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FBI Academy

25 Years of Leadership

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Louis J. Freeh
Director

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Acting Editor

John E. Ott

Associate Editors

Andrew DiRosa

Julie R. Linkins

Kimberly J. Waggoner

Acting Art Director

Brian K. Parnell

Staff Assistant

Linda W. Szumilo

Internet Address:

leb@fbi.gov

Cover photos

George February

Article submissions should be sent to Editor, *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Quantico, VA 22135.

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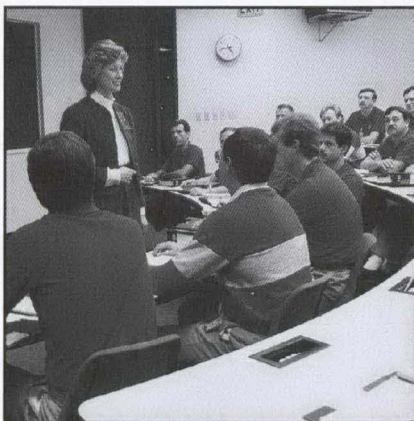
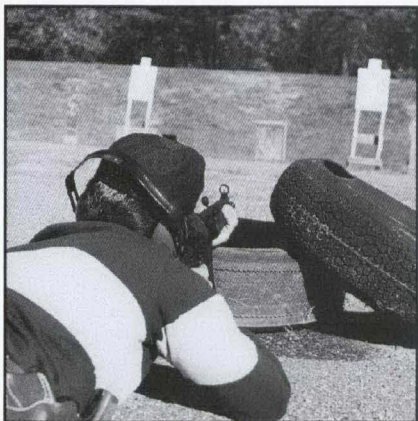
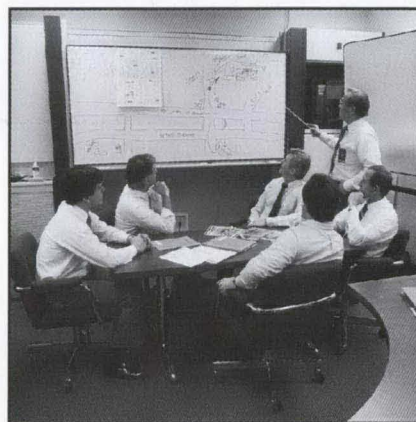
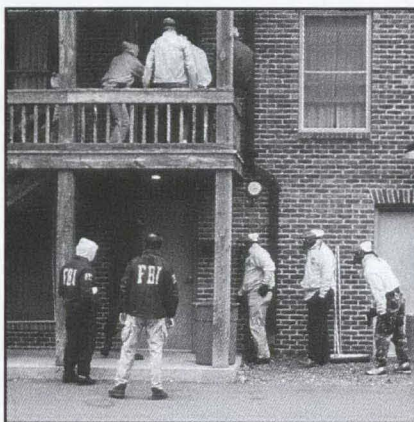
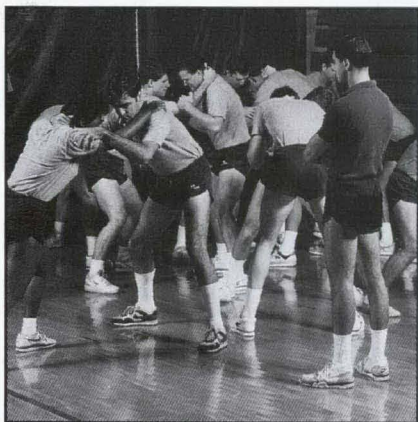
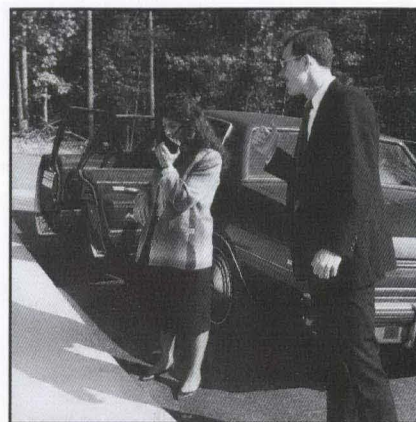
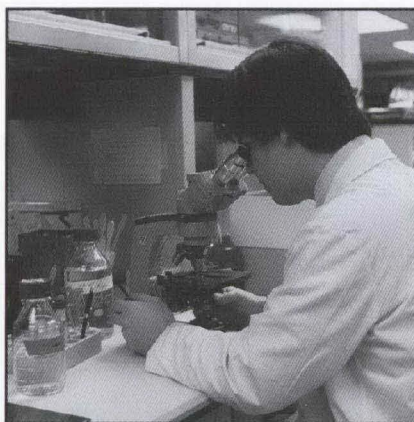
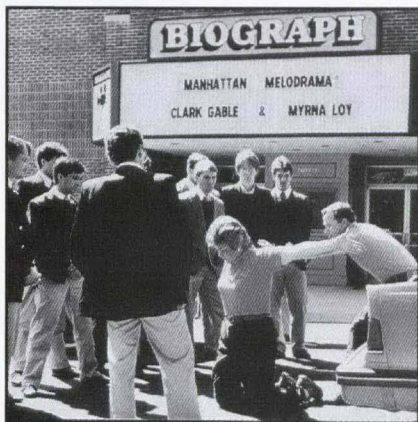
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FBI Academy

25 Years of Law Enforcement Leadership

By JULIE R. LINKINS



May of 1972 stands out as a remarkable month in FBI history. Director J. Edgar Hoover's death on May 2 marked the end of an era. Yet, just when one door closed on the FBI's past, the doors of the new, ultra-modern FBI Academy opened on its future. For 25 years, the FBI Academy has stood at the center of both national and international law enforcement training, assistance, and research. The future holds great



Ms. Linkins serves as an associate editor for the FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin at the FBI Academy.

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The future holds
great promise as
the Academy leads
law enforcement
into the 21st
century.
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TRAINING

Three main groups of students receive training at the FBI Academy. Representatives of municipal, county, state, federal, military, and foreign law enforcement agencies attend the National Academy and other specialized conference programs. FBI and DEA special agent trainees learn the responsibilities and skills required of them in their new positions. And, FBI employees attend courses to help them acquire new skills and enhance their capabilities.

National Academy Students

The changing nature of crime and law enforcement in the United States has shaped policing and police training programs over the years. In 1934, when the International Association of Chiefs of Police saw the positive results achieved by the FBI's formalized training for special agents, it asked that the Bureau provide similar

instruction for police officers across the country.¹ FBI officials championed “more and better training for local police” to foster “stronger cooperation among all levels of law enforcement.”² The FBI National Academy program, first convened in Washington, DC, in 1935, accomplishes this goal.

The success of this police training program led directly to construction of the new FBI Academy. In 1940, the FBI began conducting limited training at a small facility on the U.S. Marine Corps Base in Quantico, Virginia. In 1965, Congress appropriated funds to expand the FBI training facility to render greater assistance to local and state law enforcement in the training and technical fields.³

In addition, a 2-year affiliation and accreditation study paved the way for the FBI Academy and the University of Virginia (UVA) to join as “partners in the quest for police professionalization”⁴ in 1972. This vital partnership not only enabled National Academy students to earn college credit for

their studies, it also bolstered staff development and program enhancement in all facets of Academy instruction.⁵

When the 90th session of the National Academy inaugurated the halls of the new facility, the number of students quadrupled and hovered around 1,000 students per year until 1997. Session size in 1997 and 1998 will increase gradually, eventually accommodating 1,200 students per year.

In 1972, the curriculum also differed somewhat from the courses studied by the early sessions. National Academy courses stopped emphasizing the vocational skills of policing and started focusing on five academic disciplines—behavioral science, education and communication, forensic science, law, and management science—to provide “insights for the police manager functioning in a complex industrial, primarily urban society.”⁶

Those five core courses have grown into more than 45 choices for today's National Academy students attending the 11-week program. Health and fitness courses have been added to recognize the importance of healthful living to manage the stress and vigors of carrying out law enforcement duties. Some new courses reflect trends in youth and gang crime, white-collar crime, and computer-related crime. Other course additions include community policing, communication skills, budgeting and finance matters, personnel issues, stress management, and ethics.

The relationship between the National Academy students and the FBI does not end with graduation.

Of the program's 29,000 graduates, more than 19,000 are still involved in law enforcement. Approximately 15,000 of those graduates belong to the National Academy Associates, Inc. (NAA), a membership organization with 44 U.S. chapters and 4 international chapters. The NAA sponsors refresher training, supported by the National Academy Unit and the Academy's faculty, at both the local chapter level and at a yearly national conference. Moreover, National Academy graduates now are being called upon to train international and domestic law enforcement agencies in partnership with the FBI.

Special Agent Trainees

Following highly competitive selection processes, newly hired agents for both the FBI and the DEA come to the Academy for several months of intensive training. They prepare both mentally and physically to tackle the challenges of federal law enforcement.

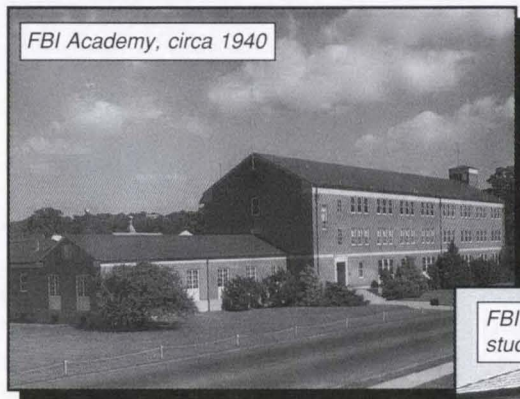
FBI

When the new Academy opened, the then-14-week training program for new agents relocated from Washington, DC, to Quantico. The current curriculum requires 16 weeks of instruction.

The Special Agents Training Unit draws faculty from throughout the Academy to provide instruction to the students. In addition, each class has two field counselors, experienced special agents on temporary duty who help the students adjust to life in the FBI. Field

counselors have a unique personal opportunity to contribute to the future of the FBI by providing leadership and being mentors to trainees during their critical early development as special agents. The impressions made during training have impact throughout an agent's career.⁷

The curriculum equips students with the knowledge and technical skills they need to perform the complex duties of special agents. Some of the topics studied include legal issues, communication, interviewing, criminal behavior,



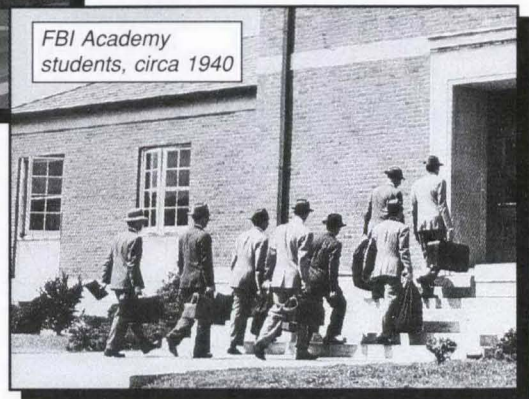
FBI Academy, circa 1940

forensic science, white-collar crime, foreign counterintelligence, organized crime, drugs, and ethics.

In the 1980s, the New Agents Training Center, which contains a mock field office and courtroom, and Hogan's Alley,⁸ the Academy's practical-problem training complex, were built. The Practical Applications Unit helps students practice what they learn from classroom presentations by leading them through multi-disciplinary exercises staged in the mock town. Using techniques developed on

Hollywood movie sets to give the buildings' facades the illusion of depth and space, the architects designed the interiors to serve as classrooms, offices, shops for the grounds and maintenance staff, and a modern television studio.⁹ The mock town appears so realistic that, according to rumor, a contract construction worker recently inquired about purchasing a vehicle from the simulated used car lot.

Physical training represents a significant component of the curriculum. At Quantico, agent trainees work to raise and maintain their health and fitness levels. They also learn defensive tactics that enable them to handle arrests confidently, professionally, and safely. Many of the drills run by the Physical Training Unit help agents build confidence in their ability to



FBI Academy students, circa 1940

perform effectively while physically tired, stressed, frightened, or apprehensive.

Agent trainees also must develop proficiency with firearms. The Firearms Training Unit teaches new agents to handle Bureau-issued handguns, shotguns, and carbines.

Students practice fundamental marksmanship, combat and survival shooting, and judgmental shooting.

To improve their driving skills and confidence and reduce the possibility of accidents, students receive classroom instruction in vehicle dynamics, defensive driving principles, and legal and liability issues. Students also are given skill development exercises in skid control, performance driving, and evasive driving techniques at the new Tactical Emergency Vehicle Operations Center (TEVOC). The center opened in 1994, eliminating the need to send students to New York State for driving instruction.

DEA

In 1985, the DEA moved its training program to the Academy. The Office of Training

office space, and all training facilities of the Academy.

The 16-week basic agents course covers academic, tactical, practical, firearms, and legal topics. Courses include undercover operations, money laundering, conspiracy law, and ethics. Practical exercises at Hogan's Alley help the students master the intricacies of worldwide drug law enforcement.

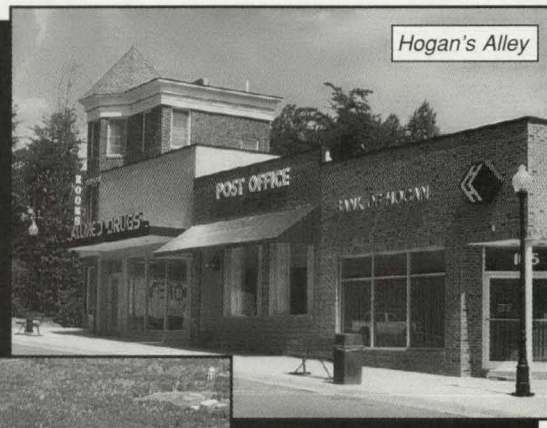
Before they graduate, agents pair with a field training agent (FTA) from the office where they will be stationed. The FTAs attend a

law enforcement allies. Police officials from other countries have attended the National Academy, as well as other short courses offered both in the United States and abroad. The justification is simple. Over time, crime has become international in scope; criminals once confined within a country's borders now operate on a global scale, and law enforcement must adjust to this new playing field.

In 1993, the FBI consolidated and expanded its international police training role and located it primarily at the FBI Academy. The international training program staff coordinates the analysis of foreign agencies' training needs, courses conducted both inside and outside the United States, and FBI instructor development and cultural awareness training.

The staff also manages several regional training programs—the Mexican American Law Enforcement Training (MALET) initiative for state, federal, and judicial police working in the vicinity of the U.S.-Mexican border, the Pacific Rim Training Initiative (PTI) for officers from law enforcement agencies in the Pacific region, and the International Law Enforcement Academy (ILEA) for officers from Eastern Europe and the newly independent states. In addition, the FBI's Practical Case Training Program provides on-the-job training through joint case investigation by U.S. and foreign law enforcement counterparts.¹⁰

The seminars presented at the FBI Academy vary in subject matter according to the needs of the recipients, but generally relate to investigative techniques in such areas as



1-week seminar at the Academy to polish their counseling skills, be briefed on the training basic agents receive, and meet their trainees. This eliminates one more mystery for the students and helps them make the transition to their offices of assignment.

International

For many years, the FBI has provided training and assistance to the United States' international

conducts its basic agents course and coordinates the agency's in-service, specialized, and supervisory/management training initiatives. The DEA shares the dormitories,

counterterrorism, white-collar crime, drugs, and organized crime. FBI instructors, drawn from the ranks of experienced agents throughout the Bureau, teach courses relating to internal affairs, ethics, police management, and leadership, as well as criminal forensic investigation, interviewing, and the legal aspects of police work. Law enforcement officers and judicial personnel from a wide range of countries in South America, Asia, and Europe have been trained at the Academy.¹¹

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, crime rates have risen dramatically in Russia, Eastern Europe, and the newly independent states. Law enforcement officers in those countries need training in conducting investigations and maintaining order in a free society. To meet these needs, the International Law Enforcement Academy in Budapest, Hungary, was created. The first group of students began training at ILEA in April 1995.¹²

The University of Virginia's Division of Continuing Education has played a vital role in developing the ILEA program.¹³ The UVA staff, in conjunction with FBI officials, prepared special agents to teach at ILEA, designed and coordinated the international law enforcement needs assessment and curriculum committee meetings, and created a continuous evaluation process for the ILEA program to ensure delivery of high-quality, relevant instruction.¹⁴

The multinational training program succeeds only through the joint efforts of the entire international law enforcement community. FBI Academy faculty and staff

cooperate closely with numerous domestic federal law enforcement agencies and academic institutions, as well as with representatives from international law enforcement agencies and foreign countries.¹⁵ Patterned after the FBI National Academy, ILEA provides 8 weeks of personal and professional development training for up to 50 students in each of the five sessions per year. In the future, FBI Director Freeh hopes to replicate ILEA's success in other parts of the world.

“The curriculum equips [FBI] students with the knowledge and technical skills needed to perform the complex duties of a special agent.”

Formal Conferences

While the National Academy and new agents training have always been the two largest programs hosted by the Academy, the full range of training is much broader. From executive training to forensic science conferences, the FBI Academy provides the forum for a tremendous array of instruction.

For example, top law enforcement executives can take advantage of several programs offered by the Leadership and Management Science Unit that provide both instruction and opportunities to make contacts with other agencies. The National Executive Institute (NEI)

comprises three 5-day cycles held in March, June, and September for executives from the nation's largest agencies and international agencies of similar size. Started in 1976, NEI covers future social, economic, and political trends and current legal, media, ethical, and managerial issues. Instructors include leading figures in academia, business, and government. Similarly, the Law Enforcement Executive Development Seminar (LEEDS), created in 1981 as a 2-week course for national and international police administrators of medium-sized agencies, focuses on trends and contemporary issues affecting law enforcement.

In 1984, the FBI's Legal Instruction Unit established the week-long National Law Institute (NLI) to provide legal training to police legal advisors and expanded the program in 1989 to include state and local prosecutors and city attorneys. NLI convenes when other training demands do not preclude offering the course.

Numerous criminal justice topics form the basis for specialized schools at the Academy. Officers can attend courses on management, communication issues, behavioral sciences, firearms, and forensic technologies.¹⁶

A variety of in-service schools rounds out the training conducted at the Academy, ranging from supervision to antiterrorist evasive driving and from information technology to critical incident stress counseling. FBI agents and local police officers who serve on joint task forces attend the Law Enforcement Training Safety and Survival course, commonly referred to as “Street Survival Training.”

FBI Training Network

The Academy plays a critical role in the training and assistance offered by the FBI, but the physical limitations of the facility make it impossible for every officer in every agency to take part in the courses conducted at Quantico. Therefore, the Bureau continually has sought ways to use advanced technology to deliver training to the field. The FBI Training Network (FBITN) encompasses several of the Academy's various distance learning initiatives, including "Viewpoints from the FBI Academy" programs, satellite teleconferences, and videoconferencing.¹⁷

The FBI and the Kansas City Police Department began producing satellite teleconferences in 1986. The first teleconference occurred on March 5, 1986, when more than 1,000 police officers at 32 viewing sites across the country took part in a discussion of advanced hostage negotiations.¹⁸

Nine years later, the Law Enforcement Communication Unit at the FBI Academy assumed full responsibility for production and broadcast of these programs, which air every other month. Each 2-hour teleconference consists of a live panel discussion with an opportunity for viewer interaction through a toll-free call-in number.

Personnel in the Instructional Technology Services Unit (ITSU) handle the broadcast and studio production aspects from the newly renovated, technologically sophisticated television studio located in Hogan's Alley. New digital editing technology has enabled the ITSU staff to create exceptionally high-quality video productions. The

satellite teleconferences now reach more than 16,000 subscribers through 1,500 viewing locations nationwide.

In March 1991, the first "Viewpoints from the Academy" program aired on the Law Enforcement Television Network (LETN).¹⁹ These

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Practical exercises at Hogan's Alley help the [DEA] students master the intricacies of worldwide drug law enforcement.

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monthly, half-hour interviews feature Academy faculty members discussing current law enforcement issues, offering the FBI's viewpoint based on the instructors' research and experience.

FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin

In April 1992, the Bureau moved the *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* from Washington, DC, to Quantico in recognition of its key role in law enforcement training. This monthly journal provides articles on leadership and police administration, current police techniques, emerging crime problems and the tools to combat them, and training. Each issue also includes an article on a current legal topic written by a member of the Academy's Legal Instruction Unit. Most articles are written by criminal justice practitioners,

including many Academy faculty members and National Academy graduates.

As the most widely read journal of its kind in the world, the *Bulletin* reaches an estimated 200,000 law enforcement personnel each month. For some small agencies that cannot afford to send officers to often-distant and expensive schools, the *Bulletin* fills the training gap.

LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE

For decades, the FBI has championed the notion that the Bureau should aid state and local law enforcement officers in carrying out their duties. The exponential growth of the National Academy program in 1972 strengthened this tradition. Even after the students graduate, their ties to the Academy remain strong. They frequently contact their former instructors for informal advice, and other members of the law enforcement community also seek out the faculty and staff for investigative and operational guidance.

Experts at the Academy field questions on topics ranging from statement analysis to crime analysis, ammunition tests to fitness tests, labor relations to media relations, pursuit driving techniques to evidence collection techniques, and more. This type of assistance has become one of the hallmarks of the FBI Academy and sometimes has spawned more formal methods of serving the law enforcement community. The Forensic Science Research and Training Center (FSRTC) and the Critical Incident Response Group (CIRG) exemplify the FBI's collaborative efforts.

Forensic Science Research and Training Center

In 1981, the FBI Laboratory moved its research and training components to the Academy to allow its scientists to focus on developing new forensic techniques and to expand the training and resources provided to the law enforcement community. The FSRTC contains specially equipped laboratories for studying such specialized forensic topics as DNA testing; examination of document, hair and fiber, and footwear and tire impression evidence; explosives analysis; and more.

FSRTC instructors train FBI and DEA new agents in laboratory services and capabilities, collection and preservation of physical evidence, fingerprints, and photography. National Academy courses cover management-oriented issues related to laboratory operations, crime scenes, surveillance and identification photography, fingerprint technology, and other forensic and technical services. Forensic science faculty members also offer specialized in-service programs for special agents, laboratory examiners, and technicians.²⁰

Since 1983, the FSRTC has hosted international symposia at the Academy on such pertinent topics as forensic immunology, mass disasters and crime scene reconstruction, and trace evidence.²¹ FSRTC personnel provide operational assistance to other crime laboratories and make information available

through the Forensic Science Information Resource System²² and the *Crime Laboratory Digest*,²³ a semi-annual journal published by the FBI Laboratory that provides timely articles on technical and scientific data and methodology to an audience of nearly 5,000 crime laboratories and law enforcement agencies.²⁴

FSRTC personnel also support the FBI's Evidence Response

record proportions. The Academy quickly became the focal point for developing the FBI's response to the violent crime problem. In 1984, the National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime (NCAVC) was established to consolidate the crime-fighting efforts of various law enforcement agencies across the country into "one national resource center available to the entire law enforcement community."²⁶

The program evolved as the Academy grew and the faculty gained expertise in various areas, including child abduction, serial homicide, and serial rape, as well as in other unusual, bizarre, or repetitive violent crimes.



Forensic Science Research and Training Center



Hostage Rescue Team

Teams (ERT). In addition to training, they provide equipment and supplies to the field office ERTs, which regularly participate in FBI investigations related to kidnappings, drugs, bank robberies, extortion, civil rights, and domestic terrorism. These teams have responded to major crime scenes around the world.²⁵

Critical Incident Response Group

As the Academy approached its 10th year of operation, American society saw violent crime reach

In time, several crisis management functions also developed. The Academy became home to the FBI's hostage negotiators, crisis management experts, and Special Weapons and Tactics (SWAT) trainers, as well as the behavioral science specialists who generate profiles of unknown offenders, conduct personality assessments, and analyze patterns in serial crimes. In

addition, the Hostage Rescue Team (HRT), the special counter-terrorist force formed in 1983, was stationed at Quantico even though it reported to the FBI's Washington Field Office.²⁷

Post-incident analyses of the events at Waco, Texas, and Ruby

who regularly provide investigative support to local and state agencies confronted with abductions or mysterious disappearances of children, serial or mass murders, or arson and bombing cases, thus supporting the original goals of the NCAVC.

Yet, CIRG's biggest successes are the critical incidents that never happen. The group works with law enforcement officers across the country and around the world to prevent sieges, hostage takings, and other crises.²⁸



Firearms training

Ridge, Idaho, revealed the need to unite the FBI's crisis management resources under one umbrella. Consequently, in May 1994, the director formed the Critical Incident Response Group (CIRG) to provide rapid emergency response to a variety of crises, including terrorist activities, hostage takings, and barricaded subject situations.

Since then, several high-profile incidents have required CIRG's services. For example, crisis managers assisted with the Oklahoma City bombing investigation, and critical incident negotiators helped successfully resolve the standoff with the Freemen in Montana. Many less notorious cases receive attention from CIRG's specialists,



DEA classroom training

RESEARCH

Research forms an integral component of the Academy's mission. The FBI is in a unique position to conduct research and build expertise in areas useful to law enforcement. The Academy plays an important role by identifying those areas, developing that knowledge, and then sharing it with law enforcement agencies.²⁹

By conducting research projects, the faculty and staff continually enhance and update the

instruction delivered at the Academy, develop new means of assisting law enforcement agencies, and help FBI employees perform their duties safely and effectively. The staff of the Research and Analysis Center in the Office of Information and Learning Resources often helps design and analyze the various studies Academy personnel undertake.

Enhancing Instruction

Research often provides course material to keep students abreast of trends and developments in all aspects of law enforcement. In addition, Academy staff members periodically conduct surveys to identify the training needs of law enforcement in general and specific subgroups in particular, so Academy faculty can develop courses to meet those needs.

A recent example stems from research into the field of law enforcement ethics. Inquiry into the impact of ethical principles on law enforcement by faculty in the Leadership and Management Science and the Behavioral Science units led to the development of training for FBI and DEA employees, National Academy participants, and members of other domestic and foreign police agencies. In 1996, the FBI created the Office of Law Enforcement Ethics at the Academy to coordinate and manage ethics and integrity initiatives.

Assisting Law Enforcement

The Academy has nurtured some noteworthy research in the past quarter-century. Much of this research has provided investigative assistance to law enforcement officers in the areas of behavioral

assessment or profiling. Researchers have examined patterns in incidents of serial murder, sexual assault, hate crime, bombing, hostage taking, and more. Academy faculty have scrutinized computer crime, weaponry and ballistics, survival awareness, major case management, ethical misconduct, futures research, and management issues to provide guidance in these matters to the law enforcement community. Academy faculty also have published research results in numerous publications, including the Investigative Training Unit's *Investigative Sources of Information*, which lists commercial and private databases.

Scientists at the Academy's Forensic Science Research and Training Center focus on developing new and improved methods for analyzing forensic evidence. They concentrate on biochemistry, genetics, chemistry, and physics. In collaboration with researchers from academia, the private sector, and other government laboratories, they explore new theories or technologies and evaluate current forensic methods.

One of the most significant research initiatives at the Academy involves DNA analysis technology. Research on DNA typing methods began in 1985. By July 1987, a team of researchers was formed to develop rigorous DNA analysis methods for use in the FBI Laboratory. DNA typing has become a powerful tool for assisting in the inclusion or exclusion of an individual as a source of biological evidence left at a crime scene. The FBI Laboratory not only has developed reliable procedures for estimating the rarity of a DNA profile in the population, it

also has launched a major effort to collect population data worldwide to support the use of DNA statistics and the reliability of DNA typing technology and its application to forensic analyses.

The FBI also enlists the efforts of qualified scientists from outside the Bureau to participate in original research projects in their areas of expertise. The Visiting Scientist Program organizes projects conducted jointly by incoming scientists and FSRTC staff. To attract qualified students into forensic science professions, the staff hosts the Student Intern Program. During the summer, students participate in ongoing research projects.³⁰

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Numerous criminal justice topics form the basis for specialized schools at the Academy.
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Augmenting FBI Operations

Another significant objective of research conducted at the Academy is to improve the methods of carrying out the FBI's investigative responsibilities. This involves improving investigative technology, assessing and fulfilling training and equipment needs, and identifying services that the FBI should provide employees.

Much of the technological research conducted by the FBI occurs at the Engineering Research Facility (ERF). A component of

the FBI's Information Resources Division, the ERF opened at the Academy in 1992. ERF personnel develop and support the communications, security, and surveillance equipment used in field operations.

Sometimes, Academy researchers assess job demands and determine the training and equipment employees need to fulfill those demands. For example, the Firearms Training Unit (FTU) has conducted extensive research into a variety of firearms-related issues. Over the years, FTU personnel have evaluated weapons, ammunition, and related gear; developed and improved interactive scenarios to prepare agents and law enforcement officers for violent encounters; and monitored the myriad range safety issues that arise.

In other instances, research identifies a service the agency should offer its employees. For example, the Bureau redesigned and expanded its Employee Assistance Program (EAP) in response to a 1990 needs assessment. The EAP now provides referrals to mental health resources, training to all employees, critical incident stress debriefings, peer support, and a chaplaincy program to respond to the emotional and psychological needs of all FBI employees and their immediate family members.

LOOKING FORWARD

On the 25th anniversary of the Academy, those who have worked to build the institution, who raised the quality of the education, the services, and the research provided by the Academy, should be proud of what has been accomplished. Yet, this is also a time to look forward.

How will the Academy change in the years ahead? What role will it play in shaping the future of law enforcement?

Computer Technology

Some of the largest foreseeable changes involve computer

materials will be made available to law enforcement trainers worldwide via the Internet or the Law Enforcement OnLine (LEO) network.³² The Academy dormitories soon will be wired for computer hookups in each room, and officials are establishing an Internet domain for the Academy to make the resources of the Internet available to all students and faculty.

As an investigative tool, computer technology will help officers follow leads, sort out complex white-collar crime investigations, analyze evidence, and

students will be able to register for National Academy courses via computer, and electronic mail will make it easier to communicate with Academy experts and acquire information. Researchers will be able to share data and track projects more efficiently.

Distance Learning

In 1996, the Academy established a number of distance learning initiatives, taking a cutting-edge, multimedia approach to training FBI employees and members of the law enforcement community. Designed to supplement, not replace, training offered at the Academy, it includes satellite training, videoconferencing, computer-based training, interactive video, and CD-ROM technology. Several pilot programs are underway.

Revitalized Research

Research always has been an integral component of the Academy, although other training demands have superseded it in recent years. The future holds renewed emphasis on research and publication as the foundation of the Academy's training. Continual faculty development will enhance the ability to conduct sound research, and advisory boards will bring members of the law enforcement community together to help identify areas for study. Instructors will translate their progressive, insightful research into dynamic training for all of the students who come to the Academy.

Facilities Expansion

When it opened in 1972, the campus contained nearly all of the

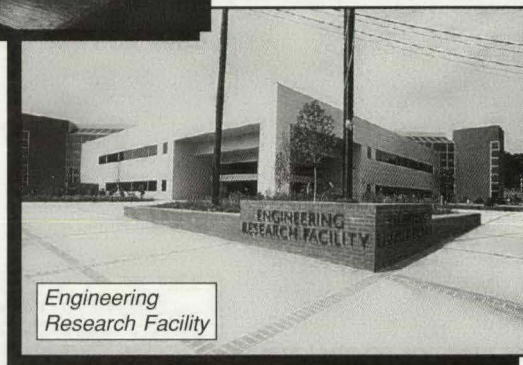


technology. The faculty and staff are working to update and integrate computer applications into all aspects of the Academy's mission. Computer technology will serve the Academy in three ways: as a training vehicle, an investigative tool, and an administrative supplement.³¹

As a training tool, computer technology will enable instructors to automate their classroom presentations and weave audio and video clips into their lectures and slides. In the future, students will be able to pursue self-paced, specialized training delivered by CD-ROM technology; courses will be offered to students in distant locations via satellite and videoconferencing; and lesson plans and course

acquire assistance from other agencies around the globe. In the future, the use of secure communications links might allow experts at the Academy to examine evidence visually and consult with case agents and law enforcement officers in remote locations.

As an administrative supplement, computer technology will streamline the services provided by the Academy. For example,



features of a small town. It had twin, seven-story dormitories, a dining hall, refreshment bar, bank, post office, barbershop, and general store. Designers equipped the classroom building with state-of-the-art instructional technology, and the library held an extensive criminal justice collection. The physical training center, with gymnasium, weight room, and pool, the indoor and outdoor ranges, and the administration building also were operational. The 1,000-seat auditorium, Hall of Honor, chapel, and garage were completed the following year. Workers later enclosed the walkways between the buildings, creating the fondly nicknamed "gerbil tubes."³³ In the 1980s, the FBI added the Jefferson Dormitory, making it possible for more than 950 students to live at the Academy.

Construction projects seem to be a continuous presence at the Academy, and several have been planned for the immediate future. Under the guidance of the Office of Design and Construction, the facilities will be upgraded to comply with the Americans with Disabilities Act. An updated Range Training Center is in the works, along with construction of a new Tactical Firearms Training Center.

Ground has been broken for the Justice Training Center (JTC), scheduled to open in the summer of 1999. The center primarily will house DEA students and will be integrated with the Academy complex. The facility will enable the DEA to centralize its training efforts and save an estimated \$300,000 per month, thus paying for itself in 8 years.

The JTC also will strengthen the bond between the FBI and the DEA. DEA's colocation at the FBI Academy has been extremely beneficial to both agencies' training programs and field operations. The future promises a continued strong and productive relationship between the two organizations.³⁴

Several other major construction projects are on the horizon. In 2000, the FBI Laboratory Division will move to the Academy from FBI Headquarters in Washington, DC. Also, contingent upon approved funding, a tract of land south of the

**“
By conducting
research projects, the
faculty and staff
continually enhance
and update the
instruction delivered at
the Academy....
”**

Justice Training Center has been reserved for a Critical Incident Response Group complex.

The planned expansion of the facility will bring new challenges to the skilled staff members who keep the buildings and grounds in first-class condition; maintain order and protect the students, staff, visitors, facilities, and highly sensitive operational and training materials; handle the complicated scheduling, financial, and personnel duties; and also provide the mail, reception, and other administrative services that keep the Academy running

smoothly. Together, these employees will continue to create a positive image that makes the Academy a showpiece for the FBI.

Leadership

The FBI's training programs started in the 1930s and originally emphasized the vocational skills of policing. When the FBI Academy opened, the emphasis shifted toward the academic and managerial aspects of policing. The Academy's focus is changing again, and future programs will concentrate on leadership in policing.

Much of the training offered at the Academy has dealt with the personal and professional development of the individual students who attend it. To multiply the impact of the training, instructors must help students develop a vision for the future of law enforcement, share that vision with their organizations, and then move people toward it.³⁵

Law enforcement needs entrepreneurs and forward thinkers. The Academy's faculty hopes to provide a glimpse of the future and to get students to buy into it.³⁶ As the law enforcement profession continues to grow, the Academy will play an important role in developing its future leaders.

CONCLUSION

The FBI Academy, like any good academic institution, possesses a life that transcends its physical confines. Ideas are born there through study and research, and those ideas, shared through instruction and consultation, become part of the larger law enforcement community. The experiences of practitioners in the field flow back

to the Academy to refresh the concepts, raise new questions, and lead to new ideas. The Academy focuses the energy of the creative and fertile minds of both the students and the instructors.

Over time, the FBI Academy has become a law enforcement melting pot. Personnel from various headquarters divisions and field offices, disparate academic and scientific disciplines, and a cross-section of international, federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies have come together to teach and learn from one another. They share a common goal—developing the profession of law enforcement.

Over the past 25 years, the dedicated faculty and staff of the FBI Academy have provided expert instruction, progressive research, and vital services to law enforcement agencies around the world. In the coming years, new generations of conscientious professionals will continue to ask the tough questions, find the best answers, and share them with colleagues joined in the struggle to defeat crime wherever it might be found. ♦

Endnotes

¹ Hugh Clegg, "The Origin of the FBI [National] Academy," manuscript draft, December 16, 1976.

² "FBI Training Programs," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, May and June 1968, revised 1971, 1.

³ *Ibid.*, 4.

⁴ Kenneth E. Joseph and James A. O'Connor, "The FBI Academy, 1984," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, July 1979, 25.

⁵ Since the early 1980s, the contributions of both institutions have been honored through the Jefferson Award—given by UVA for significant research, publication, and curriculum development by the Academy's faculty—and the Erickson Award—given by the FBI for major contributions to the success of the

Academy's programs by members of the UVA community.

⁶ *Supra* note 4, 25-26.

⁷ John O. Loudon, Sr., section chief for administration/training, interview by author, Quantico, VA, December 19, 1996.

⁸ The original Hogan's Alley consisted of a set of building facades on the firearms range equipped with pop-up targets. The name carried over to the practical-training complex constructed in the 1980s.

⁹ James R. Pledger, "Hogan's Alley, The FBI Academy's New Training Complex," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, December 1988, 6-9.

“As the law enforcement profession continues to grow, the Academy will play an important role in developing its future leaders.”

¹⁰ William G. Eubanks, section chief for international training and automation, unpublished remarks, FBI LEGAT Conference, November 8, 1996.

¹¹ Judd Ray, "International Training," unpublished manuscript, 1997.

¹² "U.Va. Helping East European Countries Cope with Rising Crime," *Inside UVA*, August 25, 1995.

¹³ William G. Eubanks, section chief for international training and automation, interview by author, Quantico, VA, January 28, 1997.

¹⁴ Lois Knowles, UVA center director, FBI Academy, Quantico, VA, *Progress Report*, March 1994-May 1996.

¹⁵ Domestic training partners include the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms; Customs Service; Departments of State, Energy, and Treasury; Drug Enforcement Administration; Internal Revenue Service; Secret Service; Federal Law Enforcement Training Center; and John Jay College of Criminal Justice. International partners include the U.N. Committee for Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice; Council of Europe; Interpol; and International Curriculum Committee

representatives from Austria, Canada, Denmark, England, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Russia, and Sweden.

¹⁶ Ginny Field, "The FBI Academy, A Marketplace for Ideas," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, January 1992, 17-18.

¹⁷ For more information about any of the FBITN programs or to request an order form for videotaped copies of any show, contact Tom Christenberry, FBITN program manager, by phone at 800-862-7577 or by facsimile at 703-640-1673.

¹⁸ Michael P. Kortan and Tony E. Triplett, "Joint Satellite Venture Yields Down-to-Earth Benefits," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, June 1987, 2-3.

¹⁹ LETN is a cable television network dedicated to law enforcement topics.

²⁰ Denise K. Bennett, "Forensic Science Research and Training Center," unpublished report, 1996.

²¹ *Ibid.*

²² *Supra* note 16, 19.

²³ The *Crime Laboratory Digest* is published in cooperation with the American Society of Crime Laboratory Directors.

²⁴ Denise K. Bennett, managing editor, *Crime Laboratory Digest*, interview by author, Quantico, VA, January 30, 1997.

²⁵ *Supra* note 20.

²⁶ Roger L. Depue, "An American Response to an Era of Violence," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, December 1986, 4.

²⁷ Robin L. Montgomery, special agent in charge, Critical Incident Response Group, interview by author, Quantico, VA, January 28, 1997; and *supra* note 16, 19-20.

²⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁹ Joseph R. Wolfinger, assistant director, Training Division, interview by author, Quantico, VA, December 16, 1996.

³⁰ *Supra* note 20.

³¹ Jeffrey Higginbotham, deputy assistant Director, Training Division, interview by author, Quantico, VA, December 31, 1996.

³² LEO is a secure computer network dedicated to law enforcement.

³³ "FBI National Academy, A Tradition of Excellence and Accomplishment," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, July 1975, revised October 1979, 2.

³⁴ David L. Westrate, special agent in charge, Office of Training, Drug Enforcement Administration, interview by author, Quantico, VA, January 13, 1997.

³⁵ *Supra* note 29.

³⁶ John Henry Campbell, academic dean and section chief for instruction, interview by author, Quantico, VA, November 19, 1996.

Bulletin Reports

Campus Law Enforcement Survey

The Department of Justice's Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) recently released a first-of-its-kind study of college and university campus law enforcement agencies. Brian A. Reaves and Andrew L. Goldberg, authors of *Campus Law Enforcement Agencies, 1995*, surveyed campus law enforcement agencies at public and private 4-year institutions with 2,500 or more students. Among the report's findings: 93 percent of public institutions and 43 percent of private ones employ sworn police officers with general arrest powers; officers are armed at 81 percent of the public institutions and 34 percent of the private ones; and the average starting salary for chiefs and directors of campus law enforcement agencies was \$45,100 per year, ranging from \$37,900 at the smallest schools to \$59,000 at the largest.

A copy of this report, NCJ-161137, can be obtained by calling the BJS Clearinghouse at 800-732-3277 or by clicking on "What's new at BJS" on the BJS Web page at <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/>.

Gang Response

From the Austin, Texas, Police Department's response to a 1990 gang-related shooting to Metro-Dade's multiagency effort, police departments across the country tailor their approaches to gang-related crime to meet their unique needs. A new Police Executive Research Forum publication, *The Police Response to Gangs: Case Studies of Five Cities*, illustrates how different police agencies combat gang activity in their jurisdictions. Profiling the efforts of the Austin, Chicago, Kansas City, Metro-Dade, and San Diego police departments, the publication follows the evolution of each city's program from conception and implementation to evaluation and follow-up. A concluding chapter examines, among other topics, trends in gang enforcement and the direction of gang-related research.

Copies of *The Police Response to Gangs*, which cost \$12.95 plus shipping and handling, can be ordered from PERF by calling 202-466-7820 and requesting product number 813.

COPS Grants

The Justice Department's Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) is offering grants under the Universal Hiring Program (UHP), as part of the effort to put an additional 100,000 community policing officers and deputies on the street.

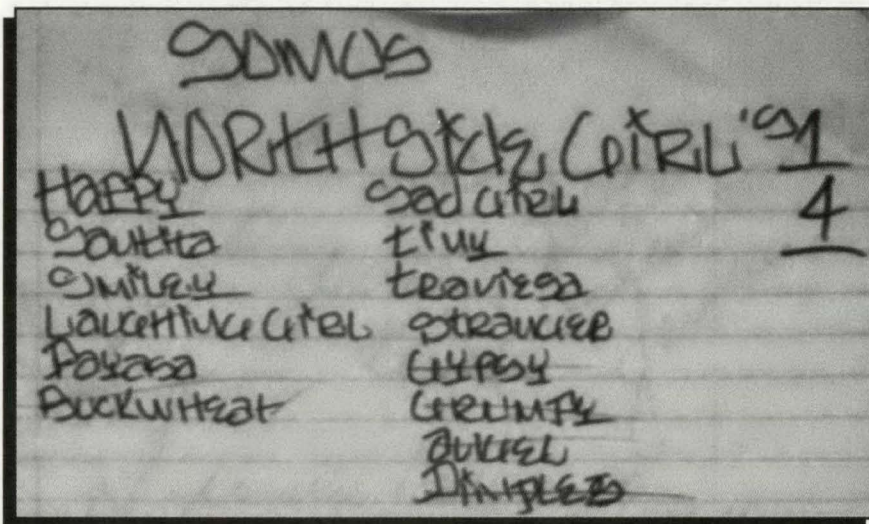
UHP grants cover up to 75 percent of the total entry-level salary and benefits package for each officer hired, up to a maximum of \$25,000 per year, for 3 years.

The deadlines to apply for a UHP grant are June 13 and August 1, 1997. For an application kit, write to COPS Universal Hiring Program, 1100 Vermont Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20530, call the Department of Justice Response Center at 800-421-6770, or visit the COPS Office Web site at <http://www.usdoj.gov/cops>.

What's in a Name?

Gang Monikers

By CRAIG R. WILSON



Consider this scenario: Patrol units respond to a gang-infested neighborhood to investigate a shooting. Initial reports indicate that the shots came from a lowered, gray Chevrolet Impala, which witnesses

saw cruising the street just before the shooting.

A witness tells police that one of the suspects is known as "Creeper." Checking the department's gang database, the detective investigating the shooting discovers

that Creeper is the moniker for a gang member who previously has been seen riding in the car involved in the shooting. Within an hour, the detective has a photo array of possible suspects—which includes a photo of Creeper—available to show witnesses.

With the increasing presence of gang activity and its accompanying violence in communities throughout the United States, law enforcement must consider new techniques to investigate gang-related crimes. One method involves gathering gang intelligence, specifically, moniker information. Gang members now use monikers, or nicknames, so dependably that these pseudonyms can provide a reliable source of investigative information.

This article explains the nature of monikers and how law enforcement officers can obtain moniker information. It also suggests a multijurisdictional approach for sharing gang information and describes a newly established national gang database designed to do exactly that.

MAKING SENSE OF MONIKERS

Monikers are the names gang members use among their peers; as such, they become symbols of acceptance by the gang. Both male and female gang members may be known by monikers. Because gang members use these names almost exclusively, their acquaintances often do not know their given names.

Several different styles of monikers exist. Many reflect a distinctive aspect of a gang member's personality, physical

characteristics, reputation, or other trait. Some convey boldness or devotion to the gang lifestyle. Others reinforce the gang member's ego. Examples of real-life monikers include *gordo* (Spanish for "fat"), describing a heavyset person; *blanco* (Spanish for "white"), referring to a light-skinned individual; and "pirate," celebrating a gang member's devotion to a criminal lifestyle.

Sometimes, gang members bestow monikers upon their peers; other times, individuals choose their own. Every moniker is unique to the gang member, who will defend it with vigor. No two members of the same gang will be known by an identical moniker; however, gang members may sponsor a new member into the gang and allow the use of a moniker with an additional designator, such as "lil" preceding the moniker or "2" following it. As gang members die, their monikers often get recycled.

GATHERING GANG MONIKER INTELLIGENCE

Traditionally, police officers familiar with the areas they patrol have been the primary source of moniker information. With the dramatic increase in the number of gangs, however, it is no longer practical for any one officer to know or recall moniker information. From gang enforcement team members to school liaison officers, law enforcement officers in every position should work together to gather this important information from a variety of sources.

Gang members use their monikers to express their identities. For this reason, they scrawl their monikers on the streets as graffiti;

tattoo them on their bodies; and write them on such personal items as school yearbooks, clothing, and jewelry. By keeping their eyes open, officers can obtain evidence of a person's gang affiliation.

Informant interviews represent another method of obtaining moniker information. Informants may be community residents or former gang members. With proper planning, officers can take advantage of the wealth of information ex-gang members can provide on their former associates.

Investigators also can collect intelligence by monitoring or recording inmate visits or conversations between gang members placed in the same room during investigations.¹ Contacts made at disturbance calls can yield moniker information. Finally, whenever gang members bury their own or congregate for other social purposes, officers can be there to gather intelligence.

Unfortunately, gang members realize that law enforcement increasingly uses moniker intelli-

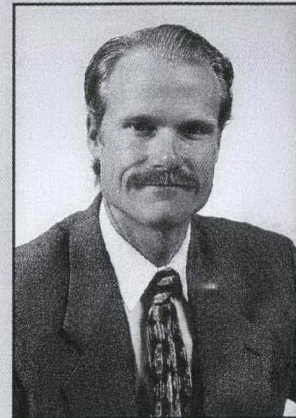
gence as an investigative aid. As a result, some gang members attempt to deceive officers by offering false monikers or family nicknames instead.

For instance, a gang member named Joseph may give his moniker as "Lil Joey." Because monikers usually reflect an aspect of who the gang member is or wants to be, a moniker with a strong relationship to a true name, or one by which the gang member is known by relatives, may not be an actual gang moniker. For this reason, officers should verify moniker information using previous contacts or other corroborative methods.

ORGANIZING GANG INTELLIGENCE

To be used effectively during an investigation, moniker information and other gang intelligence must be organized into a database. Many states have statutes regulating the collection and storage of personal identifying information; therefore, officers should check the law in their jurisdictions.

“Gang members now use monikers, or nicknames, so dependably that these pseudonyms can provide a reliable source of investigative information.”



Sergeant Wilson serves with the Santa Cruz, California, Sheriff's Office.

Departments should establish a written policy that outlines their criteria for obtaining and maintaining gang intelligence. By adhering to the policy, agencies ensure the integrity of their databases and can defend themselves against claims of discrimination and selective enforcement.

Agencies should designate a police officer or analyst to serve as their gang intelligence coordinators. Coordinators should receive adequate training in the gang subculture, as well as in the legal requirements of acquiring and maintaining gang intelligence. Although coordinators do not have to be personally familiar with every gang member whose information they receive, they should be familiar with local gangs, including their ethnic backgrounds, habits, territories, and rivalries.

The coordinator verifies whether submitted gang-related intelligence—such as photographs or field interview cards—meets the agency's established criteria. At the Santa Cruz, California, Sheriff's Office, for example, officers complete field contact cards to document encounters with suspected gang members. The Santa Cruz gang coordinator verifies that the officers' reasons for believing a person belongs to a gang meet at least 2 of the agency's 10 criteria. To do this, the coordinator may need to contact submitting officers to confirm the legal justification for contacts, statements made by gang members, observations and indications of gang membership, and similar information. The coordinator then enters the certified facts into the database.

Source documents, which support the coordinator's opinion, must be preserved in a retrievable form in order to demonstrate the integrity of the database during audits and in court. In fact, regular audits, conducted by an individual other than the coordinator, ensure the veracity of the database. Moreover, the coordinator may be called as an expert witness to explain the procedure used to collect and certify the department's gang information.

“ To be used effectively during an investigation, moniker information and other gang intelligence must be organized into a database. ”

ACCESSING THE GANG DATABASE

Only the agency coordinator should be able to modify the gang database, but all authorized agency personnel should have access to it while investigating possible gang-related crimes. Personnel should be instructed that any information they obtain from the gang database is intended for law enforcement use only and is subject to the same guidelines as other types of confidential information. This notice should be printed on any reports generated from the database.

USING A MULTIJURISDICTIONAL APPROACH

Because gangs do not respect law enforcement jurisdictional boundaries, a unified, multijurisdictional database would provide the optimum response to gang-related crime. By giving participating agencies access to information on gangs and their members' monikers, associates, vehicles, and the like, a unified database can offer the best overall evaluation of gang activity.

Next, it can reduce the possibility of conflicting information existing among individual agency databases. In court, the defense may call a gang expert from one jurisdiction to cast doubt upon the credibility of the prosecution's gang expert from another jurisdiction, based on contradictory information contained in each agency's database. A cooperative database can prevent this scenario from occurring.

Finally, the database can form the basis for a regional gang investigators association. Such a group would give gang intelligence coordinators from participating agencies the opportunity to meet with their peers to review procedures, trends, and gang intelligence, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of current investigations. In addition, agencies could engage in proactive law enforcement by focusing and coordinating efforts toward problem areas.

Network linking would allow individual agencies to access the database from their own computer terminals. Even without this link, the system could operate via a centrally located terminal in a secure location. Then, depending on the

policy in that state, agency coordinators either would enter data into the computer themselves or send the information to the central site for entry by a designated operator. This person could publish periodic bulletins and disseminate them to participating agencies. Individual coordinators would retain the source documents that they used to certify the gang information.

The Violent Gang and Terrorist Organizations File (VGTOF), a component of the FBI's National Crime Information Center, represents one way law enforcement agencies can share gang intelligence across jurisdictions.² By allowing agencies to both enter and retrieve information on gangs and

their members, the VGTOF can complement existing databases or provide agencies with valuable information they might not otherwise be able to obtain.

CONCLUSION

Law enforcement agencies employ a variety of methods to investigate and suppress gang activity. Likewise, obtaining information on gang monikers can provide the leads officers need to solve cases. By entering this and other gang intelligence into a database, departments can enhance their ability to safeguard their communities and reassure citizens. A multijurisdictional approach, in concert with the FBI's Violent Gang and Terrorist

Organizations File, offers the most comprehensive system of maintaining gang intelligence.

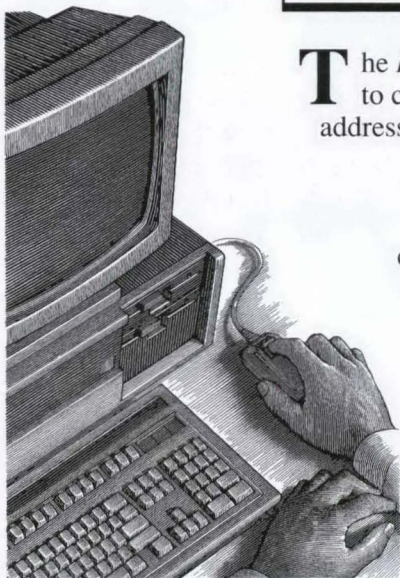
Gang members may think their monikers shield them from law enforcement. Yet, when agencies work together, a gang member by any other name can still be caught. ♦

Endnotes

¹ Officers should consult their legal advisors or local prosecutors for the specifics of the law in this area. *See for example*, Kimberly A. Crawford, "Surreptitious Recording of Suspects' Conversations," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, September 1993, 26.

² *See* Peter F. Episcopo and Darrin L. Moor, "Focus on Information Resources: The Violent Gang and Terrorist Organizations File," *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, October 1996, 21.

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Focus on Education

Utah Officers Head Back to School

By Julie Slama

More and more Utah law enforcement officers are college-bound as part of a new venture between Salt Lake Community College (SLCC) and a number of Utah police departments. While the idea of officers' pursuing college degrees certainly is not unique, how many of them can say that they attended college classes held at the police station or a police training facility? On any given day, Utah citizens can see officers of all ranks walk into the department with textbooks under their arms.

Law enforcement administrators recognize that the complex demands of the job dictate that officers receive as much training and education as possible. Officers themselves realize the value of learning and understanding the attitudes, views, and perspectives of others. Bringing the college classroom to the officers shows citizens an agency's commitment to law enforcement professionalism and its desire to have educated officers serving the community.

Program Inception

The partnership between the college and the police departments began when SLCC's criminal justice coordinator and the Sandy City police chief met to discuss the idea of bringing the college's program to the officers. The agency had an on-site classroom equipped with CD-ROMs, TV/VCR units, and other instructional technologies. With this learning environment already in place, the chief realized that very little stood in the way of implementing a program that would give officers an avenue to higher education. Sandy City's officers enthusiastically welcomed the opportunity to attend college. As word of the program's success spread, five other law enforcement agencies—Salt Lake City, South Salt Lake City, Murray, and the West Valley City police departments and the Salt Lake County Sheriff's Department—joined in the venture.

Curriculum and Registration

The criminal justice program curriculum covers all courses required for officers to receive either a

2-year associate of science (AS) degree, which is for students who plan to transfer to a 4-year institution, or a 2-year associate of applied science (AAS) degree. Officers who successfully complete the requirements for the AS degree may transfer their law enforcement and general education credits to Weber State University to pursue a bachelor's degree in criminal justice, but they must take additional general education courses and electives before obtaining junior status. Three other institutions of higher learning in Utah—Westminster College, Columbia College, and the University of Utah—accept credits from this program, if officers are interested in obtaining a degree in another discipline.

To receive an AAS degree, officers must earn 96 credits in 3 categories—24 credits in general requirements, 17 credits in major course requirements, and 55 credits in electives. The same number of credits (96) is required for an AS degree, although the credit hours for each category differ—51 credits in general requirements, 17 credits in major course requirements, and 28 credits in electives. The criminal justice program also allows students to obtain both elective and required credits for job-related training.

Major course requirements include introduction to criminal justice, criminal law, criminal investigations, criminalistics, and the laws of evidence. The electives for both degrees vary, but include such courses as police and social problems, criminal justice management, women and the criminal justice system, Spanish for law enforcement, and juvenile delinquency, to name a few. The criminal justice faculty, both fulltime and adjunct, have many years of practical law enforcement experience at the federal, state, and local levels, in addition to their academic achievements and experience.

Course registration takes place at each department, and SLCC works with the individual agencies to schedule classes to accommodate shift changes and other department needs. Students even can purchase textbooks where they work.

Enrollment

Enrollment is open to all police officers regardless of rank. At the request of the police departments, citizens and students can enroll in these off-campus courses. The resulting mix of students provides a diversity in the classroom and exposes each to

different viewpoints and experiences that contribute to the learning process.

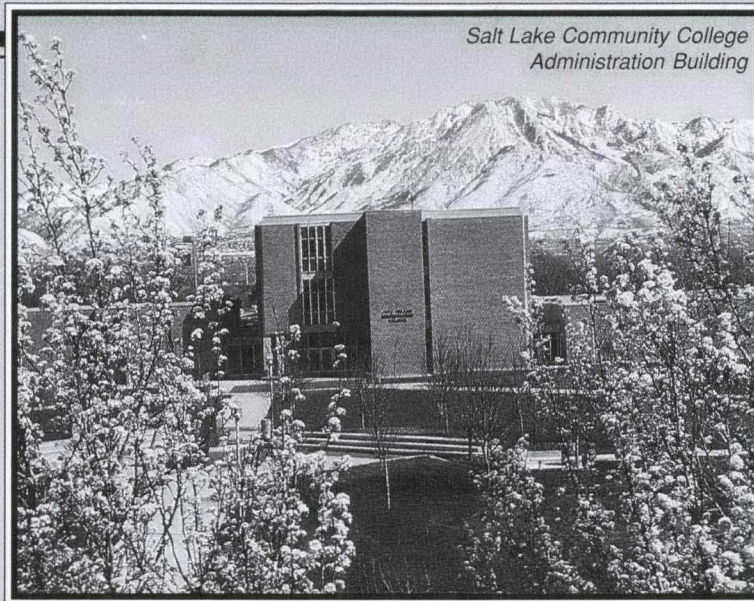
In Sandy City, a unique opportunity exists for high school students. They can compete for a 2-year, tuition waiver scholarship at SLCC as part of the partnership between the college and the police department. The

first scholarship recipient will start SLCC in the fall of 1997 when the student enrolls as a criminal justice major. During the 2 years of eligibility, the scholarship winner will work as an intern in the Sandy City Police Department while attending classes in the police station, on campus, or at both venues.

To encourage enrollment, some agencies reimburse officers for course expenditures, although the departments differ in their education reimbursement policies. For example, the Salt Lake City Police Department budgets approximately \$1,800 per year for each officer to pursue advanced degrees. In Sandy City, the department pays the full tuition and cost of materials for officers who earn a grade B or higher and 75 percent of the costs for those earning passing grades. Salt Lake County reimburses 75 percent of the tuition costs, and Murray officers receive 100 percent tuition reimbursement with a passing grade.

Benefits

When many of the officers who have enrolled in SLCC courses joined their agencies, college attendance or an advanced degree was not required. Today, this no longer holds true. In many departments, officers need a college education to get promoted. For example, the Sandy City Police Department requires that officers have an AA or an AS degree to be promoted to sergeant; a BA degree is required for promotion to captain and higher ranks. In the Salt Lake County Sheriff's Department, a bachelor's degree from an accredited college or university is required for the ranks of sergeant, lieutenant, and



captain, although service in the current rank can substitute for the required education on a time equivalency basis (30 semester hours or 45 quarter hours equals one year of experience).

Some departments add stipends to officers' base salaries for educational achievements;

the more college credits an officer has earned, the higher the base pay. In other departments, college credits reduce the time it takes for officers to become eligible for promotion, or officers receive better benefits upon retirement if they have attended college.

Along with professional development comes personal achievement. Officers feel gratified knowing they earned a college degree that some thought was beyond their reach. They also set a positive example for others, particularly younger officers and family members.

Conclusion

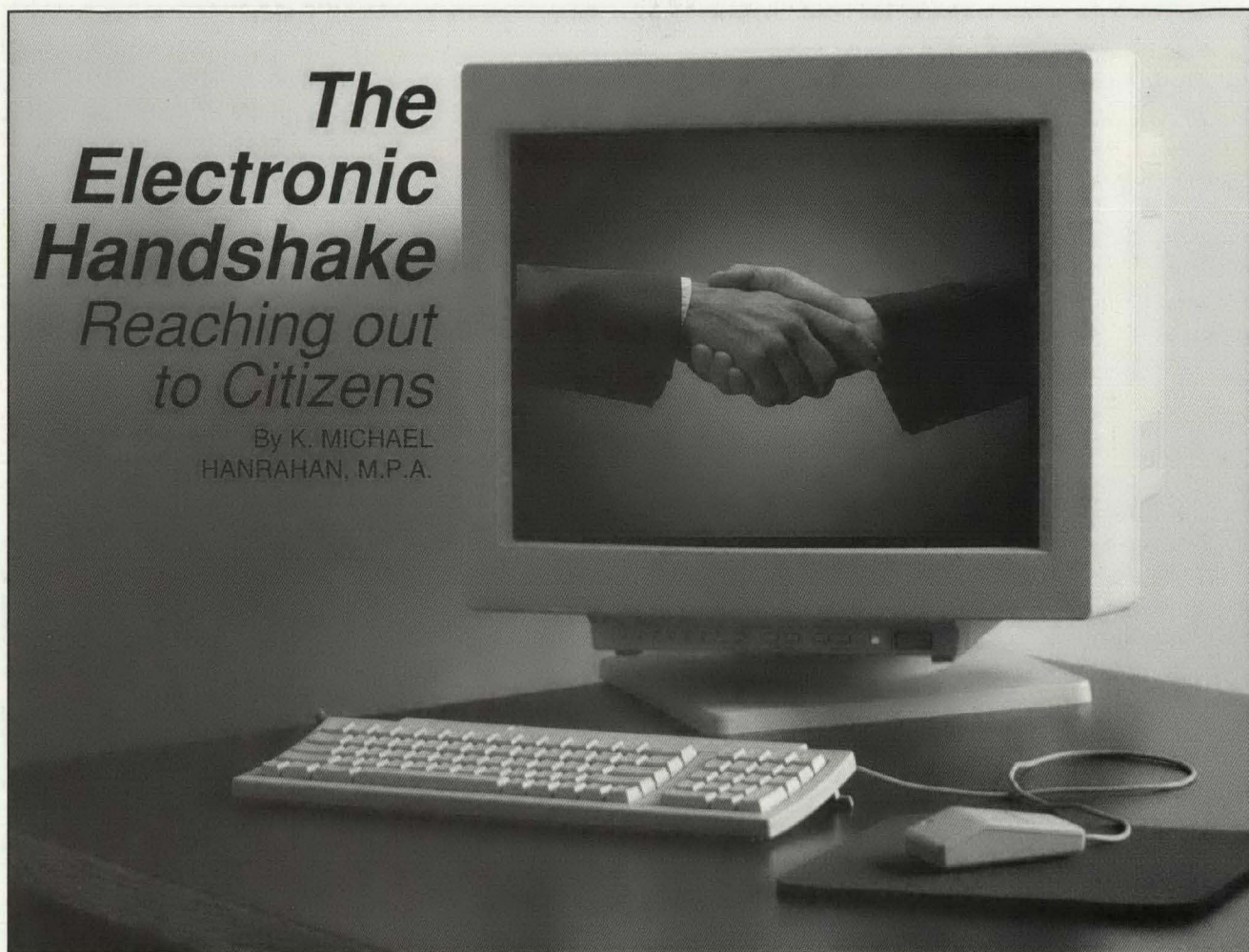
Both officers and departments alike recognize the value of a college education. Many officers themselves now admit that college is a must for a career in law enforcement given the complexity and demands of the job.

Officers need to be able to think, analyze, perform, and make decisions based on more than their street experience. They also need the knowledge, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills that come from a college education. Administrators from Salt Lake Community College and law enforcement are working together to merge the two learning venues to enhance the confidence and abilities of Utah's officers. ♦

Ms. Slama works in the Public Information Office of Salt Lake Community College in Salt Lake City, Utah.

The Electronic Handshake *Reaching out to Citizens*

By K. MICHAEL
HANRAHAN, M.P.A.



Fifteen years ago, few people had home computers. Today, personal computers are commonplace in homes across the nation, and many individuals consider them indispensable. With access to the Internet and other electronic databases, a large percentage of the public has begun to use home computers to communicate with other computer users around the world.

Law enforcement agencies have discovered that they can use personal computers to enhance their ability to serve their communities. Many departments use computers

for writing reports and accessing wanted and warrant information. Some departments can process and store fingerprints, mug shots, and other offender profile data. And, increasingly, law enforcement agencies use computers to nurture their relationships with citizens.

While some agencies have chosen to maintain sites on the World Wide Web, others have elected to reach out to their communities using computer bulletin boards. This article details the history of computer bulletin boards and explains how law enforcement agencies can start their own bulletin boards

and use them as public relations tools.

ELECTRONIC BULLETIN BOARD HISTORY

During the adolescence of personal computers, a group of computer users emerged who made a hobby of seeing exactly what their computers could do. Known as "hackers," they quickly learned that by using a device known as a modem, their computers could "talk" to one another over the telephone lines. Occasionally, the other computers belonged to private corporations or government agencies.

While some of these early hackers lived for the thrill of gaining access to supposedly secure computer systems or top secret files, most were content to explore, with permission, computers belonging to other hackers. Finally, they decided to designate one computer as a central collection point for all of their messages. That computer became known as a bulletin board system, or BBS.

Business owners quickly saw the advantage of using a computer to provide information about their products and to allow customers to correspond quickly with sales and repair representatives. No longer just for hobbyists, the computer bulletin board earned a legitimate place in business and, eventually, in government.

In the beginning, the federal government used computers mainly to correspond with other government agencies, not with the public. Soon, however, many agencies began using computers to provide information to the public. Some of the government agencies with their own computer bulletin boards include the U.S. Departments of Commerce, Defense, State, and Justice.

Local police and sheriff's departments soon realized that they could use their office computers to call some of these national bulletin boards. Then, a few enterprising local law enforcement agencies started their own bulletin board systems. Unlike the nationwide systems, they did not expect thousands of computers across the country to start calling their computers to see what was happening in their small towns. Rather, they hoped that

community residents might call to exchange information with their local police departments, an electronic community policing program, so to speak.

Today, several law enforcement agencies throughout the country operate bulletin board systems. They offer a variety of services, both for their communities and for their own officers.

STARTING AN ELECTRONIC BULLETIN BOARD

Police officials interested in reaching out to community members through electronic bulletin boards need not feel intimidated. Establishing and maintaining a BBS require neither great technical know-how nor major investments of time or money. In fact, only three basic pieces of hardware—a personal computer, a modem, and a telephone line—and bulletin board software are needed to operate a BBS.

Hardware Requirements

An electronic bulletin board can run on any type of personal computer; however, most use IBM-compatibles. Although a BBS computer can communicate with different types of computers, mismatched systems may not be able to realize the full benefit of the bulletin board's features. The computer should have a hard drive, and all computers sold today do. For an agency starting a new BBS, even a hard drive as small as 100 megabytes will suffice, although storing files for users to download requires a larger drive.

The modem represents the life-line of any BBS. It allows users to insert a telephone line into the computer to communicate with other computers. Some computers have built-in modems; others require an external modem, which plugs into the computer's serial port. A relatively fast modem (28,800 bits per

“...the electronic information age affords law enforcement agencies a golden opportunity to reach out to their communities through computer bulletin boards.”



Lieutenant Hanrahan serves with the Fountain Valley, California, Police Department and is the system operator for the department's bulletin board.

second, also known as "baud rate") costs under \$100.

Although the BBS feasibly could share a phone line with an office telephone, this might confuse callers and would require running the BBS only after business hours. To get the most mileage from a BBS, a separate analog¹ phone line works best. It allows computer users to call 24 hours a day without interfering with other incoming calls.

Software Requirements

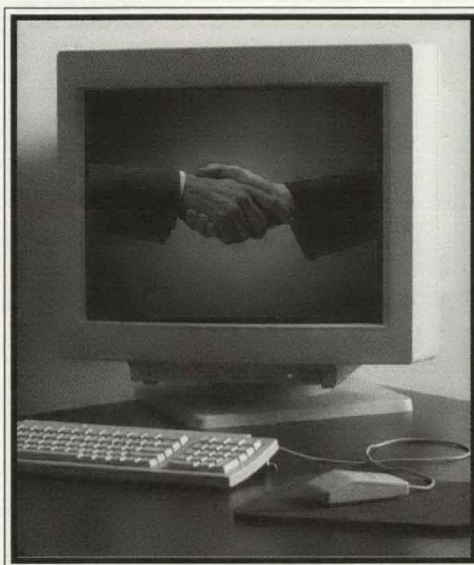
Bulletin board software makes the modem work and runs the BBS. This software can be purchased commercially or obtained from other bulletin boards through a system known as "shareware."

Shareware allows users to obtain the software free for a trial period. If they like the software, they must register it, which requires paying a nominal fee to the person who developed it. Though much less expensive than commercial software, shareware often works as well or better.

The best way to select BBS software is to talk to other people who run bulletin boards in the area. To find these system operators, or SysOps as they are called, agency personnel can check the technology section of the local newspaper and talk to managers of computer stores. Often, the best way to find a system operator is through an existing computer bulletin board. Of course, one of the department's officers might be able to provide assistance.

System operators love to talk about computers and probably will offer a great deal of free advice.

They even might be willing to help set up the BBS for the department. While these computer experts may prefer a particular type of BBS software because of its power or enhanced features, novice users should ask which program is easiest to set up and run.



Once a department has decided on a particular software program, the next step is putting it on the computer, a process known as installation. Instructions that come with the software enable even the most inexperienced user to accomplish this procedure in only a few simple steps. Once installed, the software allows the system operator to name the bulletin board; divide it into separate areas for messages, bulletins, and files; and control access.

In short, the BBS software creates a basic bulletin board that can start taking users' calls almost immediately. Later, the system

operator can reconfigure the software to change the parameters of the BBS, thus adding additional features.

MAINTAINING THE BULLETIN BOARD

BBS software is designed to do most of the maintenance functions, including setting and monitoring user access requirements, purging old messages, updating file lists and bulletins, and deleting users who have not called the BBS within a specified period of time. Still, all bulletin boards require some maintenance and monitoring, and each department should select an employee to serve as the system operator. This person should track activity on the BBS, welcome new users, answer messages when necessary, and generally make sure that the system runs smoothly. Overall, a basic BBS should require very little of the system operator's time; a more complex BBS will require more maintenance.

Law enforcement agencies should start simply and upgrade gradually. A BBS that demands too much time can be scaled back, but the system operator should explain any changes to users by posting a bulletin on the BBS. Most users will understand and remain loyal as long as they are kept informed.

PUBLICIZING THE BULLETIN BOARD

To meet its goal of improving community relations using its new BBS, the department must let the public know that the system exists. Two of the best places to advertise

are newspapers, web sites, and other bulletin boards. Police computer bulletin boards remain novel enough to attract the attention of the editorial staff of most newspapers. A press release or a phone call to the features editor might result in free publicity for the BBS.

In general, the department should seek free sources of publicity that target members of their communities. Large circulation newspapers usually contain an area in the classifieds where bulletin boards are listed once a week at no cost to the agency. Or, the editor of the local paper might be persuaded to start this type of service.

Community newsletters represent another free advertising source. Perhaps the department could provide fliers for the local computer store to use as bag stuffers. Finally, additional helpful resources are other bulletin boards; most maintain a listing of local bulletin boards as a service to their users.

THE "DREAM BBS"

A basic bulletin board system might contain an announcement area, one message conference area, and a few text files for users to read or download, that is, transfer to their own computers. With some practice and experience, department system operators can enhance their bulletin boards with additional features, until they have what they consider a "dream BBS."

Some of the options that departments can provide through their bulletin boards include:

- Bulletins and announcements
- File areas

- Questionnaires/survey areas
- Online police reports
- Local message areas
- Nationwide network conference areas
- Internet access

Bulletins and Announcements

This is an ideal area to let the public know about crime warnings, upcoming events, or new services offered by the agency. The local neighborhood watch group also might post bulletins in this area.

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Establishing and maintaining a BBS require neither great technical know-how nor major investments of time or money.

”

The BBS can be arranged so that each caller must view the bulletins before going on to other areas. Graphics can enhance this area and entice more users to read the information.

File Area

Here, users can access files to read online or download. A department can make available two basic kinds of files: Those that do something (programs) and those that provide information (text files). Program files might include various

shareware utilities, such as communication programs and offline message readers.²

Text files can include everything from the department's annual report to security recommendations to the neighborhood watch newsletter. Press releases also can be entered as text files, enabling reporters to access and print them whenever they want.

Questionnaire/Survey Area

As public agencies try to emulate the success of their business counterparts by target-marketing their services, citizen satisfaction surveys are becoming more popular. A BBS with a questionnaire or survey area gives departments the opportunity to ask community members to rate the department, provide input on what new services they would like to see, or give feedback on a special project the department is considering.

In short, this area offers a unique opportunity for members of the public to offer suggestions to their police department. The departments receive invaluable feedback, and residents appreciate being asked for their opinions.

Online Police Reports

A modified questionnaire can enable victims of minor incidents to file their own police reports by simply answering a series of questions. This even may encourage victims who otherwise might not have come forward, thereby giving the department a more accurate crime picture. At the very least, a computerized reporting system has the potential to boost public relations.

Local Message Areas

In local message areas, members of the community can contact employees of the police department to ask questions, register gripes, or just talk. Ideally, the BBS should have at least one local message area, with one of the department's officers acting as "conference host" to answer the public's questions.

Another section might feature a jurist from the community, who would preside over a "tell it to the judge" section. Some agencies divide message areas along the same organizational lines as the department, with separate conferences for patrol, traffic, investigation, training, etc.

The dream BBS also might have two "police only" message areas, one for all police officers who live in the area to exchange information and one for the department's officers to use as an electronic mailbox and message service. Finally, the neighborhood watch group could maintain another local message area, using it to relay administrative information to block captains throughout the community.

Nationwide Network Conference Areas

Some BBS networks relay messages from a host BBS to hundreds of other bulletin boards nationwide. Several criminal justice-related conferences within these networks have hundreds of users, both law enforcement and civilian, participating on a regular basis. The turnaround time for a message in a nationwide network is less than 48 hours.³

To participate in a nationwide network, a system operator must apply directly to the network to become a "node." If approved, the operator receives network software and the name of another BBS that acts as the local hub for the network. After the system operator adds some or all of the network's available conferences to the department's BBS and notifies users, they can begin to read and leave messages.

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...members of the community can contact employees of the police department to ask questions, register gripes, or just talk.

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To maintain this enhanced network, the system operator must briefly shut down the department BBS once or twice a day in order to exchange messages between the local hub and the department BBS. Given the additional work involved, an inexperienced system operator should not attempt to run a nationwide network. Still, it can be a worthwhile enhancement for the experienced BBS operator.

Internet Access

The popularity of the Internet can help attract more users to a BBS that offers access to it. A BBS can contract with a commercial service

provider to supply most of the Internet's features to the BBS and its users. Though costs vary greatly, they can run thousands of dollars per month.⁴

On a smaller scale, a department can offer its BBS users Internet e-mail capabilities in several ways. First, some BBS software packages provide e-mail services. In addition, for departments serving as nodes for nationwide networks, e-mail is included in the yearly subscription fee.

The commercial services that provide full Internet access also can make e-mail available. Though less expensive than full access, it still can cost several hundred dollars per month.⁵ Finally, a nearby university may give the department e-mail capabilities at little or no cost.

CONTROLLING ACCESS

Whether modest or elaborate, bulletin boards can provide callers with two types of access, limited or full. In general, each depends on whether users identify themselves.

Limited Access

When new users call for the first time, they can reveal their identities or remain anonymous. Some bulletin boards refuse to admit anonymous callers, while others limit access to certain areas. For police department bulletin boards, these limited-access areas could include information bulletins and a "We-Tip" area. As its name implies, in the We-Tip area, users can provide information in confidence about crimes or other matters of interest to the police. As a bonus, it allows the police to document the tip.

Users who want full access to the BBS should be required to register online by answering questions about themselves (i.e., name, address, date of birth, etc.). The BBS then can perform what is known as "call-back verification," where the host computer calls the user's computer and asks the user to reenter a password. In this way, the department can identify users who tamper with the BBS.

Though not all-inclusive, the dream BBS described in this article should stimulate ideas for other

Endnotes

¹ Although most phone lines are analog, some sophisticated systems are digital. Computer modems can convert analog signals into digital signals that the computer can understand; however, modems cannot convert from one type of digital signal to another.

²Offline message readers allow users to download messages all at once, exit the system, and reply at their leisure. As a result, they save users online time and also may reduce financial costs for users calling long distance.

³Tony Summy, system operator for The Main Shop, a BBS that serves as a regional hub for a nationwide network.

⁴ Ibid.

⁵ Ibid.

To be included in a directory of law enforcement-related bulletin board systems to be published in an upcoming issue of the Bulletin, send your agency name, BBS name, and connect number to BBS, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Madison Building, Room 209, FBI Academy, Quantico, VA 22135.

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Book Review

Video Teletraining: A Guide to Design, Development, and Use by the Training Institute of the U.S. General Accounting Office, Washington, DC, 1995.

Today's law enforcement training managers face a variety of challenges in identifying the most cost-effective methods to deliver training. An increasingly popular option to meet various training needs includes some form of teletraining, e.g., video teleconferencing, satellite-relay broadcasting, or desktop conferencing.

Where should trainers look for guidance when faced with using one of these instructional media? One helpful source, *Video Teletraining: A Guide to Design, Development, and Use*, developed by the Training Institute of the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO) provides a comprehensive discussion of teletraining technology and offers helpful suggestions for designing teletraining courses and preparing teletraining instructors. Although not written specifically for police trainers, the book contains information, culled from a 3-year GAO pilot study, that should prove useful to anyone in law enforcement interested in teletraining (or distance learning, as it is often called).

The seven-chapter book begins with an introduction to distance learning and videoconferencing. Subsequent chapters focus on topics such as using videoconferencing equipment, troubleshooting, scheduling, and coordinating video teletraining sessions. Each of these discussions includes checklists designed to help instructors ensure that teletraining sessions function smoothly.

The last three chapters of the book cover valuable information often overlooked in similar publications. These chapters, titled

"Designing and Redesigning Courses for the Video Teletraining Class," "Adapting Visual Materials for Television," and "Delivering the Video Training Class," explain what works and what does not work during teletraining classes.

The book points out crucial differences between using visual aids in traditional platform instruction and using them in teletraining. It then suggests ways to develop visual materials that meet the unique demands of teletraining instruction. The final chapter discusses the special demands teletraining places on instructors, focusing on such topics as coordinating administrative matters, encouraging "classroom" interactivity, and displaying a positive image during teletraining sessions.

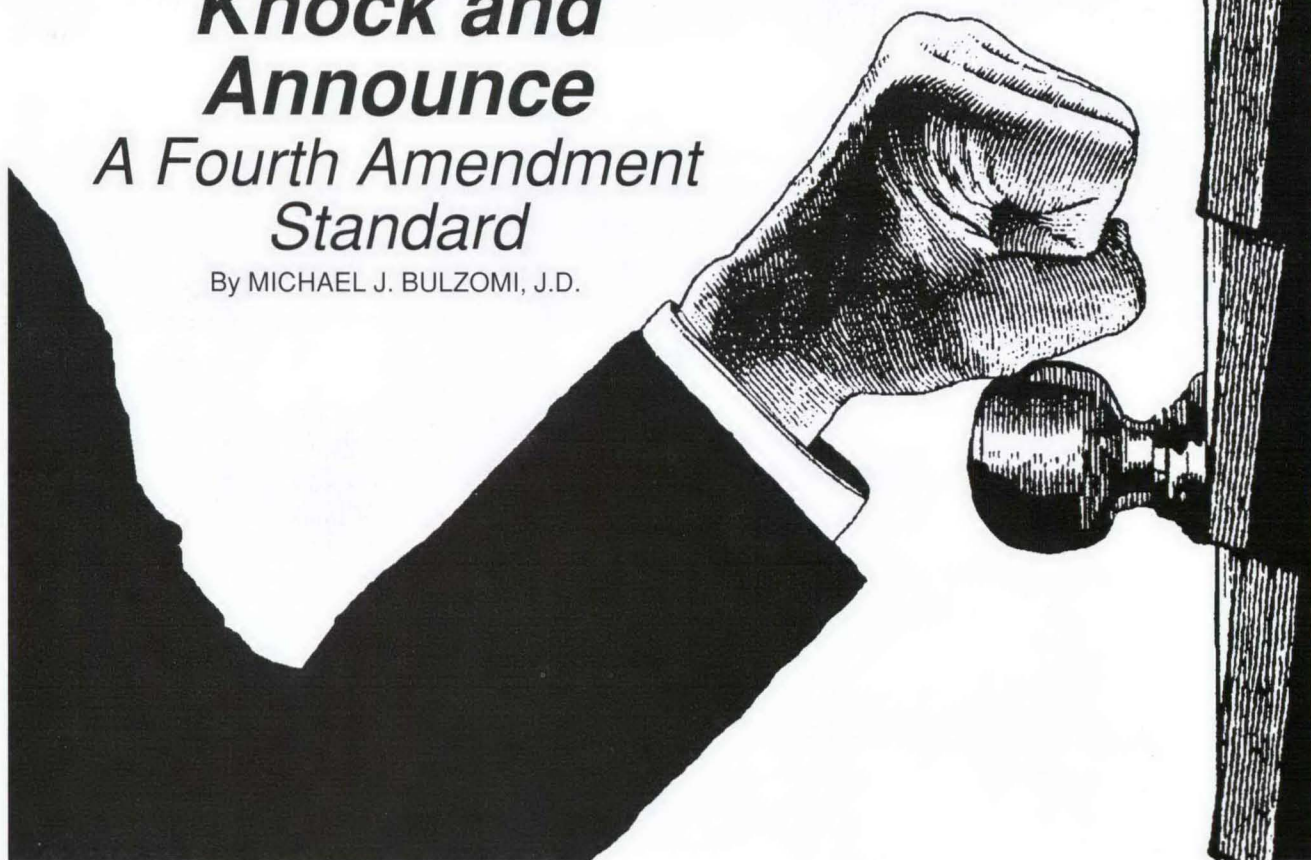
Video Teletraining takes much of the mystery out of a quickly emerging technology that offers many exciting possibilities for law enforcement trainers. In the not-too-distant future, teletraining may be a routine component of the instruction provided by law enforcement trainers. This book will help trainers prepare for that future.

Agencies can order a free copy of *Video Teletraining* (each additional copy is \$2) by contacting GAO at 202-512-6000 and requesting document GAO/TI-95-1. The book also can be accessed via the Internet at <http://www.gao.gov>.

Reviewed by
Patricia M. Boord, M.S.
Curriculum and Interactive Training
Technologies Program Manager
National Security Training
FBI Academy
Quantico, Virginia

Knock and Announce ***A Fourth Amendment Standard***

By MICHAEL J. BULZOMI, J.D.



In *Wilson v. Arkansas*,¹ decided in 1995, a unanimous Supreme Court held for the first time that whether police “knock and announce” their presence before executing valid search warrants is part of the Fourth Amendment inquiry into the reasonableness of a search. This article discusses the *Wilson* decision and its practical impact on law enforcement entry to premises. The article offers advice on how law enforcement agencies should structure their “no-knock” and “dynamic entry” search and seizure policies and practices to ensure they

meet constitutional standards of reasonableness. An unconstitutional entry may result in the suppression of evidence and possible civil liability.

BACKGROUND OF WILSON V. ARKANSAS

The defendant in *Wilson* made a series of drug sales to an Arkansas State Police informant and threatened the informant with a gun. The police later went to the defendant’s apartment to execute a search warrant and found the front door open. Upon opening an unlocked screen door to enter the residence,

the police identified themselves and stated that they had a warrant. Once inside the home, the officers seized various drugs, paraphernalia, a gun, and ammunition. They also found the defendant in the act of flushing marijuana down the toilet.

Prior to trial, the defendant filed a motion to suppress the evidence seized during the search, arguing that the police had violated her Fourth Amendment rights by failing to knock and announce prior to entering her home. The trial court denied the suppression motion and the Arkansas Supreme Court affirmed her conviction by



Special Agent Bulzomi is a legal instructor at the FBI Academy.

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...law enforcement
organizations should
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concluding that knock and announce is not a Fourth Amendment requirement.

The U.S. Supreme Court reversed and held that the knock and announce principle is a constitutionally based requirement in assessing whether entry to premises to conduct a search and seizure is reasonable. The Court did so by looking at the background and formulation of the knock and announce rule based in common law.

Common Law Origin of Knock and Announce

The common law knock and announce principle deals with the right to privacy, specifically in one's home. The knock and announce requirement, well-established in England by the 18th century, quickly became woven into the fabric of early American law. Despite many exceptions and a history of abuse, some form of notice or demand for admission generally preceded the service of general

warrants and writs of assistance in early Colonial America.²

It is clear that the framers of the Fourth Amendment were familiar with the abusive search and seizure practices used by the British government and adopted the amendment as a response to such practices. Although unannounced searches are not explicitly prohibited in the Constitution, the Fourth Amendment's protection against unreasonable searches and seizures implicitly embraces the common law principle that law enforcement officers should announce their purpose and authority before forcibly entering an individual's home.³

Knock and Announce Legislation

Despite this common law background, 34 states, the District of Columbia, and the federal government have enacted statutes requiring that law enforcement officers knock and announce their presence

prior to making forced entry to premises.⁴ A typical example of a statutory enactment is the federal knock and announce statute, which provides:

The officer may break open any outer or inner door or window of a house, or any part of a house, or anything therein, to execute a search warrant, if, after notice of his authority and purpose, he is refused admittance or when necessary to liberate himself or a person aiding him in the execution of the warrant.⁵

Some jurisdictions enacted legislation providing for so-called no-knock warrants. However, controversy precipitated by no-knock warrants resulted in Congress' repealing the federal no-knock statute in 1974. Only a few states currently have statutes authorizing no-knock warrants.

EXCEPTIONS TO KNOCK AND ANNOUNCE

American courts have long recognized that effective and safe law enforcement necessitates some exceptions to the knock and announce rule. For example, the following language was contained in a 1969 decision by the Washington State Supreme Court:

In most cases, lawful entry is conditioned upon announcement of identity and purpose, and a demand of admittance. On the other hand, however, the conditions cannot be rigid and inflexible or they become an empty formality. The conditions are part of a criteria of reasonableness and subject

to certain exceptions generally recognized.”⁶

In *Wilson*, the Supreme Court restated some of these very words in recognizing the applicability of the common law exceptions to the now-constitutionally based knock and announce rule.⁷ While the *Wilson* decision does not delineate the conditions that constitute a reasonable unannounced entry, courts generally have recognized the following three exceptions to the announcement rule: 1) apprehension of peril 2) useless gesture and 3) the destruction of evidence.

Apprehension of Peril Exception

The apprehension of peril exception is triggered when officers entering premises have a reasonable belief that to announce their presence prior to the entry would increase the likelihood of injury either to themselves or to others. *Wilson* recognized that a no-knock entry would be almost certainly constitutionally permissible under circumstances indicating the occupants would respond to announcement with physical violence.

Mere knowledge that a suspect has weapons in the house generally is not a sufficient justification for an unannounced entry by police. In *United States v. Lucht*,⁸ the United States Court of Appeals for the Eighth Circuit held that an unannounced entry was illegal because police had no indication that the suspect was violent or inclined to use the weapons that they believed were present in the house.

However, courts are generally sympathetic to police when they have a reasonable belief that the

suspect is armed under circumstances indicating danger. For example, the Supreme Court of Florida held that police were justified in invoking the apprehension of peril exception in a murder case where the suspect had committed armed robbery of a deputy and had used a gun or knife in several rapes.⁹ Here, police not only had knowledge that the suspect possessed weapons inside his premises but also that he had committed a violent crime and had a history of violent behavior.

“American courts have long recognized that effective and safe law enforcement necessitates some exceptions to the knock and announce rule.”

In *United States v. Buckley*,¹⁰ officers knew that the defendants possessed firearms and also that they had a pit bull. The United States Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit concluded that the presence of the pit bull indicated danger and justified the unannounced entry. The Fourth Amendment does not require that police risk fighting off a forewarned attack dog before executing their warrant.

As a general rule, the apprehension of peril exception to the

announcement rule applies where police have specific knowledge that a suspect has used a weapon criminally or threatened to use a weapon to avoid arrest. Accordingly, courts have upheld the exception where officers previously were threatened while serving a warrant on the defendant¹¹ and where the suspect had vowed not to return to prison.¹²

Useless Gesture Exception

The useless gesture exception to the knock and announce rule arises when the occupants of a house already have notice of the officers' nature and authority. This exception stems from the notion that if the occupants realize the purpose of the police visit, the purpose of the knock and announce rule already has been satisfied. Similarly, announcement is a useless gesture where police are certain that a dwelling is unoccupied.

Courts generally follow the Supreme Court's guidelines in *Miller v. United States*,¹³ in determining whether the suspects' conduct at the scene of the entry justifies an unannounced entry under the useless gesture exception. The *Miller* test requires that officers be “virtually certain” that the occupants of a house are aware not only of their authority but also of their purpose. Establishing a virtually certain belief requires more than merely evidence that the occupants of a house have observed the police's arrival. Police must couple with that evidence a logical inference that the occupants also are aware of why the police are there, such as hearing the sound of people running from the door as the police approach.¹⁴

Destruction of Evidence Exception

The destruction of evidence exception allows police to forego announcement if they reasonably believe that announcement would lead to the destruction of evidence or to a subject's escape. However, courts disagree regarding the quality and quantity of information officers must have regarding the likelihood of destruction of evidence or escape. While probable cause is the generally accepted standard for escape, courts, particularly in drug searches, have developed two competing approaches in determining the requisite showing of risk required to trigger the destruction of evidence. These are the "particularity approach" and the "blanket approach."

The Particularity Approach

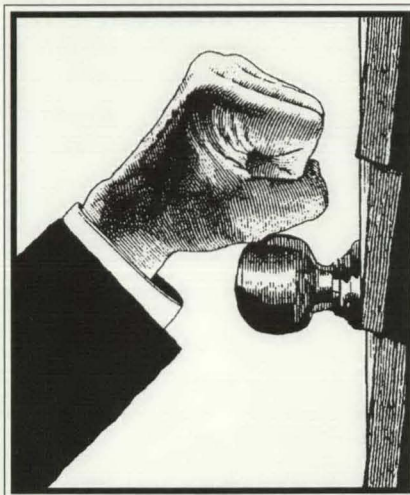
Under the particularity approach, courts require proof that officers were aware of specific facts at the scene that created the risk of the destruction of evidence. For example, some courts require evidence that the drugs are kept in a form, such as in small packages, that would facilitate rapid destruction. Others require a particularized display of ability or inclination to destroy items sought by police.

In some jurisdictions, the fact that a house has normal plumbing facilities satisfies the question of ability or inclination to destroy evidence, thus allowing police to presume that exigent circumstances exist and excusing compliance with the knock and announce rule.¹⁵ Because many drug offenders attempt to flush their drugs down the toilet when they perceive that the police are about to raid their homes,

plumbing in the house creates a risk of destruction of evidence sufficient to justify the exception.

The Blanket Approach

Under the blanket approach, courts do not require a showing that officers had any particular reason to believe that the evidence they were searching for was in danger of destruction. Rather, the mere nature of the evidence sought, such as drugs or gambling records, creates a *per se* exception to the announce rule. The basis for this blanket approach is the officer's general experience that the type of evidence being searched for is susceptible to quick destruction thereby meriting a no-knock exception.¹⁶



State and federal courts are divided over the validity of the blanket approach.¹⁷ However, the Supreme Court may rule on the constitutionality of the blanket approach when it renders a decision in *Richards v. Wisconsin*.¹⁸ The question presented in this case is whether the Fourth Amendment, as interpreted by *Wilson v. Arkansas*, would permit a blanket exception to

the announcement rule if drugs are the object of the search without looking at particular circumstances pertaining to the entry.

UNDERLYING RATIONALE FOR KNOCK AND ANNOUNCE

The Supreme Court has determined that "every householder, the good and the bad, the guilty and the innocent, is entitled to the protection designed to secure the common interest against unlawful invasion of the house."¹⁹ The knock and announce rule provides citizens with psychological security, knowing that one need not fear an unexpected intrusion. Privacy interests also are protected, avoiding unnecessary embarrassment, shock, or property damage resulting from an unannounced entry.

The rule serves to protect both the individual citizen and the police from the risk of harm and the potential for violence that may occur as a result of an unannounced entry.²⁰ Announcement protects officers by ensuring that they are not "mistaken for prowlers and shot down by a fearful householder."²¹ Innocent citizens also are protected from law enforcement officers who mistakenly might shoot armed occupants who merely are trying to defend themselves from who they perceive to be armed intruders.

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR OFFICER SAFETY

A police officer making a high-risk warrant entry is not on an even playing field with the occupants of the premises. When officers announce their authority and purpose they make themselves readily

identifiable. The occupants, having concealment in the house, now also know where the announcing officer is and can prepare for violent resistance to police entry. The officer is vulnerable even if no entry is made because ordinary handgun rounds generally can penetrate the walls of a typical house or apartment.

The point of entry into a house, be it a door or a window, is referred to as the fatal funnel. The occupants of the house need only aim their weapons at this point of entry and wait for the target to appear. That target is the law enforcement officer, and at that moment, the officer has no cover and more than likely no idea where the armed occupant of the house is located.

The officers are generally backlit, so their eyes must adjust to the lighting, or lack thereof, in the house. The armed occupants are presented with a clear target and need no time to adjust to the lighting. The officers may have little or no idea of the layout or floor plan of the premises and will require time to acclimate to their new surroundings. The armed occupants, however, need not acclimate themselves, for this is their home turf.

Moreover, the armed occupants know what they intend to do, whereas the officers only can infer whether the armed occupants intend to fight, flee, or surrender. This creates a situation where the occupants fire first because the officers cannot fire until they have determined the occupants' intention to resist. Such encounters in very close quarters frequently make the initial exchange of gunfire conclusive. The armed occupants may not consider possible harm to innocent bystanders, but the officers must.

Dynamic entries made by multiple three-officer teams have become common practice in many agencies. Diversionary tactics are employed to lead the armed occupants away from the entry point to be used by the initial entry team. The diversion may be a flashbang concussion grenade or the breaking of a window. The entry is then made by a team that is trained to respond to one another's movements, allowing the first member to go directly to any possible threat and the other team members to secure the remaining sectors of the room.

The initial three-officer entry team secures the first room entered and either proceeds on to secure other rooms of the house, allowing

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Announcement
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exigent circumstances
exist....
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subsequent teams to maintain the secured areas, or the original team holds the secured area and the subsequent teams pass by and secure the rest of the premises. Simultaneous entries through multiple points allows for even faster police control of the premises. The various teams train to secure sectors of the premises and to safely converge with one another.

Tactics, precision, and orderliness are the cornerstones of

executing high-risk warrants. Recognizing and implementing these procedures in training and actual warrant executions will help reduce the prospect of officer and suspect bloodshed.

CONCLUSION

The *Wilson* decision requires announcement unless an allowable exigent circumstance exists. The announcement need not be lengthy or elaborate. It need only be “police, we have a warrant to search your house, open the door,” spoken loudly enough for someone in the house to hear. Officers shouting “police” as they run to the door with a battering ram, without exigent circumstances, would not suffice.²² A reasonable amount of time must be given, so that the occupants of the house can comply with the demand. If they refuse to comply, or there is no response and a reasonable time has passed, then a forcible entry can be made.

Announcement may not be constitutionally required where one or more of the required exigent circumstances exist: imminent peril, useless gesture, or destruction of evidence. However, officers should carefully evaluate the operational and safety considerations discussed in this article before entering premises and review the facts to determine if exigent circumstances would legally justify a no-knock entry in a particular situation. ♦

Endnotes

¹ 115 S. Ct. 1914 (1995).

² *Ker v. California*, 374 U.S. 23, 52 (1963) (Brennan, J., plurality opinion).

³ *Miller v. United States*, 357 U.S. 301, 313 (1958).

⁴ 115 S.Ct. at 1917. In the absence of a statute, some state constitutions have been interpreted to require knock and announce.

⁵ Title 18 U.S.C. Section 3109.

⁶ *State v. Young*, 455 P.2d 595, 597 (Wash. 1969).

⁷ 115 S.Ct. at 1918-19.

⁸ 18 F.3d 541 (8th Cir. 1994) *cert. denied*, 115 S.Ct. 363 (1994).

⁹ *Power v. State*, 605 So. 2d 856, 862-863 (Fla. 1992), *cert. denied*, 507 U.S. 1037 (1993).

¹⁰ 4 F.3d 552, 558 (7th Cir. 1993), *cert. denied*, 114 S.Ct. 1084 (1993).

¹¹ *People v. Hardin*, 535 N.E.2d 1044, 1045-46 (Ill. App. Ct. 1989).

¹² *State ex rel. Juvenile Dept. Of Multnomah City v. Qutub*, 706 P.2d 962, 964-66 (Or. Ct. App.), *review denied*, 710 P.2d 147 (Or. 1985).

¹³ 357 U.S. 301 (1958).

¹⁴ *See United States v. James*, 764 F.2d 885, 888 (D.C. Cir. 1985).

¹⁵ *See State v. Stevens*, 511 N.W.2d 591 (1994), *cert. denied*, 115 S.Ct. 2245 (1995); *United States v. Moore*, 956 F.2d 843, 849-850 (8th Cir. 1992).

¹⁶ 511 N.W.2d at 595.

¹⁷ *See, e.g., United States v. Lalor*, 996 F.2d 1578 (4th Cir.), *cert. denied*, 114 S.Ct. 485 (1993); *United States v. Lucht*, 18 F.3d 541 (8th Cir. 1994); *United States v. Stewart*, 867 F.2d 581, 585 (10th Cir. 1989); *United States v. Wulferdinger*, 782 F.2d 1473 (9th Cir. 1986); *United States v. Likas*, 448 F.2d 607 (7th Cir. 1971); *United States v. One Parcel of Real Property*, 873 F.2d 7, 9 (1st Cir.), *cert. denied*, 493 U.S. 891 (1989); *United States v. Tolliver*, 665 F.2d 1005 (11th Cir.), *cert. denied*, 456 U.S. 935 (1982); *Rodriguez v. Butler*, 536 F.2d 982 (2d Cir. 1976).

¹⁸ *State v. Richards*, 549 N.W.2d 218 (Wis. June 12, 1996), *cert. granted*, 117 S.Ct. 679 (1997).

¹⁹ 357 U.S. 313.

²⁰ *See Sabbath v. United States*, 391 U.S. 585 (1968).

²¹ 374 U.S. at 58 (Brennan, J., dissenting).

²² *Moore v. State*, 650 So.2d 958 (Ala.Crim.App. 1994).

Law enforcement officers of other than federal jurisdiction who are interested in this article should consult their legal advisors. Some police procedures ruled permissible under federal constitutional law are of questionable legality under state law or are not permitted at all.

Wanted: Photographs



The *Bulletin* staff is always on the lookout for dynamic, law enforcement-related photos for possible publication in the magazine. We are interested in photos that visually depict the many aspects of the law enforcement profession and illustrate the various tasks law enforcement personnel perform.

We can use either black-and-white glossy or color prints or slides, although we prefer prints (5x7 or 8x10). Appropriate credit will be given to contributing photographers when their work appears in the magazine. We suggest that you send duplicate, not original, prints as we do not accept responsibility for prints that may be damaged or lost. Send your photographs to:

John Ott, *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*,
Law Enforcement
Communication Unit,
FBI Academy, Quantico,
VA 22135.

The Bulletin Notes

Law enforcement officers are challenged daily in the performance of their duties; they face each challenge freely and unselfishly while answering the call to duty. In certain instances, their actions warrant special attention from their respective departments. The *Bulletin* also wants to recognize their exemplary service to the law enforcement profession.



Officer Bretz

Officer Kevin J. Bretz of the Batavia, Illinois, Police Department was one of several officers who responded to a request for assistance from an officer in a neighboring jurisdiction. The officer had stopped a vehicle for a traffic violation and was approaching the car when the driver suddenly sped away, nearly running over him. Officers eventually cornered the vehicle on a ramp near the local sheriff's office and jail complex. However, when they approached the vehicle, the driver made a desperate attempt to escape, ramming the vehicle into the building several times before completing a turn and speeding off. As officers fled from the path of the speeding vehicle, Officer Bretz observed that an officer had slipped and fallen on an icy knoll directly in the vehicle's path. Without hesitation, he ran back and carried the injured officer to safety as the vehicle sped past. Officers captured the subject moments later, after he crashed into a light pole on the grounds of the complex. Through his decisive response to a quickly unfolding situation, Officer Bretz saved a fellow officer from serious injury or death.



Officer White

When Officer Kevin White of the Cape Coral, Florida, Police Department responded to the report of an apartment building fire, he found one of the apartments engulfed in flames and thick smoke. Upon learning that an elderly woman was trapped in her apartment, Officer White entered the unit, located the victim, and carried her to safety. He then reentered the burning building and checked several other apartments to make sure everyone had evacuated safely. Later, the victim and Officer White were treated for smoke inhalation and released.

Nominations for **The Bulletin Notes** should be based on either the rescue of one or more citizens or arrest(s) made at unusual risk to an officer's safety. Submissions should include a short write-up (maximum of 250 words), a separate photograph of each nominee, and a letter from the department's ranking officer endorsing the nomination. Submissions should be sent to the Editor, *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Law Enforcement Communication Unit, Quantico, VA 22135.

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