflect the inability of law enforcement agencies to pay for training of this type. Additional research would be required to resolve these conflicting possibilities.

# "... one way to increase the efficient use of financial resources earmarked for law enforcement training would be to develop training modules on relevant activity groupings."

Table 5		
Additional Training Priorities for Sheriff's Departments 500 Sworn Personnel* ( $n=1,315$ )	With Fe	wer Than
Activity (Category)	Agency Rank	Comparisor
Perform entry/exit processing of prisoners (common)	26	MH
Use undercover techniques in drug investigations (drug) Investigate possession with intent to distribute and/or sale of illegally	27	MH
imported/manufactured controlled substances (drug)	28	SH
Develop and maintain control of informants in drug investigations (drug) Provide assistance in potential suicide situations, e.g., counsel, comfort,	34	SH
rescue, etc. (common)	36	AS
Serve civil court papers (other)	46	MH
Quell jail disturbances/riots (common) Investigate financial aspects of illegal drug trafficking in order to identify and seize assets (vehicles, funds, real estate, etc.) acquired as a result	51	MH
of drug trafficking (drug)	60	MH
Provide public assistance in drug abuse education and prevention (drug)	61	AS
nvestigate drug smuggling by aircraft, vessels, mail, etc. (drug)	62	SH
Handle juvenile matters (detective/juvenile/vice)	63	SL
Use reverse undercover techniques in drug investigations (drug)	64	SH
Use SWAT tactics (common) Investigate illegal marihuana cultivation and develop eradication programs	66	SH
(drug)	67	MH

The content analysis of the returned comment forms indicates that budgetary constraints provide an underlying obstacle to providing adequate training for sworn officers in many agencies. Even in cases where training is provided without cost to agencies, some of the smallest agencies are unable to participate because of the negative implications of having a critically needed officer away from the job for extended periods of time. The continuing need to reduce public spending makes it imperative that more efficient methods of training the law enforcement officer be developed.

The results of this study suggest areas for which additional emphasis in existing training programs would be appropriate. Should particular high priority training activities continue to rate high in future surveys, allocation of Federal resources to support research into the most efficient and effective

The activity "carry out first-line supervision of sworn personnel, including planning, organizing, scheduling, appraising performance, etc." represents a particularly broad duty area. The high priority of this item for all agencies (14th out of 127 items), along with the breadth of the item and the potential impact of supervision on agency efficiency and effectiveness. suggests that at least some aspects of supervision are probably more important training areas than indicated by the data. This area will be examined in much greater detail using data provided by law enforcement agencies participating in the second phase of the nationwide law enforcement training needs assessment. Survey packets for this phase of the study were mailed to agencies during April of this year.



Table 6		
Additional Training Priorities for State Police/Highway (n=365)	Patrol A	Agencies *
Activity (Category)	Agency Rank	Comparison
Photograph and diagram accident scene (traffic)	33	МН
Use SWAT tactics (common)	34	MH
Extricate trapped persons from buildings, vehicles, etc. (patrol)	37	MH
nterview drivers/witnesses about motor vehicle accidents (traffic)	38	MH
Provide accident scene maintenance/security (traffic)	43	MH
Conduct background/applicant investigations (intelligence)	44	MH
ssue traffic citations/warnings (traffic)	45	SH
nvestigate drug smuggling by aircraft, vessels, mail, etc. (drug)	53	MH
Check for proper registration, driver's license, vehicle weights, etc. (patrol)	54	SH
Conduct internal affairs investigations (intelligence)	55	MH
Conduct police community relations/crime prevention programs (other)	58	AS
Provide executive/dignitary security/protection (detective/juvenile/vice) Control traffic at scene of accident, busy intersection, special events, etc.	59	МН
(traffic)	60	SH
Quell jail disturbances/riots (common)	64	MH
Inspect for vehicle identification number (VIN) (common)	65	MH
Operate radar/VASCAR, etc. equipment (traffic) Investigate possession with intent to distribute and/or sale of illegally	67	SH
imported/manufactured controlled substances (drug)	70	ML
Administer roadside sobriety tests (traffic)	71	MH
Perform general office functions (other)	72	AS
* Those training prioriting are in addition to these about in table 0		

\* These training priorities are in addition to those shown in table 2.

ways to enhance the performance of sworn law enforcement personnel in these areas could be warranted. Even small refinements in training content and delivery in such widely used law enforcement activities could result in tremendous return on research investment. The nature groupings of activities and the similarities in training needs across agency type and size suggest that one way to increase the efficient use of financial resources earmarked for law enforcement training would be to develop training modules on relevant activity groupings. These modules could then be assembled in a variety of combinations to

meet the training needs of various law enforcement groups. Moreover, newer technologies, such as video taping and satellite broadcasting, provide considerable potential for providing low cost, onsite training to large numbers of law enforcement personnel. While these newer "state of the art" options should be examined closely, careful reviews should also be made of such approaches as correspondence courses, conventional academy training, specialized regional and departmental programs, and rollcall training procedures. FBI Readers wishing to obtain copies of the report *State and Local Law Enforcement Training Needs in the United States,* on which this article is based, may do so by ordering vol. I (executive report) and/or vol. II (technical report) from:

NTIS, 5285 Port Royal Road, Springfield, Va. 22161 PB84–156298 (vol. 1) Cost: \$8.50 (paper), \$4.50 (microfiche) PB84–156306 (vol. 2) Cost: \$14.50 (paper), \$4.50 (microfiche). The report(s) can also be obtained from:

ERIC Document Reproduction Service, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, Va. 22210 ED238884 (vol. 1) Cost: \$5.49 (paper), \$1.17 (microfiche) ED238885 (vol. 2) Cost: \$12.87 (paper), \$1.17 (microfiche).

#### Footnotes

<sup>1</sup> The Bureau of Education Research, University of Virginia, acted as a consultant to the Institutional Research and Development staff during the survey design, data collection, and data analysis phases of the study.

<sup>2</sup> No attempt is made in this article to describe in any detail the review of the literature or the methodology of the study. Readers interested in more information regarding background literature or the development of job activities and categories, survey instrument design, reliability and validity, survey recipients, survey distribution and return, and data analysis may wish to obtain a copy of the *Technical Report*.

# **Officer Coded Report Forms**

Weather Con

By OFFICER STEVEN G. DEATON

Planning and Research Police Bureau Portland, Oreg. Since 1975, the Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program (ICAP), developed by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), has become increasingly popular among police agencies across the country. ICAP's success lies in its uncomplicated approach to effectively manage and use police resources. ICAP offers police administrators the opportunity to structure their department operation based on a model that has proven successful.

The ICAP concept depends on the interrelationships within the system of 1) crime analysis, 2) a structured goal-oriented decisionmaking process, and 3) sound service delivery techniques. Basically, ICAP is a logic flow designed to enhance the responsiveness of the patrol operation. (See fig. 1.) The simplicity of the concept lends itself well to the day-to-day operations of many police agencies.

#### ICAP Logic Flow

Step 1 of the ICAP logic flow, data collection, represents the patrol officer's preliminary investigation. Because ICAP focuses on the analysis of information collected, the information input at the first step must be specific useful information. The requirement or responsibility to collect this information demands a new offense report designed to upgrade the quality of the information to be generated. Most police agencies' report writing systems require a rethinking on the part of the administrators to adhere to the ICAP concept. The primary question is whether the existing field report forms were designed for crime analysis or whether they were merely designed to report the occurrence of an event.

The second step, analysis, consists of three component parts—crime analysis, operations analysis, and intelligence analysis. All three components are designed to analyze the data collected and respond with timely and pertinent information for use in day-to-day police operations. If the information collected is subjective or incomplete, the analysis of that information will reflect the inaccuracies and the credibility of the analysis will deteriorate.

To realize the full potential of the operation, personnel in the crime analysis units must be given quality crime information. The ICAP model suggests a revised offense/incident report form designed to enhance a crime analysis unit. The model form includes possibilities for improving the quality of data collected and increasing the quality of data analyzed.

It is easy to visualize the benefits of quality information. What is not so easy to visualize is the need to change from subjective data collection and analysis to objective data collection and analysis. This transition is paramount to efficient, effective, strategic, and tactical management decisionmaking.



Officer Deaton



The third step, planning, is a formalized integrated decisionmaking process by supervisors and administrators based on the data analysis. The two types of decision categories suggested within the model are strategic decisions and tactical decisions. Strategic decisions are policy-oriented—tactical decisions usually involve short term allocation of resources.

The fourth step, service delivery, includes crime-related activities, crisis intervention, and order maintenance. The deployment decisions for these three activities are influenced by many factors, such as resources, analysis, communication, priorities, etc. Without good data input, the service delivery output will suffer.

The ICAP model can be a model for agency advancement well into the future. The catalyst for future advancement is a redesigned report system which, under the ICAP concept, focuses attention on the crime analysis unit. With detailed objective information, the analysis function can serve as a liaison within an agency to pull all units into the mainstream of police service. The characteristic ICAP model places emphasis on detailed suspect descriptions and/or suspect methodof-operation profiles using a "decision box" format. Decision boxes lend themselves well to objective data collection. From a crime analysis unit perspective, crime profiles require specific objective data capture. There are, of course, several formats that can be used to record crime analysis information on a report form. Each department must decide which format is best for them.

Our department requires that the following information be included on its report forms:

- Type of premises where the crime was committed;
- Method and point of entry of suspect;
- Instrument and force used by the suspect;
- Location of the victim at the time of the crime;
- Location of the property when stolen;
- 6) Type of property stolen;
- Unusual actions, methods, speech of suspect; and



Chief Ronald R. Still



#### 8) Suspect description/information.

The first administrative step is to decide what data the agency is actually seeking from these information requirements. Second, administrators must decide what they can add or subtract from the new list of data elements to enhance crime analysis. Third, administrators must decide how to format the new information requirements—decision box (forced choice) or fill-in information.

The Simi Valley, Calif., Police Department has developed an ICAP-related crime report. (See fig. 2.) The crime analysis information is precoded and has a checkbox design format, whenever possible, in order to reduce report preparation time. This system allows for easy entry during records processing. The type of data elements under the general crime analysis headings should be particular to the specific crime-related problems an agency and community are experiencing.

#### **Subject Description**

The suspect description section on ICAP-related forms is the hallmark of the crime analysis orientation. General suspect description categories are used for descriptive areas such as:

- 1) Hair length;
- 2) Hair style;
- 3) Facial hair;
- 4) Complexion;
- 5) General appearance;
- 6) Demeanor;
- 7) Speech;
- 8) Voice;
- 9) Face;
- 10) Glasses;
- 11) Tattoos/scars;
- 12) Weapon type;
- 13) Weapon description; and
- 14) Clothing description.

These general categories are defined by generalized descriptors designed for rapid sorting in crime analysis. They are arranged in checkbox fashion on the crime or incident report. This design allows for both easy report preparation and processing of reports and aids in the collection of suspect information that is easily forgotten on a strictly fill-in box form. The suspect descriptors common to all police report forms are still, and probably always will be, in fill-in spaces. No one has identified a better method for collecting race, sex, height, weight, build, hair color, eye color, date of birth, and age descriptors. ICAP only expands the suspect descriptors for enhanced investigations and detailed analysis.

Good data collection will prove useful only if the mechanisms for processing, analysis, and retrieval are present and timely. The ICAP model offers police agencies the tools to develop the logic flow necessary to enhance patrol responsiveness. When adopting the ICAP logic, police agencies must not neglect the required commitment to crime analysis.

The arrest report is not addressed specifically by ICAP. It is considered a complement to the crime or incident report. Besides the necessary booking information requirements, the data elements on the arrest report should be consistent with crime analysis information requirements. This will allow manual or computer searches and matches on an arrested person's characteristics and outstanding suspect descriptions.

Another method for collecting crime analysis information involves the use of a separate coding sheet. The Eugene, Oreg., Police Department has probably the best crime analysis unit in the State. Based on ICAP philosophy and Eugene innovation, the department has expanded crime analysis information requirements to include victim and suspect actions and vehicle classifications. The basic information is collected on the incident report. When the situation being investigated warrants, the analysis information is collected on a separate coding sheet. (See fig. 3.)

There are both advantages and disadvantages to the coding sheet system of data collection. The key is to develop a method of data collection that works well for all local users. Although the coding system designed by participating ICAP agencies is a good one, unless the information collected is useful within the crime analysis orientation, it is futile to require report writers to complete the form.

Our department has developed a different method of data collection well within the ICAP philosophy but unique to gathering coded information. Report forms are in tablet form with coding sheet overlays. The report writer merely transfers a series of numbers corresponding to crime analvsis information from the coding sheet to the report form before removing it from the tablet. (See fig. 4.) There are, of course, advantages and disadvantages to this method of data collection. This method requires a heavy reliance on the automated processing system to decode, sort, and file the collected crime analysis information.

The data requirements necessary to fulfill ICAP philosophy are similar from agency to agency. The subtle differences in report form design manifest themselves in local information requirements and in the local administrators' law enforcement orientation.

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Figure 3

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ICAP is not a panacea. It is, however, a model of a "big picture" of a police agency operation. Interested agencies will be able to find numerous articles and reference manuals detailing ICAP operations. The success of the program will be measured in terms of an administrator's commitment to the crime analysis philosophy espoused by ICAP and to the development of a crime reporting system which enhances data collection, collation, analysis, and dissemination in the most effective and efficient manner.

The officer coded report forms developed through ICAP research and modified by the Portland Police Bureau can be the catalyst, among other things, for advancement into the high-tech environment. As police reliance on computer systems becomes more commonplace, a method of data collection and analysis must be adopted in order to ensure maximum use of available police resources. The officer coded report forms offer police administrators this assurance, plus several other benefits, including:

- Decrease in interpretation errors between report writer and report processor;
- Decrease in report preparation time;
- Decrease in report processing time;
- Decrease in collection of repetitive, subjective information;
- 5) Increase in report accuracy;
- Increase in ease of data retrieval;
- Increase in intraagency communication;
- Increase in life of the report forms—decrease in forms maintenance; and
- Increase in dollar savings associated with the report writing system.

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ICAP has successfully developed the method by which generalized crime analysis information can be used to enhance a police agency's operation. Now ICAP is experiencing a resurgence of interest as evidenced by the adoption of officer coded, crime analysis-oriented report forms among many small to medium-sized police departments.

The collection of the generalized crime analysis information has now experienced change based not only on the resurgence of ICAP interest but also the growing reliance on computer systems to aid in the crime analysis function. The Portland Police Bu-

reau's officer coded report forms represent all the advantages ICAP logic offers, but their forms have taken the ICAP logic one more step into the future. Portland's officer coded forms have incorporated the necessary changes into the crime analysis function caused by growing police reliance on computer systems and have allowed for agency growth (both anticipated and unanticipated). The design of Portland's forms satisfies the basic ICAP logic within the participating agency and promotes ICAP's continued success through better communication within the criminal justice system.

FBI

"During my stay in the United States I have seen the inhabitants of a country where a serious crime had been committed spontaneously forming committees with the object of catching the criminal and handing him over to the courts."<sup>1</sup> This could be a visitor's description of the formation of a Crime Stoppers program. Actually, these words were written by Alexis DeTocqueville in his monumental work, *Democracy in America*, describing America as he saw it during the 1830's.

This is indicative of a long tradition of citizen involvement in law enforcement, which is crucial to the function of the entire criminal justice process. Brent and Rossum suggest the importance of this participation in their book, *Police, Criminal Justice and the Community:* "It is the citizen who initiates the process by reporting crime, acting as a witness and accuser; they are the major source of information."<sup>2</sup> Crime Stoppers is a program which exemplifies this tradition and fits well into the dynamics of communities large and small.

Crime Stoppers, Crime Solvers, Silent Witness—few have not heard these names. Some will say, "Isn't that one of those reward programs?" or "That's the crook of the week club." The fact that the name is recognized is noteworthy, since the concept itself was developed only 8 years ago. To have reached this level of recognition, now international in scope, should be the envy of anyone in marketing.

Still, there are those more familiar with Crime Stoppers who are no less knowledgeable. Shortly after becoming coordinator of our Crime Stoppers program, I received a call from a man who was quite irate. He just viewed our "Crime of the Week" dramatization on television and had a com-

# **CRIME STOPPERS** Participation May Be the Real Payoff



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Detective Ferrell

plaint. The particular case he saw depicted a residential burglary, during which the victim surprised the burglar. As the hapless victim entered his house, the burglar shot at him. In an attempt to recreate the incident as it occurred, at approximately 3:00 a.m., it was taped after dark at the original crime scene. As a consequence, the silhouettes and muzzle flash were all that could be seen. The caller's complaint was, "How in the hell do you expect me to be able to identify them if I can't see their faces." He obviously missed the point!

To say the success of Crime Stoppers is built solely on offering rewards for information may be missing the point as well. Crime Stoppers is certainly more than a reward program. Several factors separate Crime Stoppers from similar programs and contribute to its viability.

We live in an information society. Information is bought and sold as a commodity, along with the hardware to process it. To the police officer, the buying and selling of information is nothing new, and the importance of information to successful law enforcement cannot be overemphasized. In a 1981 *Time* magazine article, Judge William H. Webster, Director of the FBI, called it "the most important part of law enforcement."<sup>3</sup> The knottiest part of the problem has been finding a way of obtaining this information.

Crime Stoppers is a program born out of the frustration police officers have long experienced in dealing with this problem. It consists of adding to the mixture of anonymity and cash rewards the elements of media and community involvement. Looking at the phenomenal success of the program leaves little doubt of the importance of this partnership involving the police, the news media, and the community.

Crime Stoppers offers a new wrinkle in dealing with crime, and the statistics are impressive. Over 420 programs have reported to the Albuquerque-based Crime Stoppers International. Successes include 50,637 felony cases solved and the recovery of \$207,651,965 in stolen property and confiscated drugs, with an accompanying 97-percent conviction rate. These facts speak well to both the accuracy of the information and the effectiveness of the departments who use it. However, while the statistical production of these programs is impressive, it is doubtful they alone make a case for police involvement. The program is inherently practical-a more important motivating factor.

A program such as this has the potential to generate tremendous amounts of information regarding criminal activity. With budgetary constraints a fact of life. Crime Stoppers offers a method of compiling information which can significantly reduce investigative time as well as positively affect morale and personnel requirements. It has been cost-effective in cities as large as Houston, Tex., (which solves one case for every 2.3 hours of operation) and in communities of under 100.000, such as Jackson, Tenn., (which solves one case for every 12.99 hours of operation).

A second motivating factor is the community relations value of the program. Right or wrong, a police department's effectiveness is often measured by the crime rate and subsequent clearance rates. Crime Stoppers provides a vehicle to accent "Crime Stoppers . . . consists of adding to the mixture of anonymity and cash rewards the elements of media and community involvement."

police successes as well as inform the community regarding a particular crime problem. It is also an excellent method of providing crime prevention tips. There is a reward which comes to the police for their support of Crime Stoppers; the objective results enhance its image in the role of a crimefighting organization. On a more subjective level, the program opens lines of communication between the police and the community, which may be the most important spinoff.

Media participation is a significant reason for the success of this program. Criminal activity is a daily subject of media attention. Crime Stoppers offers the opportunity to play a different role, one aimed at the solution of a serious community problem. The factor here becomes public service, a responsibility keenly felt in this institution. KAKE television, the station associated with the program in Wichita, Kans., conducted a survey of its news product during July 1983. KAKE discovered that Crime Stoppers was identified as the most significant public service project with which it was involved. It appears the media's reward for involvement also comes in a highly valued form.

Crime Stoppers is more than a program which pays cash rewards for information. While the payment of rewards and the offering of anonymity are the foundations upon which the program is built, there are other factors at work. Crime Stoppers provides rewards to organizations, institutions, and citizens who constitute the program. Crime Stoppers helps to facilitate citizen involvement in the way DeTocqueville spoke of some 130 years ago.

As successful as Crime Stoppers programs have been, the surface has only been scratched. Agencies across the country are failing to benefit from this lucrative investigative aid, primarily because of a lack of information. Crime Stoppers International has recently published the second edition of the Crime Stoppers Manual. This 250page manual is a source book for those interested in beginning a program. The nine chapters include information on how to start a program, the board of directors, the police coordinator, fundraising, Crime Stoppers and the law, the role of the media, ethics and morality, statewide programs, and Crime Stoppers U.S.A., Inc., as well as a directory of more than 300 programs in the United States and Canada. The information offered comes from the originators of the concept, as well as the shared experiences of those who have operated a program. It can foster new organizations through their beginning stages and offer advice to those with years of experience. The manual is available through C.S.I. at 8100 Mountain Road, N.E., Suite 104, Albuquerque, N.M. 87110 at a cost of \$60.

During each of the last 5 years, Crime Stoppers International has cohosted a fall conference with a local organization to bring together representatives from Crime Stoppers programs throughout the United States and Canada. The conference this year will be held in Wichita, Kans., from September 30 through October 3. The theme is "Crime Stoppers in the Com-

munity." The conference will open on September 30 with a new members school geared to police coordinators and board members involved with initiating a program. The remaining 3 days will be filled with a variety of workshops, speeches, presentations, and special events. The program will begin October 1 with a speech by Chief Anthony Bouza of the Minneapolis, Minn., Police Department, who will speak on the impact of Crime Stoppers on the police. A new feature of this year's conference will include discussion aroup sessions of no more than 50 participants under the leadership of a trained facilitator. These groups will develop strategies for improving Crime Stoppers operations. Monday's activities will close with an outdoor barbecue at historic Cowtown, a replica of 1870's Wichita. The luncheon speaker on October 2 will be Mr. John Otto, executive assistant director for law enforcement services of the FBI. Mr. Otto will speak on organized crime in the Midwest. There will be an exhibition of microcomputer equipment by several manufacturers and a presentation on data collection and analysis by Dr. Alan Beck. On October 3, the culminating event will be an awards banquet featuring a speech by Kansas Attorney General Robert Stephans and a presentation of outstanding media reenactments. Requests for information regarding the conference or registration forms may be directed to Crime Stoppers International.

FBI

#### Footnotes

<sup>1</sup> Alex DeTocqueville, *Democracy in America*, ed. J. P. Mayer (Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Books, Doubleday & Co., 1969), p. 96.

<sup>2</sup> Alan E. Brent and Ralph A Rossum, *Police, Criminal Justice and the Community* (New York: Harper & Row, 1976), p. 25.

<sup>3</sup> Roger Rosenblatt, et al., "Why the Criminal Justice System Fails," *Time*, March 23, 1981.

# **Predisposition** and the **Entrapment Defense** (Part I)

"Rules which govern the admissibility of evidence generally prohibit the admission of other-crimes evidence when it is offered to show that the defendant committed the acts with which he has been charged."

By

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Law enforcement officers of other than Federal jurisdiction who are interested in any legal issue discussed in this article should consult their legal adviser. Some police procedures ruled permissible under Federal constitutional law are of questionable legality under State law or are not permitted at all.

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#### **PREDISPOSITION**—Definition

Predisposition can be defined as a defendant's preexisting willingness to commit a crime whenever an opportunity is presented to him. The following jury instruction often given in Federal entrapment cases provides further explication: ". . . where a person already has a readiness and willingness to break the law, the mere fact that government agents provide what appears to be a favorable opportunity is not entrapment." 1 A person can be predisposed to commit a crime even if he did not form an intent to commit the specific criminal act charged until he was solicited by a Government agent. For example, a regular dealer of heroin would be considered predisposed to commit the crime of selling heroin even if the idea of consummating the particular sale for which he was indicted originated with the Government agent.<sup>2</sup>

#### Origin

The concept of predisposition can be traced to the first U.S. Supreme Court case which considered the issue of entrapment. In *Sorrells* v. *United States*,<sup>3</sup> an undercover agent made several requests of the defendant to provide him with illegal whiskey. The defendant finally acquiesced and provided the whiskey. At trial, the defendant attempted to assert the entrapment defense but the trial judge ruled as a matter of law that entrapment was not present. The jury returned a guilty verdict and a Federal appellate court affirmed. The U.S. Supreme Court granted review of the case and reversed. The majority opinion recognized the right of a defendant to offer evidence that he committed the crime charged at the instigation of the Government. The Court also observed that when the defense is raised, the prosecution should be permitted to prove that the defendant is not an innocent victim of police inducement but rather predisposed to commit the offense charged. Justice Hughes, in writing for the majority, made this perfectly clear when he said: ". . . [If] the defendant seeks acquittal by reason of entrapment, he cannot complain of an appropriate and searching inquiry into his own conduct and predisposition as bearing upon that issue." 4 The majority view in Sorrells has come to be labeled the "subjective view" of the entrapment defense because its focus is on the defendant's subjective state of mind and whether he was predisposed to commit the crime.

Three Justices who concurred in the reversal took the position that the entrapment defense should focus exclusively upon the conduct of the Government in the individual case. This view of entrapment has come to be called the "objective view." Under



Special Agent Callahan

this view, predisposition evidence is generally regarded as inadmissible.

Since 1932, four Supreme Court cases have been decided in which a majority of the Justices adopted the subjective view.<sup>5</sup> All these cases approved of the admissibility of predisposition evidence to defeat the entrapment defense. As a consequence, all Federal circuits and a majority of the States<sup>6</sup> follow the subjective view. At least eight States have adopted the objective view of the defense.<sup>7</sup>

This article analyzes the predisposition concept under the subjective view of entrapment, including: (1) The burden of proving the existence of predisposition; (2) the interrelationship between the concept of predisposition and the rules of evidence; and (3) the various types of predisposition evidence available to a prosecutor to counter the entrapment defense when raised.

#### **Burden of Proof**

Under the subjective view, predisposition fits into the entrapment equation in the following manner. Because entrapment is an affirmative defense, it must be raised by the defendant at trial.8 The defendant bears the initial burden of producing evidence to show that the Government initiated, suggested, or proposed the crime. Moreover, he must produce some evidence that he was not predisposed to commit it.9 If the defendant is successful in meeting this initial burden. the burden of proof then shifts to the Government to produce evidence that the defendant was predisposed beyond a reasonable doubt.10 Otherwise, the entrapment defense will succeed and an acquittal will follow.11 Where there is proof of predisposition, Government inducement is no more than mere opportunity. Failure to prove predisposition turns inducement into entrapment.

The prosecutor's arsenal for establishing predisposition is vast and potent. Before examining the several types of predisposition evidence available to the prosecutor, it will be helpful to consider the interrelationship between predisposition and the rules of evidence.

#### PREDISPOSITION—RULES OF EVIDENCE

#### **Other Crimes Evidence**

"other-Generally speaking, crimes" evidence may be defined as evidence of a defendant's participation in criminal activity other than the specific crime for which he is being tried. Rules which govern the admissibility of evidence generally prohibit the admission of other-crimes evidence when it is offered to show that the defendant committed the acts with which he has been charged.12 Such evidence is considered prejudicial because it has a tendency to distract the jury from its proper role of determining whether the defendant committed the acts charged and risks encouraging the jury to punish the defendant for being a "bad man."

Some jurisdictions recognize an exception to the general rule and permit the jury to consider evidence of the defendant's participation in other crimes when the evidence is offered to prove such things as motive or intent. Rule 404(b) of the Federal Rules of Evidence is illustrative.<sup>13</sup>

Although 404(b) is silent regarding the admissibility of other-crimes evidence to prove predisposition in entrapment cases, the Federal appel"Predisposition may be shown by evidence that the defendant has been previously convicted of offenses similar to the offense charged in the current indictment."

late courts routinely admit such evidence for this purpose <sup>14</sup> because the question before the jury is not whether the defendant committed the acts charged in the indictment. This is a foregone conclusion in most entrapment cases. Indeed, in some Federal circuits, the defendant must admit that he committed the acts charged in the indictment in order to raise the entrapment defense.<sup>15</sup> Thus, the principal issue for the jury is whether the defendant was predisposed to commit the crime charged and other-crimes evidence is directly relevant.

United States v. Burkley 16 is instructive. In Burkley, the defendant made two sales of heroin to an undercover officer. One occurred in the District of Columbia in September 1976. and a second occurred in Phoenix, Ariz., in November 1976. Two separate indictments were returned, and the charges contained in both were consolidated in one trial which took place in Washington, D.C. At trial, Burkley claimed entrapment but was convicted. On appeal, he argued that he was unduly prejudiced by the consolidation of the charges against him into one trial because the jury was able to consider the evidence of the other crime in deciding guilt on each sale charge. A Federal appellate court affirmed his conviction and explained that consolidation is proper if the evidence of the first sale would have been admissible at a separate trial on the second sale and vice-versa. The court concluded that this would have been proper if separate trials had occurred in this case because evidence of other crimes is admissible under rule 404(b) to prove predisposition. The court observed that although rule 404(b) does not specifically address this situation, history and tradition support admissibility of other-crimes evidence to establish predisposition. The court ruled: "Thus, in an entrapment case, evidence of other crimes is presented not to show that the defendant actually acted in conformity therewith—that is, committed the crime—but that he was disposed to act in this manner." <sup>17</sup> (emphasis added)

Another Federal circuit has construed rule 404(b) differently but with the same result. In United States v. Mack.18 the defendant was indicted and convicted for selling cocaine. During trial, he asserted the entrapment defense. The Government countered by offering evidence that Mack sold cocaine 2 months after the first sale to undercover agents. Mack filed an appeal and claimed error in the admission of evidence regarding the second sale. The court of appeals affirmed the conviction and observed that rule 404(b) allows evidence of other crimes for the purpose of proving intent. The court reasoned that the second sale evidence was offered to establish Mack's predisposition to commit the offense charged, and his intent to commit the crime could be inferred from his predisposition. Thus, the evidence is offered to prove intent which is a specific exception to the general rule that other-crimes evidence is inadmissible.

#### **Relevancy and Prejudice**

In Federal entrapment cases, three additional Federal Rules of Evidence come into play. Rule 401 defines relevant evidence as evidence which makes the existence of a material fact more probable.<sup>19</sup> Rule 402 states that all relevant evidence is admissible.<sup>20</sup> However, rule 403 provides an exception whereby relevant evidence may be excluded if its value is substantially outweighed by the danger of unfair prejudice.<sup>21</sup> Comparable rules would apply in most State jurisdictions.

In entrapment cases, the role of the jury is to determine whether the defendant is predisposed to commit the crime beyond a reasonable doubt. Predisposition is precisely the material fact in dispute, and evidence that a defendant has engaged in other criminal acts which are identical or similar to the offense charged makes the existence of that material fact more probable. Thus, the other-crimes evidence will be admissible to establish predisposition as long as relevancy is not substantially outweighed by the danger of unfair prejudice.

An example appears in United States v. Burkley,22 wherein the defendant was charged in separate indictments for two heroin sales, one of which followed the other by 21/2 months. The indictments were consolidated for trial and a conviction followed. In response to the defendant's entrapment claims, the Federal appellate court had no trouble in reaching the conclusion that each sale was relevant to the other on the question of predisposition. The court observed: "We . . . reject appellant's broad contention that evidence of a crime some two and one-half months after the crime for which a defendant is being tried is per se irrelevant to the issue of a defendant's predisposition to commit the earlier crime." 23 Moreover, the court concluded: "... [when] the probative weight of this other-crimes evidence on the issue of predisposition is balanced against possible prejudice to the accused ... the argument for admissibility is if anything strengthened."<sup>24</sup>

#### **CATEGORIES OF PREDISPOSITION**

#### **Prior Convictions**

Predisposition may be shown by evidence that the defendant has been previously convicted of offenses similar to the offense charged in the current indictment. The U.S. Supreme Court implied as much when it decided Sherman v. United States.25 In Sherman, a Government informant met Sherman in a doctor's office where both were being treated for narcotics addiction. Sherman turned down repeated requests from the informant to provide heroin. Finally, after the informant appealed to Sherman's sympathy based on his knowledge of narcotics addiction withdrawal, the defendant provided heroin. Sherman was indicted for three heroin sales and raised the entrapment defense at trial. The entrapment issue was decided by the jury which returned a conviction. A Federal court of appeals affirmed. Sherman appealed to the Supreme Court and argued that entrapment had been established as a matter of law. The Supreme Court agreed and reversed. The Court examined the sufficiency of evidence to establish predisposition and decided that the defendant's 9year-old conviction for selling narcotics and his 5-year-old conviction for illegally possessing them were insufficient as a matter of law to establish predisposition. Significantly, the Court did not reject the admissibility of prior

convictions for this purpose. If the prior convictions had been more current, the result in *Sherman* might well have been different.

In addition to being current, the prior convictions must be similar in nature to the current indictment in order to be admissible. For example, in United States v. Apuzzo, 26 the defendant was convicted of dealing in firearms without a license. During trial, he asserted the entrapment defense, and the jury was allowed to consider his previous misdemeanor conviction for possession and transportation of untaxed cigarettes. On appeal, he argued that the Government's proof of predisposition was insufficient as a matter of law to sustain the verdict. The court of appeals rejected this contention and held:

"The conviction for possession and transportation of untaxed cigarettes is similar to the crime for which the appellant was on trial, namely, engaging in the business of dealing in firearms without a license. It was therefore . . . admissible as evidence tending to show a predisposition to commit the crime . . . ."<sup>27</sup>

As Apuzzo illustrates, some Federal appellate courts are less than demanding regarding the similarity requirement. In United States v. Simmons,<sup>28</sup> the defendant was found guilty after a jury trial on charges stemming from unlawful distribution of heroin. During trial, he claimed entrapment, and the Government offered his two previous convictions for narcotics violations as evidence of predisposition. On appeal, he argued that these

convictions were erroneously admitted and that the Government made no showing as to the relevancy of the prior convictions. Moreover, he argued that the trial judge never made a finding that the relevance of the past convictions substantially outweighed the danger of unfair prejudice as required by the Federal Rules of Evidence. The court of appeals rejected these arguments, reasoning that the defendant's prior narcotics convictions were relevant and directly probative of his predisposition to engage in the distribution of heroin. Moreover, the court held that the trial judge did not have to make a specific finding on the court record that the relevance of the prior convictions substantially outweighed the danger of unfair prejudice because the defendant himself elicited testimony regarding them during cross examination of a Government witness.

It is interesting to note that in *Simmons*, the court never mentioned the specific nature of the prior convictions other than to refer to them as narcotics convictions. The fact that the prior convictions involved narcotics seemed to be enough for the court to decide that they were sufficiently similar to be relevant under the Federal Rules of Evidence.

Other Federal appellate courts have been more conservative with respect to the introduction of prior con-In United States victions. V Bramble, 29 for example, the defendant was convicted for distributing cocaine. During trial, he claimed entrapment, and the Government introduced evidence of a prior conviction for possession of marihuana to establish predisposition. On appeal, he argued that the prior conviction-for cultivating 21 marihuana plants in a hothouse in his backyard-was irrelevant to show predisposition to sell cocaine. Moreover, he claimed that even if the prior con"Federal appellate courts regularly allow evidence of prior criminal activity to be admitted to establish predisposition when the defendant has raised the entrapment defense."

viction was relevant, the trial judge erred in not making a finding on the record that the relevance of the prior conviction substantially outweighed the danger of unfair prejudice. The court of appeals reversed the conviction and held that it was impossible to determine from the trial record whether the prior conviction was relevant to the offense charged. The court explained that the relevancy of the prior conviction would depend on whether the amount of marihuana was substantial enough to allow a reasonable inference that he possessed the marihuana with intent to sell it. The court remanded the case back to the trial court for a new trial and suggested that evidence should be submitted by the Government on the quantity of marihuana contained in 21 marihuana plants. Moreover, it suggested that if the trial judge decides that the prior conviction is relevant, he must make a specific finding on the court record that the relevance of the prior conviction substantially outweighs the danger of unfair prejudice.

Federal appellate courts have consistently refused to approve the admissibility of a prior conviction to overcome an entrapment defense when it is very dissimilar to the offense charged in the current indictment. In United States v. Pagan. 30 the defendant was convicted for selling heroin. To overcome the entrapment defense, the Government introduced a prior conviction for interstate transportation of a stolen motor vehicle. On appeal, the court stated that prior convictions must involve offenses similar to those in guestion in order to constitute relevant rebuttal evidence.

The court observed that here the prior conviction was so dissimilar from heroin trafficking that it was not relevant to demonstrate his predisposition to distribute drugs. Therefore, the evidence of the prior conviction was inadmissible.

#### **Prior Arrests**

Another weapon in the arsenal of the prosecutor to overcome entrapment is the introduction into evidence of prior arrests to establish predisposition. Pulido v. United States<sup>31</sup> provides an example. Pulido involved two defendants, one of whom was Luna, Luna was convicted of selling heroin and during trial he asserted the entrapment defense. In attempting to show predisposition, the Government introduced evidence of 12-vear-old arrests for narcotics violations. Luna appealed and argued that the trial judge erred in admitting this evidence for the jury's consideration. The court of appeals affirmed the conviction and held that evidence of prior arrests is a permissible method of establishing predisposition as long as the evidence is relevant. Although it is doubtful that an appellate court today would find a prior arrest record that is 12 years old relevant on the question of predisposition, this case nonetheless supports the notion that Federal appellate courts will allow prior arrest records for similar cases to be admissible to establish predisposition.

#### **Prior Criminal Activity**

Federal appellate courts regularly allow evidence of prior criminal activity to be admitted to establish predisposition when the defendant has raised the entrapment defense. For example, in *United States* v. *Rippy*,<sup>32</sup> the defendant was convicted for three sales of heroin. During trial, he claimed entrapment, and the Government attempted to negate the defense by establishing predisposition through the testimony of a Government informant that the defendant had sold heroin to him and others in the past. On appeal, the defendant argued that the admission of this testimony was prejudical error. The court of appeals rejected this claim and held that the testimony was clearly relevant on the issue of predisposition. The court observed that the testimony regarding earlier sales bore heavily on the defendant's inclination to sell drugs. Moreover, the court reasoned that the relevance of this evidence clearly outweighs its prejudicial impact.

United States v. Salisbury33 provides another illustration. In Salisbury, the defendant was tried and convicted of selling a stolen load of carpeting to an informant and an undercover FBI Agent. During trial, in response to the defendant's entrapment claims, the Government introduced testimony from the informant regarding a prior attempt by the defendant to sell him a truckload of stolen tires. On appeal, the court held that the prior criminal activity was relevant and its potential prejudicial nature did not substantially outweigh its evidentiary value. The court observed:

"The evidence was squarely on point as to Salisbury's criminal predisposition. There was little in the way of unfair prejudice to counterbalance the probative value of the evidence."<sup>34</sup>

The conviction was affirmed.

The cases set forth above deal with the use of prior criminal activity to establish predisposition to commit subsequent criminal acts. There are also cases in which a series of criminal actions result in separate counts in a criminal prosecution and predisposition to commit the initial offense is used to rebut entrapment claims with respect to all of them. For example, in United States v. French, 35 the defendant was working behind the counter of a convenience store. He was approached by an undercover officer who asked him if he knew of anyone who was purchasing food stamps for money. Purchasing food stamps for money under these circumstances is a violation of Federal law. The defendant responded: "The owner doesn't like for us to do it, but how many books do you have?" The undercover officer told him that she had three books of stamps and he offered her \$50 for them. She provided him with the books and received the money. Approximately 5 months later, the defendant once again purchased food stamps on two occasions from an undercover officer. The first sale, which occurred on January 7, 1981, became count one in the defendant's indictment. The subsequent sales, which occurred on June 25 and June 26, 1981, became counts two and three. During trial, the defendant claimed entrapment. The jury returned a guilty verdict which by implication means the jury found him predisposed. The court of appeals affirmed and held that the jury's finding of predisposition was correct. The court first analyzed the initial sale of food stamps to the defendant. The court observed that the defendant's initial contact with the undercover officer involved a question from the undercover agent to the defendant concerning whether he knew if anyone was willing to purchase food stamps. The court then considered the defendant's response to that question. The court concluded that the defendant's response amounted to predisposition regarding count one. The court then observed: "The predisposition demonstrated by French in January was relevant to the question of his predisposition to buy stamps in June and July." 36 The defendant's initial response to the first undercover contact not only established predisposition for that contact but also contributed significantly to the jury's finding of predisposition regarding the later sales in June.

Part II of this article will examine additional types of predisposition evidence, including the question whether postoffense criminal activity can be used to establish predisposition. The question whether predisposition can be established by a defendant's favorable response to Government inducement will also be examined. Finally, the issue of whether hearsay is admissible to establish predisposition will be discussed. FBI

(To be continued)

Footnotes

<sup>1</sup> I.E. Devitt & C. Blackmar, Federal Jury Practice and Instruction, § 13.13, at 290-91 (2d ed. 1970).

<sup>2</sup> See Comment, Causation and Intention in the Entrapment Defense, 28 U.C.L.A. L. Rev. 859, at 880. 3 287 U.S. 435 (1932).

4 Id. at 451.

5 Sorrells v. United States, 287 U.S. 435 (1932); Sherman v. United States, 356 U.S. 369 (1958); United States v. Russell, 411 U.S. 423 (1973); Hampton v. United States, 425 U.S. 484 (1976),

6 Supra note 2, at 860, n.4.

7 Id. at 862 n.16. This note lists eight States which have adopted the objective view. They are identified as Alaska, California, Hawaii, Iowa, Michigan, New Hampshire, North Dakota, and Pennsylvania.

8 21 Am.Jr., 2d 461 9 United States v. Watson, 489 F.2d 504 (3d Cir. 1973); United States v. Riley, 363 F.2d 955 (2d Cir. 1966).

10 United States v. Garrett, 716 F.2d 257 (5th Cir. 1983), cert. denied, 104 S.Ct. 1910 (1984); United States v. Walker, 720 F.2d 1527 (11th Cir. 1983); United States v. Silvestri, 719 F.2d 577 (2d Cir. 1983); United States v. Burkley, 591 F.2d 903 (D.C. Cir. 1978), cert. denied, 440 U.S. 966 (1979); see also, Park, The Entrapment Controversy, 60 Minn.L.Rev. 163, at 184.

11 Sherman v. United States, 356 U.S. 369 (1958).

12 E.g., 28 U.S.C.A., Rule 404(a) of the Federal Rules of Evidence reads in pertinent part: "Evidence of a person's character . . . is not admissible for the purpose of proving that he acted in conformity therewith on a particular occasion .

13 28 U.S.C.A., Rule 404(b) of the Federal Rules of Evidence reads in pertinent part: "Evidence of other crimes . . . [M]ay, however, be admissible for other purposes, such as proof of motive, opportunity, intent,

preparation, plan . . . ." 14 United States v. Mack, 643 F.2d 1119 (5th Cir. 1981); United States v. Burkley, 591 F.2d 903 (D.C. Cir. 1978), cert. denied, 440 U.S. 966 (1979). <sup>15</sup> United States v. Shoup, 608 F.2d 950 (3d Cir.

1979); United States v. Johnston, 426 F.2d 112 (7th Cir. 1970).

16 591 F.2d 903 (D.C. Cir. 1978).

17 Id. at 921.

18 643 F.2d 1119 (5th Cir. 1981). <sup>19</sup> 28 U.S.C.A., Rule 401 of the Federal Rules of Evidence reads in pertinent part: "Relevant evidence means evidence having any tendency to make the existence of any fact that is of consequence to the determination of the action more probable

20 28 U.S.C.A., Rule 402 of the Federal Rules of Evidence reads in pertinent part: "All relevant evidence is admissible except as otherwise provided by . . . these rules

<sup>21</sup> 28 U.S.C.A., Rule 403 of the Federal Rules of Evidence reads in pertinent part: "Although relevant, evidence may be excluded if its probative value is substantially outweighed by the danger of unfair prejudice.

22 Supra note 16

23 Id. at 921.

24 Id. at 922 25 Supra note 11

26 555 F.2d 306 (2d Cir. 1977), cert. denied, 435 U.S. 916 (1978).

27 Id. at 307

28 663 F.2d 107 (D.C. Cir. 1979). See also, United States v. Mayo, 705 F.2d 62 (2d Cir. 1983).

29 641 F.2d 681 (9th Cir. 1981), appeal after remand, 680 F.2d 590 (1982), cert. denied, 459 U.S. 1072 (1982).

30 721 F.2d 24 (2d Cir. 1983).

31 425 F.2d 1391 (9th Cir. 1970)

32 606 F.2d 1150 (D.C. Cir. 1979). See also, United States v. Henciar, 568 F.2d 489 (6th Cir. 1977), cert. denied, 435 U.S. 953 (1978); United States v. Wilbur, 545 F.2d 764 (1st Cir. 1976).

33 662 F.2d 738 (11th Cir. 1981), cert. denied, 457 U.S. 1107 (1982). See also, United States v. Segovia,

576 F.2d 251 (9th Cir. 1978); United States v. Biggins,

551 F.2d 64 (5th Cir. 1977).

 <sup>34</sup> 662 F.2d 738, 741 (11th Cir. 1981).
 <sup>35</sup> 683 F.2d 1189 (8th Cir. 1982), cert. denied, 459 U.S. 972 (1982).

36 Id. at 1193.





Photograph taken 1980

FBI No. ..... 479 082 P2.

Photograph taken 1980

Photograph taken 1982

Because of the time factor in printing the FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, there is the possibility that this fugitive has already been apprehended. The nearest office of the FBI will have current information on this fugitive's status.

#### **Joseph Jesse Espinoza**

Joseph Jesse Espinoza, also known as Joseph Espinosa, Joseph Jesse Espinosa, Joe Espinosa, Joe Espinoza, Joseph E. Espinoza, Joseph J. Espinoza, Joseph Jessie Espinoza, Joseph Espinoza, Joey Espinoza

#### Wanted for:

ITAR-Extortion; Escaped Federal Prisoner

#### **The Crime**

Espinoza, a prison escapee, is being sought in connection with extortion and attempted murder wherein he directed the shooting of the victim with a .357 magnum pistol.

Federal warrants were issued on May 4, 1982, at El Paso, Tex., and on May 13, 1982, at Tucson, Ariz.

#### Description

Age	40, born October
	29, 1943, Los
	Angeles, Calif.
Height	5'10".
Weight	200 pounds.
Build	
Hair	
Eyes	Brown.
Complexion	Dark.
Race	
Nationality	American
	(Mexican).

Occupations	Manager of pornographic book and materia stores and warehouses;
	operator of
	massage parlors.
Scars and Marks	Scar on left forearm; tattoos: Rose and woman's face in center of chest; words "LOVE" or right shoulder, "MADRE" on
	right upper arm, "LOCO" on right hand between thumb and
	forefinger, "JOE" on inside left
	forearm; a devil with words "U.S. Paratrooper" on
	left shoulder; obliterated tattoo
	scar on left forefinger.
Remarks	. Usually has
	mustache,
	sometimes has chin whiskers or
	goatee, reportedly uses narcotics.
Social Security No.	
Used	
CDI NIa	. 550-50-2057.

#### Caution

Espinoza has been convicted of selling, distributing, or displaying obscene material; battery on police officer; attempted murder; assault with a deadly weapon; interstate transportation of obscene matter; and conspiracy to commit murder. He should be considered armed. dangerous, and an escape risk.

#### **Notify the FBI**

Any person having information which might assist in locating this fugitive is requested to notify immediately the Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, D.C. 20535, or the Special Agent in Charge of the nearest FBI field office, the telephone number of which appears on the first page of most local directories.

#### **Classification Data:**

NCIC Classification: DODO151418PIPMPIPIPI **Fingerprint Classification** 15 O 24 W OOO 18 Ref: 24 1 20 W MII 28

1.0. 4950



Right index fingerprint



### **FBI**LAW ENFORCEMENT BULLETIN

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		State	State	State Zip	State Zip

## **Questionable** Pattern

The question arises as to whether the pattern appearing here is a whorl or loop. A central pocket loop-type whorl must have two deltas and at least one recurving ridge or an obstruction at right angles to the line of flow. The line of flow of a central loop is determined by drawing an imaginary line from the inner delta to the center of the inner most recurving ridge. In the Identification Division, this pattern would be classified as a central pocket loop whorl and would be given a reference to a loop.



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# The Bulletin Notes that on December 17, 1983,



Officer Michael A. Green of the Minneapolis, Minn., Police Department responded to an armed robbery, and with his partner, was confronted with an armed suspect. In the ensuing gunfight, the suspect was fatally wounded and two additional suspects were apprehended. For this and other accomplishments, Officer Green was awarded a departmental Medal of Valor, and the Bulletin joins with this officer's superiors in recognizing his valor.

Officer Green