ATP 3-39.10

POLICE OPERATIONS

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Police Operations

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Preface

ATP 3-39.10 provides guidance for commanders and staffs on police operations and is aligned with FM 3-39, the keystone military police field manual. This manual addresses police operations across the range of military operations. Police operations support decisive action tasks (offensive, defensive, and stability or defense support of civil authorities [DSCA]). This manual emphasizes policing capabilities necessary to establish order and subsequent law enforcement activities that enable successful establishment, maintenance, or restoration of the rule of law. While this manual focuses on the police operations discipline and its associated tasks and principles, it also emphasizes the foundational role that police operations, in general, play in the military police approach to missions and support to commanders.

To comprehend the doctrine that is contained in this manual, readers must understand the—

- Nature of unified land operations that are described in ADP 3-0.
- Fundamentals of the operations process that are described in ADP 5-0.
- Principles of command and control that are described in ADP 6-0.
- Protection principles that are described in ADP 3-37.
- Conduct of Army operations described in FM 3-0.
- Operational doctrine for military police operations described in FM 3-39.

The principal audience for this manual is leaders and Army professionals at all echelons who are tasked with planning, directing, and executing police operations. Trainers and educators throughout the Army will also use this manual.

Commanders, staffs, and subordinates ensure that their decisions and actions comply with applicable United States, international, and in some cases host-nation laws and regulations. Commanders at all levels ensure that their Soldiers operate in accordance with the law of war and the rules of engagement. (See FM 6-27.)

ATP 3-39.10 uses joint terms where applicable. Selected joint and Army terms and definitions appear in both the glossary and the text. Terms for which ATP 3-39.10 is the proponent publication (the authority) are italicized in the text and are marked with an asterisk (*) in the glossary. Terms and definitions for which ATP 3-39.10 is the proponent ATP (the authority) are printed in boldface text and indicated with an asterisk (*) in the glossary. For other terms defined in the text, the term is italicized and the number of the proponent publication follows the definition.

ATP 3-39.10 applies to the Active Army, Army National Guard/Army National Guard of the United States and the United States Army Reserve unless otherwise stated.

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The proponent for this manual is the United States Army Military Police School (USAMPS). The preparing agency is the Fielded Force Integration Directorate, Doctrine Division, Maneuver Support Center of Excellence (MSCoE). Send comments and recommendations on a DA Form 2028 (*Recommended Changes to Publications and Blank Forms*) to Commander, MSCoE, ATTN: ATZT-FFD, 14000 MSCoE Loop, Suite 270, Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri 65473-8929; by e-mail to usarmy.leonardwood.mscoe.mbx.mpdoc@mail.mil; or submit an electronic DA Form 2028.

Acknowledgements

Introduction

Police operations have historically been understood to comprise of law enforcement missions supporting United States (U.S.) military commanders and efforts to police military personnel, civilians, and family members working and residing on U.S. military bases and base camps. Police operations support to the operational commander and the capabilities inherent within law enforcement organizations will continue to grow in relevance in support of Army operations. Future conflicts and the nature of the threat within the operational environment will increase the relevance of police operations and the need for law enforcement capabilities in support of Army operations. Police operations plays vital role in countering hybrid threats, reducing crime, establishing order, preserving readiness, and enforcing the rule of law. Police operations have shown their relevance in establishing civil security and civil control critical lines of effort supporting transfer authority to a secure and stable host-nation (HN) government.

Lessons learned from recent conflicts, coupled with task analysis conducted by USAMPS, Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri, have resulted in an expanded doctrinal framework and understanding of police operations. The expanded framework does not establish new tasks within the police operations discipline, but identifies and documents missions and tasks in the revised doctrine that have historically been conducted by military police. Recent updates to FM 3-39 establishes police operations as the primary military police discipline, shaping the actions and perspectives of military police in the conduct of military police disciplines. These updates describe police operations within the context of two activities—policing and law enforcement. Policing activities are general actions aimed at establishing order and stability within an area of operations (AO); law enforcement activities are tied to the rule of law and require authority to conduct the law enforcement activity

Beyond support to bases and base camps, the requirement for military police capabilities in training and supporting HN police is the most visible and resource-intensive police operations activity. Additionally, maneuver commanders recognize several key law enforcement enablers that greatly enhance and contribute to mission success, including—

- Expertise in evidence collection that is critical to successful site exploitation and criminal prosecution.
- Biometric collection, biometric identification capabilities, and modular forensic laboratories.
- Identification of critical civil information regarding the criminal environment, the HN police capability and capacity, and the local population, which is obtained through integrated police intelligence operations.

Military police capabilities are invaluable to the maneuver commander whether conducting law enforcement activities in support of bases and base camps, supporting protection requirements, maintaining and restoring order in an effort to stabilize an AO, providing training and support to HN police, controlling populations, or supporting humanitarian relief operations. No other U.S military force is as uniquely resourced, trained, and organized to provide policing capabilities in support of the Army and its joint partners.

This manual is focused on establishing the framework of police operations as the foundational discipline of military police and describing police operations support to decisive action. Additionally, this manual—

- Discusses how crime, disorder, and the fear of crime are persistent, debilitating factors that contribute to instability across the operational environment.
- Acknowledges the ability of military police and United States Army Criminal Investigation Command (USACIDC) elements to provide policing and law enforcement and policing capabilities in support of commanders during decisive action and validates the application of police operations across the range of military operations.
- Applies lessons learned through the conduct of recent operational experiences.
- Describes the integration of modular police operations capabilities to support Army operations.
- Incorporates the latest revisions to ADP 3-0 and other doctrine, including ADP 3-07, ADP 3-28, ADP 3-37, ADP 5-0, and FM 3-0.

This manual is organized into nine chapters with five appendixes to provide additional details on selected operational topics. A brief description of each chapter and appendix is provided below:

- Chapter 1 describes the operational environment, with particular focus on the nature and scope of modern conflict and the relevance of police operations within the operational environment. It provides techniques for the conduct of police operations. The chapter highlights police operations role in supporting the Army's four strategic roles (shape the operational environment, prevent conflict, conduct large-scale combat operations, and consolidate gains). The discussion of the operational environment is not a repeat of information in previous manuals; it is focused specifically on those aspects of crime and crime effect on the operational environment that generate requirements for police operations.

- Chapter 2 is broken down into two sections. Section I provides considerations for planning, preparing, executing and assessing police operations in support of Army operations. Section II describes how military police organize to conduct police operations based on mission variables and other environmental factors.

- Chapter 3 is divided into three sections and focuses on police station operations and the management of police information and specific law enforcement activities and requirements. Section I identifies the activities and capabilities required to organize, plan, direct, and control law enforcement and policing assets. Section II discusses the management and integration of police information throughout law enforcement and policing activities. The final section identifies the organizational structure and technical and tactical capabilities specifically focused on law enforcement and policing activities, in support of the rule of law.

- Chapter 4 discusses how military police synchronize, integrate, and organize complementary and reinforcing policing measures and strategies to safeguard the force, protect populations, and enable the existence of law and order.

- Chapter 5 is specific to law enforcement activities carried out by personnel trained as military police and granted law enforcement authority. This chapter also addresses patrol methods and strategies, court testimony, and customs support.

- Chapter 6 describes how policing is the application of control measures within an AO to maintain law and order, safety, and other matters affecting the general welfare of the population.

- Chapter 7 focuses on police engagement. This chapter discusses police engagement as a policing and law enforcement-specific application of Soldier and leader engagement. It describes police engagement planning and coordination considerations; specific police engagement activities; and the use of forums, working groups, and boards to facilitate police engagements.

- Chapter 8 describes traffic management and enforcement, as conducted within the police operations discipline, and includes a limited discussion on traffic-related tasks conducted within the context of security and mobility support. It discusses traffic planning, traffic control and enforcement, traffic accident investigations, and traffic assessments.

- Chapter 9 addresses basic evidence collection guidelines and techniques describing evidence collection and forensic analysis.

- Appendix A provides information on authority and jurisdiction in conducting law enforcement activities.

- Appendix B identifies criminal elements that exist at every level of society and throughout the operational environment.

- Appendix C describes considerations for special-response situations.

- Appendix D discusses methods for calculating law enforcement patrol and manpower requirements.

- Appendix E provides basic planning considerations for police operations-related equipment requirements.

Based on current doctrinal changes, certain terms for which ATP 3-39.10 is the proponent have been modified for the purposes of this manual (see introductory table-1). The glossary contains acronyms and defined terms.

Introductory table-1. Modified Army terms

Term	*Remarks*
Crime prevention	Modifies the definition

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Chapter 1

Police Operations Support to Army Operations

Instability and persistent conflict threatening U.S. interests at home and abroad are constant risks faced by national leadership. Globalization, scientific and technological advancements, demographic shifts, urbanization, competition for resources, natural disasters, potential employment of weapons of mass destruction and economic and political conditions lead to occurrence of failed and failing states that shape an era of persistent conflict. Within these uncertain environments, the mission of establishing civil security and civil control, enables the consolidation of gains and transitioning from military operations back to civilian control will be constant requirements for military leaders. Military police and USACIDC police operations are required to assist commanders in maintaining a safe and secure environment for their own personnel and to provide Army law enforcement resources in support of Army operations. Police operations are also a key enabler in support of civil security and control lines of effort conducted to establish conditions, capability, and capacity within a HN; support an interim government or a military government; leading to the successful transition to enduring civilian control.

THE POLICE OPERATIONS DISCIPLINE

1-1.   The military police disciplines (police operations, detention operations and security and mobility support) are interdependent areas of expertise formed by military police technical capabilities and tactical tasks. Police operations are an integral part of the protection warfighting function, and commanders rely on military police to assist them in understanding how crime, disorder, and the fear of crime are persistent and debilitating factors that contribute to instability across an operational environment. Commanders can visualize potential solutions to prevent criminal acts through an understanding of how police operations are integrated within the protection warfighting function and how it applies to the protection of forces and populations within their AO. See ADP 3-37 for additional information on protection.

1-2.   The police operations discipline is identified as the lead military police discipline. It provides the foundation for military police technical and tactical operations and the lens through which military police operations are viewed. It shapes the military police approach to the operational environment Military police conduct police operations to—

- **Maintain good order through voluntary civil compliance.** Military police assist commanders in achieving community compliance using the least amount of reasonable possible force necessary. Voluntary compliance is more effective than coercing or compelling compliance from a population and stems from public trust in the government and police. Military police build voluntary compliance through ethical and measured use of force to establish order, along with collaborative community approaches that enhance shared responsibility. This voluntary compliance assists in maintaining civil order within a population, where the population recognizes the legitimacy of government and its rules. At home stations this can be civil compliance with local, state, and federal laws and regulations. In deployed environments, this can be assisting HN security forces with local populace compliance with their laws. A result of maintaining good order is the noticeable absence of crime.
- **Prevent crime by identifying and resolving underlying crime conducive conditions.** Military police enable the Army's ability to reduce and defeat crime, disorder and the fear of crime which are persistent, debilitating factors that contribute to instability across the operational environment.

Effective policing is the absence of crime, not the military police dealing with crime. Preventive policing is understanding the causes of environmental threats and defeating and influencing the threats before a crime occurs. Military police work with commanders and communities to reduce opportunity for criminal activity by providing deterrence through active policing.

- **Enforce the law through professional discretion.** Military police enforce the law when the public has not been compliant and whether threats have been fully eliminated. Military Police evaluate behavior in context of the situation, while still operating within the purview of the law and meeting the commander's intent.
- **Manage during times of crisis in DSCA.** National Guard military police elements regularly support their respective state governors in this function while operating as state assets under title 32 USC. United States Army Reserve and active duty military police elements, including federalized National Guard Soldiers, are generally prohibited from direct participation in law enforcement.

1-3.   Police operations encompass two tasks—law enforcement and policing. These two tasks are complementary and interdependent, but are conducted with a different intent. As the term suggests, law enforcement is conducted for the purpose of enforcing laws, investigating crimes, and apprehending (when warranted) persons for adjudication within the appropriate judicial system. *Policing* is the application of control measures within an AO to maintain law and order, safety, and other matters affecting the general welfare of the population (FM 3-39). Policing focus on maintaining order and establishing security - not the enforcement of laws on the population or to compelling compliance at the risk of legal penalties.

1-4.   The capabilities and training inherent in the policing discipline instill military police Soldiers and leaders with a common policing approach. The ultimate goal is to maintain order through intelligence and active prevention measures while protecting personnel and assets. Military police Soldiers and leaders apply this policing approach in the conduct of all operations. This approach to operations emphasizes—

- A rapid and accurate assessment of the operational environment with focus on the criminal dimension.
- Effective interpersonal communications that facilitates information and police engagement.
- Critical and creative thinking to establish control and de-escalate incidents (when possible).
- A disciplined and precise method of documenting incidents and actions that support criminal investigative and due process requirements.
- The rapid identification of threats, the exercise of restraint, and the application of appropriate force options (from verbal persuasion to lethal force), when necessary, to control the environment.
- Observation skills critical to identify evidence, information, or environmental variances that build situational awareness, facilitate situational understanding, contribute to policing and law enforcement efforts, and support the operations process.

LAW ENFORCEMENT

1-5.   Law enforcement includes those activities performed by personnel authorized by legal authority to compel compliance with, and investigate violations of, laws, directives, and punitive regulations. Law enforcement occurs in direct support of governance and the rule of law; however, for law enforcement to occur, a legal system must exist. Typically, law enforcement is performed by personnel trained as police officers and held directly accountable to the governmental source of their authority. See appendix A.

1-6.   Law enforcement is typically conducted concurrently with policing tasks that complement the law enforcement mission (crime prevention, physical security, some traffic control measures). Law enforcement requires specific training, certification, and demonstrated capabilities that typically preclude untrained personnel from conducting the law enforcement mission. The specific training required of Army law enforcement and other law enforcement agencies is designed to provide—

- An understanding of the rules for the use of force and force escalation.
- Competence in personal protection techniques to avoid physical injury.
- Training in less than lethal techniques for subduing individuals.

- An understanding of laws relevant to law enforcement, including—
    - Due process requirements.
    - Authority and jurisdiction.
    - Search and seizure requirements and restrictions.
- The knowledge of proper evidence collection techniques.
- The ability to write coherent police reports.
- An understanding of emergency and special-response requirements.
- Knowing how to apply police intelligence assessments to implement the proper policing model and strategies.

1-7. Police intelligence operations is strongly associated with police operations—more specifically, law enforcement and criminal investigations. Commanders, provost marshals (PMs), and law enforcement investigators generate intelligence requirements needed for situational understanding and decision making regarding criminal investigations, disruption of criminal activity, reduction in crime-conducive conditions, distribution of law enforcement assets, averting terrorist activity, and mission focus. The analysis of information gathered during law enforcement activities can provide the critical linkages, associations, and patterns necessary to conduct law enforcement investigations, identify criminal networks, solve crimes, and close criminal investigations. The analyses of crime trends, patterns, and associations enable commanders, PMs, and military police staffs to plan and make decisions regarding the prevention of crime and policing strategies, patrol distribution, resource requirements, averting terrorist activity, and areas requiring increased police engagement and focus. See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on police intelligence.

POLICING

1-8. Policing is the application of control measures within an AO to maintain law and order, safety, security, and other matters affecting the general welfare of the population. The Army conducts policing continuously to maintain order within its communities and formations. When directed, the Army also applies policing activities to civilian populations to restore order when the rule of law has broken down or is nonexistent. During large-scale combat operations policing enables the consolidation of political and military gains. Although policing is not generally dependent on a particular legal structure, it is always applied to achieve a specific order. In other words, policing is the application of generally applicable techniques to maintain the specific law and order determined necessary by the commander. Policing tasks are employed in an effort to restore or maintain order when the destruction of an enemy force or capability and associated infrastructure is not the intent.

1-9. Policing is characterized by the rules for the use of force, designed to limit the application of force upon a population or group. This restraint differentiates policing from conventionally focused military operations. Military police Soldiers are trained to conduct missions using only that force which is objectively reasonable of force necessary to accomplish their task. This inherent mind-set of the de-escalation of violence and restraint makes military police Soldiers highly suited to policing tasks. Policing is a critical step in establishing civil security as a precursor to establishing civil control and the transition to self-governance under the rule of law.

> *Note.* The United States Military Corrections mission is not considered a law enforcement task. United States Military Corrections is the exception to the rule in that any Soldier with the appropriate training and supervision can conduct policing tasks with no law enforcement purpose. The corrections mission, as distinguished from detention operations, is its own leg of the criminal justice system (police, corrections, courts). Corrections operations require specially trained military police (military occupational specialty 31E) or other personnel who are trained in the technical and legal requirements associated with conducting corrections operations as an integral part of the criminal justice system, operating under the rule of law. Detention operations are described in FM 3-39.

1-10. All military police disciplines are conducted with the primary purpose of maintaining an environment with the requisite order and stability for commanders to focus their efforts on other critical missions and tasks. The policing nature of military police operations does not negate the capability of military police units to perform limited offensive actions to eliminate Level I, II, and III bypassed threats when required. Many tasks aligned within the other military police disciplines (detention operations and security and mobility support) are conducted concurrently to complement the police operations discipline. Police intelligence activities are integrated throughout all military police disciplines; however, the primary role of those activities remains in support of police operations. Physical security, reconnaissance and surveillance, and populace and resource control tasks are typically aligned with the security and mobility support discipline, but are heavily employed in direct support of police operations.

1-11. Police intelligence operations integrated within policing operations in support of decisive action can provide critical analysis and a situational understanding of civil considerations as they relate to HN police systems, organizations, capability, and capacity. Military police and USACIDC units work to reduce the opportunity for criminal activity throughout the AO by assessing the local conditions, conducting police engagement at all levels (including coordinating and maintaining liaison with other Department of Defense (DOD), HN, joint, and multinational agencies), and developing coherent policing strategies. Military police units at all levels coordinate actions to identify and influence crime-conducive conditions. Military police support and develop strategies to maintain order and enforce the rule of law across the range of military operations. See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on police intelligence.

PRINCIPLES OF POLICE OPERATIONS

1-12. The planning and execution of police operations are guided by six principles. These principles do not comprise a rigid checklist; however, they guide how military police units and planners develop plans and execute police operations supporting and technical tasks. The following are the principles of police operations:

- Prevention.
- Public support.
- Restraint.
- Legitimacy.
- Transparency.
- Assessment.

PREVENTION

1-13. Military police conduct policing operations in a manner that emphasizes proactive actions to prevent and deter crime and stop the disruption of civil order. The objective is to be proactive and to prevent crime and potential disruptions to military operations that threaten lines of operation. Fundamental to this approach is the identification of criminal activity and crime-conducive conditions from which trends, patterns, or associations emerge and for which policing strategies are developed. Predictive analysis, performed formally or informally, is essential to prevention strategies and programs. Military police often use proven police strategies, models, and surveys to focus the collection of police information through police activities. Proactive policing activities are enabled through the deliberate application of integrated police intelligence activities by military police and USACIDC elements. If prevention efforts fail, military police are trained for rapid response to resolve problems resulting from incidents occurring within the AO or sphere of influence.

PUBLIC SUPPORT

1-14. Police forces should not be detached from the public they are policing, as successful police forces are nested with the public that they are charged to protect. Police activities and strategies are generally enhanced through the efforts of an involved citizenry that is supportive of the police. In many societies, the public supports police efforts that provide a security, safety, or service benefit to the community if the police force is trustworthy or reasonable. Military police are organized and employed in a manner that facilitates building public support through frequent and continuous interaction with a population. Military police can successfully garner public support as they collect and disseminate information to a community or population

through Soldier and leader engagement. (See FM 3-13 for additional information on information-related capabilities.) Police engagement provides a connection to the public and other police entities as part of community policing initiatives. This is apparent in traditional law enforcement activities and police and protection activities within an operational environment. Police engagement effects can be increased when integrated with ongoing military information support operations programs (such as rule of law) or by being supported by a specific military information support operations program (such as those that support crime reporting).

RESTRAINT

1-15. Lethal capability often differentiates police forces from security, paramilitary, or conventional military forces. The perceived threat of significant violence that is associated with conventional military forces can often prevent conflict, but it may result in tensions in a civilian community. These tensions may lead to disorder and confrontation. Introducing police forces with the appropriate level of lethality often signals a return to rule of law and may reduce community tensions. These forces present a less-threatening force posture that may be more acceptable to the local inhabitants.

1-16. Police activities often complement other graduated-response mechanisms that are intended to reduce violence and disorder within an area by mitigating the unnecessary escalation of force. Military police and other forces that are engaged in police activities among local populations must be capable of exercising restraint in the application of objectively reasonable force to compel compliance from civilians and others. Military police are specifically trained to engage the public and the community within established rules for the use of force along with the rules of engagement in a deployed environment, applying only the required level of force to accomplish the mission. The prudent and measured application of force is often critical to gaining and maintaining public support. Excessive force can alienate the population, undermine police efforts, and pose a threat to friendly forces.

LEGITIMACY

1-17. Police authority is generally accepted as legitimate if it is sanctioned by competent authority and the laws or mandates are applied in a fair and impartial manner. This includes maintaining consistency in applying police activities within a community or across the AO. Police actions that appear to be based on ethnic, religious, personal, or political bias or affiliation generally lack legitimacy, lose public support, and often lead to confrontation or reprisal. Military police and other police personnel maintain a professional bearing and deal with the public in a firm and impartial manner. Law enforcement activities or programs that lead to justice and the effective resolution of problems, conditions, or incidents within the area build and maintain trust within the population.

TRANSPARENCY

1-18. Policies, established principles, leadership intent, and corrective actions that affect police and detention operations and should be open and accessible. This does not mean allowing public access to police files and information regarding ongoing investigations; rather, transparency ensures that personnel, policies, and procedural aspects of police organizations are known and reasonably accessible to the public. This allows for public awareness, scrutiny, and accountability. Military police and USACIDC elements who are conducting police and detention operations must operate in a manner that can withstand public scrutiny. Leaders continuously balance the need for transparency with the operational security requirements necessary for protection.

ASSESSMENT

1-19. Police activities and operations are continually assessed through cause and effect and cost versus benefit analyses. Using trend, pattern, and association data, police personnel focus police efforts to develop or adjust police strategies, identify where criminals or crime-conducive conditions exist, and predict where problems may emerge. Military police and USACIDC elements continuously assess their activities in support of establishing order and determining the progress measured against established measures of effectiveness. This allows leaders to adjust the application of police resources. These assessments develop awareness and

intuitive judgment in police personnel and organizations and identify the subtle changes or variations in societal behavior toward disorder or changes that may signal a deteriorating security environment.

RULE OF LAW

1-20. The rule of law is a principle under which all persons, institutions, and entities (public and private), including the state itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced, and independently adjudicated and that are consistent with international human right principles. The rule of law limits the power of government by setting rules and procedures that prohibit accumulating autocratic power. It dictates government conduct according to prescribed and publicly recognized regulations while protecting the rights of all members of society. It also provides a way to resolve disputes nonviolently and an integral method to establish enduring peace and stability. Generally, the rule of law exists when—

- The state monopolizes the use of force in resolving disputes.
- Individuals and their property are secure.
- The state is bound by law and does not act arbitrarily.
- The law can be readily determined and is stable enough to allow individuals to plan their affairs.
- Individuals have meaningful access to an effective and impartial legal system.
- The state protects human rights and fundamental freedoms.
- Individuals rely on the existence of legal institutions and the content of law in the conduct of their daily lives.

1-21. The rule of law is the foundation upon which the legal system is built, enabling equal and fair treatment in the enforcement, investigation, adjudication, and punishment of offenses. Military police conduct and support activities within the full range of legal systems, from established and mature legal structures (the Uniform Code of Military Justice [UCMJ] and civilian courts in the United States) to near anarchical systems (such as those present in Iraq immediately following the fall of the Ba'athist government). A criminal justice system based on the rule of law provides the laws and legal structure required for police operations, specifically law enforcement activities.

1-22. A functional criminal justice system requires three separate, yet supporting and complementary, legal functions to work effectively:

- Judicial.
- Law enforcement.
- Corrections.

1-23. These functions are critical to the maintenance of the rule of law and the legitimacy of civil authority. The functions of the criminal justice system are inextricably connected and interdependent. Military police support all three functions, although they provide the primary operative elements within law enforcement and corrections activities. Military police support the rule of law and the legitimacy of the government through law enforcement and corrections activities in a manner consistent with the Army ethic and worthy of their professional status. The professional and ethical execution of all domains within the rule of law is critical in establishing and ensuring legitimacy of the government in the eyes of the populace.

1-24. In some operations, a criminal justice system and the rule of law may be virtually nonexistent, corrupt, or infiltrated by destabilizing forces. This may be the case where regimes have been toppled and the existing infrastructure (to include civil security and civil control mechanisms) has been decimated. The immediate aftermath of major disasters (natural and man-made) may also produce environments where the rule of law is nonexistent or ineffective due to a lack of legitimate government control or substantial degradation in capability. In these environments, efforts to establish civil control and civil security (leading to the emergence of a legitimate government based on the rule of law) must be initiated at the earliest feasible point. When possible, these efforts should begin during large-scale combat operations to eliminate significant delays to control and security efforts.

1-25. In certain operational environments, military police may initially operate without a HN police organization or with a fledgling force that cannot match the military police capabilities, numbers, or standards of ethical conduct. In many instances, military police will operate with civilian police from other nations operating under the authority of international organizations (such as the United Nations). See ADP 3-07 for additional information.

1-26. In the United States and its territories, military police work closely with local, state, tribal, and federal law enforcement organizations during normal operations and DSCA events (during natural disasters, large-scale disruptions to the social order, pandemics the technical capabilities) within the limitation of established laws, including Section 1385, Title 18, United States Code (18 USC 1385) (commonly known as the Posse Comitatus Act). See ADP 3-28 for additional information on the Posse Comitatus Act and DSCA.

1-27. Efforts to prosecute threat personnel captured during military operations in civilian criminal courts have placed emphasis on the importance of site exploitation efforts, to include evidence collection, preservation, forensic analysis, and documentation required for prosecution within civilian judicial systems. Adherence to evidentiary and other due process requirements within many operational environments is difficult, at best, and requires specific technical training to be performed properly and to withstand scrutiny at criminal trials. Army law enforcement is uniquely suited to perform these tasks and to provide training and guidance to other Soldiers regarding evidence collection requirements. War crime investigations are typically supported by USACIDC elements.

COMMAND AND CONTROL OF ARMY LAW ENFORCEMENT

1-28. The command or support relationship structure for Army law enforcement assets depends on the specific operational environment and mission set. The exercise of command and control for military police assets is determined on whether police operations are focused internally to police U.S. military personnel and resources or externally to support civil control efforts and provide stability and the rule of law for an HN population. Furthermore, the execution of command and control for Army law enforcement assets also depends on whether the mission is conducted in support of bases and base camps, within an expeditionary environment, or within the context of a DSCA mission.

POLICE OPERATIONS IN SUPPORT OF FRIENDLY FORCES

1-29. Police operations conducted to maintain order and enforce laws on bases and base camps are typically supervised and controlled by a PM through the law enforcement activities center and the provost marshal's office (PMO), working within the directorate of emergency services structure. The PM and the director of emergency services support a garrison commander to enable base operations within their AO. The director of emergency services ensures the execution of law enforcement according to the garrison commander's priorities and in support of base protection efforts. As the chief law enforcement officer, the PM advises the garrison commander on all police operations and provides professional and technical advice concerning policing objectives, policies, and directives. The commander approves the degree of policing required to support order and discipline for ongoing military operations. The PM advises the commander on the means and methods needed to achieve the commander's priorities and requirements. In these instances, the PMO typically requires augmentation by military police units assigned to the base. These military police Soldiers remain under the command of their parent organization, but are under the operational control of the PM when conducting law enforcement activities.

1-30. When supporting U.S. bases and base camps within an expeditionary environment, police operations are typically conducted under the command and control of the senior military police commander. In these cases, after the joint operations area has matured to a point where dedicated policing support to U.S. forces is required, a military police law enforcement detachment can be deployed to conduct police operations in support of the base. The detachment generally operates under the command of a military police brigade or battalion commander who, in turn, supports the base commander. The military police law enforcement detachment requires augmentation from other military police units, depending on the mission variables. This augmentation will normally be provided from military police platoons and companies assigned or attached to the military police brigade or battalion commander responsible for the policing mission.

1-31. In some cases, a military police law enforcement detachment may be deployed to provide law enforcement support to a geographic combatant commander with numerous bases of operation within the area of responsibility. In these cases, the military police law enforcement detachment will typically be located at the largest base. Military police platoons and companies will be tasked to establish military police substations for providing law enforcement support to outlying bases within the area of responsibility. The military police law enforcement detachment will provide these military police substations with police administrative support for processing and maintaining police records. The military police law enforcement detachment will also provide other technical capabilities (traffic management and enforcement, military police investigation, and physical security) to the military police substations, as required.

POLICE OPERATIONS IN SUPPORT OF HOST-NATION POPULATIONS

1-32. The exercise of command and control over military police forces performing police operations in support of a HN population is provided by three primary echelons of military police headquarters units—the military police command, the military police brigade, and the military police battalion. Each echelon has a staff that enables the commander to exercise command and control of military police organizations conducting police operations, detention operations, and security and mobility support. Although military police companies are not typically listed as headquarters elements, it is important to understand that the military police company headquarters may fill the role of the senior military police headquarters in support of a unit (normally when task-organized within a brigade combat team). While the military police company lacks the staff of other military police headquarters, it may still be called upon to provide a limited, but necessary, headquarters role and associated command and control functions of subordinate military police platoons. See FM 3-39 for specific information regarding the capabilities of these headquarters units.

1-33. Military police organizations (brigades, battalions, companies, and platoons organic to brigade combat teams) prepare for and conduct police operations support to establish and maintain civil control by operating in a decentralized manner. Whether operating within a military police brigade command structure or a brigade combat team as a multifunctional brigade, division, or corps, these military police elements will conduct police operations in support of the higher headquarters mission and commander's intent. Decentralized execution allows the commander to direct police operations, as required, to establish and maintain order and civil control within the AO based on specific mission variables. As the AO matures and stabilizes and operations transition to establishing HN police capability and capacity across the joint operations area, police operations will typically be centralized under the command and control of a military police brigade or battalion (depending on the size of the operation).

1-34. Centralized execution is better for managing scarce resources, especially those that can produce effects throughout the AO. It may also be necessary to mass effects decisively in some cases. Centralized execution is also suitable for operations in which greater than normal coordination (within the force, with other Services, or with HN forces) is involved. The centralization of HN police development and training ensures the consistent application of policing across the entire corps or theater AO. A military police brigade or battalion exercising command and control over military police elements performing HN police support ensures that the HN police organization receives consistent training, policy, and operational guidance and support. This consistency is critical to establish and maintain public support and legitimacy. Chapter 6 addresses military police support to HN police.

1-35. When police operations are not centralized within a functional military police structure, military police technical channels are critical to ensure that law enforcement activities are coordinated and synchronized. The consistent application of law enforcement, police training, policies, operational guidance, and support must cover the entire corps or theater AO. The negative impact of the unsynchronized and inconsistent application of police operations and efforts to build HN policing capability in an AO can have significant strategic implications and cause major delays in operational benchmarks. When extensive and long-term military police technical capabilities and uniform effects are required in an AO, military police brigade assets and associated command and control networks and systems specific to military police operations are required to ensure the technical oversight, synchronization, coordination, and consistent application of military police capabilities. This is especially true when stability tasks are dominant within the AO.

UNITED STATES ARMY CRIMINAL INVESTIGATIONS COMMAND ASSETS

1-36. The exercise of command and control of USACIDC special agents (SAs) conducting law enforcement activities is retained within the USACIDC command structure. The headquarters and headquarters detachment military police group (criminal investigation division) provides command and control support, staff planning, policy and technical guidance, supervision of operations, administrative support, and legal advice and guidance for USACIDC elements in its assigned AO. The headquarters and headquarters detachment military police group (criminal investigation division) is assigned to the headquarters USACIDC and provides support to the Army service component command or combatant commander. Other USACIDC organizations include—

- The headquarters and headquarters detachment, military police battalion (criminal investigation division). The battalion provides supervision of operations of subordinate USACIDC elements.
- USACIDC elements that provide USACIDC operations in their assigned AO.

Note. In some instances, USACIDC personnel may be placed under the command and control of a multifunctional commander to provide specific law enforcement technical staff advisory support (such as support associated with the law enforcement professionals program). FM 3-39 provides additional information regarding the law enforcement professionals program.

OPERATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

1-37. The *operational environment* is a composite of the conditions, circumstances, and influences that affect the employment of capabilities and bear on the decisions of the commander (JP 3-0). An operational environment includes physical areas (air, land, maritime, space domains) and the information environment (including cyberspace). The *information environment* is the aggregate of individuals, organizations, and systems that collect, process, disseminate, or act on information (JP 3-13).

1-38. An operational environment for any specific operation involves not only isolated conditions of interacting variables that exist within a specific AO, but also interconnected influences from the global or regional perspective (for example, political, social [crime], and economic) that impact conditions and operations. To be successful in the conduct of military operations, commanders must thoroughly understand and appreciate the changing nature of an operational environment. See ADP 3-0 for additional information on the operational environment.

1-39. The term threat includes any combination of actors, entities, or forces that have the capability and intent to harm U.S. forces, U.S. national interests, or the homeland. Threats include nation-states, organizations, people, groups, or conditions that can damage or destroy life, vital resources, or institutions. The various actors in an AO can qualify as a threat, an enemy, an adversary, or a neutral or friendly. A peer threat is an adversary or enemy with the capabilities and capacity to oppose U.S. forces across multiple domains worldwide or in a specific region where it enjoys a position of relative advantage. Peer threats possess roughly equal combat power to U.S. forces in geographical proximity to a conflict area. See FM 3-0 for additional information on peer threats.

1-40. Land operations often prove complex because actors intermix, often with no easy means to distinguish one from another. Civilians who are sympathetic to the enemy may become significant threats to operations. They may be the most difficult to counter because they are not normally part of an established enemy agent network and their actions may be random and unpredictable.

1-41. Many urban environments include vast, densely packed areas with populations that exceed a million. In urban environments, threats can be difficult to identify due to the often complex nature of the forces and environment. These threats may operate independently or together. Individuals may be active members of one or more groups. Potential urban adversaries share many characteristics. In urban terrain, friendly forces may encounter a variety of potential threats, such as conventional military forces, paramilitary forces, insurgents or guerilla forces, terrorists, common criminals, drug traffickers, warlords, or street gangs.

1-42. Nation-states use criminals and other irregular threat actors to achieve strategic, operational, and tactical objectives while retaining plausible deniability. Nonstate actors, such as terrorist networks and insurgencies, continue to rely on criminal activities to accrue the necessary financial means to sustain forces and operations. Terrorists and insurgents continue to use criminal populations as recruiting pools for new members. State and nonstate actors collaborate with criminal networks to gain access to the critical knowledge, skills, and abilities that they may lack among their forces to generate the necessary synergy to create multiple dilemmas for their opponents.

1-43. The nexus between criminal and irregular threats has grown closer and stronger. Criminal elements have been categorized as a subcategory of irregular threats. Their organizational structure, tactics, and activities are not exclusive to one type of irregular threat. Most criminal activities in the operational environment occur in densely populated urban areas where disorder, crime, and the fear of crime harm civilian populations, weaken developing security forces, destabilize governments, and threaten military operations.

1-44. Irregular and criminal threats continue to attack, manipulate, exploit, and intimidate vulnerable and frustrated populations as ways to discredit governments, gain power and influence, drive disorder and instability, and generate illicit profits. Crime, disorder, and the fear of crime continue to be persistent, debilitating factors that contribute to instability across the operational environment, especially in densely populated urban areas and in weak, failing, and failed states.

1-45. Criminal threats exist at every level of society and in every operational environment. Their presence, regardless of their capabilities, add to the complexity of any operational environment. Criminal threats may be connected with irregular forces or with regular military and/or paramilitary forces of a nation-state. However, criminal threats may pursue criminal activities independent of other actors. For additional information on criminals, see appendix B.

UNIFIED ACTION

1-46. *Unified action* is the synchronization, coordination, and/or integration of the activities of governmental and nongovernmental entities with military operations to achieve unity of effort (JP 1). The complexity of police operations (specifically law enforcement) requires effective external liaisons and cooperative relationships with other U.S. military, civilian, and multinational law enforcement organizations and nonlaw enforcement organizations. The PM or senior military police commander must be prepared to coordinate and synchronize operations with external agencies and organizations to maximize effectiveness. Resource constraints increasingly require external coordination to fill capability and resource gaps. Unified action is especially critical when planning, training for, and responding to crisis situations or large-scale, special-event scenarios. Information sharing and fusion activities also require extensive interagency coordination to maximize effectiveness. See ADP 3-0 for additional information on unified action.

POLICE OPERATIONS ACROSS THE RANGE OF MILITARY OPERATIONS

1-47. The increased requirements to prosecute enemy personnel (captured by military forces within operational environments) for the crimes they commit have significantly increased the relevance and requirement for law enforcement capabilities across the range of military operations. Military police and USACIDC Soldiers provide technical capabilities required for the collection, preservation, and documentation of material and evidence collected at incident sites to support targeting, protection, and criminal prosecution. USACIDC personnel can also provide investigative support of criminal activities leading to prosecution in criminal courts, to include supporting war crime prosecution.

1-48. Police operations are conducted across the range of military operations. Policing and law enforcement tasks associated with police operations are typically conducted simultaneously. The relative emphasis given to policing and law enforcement tasks specifically depends on the operational environment, the level of violence, and the presence of the applicable rule of law. An operational environment characterized by general war will require police operations heavily weighted toward policing tasks, with minimal emphasis on law

enforcement. Operational environments characterized by relative stability and governance under the rule of law will require much more law enforcement activity and less focus on policing tasks. See figure 1-1.

1-49. The U.S. military forces will continue to face a complex array of threats in a myriad of environments. These threats span a range that includes petty criminals, organized criminal elements, complex insurgencies, ideological terrorists, and rogue states with conventional military capabilities. Their organization types range from individuals and small teams to large militaries with complex, hierarchical structures. Current and future operational environments require the U.S. military to engage in operations simultaneously across the range of military operations, from military engagement, security cooperation, and deterrence to major operations and campaigns. The points along the range of military operations are not static and are not exclusive. Even though a joint operations area will generally be characterized by a singular point along the range of military operations, the levels of conflict and corresponding violence may vary within the joint operations area. It is not uncommon to conduct operations at different points along the range of military operations simultaneously within a joint operations area or even within an AO.
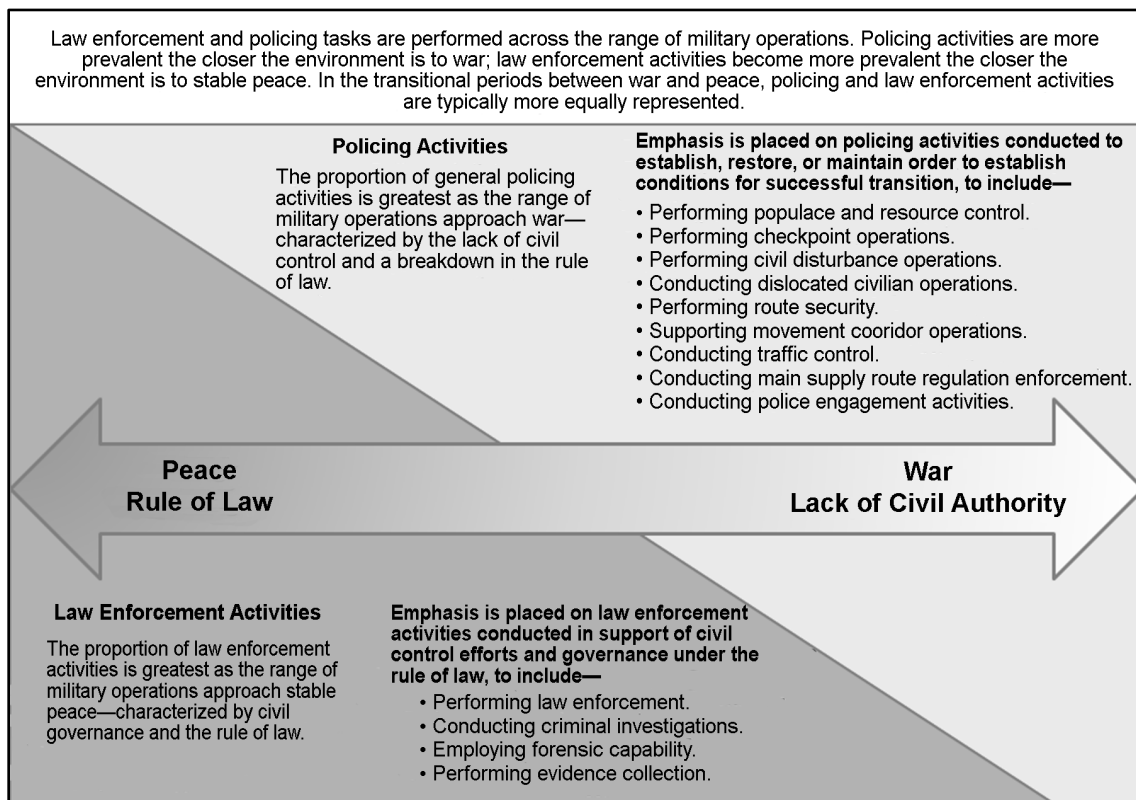
Figure 1-1. Law enforcement and policing operations within the context of the range of military operations

1-50. War includes major operations against a broad variety of threats ranging from standing military forces to armed groups and combinations of these different capabilities. At this end of the conflict continuum, military police and other enablers are integrated to enable freedom of action for friendly forces while denying freedom of action to adversaries. Military police missions include identifying and meeting the challenges associated with the protection of high-risk personnel, facilities, assets, and other aspects not typically associated with close combat. Police operations at this end of the range of military operations are typically limited. They will be focused internally to maintain order and protect sustainment elements. As maneuver elements move forward or establish defensive positions, military police elements may begin initial police engagement efforts with friendly HN, indigenous forces, or multinational forces in the area, setting conditions for police operations in support of civil security and civil control lines of effort as the joint operations area stabilizes.

1-51. As the level of violence decreases, the environment may devolve into an insurgency situation. An insurgency may include the widespread use of small unit tactics, terrorist tactics and criminal activities. Military police support operations at this point are predominantly policing missions that are focused on supporting civil security and civil control efforts, enhancing the commander's freedom of action by enabling freedom of movement, providing area security in designated areas, and supporting detainee or dislocated civilian operations. Military police can help control, limit, or restrict insurgent freedom of action and low level crime in specific areas while supporting HN police and security strategies. Military police conduct deliberate efforts to identify HN police capability and capacity, enforcement gaps, and mechanisms to assess the criminal environment. Through police engagement activities and integrated police intelligence activities, military police and USACIDC personnel can identify conditions conducive to crime or corruption that may be exploited by insurgents, terrorists, or criminals. These assessments lead to initial efforts by military police to regenerate HN police capability and capacity and shape conditions for a return toward rule of law. Military police and USACIDC personnel provide critical technical capabilities for site exploitation relevant to evidence collection, tactical questioning, and law enforcement interrogations (when warranted). See ATP 3-39.12 for additional information on law enforcement investigations.

1-52. When one or more factions threaten or use violence to achieve their objectives, thus threatening the stability of the AO, the condition of the environment may be characterized as unstable peace. Unstable peace may also result when violence levels decrease after conflict. In some cases, external powers may intervene to limit conflict. Preventing a return to violence may require peace operations. Peace operations may be necessary when peace is not immediately achievable. Military police may support these efforts by providing police operations support, as required. This may include recruiting, training, and equipping HN police organizations to build force capability and capacity. A joint operations area characterized by unstable peace may have operating bases that have matured to a point where dedicated police operations may be required to provide law enforcement support to friendly forces living and operating out of the bases.

1-53. At one end of the conflict continuum is peace (stability), characterized by relative order and little or no violence. Peaceful interaction may include cooperation and assistance. Military police may support HN police organizations through partnership and mentorship programs. Typically, during peace operations, these policing activities are the responsibility of the HN. Assistance in response to disaster relief and foreign humanitarian assistance usually includes support to local and HN law enforcement and opportunities that immediately and positively impact the situation. When HN police capability is rendered ineffective by disaster (natural or man-made), military police may be required to provide police operations support to the local population until the HN capability can be regenerated. Military engagement, security cooperation, and deterrence activities sometimes require large numbers of military forces. Forces performing these operations will need infrastructure, facilities, lines of communications, and base camps to support sustainment. Military police will be engaged in protecting these Soldiers and facilities and supporting the commander by maintaining order across the AO.

1-54. Military police must understand the complex environments in which they will be operating and the changing nature of warfare as it transitions along the range of military operations. They must ensure that their efforts are consistent, nested, and conducted within a shared framework as they provide police operations support. Military police are organized, equipped, and trained to conduct police operations at any point. The focus of proactive policing using an offensive mindset, appropriate to the level of violence within the AO, is a critical enabler to overall command objectives.

SUPPORT TO UNIFIED LAND OPERATIONS

1-55. The Army conducts operations across multiple domains and the information environment. An *operation* is a sequence of tactical actions with a common purpose or unifying theme (JP 1). Unified land operations is the Army's contribution to unified action. *Unified land operations* is simultaneous execution of offense, defense, stability, and defense support of civil authorities across multiple domains to shape operational environments, prevent conflict, prevail in large-scale combat, and consolidate gains as part of unified action (ADP 3-0). Unified land operations is executed through decisive action and guided by command and control.

1-56. Successful unified land operations require Army forces to seize, retain, and exploit the initiative by forcing an enemy to respond to friendly action. By presenting multiple dilemmas to an enemy, commanders force the enemy to react continuously until it is finally driven into untenable positions. Seizing the initiative pressures enemy commanders into abandoning their preferred options and making mistakes. Enemy mistakes allow friendly forces to seize opportunities and create new avenues for exploitation. Throughout operations, commanders focus on combat power to defeat enemy forces, protect populations and infrastructure, and consolidate gains to retain the initiative within the overall purpose of an operation.

1-57. Operations to shape consist of various long-term military engagements; security cooperation; and deterrence missions, tasks, and actions intended to assure friends, build partner capacity and capability, and promote regional stability. Operations to shape occur in support of the geographic combatant commander's theater campaign plan or the theater security cooperation plan. These operations help counter actions by adversaries that challenge the stability of a nation or region that is contrary to U.S. interests. Shaping activities are continuous within an area of responsibility. Commanders, PMs, and military police planners must synchronize, integrate, and organize military police capabilities and resources throughout operations to shape and protect U.S. interests and build partner capacity and partnerships.

1-58. Operations to shape include unit home station activities (maintaining operational readiness, training, contingency planning). Combined exercises and training, military exchange programs, and foreign military member attendance at Army schools are examples of home station shaping activities. At home stations, military police conduct law enforcement, criminal investigations, police engagement, corrections, physical security procedures, antiterrorism, and protective services tasks to maintain safe and secure environments that enable commanders to generate, project, and preserve combat power during training and deployment tasks that are associated with Army Sustainable Readiness requirements in support of unified land operations.

1-59. The purpose of operations to prevent is to deter adversary actions that are contrary to U.S. interests. They are conducted in response to activities that threaten unified action partners and require the deployment or repositioning of credible forces in a theater to demonstrate the willingness to fight if deterrence fails (see FM 3-0). Operations to prevent are characterized by actions to protect friendly forces and indicate the intent to execute subsequent phases of a planned operation. Military police support operations to prevent to improve security within partner nations, enhance international legitimacy, gain multinational cooperation, and influence adversary decision making. All Army operations are multi-domain, unfolding across not only land, maritime, air, space, and cyberspace domains but also the electromagnetic spectrum and the information environment.

1-60. Large-scale combat operations, including multiple domain aspects, incur significant operational risk, synchronization complications, capabilities convergence considerations, and high operational tempo. Army forces attack, defend, conduct stability tasks, and consolidate gains to attain national objectives. During large-scale combat operations, Army forces focus on the defeat and destruction of enemy ground forces as part of the joint team. Army forces close with and destroy enemy forces on any terrain, exploit success, and break their opponent's will to resist. Large-scale combat operations are extensive joint combat operations in terms of scope and size of forces committed, conducted as a campaign aimed at achieving operational and strategic objectives. *Large-scale ground combat operations* are sustained combat operations involving multiple corps and divisions (ADP 3-0).

1-61. In large-scale combat operations commanders conduct decisive action to seize, retain, and exploit the initiative. This involves the orchestration of many simultaneous unit actions in the most demanding of operational environments. The scale, scope, tempo, and lethality of large-scale combat exacerbates the dynamic and uncertain nature of war, delaying or making precise cause-and effect determinations difficult. Military police enable Army forces to defeat enemy organizations, control terrain, protect populations, and preserve the joint force by conducting police operations tasks. See FM 3-0 for additional information on multi-domain extended field and large-scale combat operations.

1-62. During periods of armed conflict, military police will continue to protect forces, populations, and critical infrastructure and assets. Military police employ manned-unmanned capabilities, to include military working dog (MWD) teams, to conduct reconnaissance and surveillance of bases, routes, facilities, and storage sites to detect, deter, defeat, or delay enemy forces, criminals, irregular threats, and bypassed conventional forces. Military police defeat Level I and II threats and delay Level three threats until a tactical combat force can arrive.

1-63. Many of the information and operational requirements military police support at home stations are generally the same requirements they support throughout the operational framework during large-scale combat operations. Current assessments of peer competitors, criminals, and irregular threats indicate they will likely operate throughout the operational framework (see figure 1-2). Military police conducting police operations will be countering these threats from home-station installations through the close area. Police operations conducted at home station in the strategic support areas should be considered an extension of police operations conducted in operational and tactical support areas and close areas. Only by treating them as interdependent and interrelated missions will the Army generate the synergies and achieve the desired security effects and outcomes required to prevail during periods of competition and armed conflict.
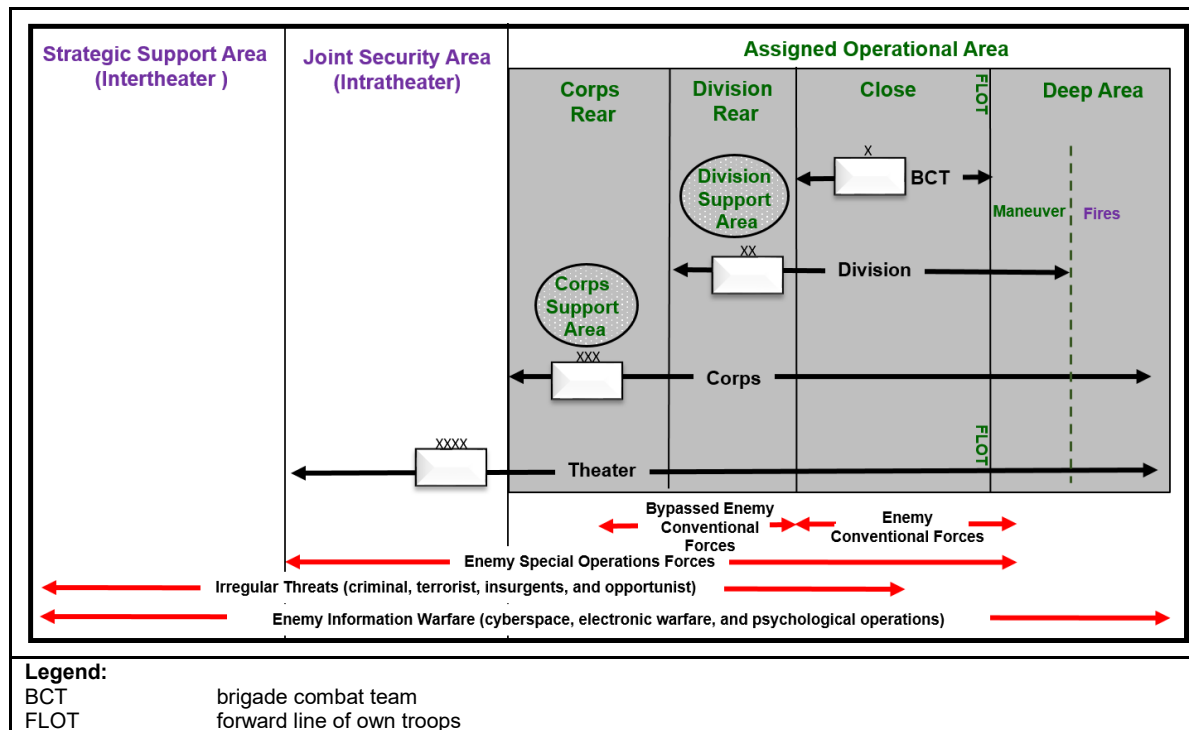
Figure 1-2. Operational framework

1-64. In addition, military police, in coordination with domestic and foreign law enforcement authorities, joint partners, and Army counterintelligence, expand their police operations to protect power projection platforms to ensure friendly forces are able to conduct movement and maneuver. They also conduct physical security inspections, crime prevention assessments, and vulnerability assessments to determine the effectiveness of security measures and to identify potential gaps in security posture. Along with the inspection and assessment results, military police provide unit commanders and facility managers with police intelligence assessments, enabled by biometric and forensic data, to strengthen crime prevention, physical security, and antiterrorism measures.

1-65. *Consolidate gains* are activities to make enduring any temporary operational success and to set the conditions for a sustainable security environment, allowing for a transition of control to legitimate authorities (ADP 3-0). Consolidation of gains activities occur in portions of an AO where large-scale combat operations are no longer occurring. See FM 3-0 for additional information on the consolidation of gains.

1-66. The consolidation of gains is not separate or isolated from large-scale combat operations; consolidation of gains activities are a form of exploitation inherent to large-scale combat operations. Army forces conduct consolidation of gains throughout the range of military operations. Military police that support the consolidation of gains focus police operations priorities toward the performance of the six primary stability tasks as the security situation stabilizes:

- Establish civil security.
- Support to civil control.

- Restore essential services.
- Support to governance.
- Support to economic and infrastructure development.
- Conduct security cooperation.

1-67. Military police execute missions as part of an integrated combined arms effort through decisive action. While some tasks are executed as part of a purely functional unit activity, all executed tasks and missions must be conducted within the intent and in support of the overall combined arms effort. The technical capabilities and tactical tasks associated with the police operations discipline can be applied across the range of military operations (see figure 1-3). Major operations, crisis response, and contingency operations have the potential for close combat. These operations rely on the integration of military police and other enablers to ensure the protection and security of friendly forces while denying freedom of action to adversaries (countermobility). For additional information on military police support to the Army's strategic roles, see FM 3-39.
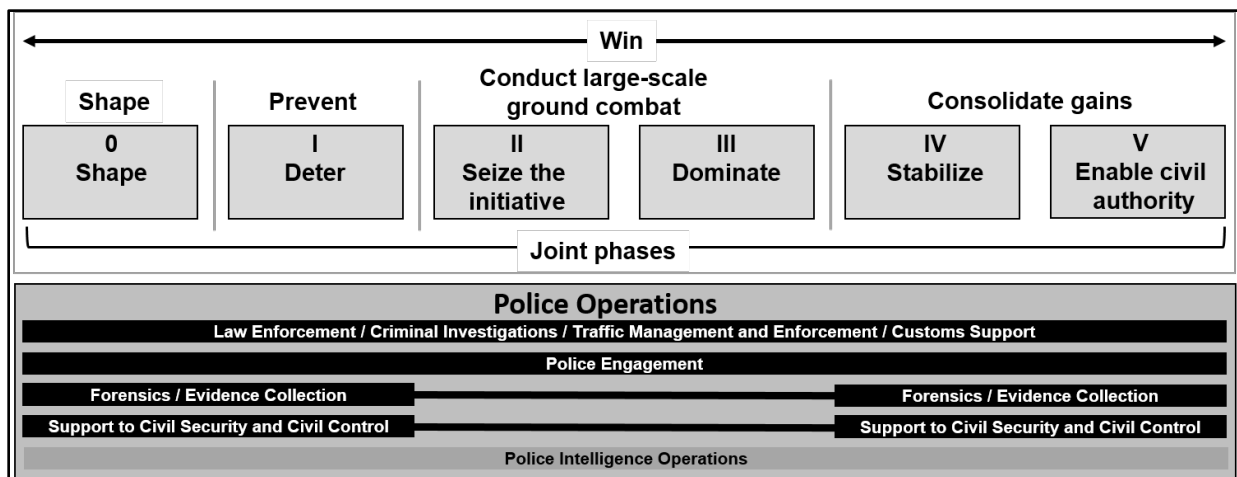
Figure 1-3. Police operations across the strategic roles

SUPPORT TO DECISIVE ACTION

1-68. Army forces may execute a simultaneous and continuous combination of offensive, defensive, and stability operations or DSCA tasks. (See ADP 3-0.) Military police capabilities are relevant within all four operations of decisive action by maintaining good order, enabling freedom of action, providing protection of the force, consolidating gains, and shaping conditions for the successful transition from combat operations to civilian governance under the rule of law. Police operations support to decisive action includes a wide range of missions and tasks that support uninterrupted movement, allow maneuver forces to preserve combat power so that it may be best applied at decisive points and times, and foster rapid transitions in operations.

1-69. Throughout all operations, USACIDC elements conduct required criminal investigations regarding war crimes, detainee abuse, U.S. military and civilian employees, contractor personnel, and other persons accompanying the force. USACIDC SAs may also be assigned to brigade and higher-level staffs within the PM section, to military police brigades, or military police battalions to support police operations planning, police intelligence activities, and site exploitation. (See ATP 3-90.15 for additional information on site exploitation.) USACIDC SAs assigned or attached outside of the USACIDC command structure are not authorized to conduct felony law enforcement investigative operations. (See AR 195-2.) Specific police operations-related tasks that support decisive action include—

- Conducting police station operations.
- Conducting criminal investigations.
- Conducting traffic management and enforcement.
- Employing forensic and biometric capabilities.

- Conducting police engagement.
- Conducting temporary detention of personnel.
- Providing protective services for selected individuals and high-risk personnel security.
- Conducting law enforcement raids.
- Conducting critical site security.
- Providing customs support.
- Restoring and maintaining order.
- Conducting border control, security, and freedom of movement operations.
- Restoring public safety and order.
- Performing HN police training and support.
- Providing support to civil law enforcement.

1-70. Military police conduct police operations in support of decisive action within three contexts or conditions, including support of the following:

- A commander's internal efforts to maintain good order and discipline (such as providing support for bases and base camps). In this context, the application of the police operations discipline is focused internally at policing our own Soldiers and civilians and deterring, mitigating, and preventing criminal and terrorist threats. Police operations within this context are critical to preserving combat power and enabling commanders to focus on their primary missions. Deliberate police operations are significantly reduced during large-scale operations in immature theaters. Minor infractions are typically handled by the chain of command without direct military police support. USACIDC conducts criminal investigations of major crimes (including those involving death, serious bodily injury, and war crimes) regardless of the environment or relative maturity of the joint operations area.
- A commander's efforts to establish and maintain civil security and civil control within an AO to enable self-governance under the rule of law. This application is focused externally on policing and law enforcement activities targeting the local population in an operational environment where policing and security capability is nonexistent or inadequate. The goal of any police operation within an AO is the eventual transition of all policing and law enforcement activities to local authorities.
- Local law enforcement agencies within the United States or its territories in times of crisis during DSCA:
  - United States Army National Guard military police elements that regularly support their respective state governors in this function while operating as state assets under 32 USC.
  - United States Army Reserve and Regular Army military police elements, including federalized National Guard Soldiers, generally prohibited from direct participation in law enforcement. See ADP 3-28 for additional information on DSCA and a more complete discussion of the legal authorities and restrictions pertaining to police operations support to civilian law enforcement authorities in the United States.

OFFENSIVE OPERATIONS

1-71. An *offensive operation* is an operation to defeat or destroy enemy forces and gain control of terrain, resources, and population centers (ADP 3-0). Offensive operations can be conducted across the range of military operations. Due to the pace, level of violence, and intent, police operations are typically limited during offensive and defensive tasks to the early shaping operations conducted to establish conditions to prepare follow-on efforts for civil security and civil control. These tasks may include military police, with other elements, beginning initial efforts to restore and maintain order in areas passed by maneuver forces. Military police also initiate police engagement activities to support the collection of police information to establish the identification of criminal elements and crime conducive conditions. Early assessments of the criminal environment, and initial efforts identify criminal actors, crime, disorder, and the fear of crime that may impact operations and it establishes rapport with existing local police or friendly security elements. While extensive police operations during offensive and defensive operations are typically not possible, early and proactive and offensive oriented efforts are done to rapidly restore order and conduct police engagement.

These tasks are conducted to establish a secure environment, increase situational understanding of the criminal environment, and build trust within the local population. These tasks are critical enablers to the successful transition to stability operations and an eventual return to rule of law.

1-72. Military police elements can provide technical capabilities to identify, gather, preserve, and document evidence located as a result of offensive tasks and at incident sites within the AO. Integrated police intelligence activities conducted by police intelligence analysts within PM sections or law enforcement personnel attached to maneuver units can assist commanders by providing enhanced situational understanding of the criminal and threat environment.

DEFENSIVE OPERATIONS

1-73. A *defensive operation* is an operation to defeat an enemy attack, gain time, economize forces, and develop conditions favorable for offensive or stability operations (ADP 3-0). Police operations during the defense are similar to those in the offense, but can be more deliberate and focused due to the relatively static nature of defensive operations. Generally, interior lines of communications are more stable during defensive operations. This relative stability in unit locations and operations within the AO allows for more aggressive and thorough police engagement activities which, when enabled by integrated police and other intelligence, can result in a better understanding of the criminal environment and generate positive relationships with local police, the local population, community leaders, other governmental agencies, and nongovernmental organizations throughout the AO. This condition sets the stage for successful stability tasks and support for U.S. forces if offensive tasks are required.

1-74. Police operations within population centers and rural areas throughout the AO can be effective in restoring and maintaining order and enabling the transition to deliberate law enforcement activities. If police capability and capacity is significantly degraded or destroyed throughout the AO, military police may be required to conduct initial police operations to restore and maintain order within the population with little or no assistance from local authorities. Optimally, any available police capability that is friendly to U.S. forces will be employed to conduct law enforcement and policing activities to support populations throughout the AO. Police operations during a defense mission can identify and prevent or mitigate criminal and terrorist threats against U.S. personnel and resources. They can enhance a commander's protection efforts and preserve combat power.

STABILITY TASKS

1-75. A *stability operation* is an operation conducted outside the United States in coordination with other instruments of national power to establish or maintain a secure environment and provide essential governmental services, emergency infrastructure reconstruction, and humanitarian relief (ADP 3-0). These operations support governance by a HN, an interim government, or a military government. Stability operations occur before, after, or simultaneously with offensive and defensive operations. Stability operations lead to an environment where a legitimate authority or other instruments of national power can be leveraged. Legitimate governments without legitimate police forces can result in disgruntled and unsupportive populations. One key to local security often lies in the effectiveness and legitimacy of the police. See ADP 3-07 for additional information on stability tasks.

1-76. Military police support stability tasks through the conduct of the military police disciplines; however, military police missions will typically be prioritized to focus military police capabilities and effort toward policing tasks to build the capacity of a HN, an interim government, or a military government police, security, and military forces supporting efforts to restore public order and enable transition toward rule of law. While building or establishing law enforcement capability for a country, military police may be required to conduct law enforcement for the civilian populations to simultaneously help restore order and rebuild police infrastructures.

1-77. In stability tasks, police operations and integrated police intelligence activities are synchronized and integrated within the information collection plan help military police and USACIDC elements detect, identify, and track criminal and other threats. Military police share police information and conduct joint police operations with local police and other civilian law enforcement and security agencies (such as international police agencies or a police force provided by a United Nations effort). These agencies provide

an important service during the transition from conflict to postconflict missions by assisting the HN, an interim government, or a military government with developing and training new police officers and increasing their capabilities and capacities.

1-78. During the conduct of prolonged stability operations, more extensive police operations in support of U.S. forces may be required, mirroring the support provided at a home stations. As a theater matures and base camps grow in size, population, and varied demographics, the level of criminal activity and requirements for common law enforcement tasks (traffic management and enforcement) increase beyond the capability of unit commanders. Military police will typically establish PMOs that are manned and equipped to provide police operations support to U.S. forces operating from relatively mature bases in support of military operations overseas. Base or geographic commanders will typically request military police law enforcement support within their base camps, based on the relative maturity of the base camp and increased indicators (speeding, traffic accidents, larcenies, contraband concerns, other impediments to the good order and discipline of the force) that a dedicated law enforcement capability is required. If the base commander or commander of the AO has not directed dedicated police operations support, the PM or senior military police commander may recommend establishing a PMO based on the previously stated indicators.

DEFENSE SUPPORT OF CIVIL AUTHORITIES

1-79. *Defense support of civil authorities* is support provided by U.S. Federal military forces, DOD civilians, DOD contract personnel, DOD component assets, and National Guard forces (when the Secretary of Defense, in coordination with the Governors of the affected States, elects and requests to use those forces in Title 32, USC, status) in response to requests for assistance from civil authorities for domestic emergencies, law enforcement support, and other domestic activities, or from qualifying entities for special events (DODD 3025.18). Military police support to domestic operations is constrained by various laws. (See ADP 3-28.) It is accurate to say that most military police tasks performed in domestic support are common to overseas operations; however, military police conduct them under very different conditions.

> *Note.* State and local governments have the primary responsibility for protecting life and property and maintaining law and order in the civilian community. Supplementary responsibility is vested by statute in specific agencies of the U.S. Government other than the DOD.

1-80. Police operations by military police in DSCA tasks are typically limited to support tasks. The Posse Comitatus Act specifically restricts the use of military forces to enforce civilian laws within the United States. National Guard elements operating under state control are not restricted by the Posse Comitatus Act. (See 32 USC.) After National Guard elements are mobilized under federal authority, they become subject to the Posse Comitatus Act restrictions. (See ADP 3-28 for additional information on DSCA and a more complete discussion of the legal authorities and restrictions pertaining to military police support to civilian law enforcement authorities within the United States.) There are exceptions to the Posse Comitatus Act, which can be enacted by the President or the Secretary of Defense during operations within the United States. The Posse Comitatus Act applies to military personnel operating under federal authority. See 10 USC.

1-81. United States Army MWD teams provide support to local, state, and federal law enforcement agencies; the Department of State; and the United States Secret Service. The United States Army MWD program may also provide MWD teams to support ongoing law enforcement activities (such as the control of U.S. borders during counterdrug operations and authorized law enforcement counterdrug operations as defined in DODD 5200.31E).

Chapter 2

Police Operations Integration

Police operations requirements are identified and synchronized during the planning activities of the operations process, requiring the critical reasoning skills and problem-solving techniques inherent in established Army planning. Police operations are complex and resource-intensive with regard to time, manpower, technical skills, equipment, and sustainment resources. Military police commanders and staffs conduct extensive and proactive coordination when planning, preparing, organizing, and assessing the conduct of police operations in support of Army operations.

SECTION I - PLANNING, PREPARING, EXECUTING AND ASSESSING POLICE OPERATIONS

2-1. The operations process is a commander-led activity informed by command and control principles. It consists of the major command and control activities performed during operations: planning, preparing, executing, and continuously assessing an operation (see figure 2-1). These activities may be sequential or simultaneous. They are rarely discrete and often involve a great deal of overlap. Commanders use the operations process to drive the planning necessary to understand, visualize, and describe their unique operational environments; make and articulate decisions; and direct, lead, and assess military operations. See ADP 5-0 for a detailed discussion of the operations process.
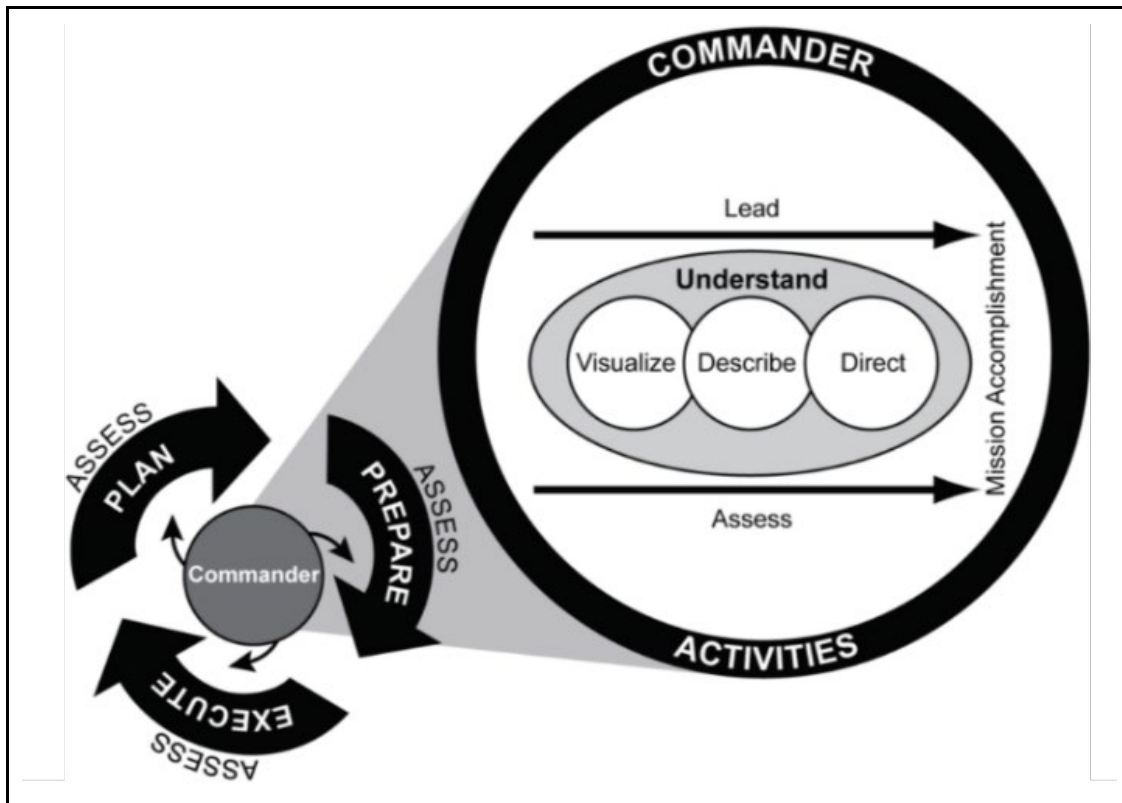
Figure 2-1. The operations process

2-2.   The commander begins visualizing policing strategies and solutions, describes the concept and intent to the staff, and helps drive the planning process and courses of action development. Through constant assessment, the commander obtains enough information to begin directing the staff to achieve those tasks necessary to support the rule of law, protect to maintain law and order, safety, and other matters affecting the general welfare of the population based on the current and potential criminal threats (see appendix B for additional information on criminal threats). Figure 2-2 shows how police intelligence operations (integrated tasks) drives planning, preparation, execution and assessments of police operations.

Plan		Preparation	Execute
Military police continuously conduct police intelligence operations to drive planning, preparation, execution and assessments of police operations until objectives, effects, and outcomes are achieved.			
Army Design Methodology Military Police use conceptual planning to - • Frame the operational environment using police information and intelligence *Note. When legally permissible, police intelligence is fused with traditional military intelligence to provide commanders situational understanding of the operational environment.* • Inform solutions and an operational approach to reduce and defeat crime, disorder and the fear of crime using policing strategies, evidence-based practices, and Army processes and tactics.	**Military Decision Making Process** Military Police use detailed planning to - • Inform IPB and update earlier assessments of the operational environment using police information and intelligence. • Develop, analyze, and compare courses of action using tailored crime prevention strategies designed to reduce and defeat crime, disorder and the fear of crime. • Select best the coarse of action (crime prevention strategy). • Publish the order.	Military police commander's and leader's approve crime prevention strategy/plan and begin preparations for implementation. Activities conducted during the preparation phase may include – • Conduct confirmation briefings. • Conduct continuous liaison with mission and community partners. • Acquire and distribute resources. • Conduct rehearsals, checks, and inspections. • Complete task organization. • Integrate unified action partners. • Initiate movement and/or pre-stage units, personnel, and or resources. • Initiate communications network preparations. • Initiate security operations. • Manage and prepare terrain. • Conduct reconnaissance and surveillance. • Continue to collect information and update police intelligence assessments. • Complete training and certification requirements. • Continue to refine strategy/plan. • Conduct plans-to-operations transition	Military police commanders and leaders direct the execution of the crime prevention strategy/plan. Activities conducted during the execution phase may include – • Position leaders at critical points and times to facilitate decision making and to maximize effects and outcomes. • Reinforce or exploit successes by committing additional units, personnel, and or resources as required. • Conduct continual assessments to ensure tactics are enabling units to achieve the targeted objectives, effects, and outcomes. • Continue to collect information and update police intelligence assessments. • Collect lessons learned. • Conduct continuous engagements with unified action partners. • Refine the strategy/plan based on updated police intelligence, assessments, and lessons learned. • Introduce new tactics, stakeholders, units, personnel, if plan is not achieving desired results. • Close out strategy/plan. • Maintain situational awareness of the operational environment to ensure new problems do not emerge or take hold.
Assess			
Has the problem and its root causes been accurately identified and described?	Does the desired end state support the overall campaign or community objectives?	Are the courses of action capable of eliminating the problems root cause?	Is the crime prevention strategy being executed as planned?	Is the crime prevention strategy achieving its desired effects and outcomes?	Is the crime prevention strategy affordable, Cost-efficient, and Sustainable?
Police intelligence operations provide military police critical police information and intelligence tor inform and assess measures of performance and measures of effectiveness.			
Legend: IPB intelligence preparation of the battlefield			

Figure 2-2. Police intelligence operations drives police operations

PLANNING

2-3.   *Planning* is the art and science of understanding a situation, envisioning a desired future, and determining effective ways to bring that future about (ADP 5-0). Planning consists of two separate but interrelated components: a conceptual component and a detailed component. Successful planning requires the integration of both components. Army leaders employ three methodologies for planning: the Army design methodology, the military decisionmaking process (MDMP), and troop leading procedures. Commanders determine how much of each methodology to use based on the scope of the problem, their familiarity with the methodology, the echelon, and the time available.

2-4.   Military police commanders and staffs consider many factors when planning for police operations. Within environments where police operations are ongoing, planning often involves identifying enforcement and security gaps; shifts or changes in criminal activity; changes in technology, policy, or command

guidance; and threats or hazards within the environment. Policing planning is typically focused on conditions, capabilities, and capacities related to police and prison structures, organized criminal elements, legal systems, investigations and interviews, crime-conducive conditions, and enforcement gaps and mechanisms (POLICE). See ATP 3-39.20 for a detailed discussion of POLICE and associated assessments.

2-5.   Planning and subsequent changes to police operations within this context typically require incremental changes to existing police operations rather than major shifts in police strategy or resources. In some cases, this includes specific events, major crisis situations, or changes in threat to the Army community (including personnel and resources). Typically, a change to operations may require relatively short-term organizational and operational adjustments to address a specific event, crisis, or threat. Some factors that planners may need to consider include—

- Police intelligence assessments that accurately identify problems and their level harm (severe, high, moderate, or low).
- Policing models and strategies.
- Patrol areas and distribution.
- Manpower and mission requirements.
- Patrol methods.
- Specialized capabilities employment (MWD [see ATP 3-39.34], traffic enforcement units).
- Police engagement activities.
  - Interagency collaboration and fusion.
  - The development of police engagement themes and talking points for law enforcement patrols, military police staff, and law enforcement investigators.
  - Public information campaigns.
- Integration and upgrades of supporting technology (lighting, surveillance cameras, biometric and forensic technologies, automations and communications systems, alarms and alarm monitoring, special-response equipment).
- Critical-incident and special-event planning.
- Memorandums of agreement and memorandums of understanding with area agencies and organizations.
- Historical trends of calls for law enforcement services.

ARMY DESIGN METHODOLOGY

2-6.   *Army design methodology* is a methodology for applying critical and creative thinking to understand, visualize, and describe problems and approaches to solving them (ADP 5-0). It includes interconnected thinking activities that aid in conceptual planning and decision making. By first framing an operational environment and associated problems, it enables commanders and staffs to think about the situation in depth. From this understanding, commanders and staffs develop a more informed approach to solve or manage identified problems. Police operations contribute to the Army design methodology by helping commanders and staffs form an understanding of the operational environment, identify problems associated with criminal and other irregular threats, and develop possible solutions that address the crime, the criminal, and instability aspects of the operational environment to promote enduring and stable outcomes. During operations, the Army design methodology supports organizational learning through reframing—a maturing of understanding that leads to a new perspective on problems or resolutions.

2-7.   The integration of police intelligence operations throughout all police operations provides commanders and staffs valuable police information and police intelligence. This information and intelligence can assist commanders and staffs in framing and reframing the operational environment, problems, and potential environment, solutions throughout the execution of police operations to reduce and defeat crime, disorder and the fear of crime. Police operations supports the Army design methodology by continuously assessing and contributing to the commander and staff understanding of crime and criminal threats. See ATP 5-0.1 for greater details on the Army design methodology.

Framing an Operational Environment

2-8.   Framing an operational environment involves critical and creative thinking by a group to build models that represent the current conditions of the operational environment (current state) and models that represent what the operational environment should look like at the conclusion of an operation (desired end state). The planning team also models the future natural tendency of the operational environment and constructs models of desired future states of other actors as points of comparison with the desired end state. Members of the planning team capture their work in an environmental frame (visual models supported by narratives) that describes and shows the relationship among the operational variables, including the social relationships and motivations of relevant actors for the current and future states of an operational environment.

Framing Problems

2-9.   Identifying and understanding problems are essential for solving problems. As the commander and planning team gain an initial understanding of an operational environment, they shift their efforts to identifying and understanding those issues impeding progress toward achieving the desired end state. Through critical thinking and dialogue, the planning team frames problems by examining the differences between the current state of an operational environment and the desired end state. They also examine the differences between the natural tendency of an operational environment and desired future states of relevant actors with the desired end state. These differences are tensions (frictions, conflicts, competitions) between relevant actors, including geographic, demographic, economic, religious, and resource consumption trends. Combined, these tensions represent a set of interrelated problems (a system of problems) that requires resolution. Crime and criminal networks are often woven into the fabric of a given system. Whether criminal networks facilitate other irregular threat networks through illicit financing or they control populations directly themselves, they often contribute significantly to the overall problems that the commander and staff seek to solve.

Framing Solutions

2-10. With an understanding of the operational environment and its associated problems, including crime and the criminal aspects of those problems, the commander and planning team consider an operational approach—the broad, general actions and means to solve or manage identified problems. The commander and planning team use elements of operational art to visualize and describe the operational approach. In developing the operational approach, the commander and planning team consider the resources to support the operational approach and the associated risk. The team describes the operational approach in a visual model with supporting text. The operational approach forms the basis for the commander's planning guidance used to develop an operations order or operations plan during the MDMP. Given an adequate understanding of the crime aspects of the operational environment and problems, commanders are supported by the contributions of military police staff and police intelligence analysts who can help incorporate crime considerations into the overall adopted operational approach.

Reframing

2-11. Assessment precedes and guides the other activities (plan, prepare, and execute) of the operations process. Assessment involves comparing forecasted outcomes with events to determine the effectiveness of force employment. Assessment helps the commander determine progress toward attaining the desired end state, achieving objectives, and performing tasks. It involves monitoring and evaluating the operational environment to determine what changes affect operations; however, operations may not proceed as visualized during planning. Commanders reframe after assessing that desired conditions have changed or are unattainable by executing the current plan (including associated branches and sequels). Reframing includes revisiting early hypotheses, conclusions, and the operational approach that underpins the current plan. In reframing, the commander and staff revise their understanding of the operational environment and problem. If required, they develop a new operational approach to overcome the challenges or opportunities that precipitated the need to reframe.

MILITARY DECISIONMAKING PROCESS

2-12. The MDMP is an iterative planning methodology. It integrates activities of the commander, staff, subordinate headquarters, and other partners. This integration enables them to understand the situation and mission; develop, analyze, and compare courses of action; decide on the course of action that best accomplishes the mission; and produce an order for execution. The MDMP applies to both conceptual and detailed approaches. It is most closely associated with detailed planning.

2-13. For unfamiliar problems, executable solutions typically require integrating the Army design methodology with the MDMP. The MDMP helps leaders apply thoroughness, clarity, sound judgment, logic, and professional knowledge, so they understand situations, develop options to solve problems, and reach decisions. This process helps commanders, staffs, and others to think critically and creatively while planning. See FM 6-0 for more information on the MDMP and ATP 5-0.1 for more information on the Army design methodology.

2-14. Police operations planning includes considerations unique to reducing and defeating crime, disorder and the fear of crime that may impact military operations, the particular situation, or a specific mission. Some considerations are more generic and can be summarized for a broad reference in any application of the MDMP. Focused primarily at operational-level planning, table 2-1 lists some of the generic police operations planning considerations as they pertain to the operations process and each step of the MDMP.

Table 2-1. Police operations considerations in the military decisionmaking planning, preparation, execution, and assessment processes

Key Inputs	MDMP	Police Operations Support Actions	Key Outputs
Higher headquarters plan or order or a new mission anticipated by the commander	Step 1 – Receipt of the Mission Warning Order	Perform an initial crime and criminal threat assessment. Determine legal restrictions. Determine theater requirements. Understand the commander's intent and time constraints. Request a map, satellite photographs, information, and intelligence about the AO. Participate in planning boards and working groups that impact police operations or when police operations may impact Army operations.	Commander's initial guidance Initial allocation of time
Higher headquarters knowledge and intelligence products. Knowledge products from other organizations. Crime analysis and criminal intelligence. Theater specific police operations requirements.	Step 2 – Mission Analysis Warning Order	Enhance IPB (crime). Determine key police operations tasks. Conduct crime and criminal assessment. Determine police operations resource constraints. Generate police operation specific CCIR/EEFI. Enhance information collection to look for terrorist and criminal activity.	Problem statement Mission statement Initial commander's intent Initial planning guidance Initial CCIR and EEFI Updated IPB and running estimates Crime assessment

Table 2-1. Police operations considerations in the military decisionmaking planning, preparation, execution, and assessment processes (continued)

Key Inputs	MDMP	Police Operations Support Actions	Key Outputs
	Step 2 – Mission Analysis (continued)	Brief the commander on criminal influences.	
Problem statement. Mission statement. Initial commander's intent, planning guidance, CCIR, and EEFI Updated IPB and running estimate	**Step 3 – COA Development**	Determine the risk tolerance and risk mitigation for each COA (probability versus severity). Brief the commander on key police operations tasks that can be applied across all COAs. Identify priority police operations requirements, including essential tasks developed during mission analysis. Integrate military police support into COA development.	COA statements and sketches Revised planning guidance
Updated running estimates. Revised planning guidance. COA statements and sketches	**Step 4 – COA Analysis**	Assist the S-2 in developing Criminal COAs. Assist the S-3 in developing defenses. War-game and refine each COA of the military police plan.	Refined COAs. Potential decision points. War-gaming results. Initial assessment measures.
Updated running estimates. Refined COAs Evaluation criteria War-gaming results	**Step 5 – COA Analysis**	Identify advantages and disadvantages. Develop the recommended COA. Refine COAs.	Evaluated COAs Recommended COA Updated running estimates
Updated running estimates Evaluated COAs Recommended COA	**Step 6 – COA Approval** Warning Order	Refine the commander's intent Assist with CCIR, and EEFI police crime threat updates. Gain approval of the essential military police tasks and priorities, as required. Determine required resources to conduct police operations in support of the COA.	Commander's selected COA and modifications Refined commander's intent, CCIR, and EEFI

Table 2-1. Police operations considerations in the military decisionmaking planning, preparation, execution, and assessment processes (continued)

Key Inputs	MDMP	Police Operations Support Actions	Key Outputs
Commander's selected COA with modifications Refined commander's intent, CCIR, and EEFI	**Step 7 – Orders Production, Dissemination, and Transition**	Review (and provide input for) the appropriate plans and orders. Write the police operations plan. Develop the police operations appendix of Annex E, Protection. Ensure that resources are properly allocated. Ensure that subordinates understand the OPLAN/OPORD. Conduct training and exercises.	Approved operation plan or order Police operations plan/appendix Policing model and strategies Special response considerations (bomb, active shooter, hostage)

Legend:

AO	area of operations	OPORD	operation order
CCIR	commander's critical information requirements	OPLAN	operation plan
COA	course of action	S-2	battalion or brigade intelligence staff officer
EEFI	essential elements of friendly information		
IPB	intelligence preparation of the battlefield	S-3	battalion or brigade operations staff officer
MDMP	military decisionmaking process		

TROOP LEADING PROCEDURES

2-15. Troop leading procedures is a dynamic process used by small-unit leaders to analyze a mission, develop a plan, and prepare for an operation. Heavily weighted in favor of familiar problems and short planning periods, troop leading procedures are typically employed by organizations without staffs at the company level and below. Leaders use troop leading procedures to solve tactical problems when working alone or with a small group. For example, a company commander may use the executive officer, first sergeant, supply sergeant, and communications sergeant to help during troop leading procedures. See ADP 5-0 for more information on troop leading procedures.

PREPARING

2-16. *Preparation* consists of those activities performed by units and Soldiers to improve their ability to execute an operation (ADP 5-0). Preparation creates conditions that improve friendly forces' opportunities for success. It requires commander, staff, unit, and Soldier actions to ensure the force is trained, equipped, and ready to execute operations. Preparation activities help commanders, staffs, and Soldiers understand a situation and their roles in upcoming operations and set conditions for successful execution. Preparation creates conditions that improve military police friendly force opportunities for success. Some primary functions of preparation include—

- Improving situational understanding of criminal threats throughout the AO.
- Developing a common understanding of policing models and strategies.
- Training on and becoming proficient in law enforcement and policing critical tasks.
- Integrating, organizing, and configuring police operations to focus on criminal activity and crime prevention.
- Ensuring that forces and resources are ready and positioned to conduct law enforcement investigations, identify criminal networks, solve crimes, and close criminal investigations.

2-17. Police operations, police intelligence, and traditional intelligence (abroad) are linked and will continue to be a critical part in the conduct preparing for police operations at home station and abroad. Commanders, PMs, and law enforcement investigators generate intelligence requirements needed for situational understanding and decision making regarding crime, disorder, and the fear of crime throughout an AO.

EXECUTION

2-18. *Execution* is the act of putting a plan into action by applying combat power to accomplish the mission and adjusting operations based on changes in the situation (ADP 5-0). Commanders and staffs use situational understanding to assess progress and make execution and adjustment decisions. In execution, commanders and staffs focus their efforts on translating decisions into actions. They apply combat power to seize, retain, and exploit the initiative to gain and maintain a position of relative advantage. This is the essence of unified land operations.

2-19. Military police execute police operations to enable commanders to maintain order and discipline within the ranks of their formation. This is the most visible application of the police operations discipline to most Army personnel, and it includes law enforcement in support of bases and base camps. Through the execution of garrison law enforcement military police gain critical interpersonal skills and technical policing and investigative capabilities critical to police operations in any operational environment.

2-20. Outside of U.S. territories, military police execute police operations to maintain discipline and preserve the combat power of U.S. forces and establish or preserve civil security, civil control, and the rule of law in coordination with the HN. In many operations, especially following large-scale combat operations or disasters in which law enforcement capabilities have been destroyed or rendered ineffective, military police provide support to civil security and civil control to establish a stable and secure environment. Military police execute the police operations discipline early in these operations to set conditions for the successful transition to stability and the eventual transfer of authority to local and national police and security elements. As stability becomes the dominant operation in an operational environment, the focused demand for military police capabilities generally transitions from primarily security and mobility support to police operations. Stability produces the highest magnitude of requirements for police operations within the context of the range of military operations. As stability becomes the dominant operation in an operational environment, the focused demand for military police capabilities generally transitions from primarily security and mobility support to police operations. Stability produces the highest magnitude of requirements for police operations within the context of the range of military operations.

ASSESSMENT

2-21. *Assessment* is determination of the progress toward accomplishing a task, creating a condition, or achieving an objective (JP 3-0). Assessment precedes and then occurs during the other activities of the operations process. Assessment involves deliberately comparing forecasted outcomes with actual events to determine the overall effectiveness of force employment. Assessment helps commanders determine progress toward achieving a desired end state, accomplishing objectives, and performing tasks. Figure 2-3 shows the activities of assessment, which includes—

- Monitoring the current situation to collect relevant information.
- Evaluating progress toward attaining end state conditions, achieving objectives, and performing tasks.
- Recommending or directing action for improvement.
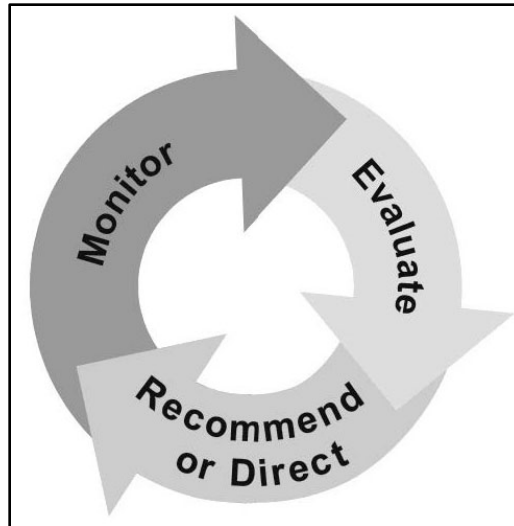
Figure 2-3. Activities of assessment

2-22. Assessment is a continuous activity of the operations process that helps military police commanders, PMs, and staffs to recognize variations from initial assumptions and visualizations that subsequently could enable the identification of faulty planning. An assessment can identify changes in the operational environment that may require a revision in planning or changes to operations. The primary tools for assessing any operation include operations orders, commander's observations, running estimates, and assessment planning (measures of effectiveness, measures of performance, reframing criteria). The commander's visualization forms the basis for the commander's personal assessment of progress. See ADP 5-0.

2-23. Continuous assessment enables the military police commander, PM, and staff to make adjustments when minor variances or environmental changes are detected. It also allows the commander to conduct a major reframing of visualization and significant shifts in planning and operational execution when major variances are identified. A variance indicates a difference between the actual situation during an operation and what the plan forecasted the situation would be at that time or event. Continuous assessment enables military police and USACIDC elements to adapt to a fluid and changing environment and evolving situational understanding. The running estimate is the staff mechanism to document continuous assessments of the current and future environment. See FM 6-0 for additional information on continuous assessment and running estimates.

2-24. During planning, commanders and staffs identify likely changes to the operational environment and options and actions required in the event that these changes reach identified thresholds. During execution, commanders and staffs monitor the situation to identify changes in conditions through change indicators. These change indicators can result from—

- Direct friendly or threat actions.
- Second- or third-order effects of friendly or threat actions.
- Natural or man-made conditions beyond the control of friendly or threat forces (natural disasters, interventions by third-party elements).

2-25. Additionally, commanders must assess the magnitude and impact (positive or negative) of identified change indicators on friendly operations. Finally, they must identify opportunities and risks associated with the change indicators and determine what changes to friendly operations are required to address the identified conditions. Military police and USACIDC establish and use measures of performance and measures of effectiveness to evaluate ongoing operations. It is critical for the staff to understand the use of these assessment tools and employ them effectively.

MEASURES OF PERFORMANCE

2-26. A *measure of performance* is an indicator used to measure a friendly action that is tied to measuring task accomplishment (JP 5-0). A measure of performance is friendly force-oriented, and it evaluates tasks accomplishment to determine whether a task was performed properly. Measures of performance gauge task completion and are typically reflected within execution matrixes. They measure success relative to the *what* in the mission statement. (See ADP 5-0.) Measures of performance are typically straightforward and relatively easy to identify, as opposed to measures of effectiveness, which tend to be more difficult to correctly identify. Measures of performance can typically be selected from existing doctrine and training sources. In some cases, the measure of performance may require modification based on the specific operational environment and related conditions. The measure of performance criteria must be established, published, and understood by all elements participating in the operation to ensure mission success.

MEASURES OF EFFECTIVENESS

2-27. A *measure of effectiveness* is an indicator used to measure a current system state, with change indicated by comparing multiple observations over time (JP 5-0). Measures of effectiveness can be seen as an outcome or an effect. Measures of effectiveness help military police and USACIDC commanders and staffs determine if current operations are achieving the desired results. Measures of effectiveness are established as criteria for success. Assessment relevant to the measure of effectiveness requires related indicators to be identified. Measures of effectiveness are typically identified and tracked within the assessment plan. They measure success relative to the *why* in the mission statement and enable the commander and staff to determine if the mission is being accomplished effectively. (See ADP 5-0.)

2-28. When selecting measures of effectiveness, military police and USACIDC staff should—
- Ensure that measures of effectiveness are relevant and measure the degree to which the desired outcome is achieved.
- Ensure that measures of effectiveness are separate and distinct from one another; choose measures of effectiveness that measure different causal chains.
- Structure measures of effectiveness so that measurable, collectible, and relevant indicators for them exist.
- Write measures of effectiveness clearly as statements, not as questions.

INDICATORS

2-29. Assessment incorporates quantitative (objective) and qualitative (subjective) indicators:
- **Quantitative indicator.** A quantitative indicator is an observation-based (objective) item of information that provides insight into a measure of effectiveness or measure of performance. Quantitative indicators are based on observations that can be measured based on a numerical value and are, therefore, less dependent on human judgment.
- **Qualitative indicator.** A qualitative indicator is an opinion-based (subjective) item of information that provides insight into a measure of effectiveness or measure of performance. Qualitative indicators are subjective by nature and are, therefore, dependent on human opinion and carry a higher risk of bias in the assessment. Indicators represent raw data input that help determine whether measures of effectiveness and measures of performance have been successfully achieved.

2-30. Indicators selected to provide insight into measures of effectiveness should be measurable, collectible, and relevant to the measure of effectiveness that the indicator is collected against. Table 2-2 provides examples of police operations-related measures of effectiveness and associated indicators for objectives supporting the establishment of the rule of law.

Table 2-2. Sample police operations-related measures of effectiveness and indicators

Overall Objective	Police-Related MOE	Indicators
Develop and train HN police	Increase HN police capability	• HN police proficiency (increase or decrease). • Police skills testing score changes of HN police officers. • Number of police academy classes. • Number of police radios available.
	Increase HN police capacity	• Number of police academy classes offered. • Number of certified HN police officers. • Number of operational police stations.
Develop and train HN police (continued)	HN police reliability and effectiveness	• Number of incidents reported. • Number of incidents responded to. • Number of patrols conducted. • Are the police capable of self-sustainment (administrative/logistics).
Enforce law and order	Decrease crime rates	• Number of crimes, by category (murder, assault, robbery, larceny). • Number of requests for service (law enforcement patrols). • Public feelings of security increase or decrease.
	Reduce traffic accidents and congestion	• Reduction in the number of accident. • Decrease in commute time. • Citizen complaints concerning traffic flow increase or decrease. • Traffic throughput rate changes at specific intersections or roadways.
Promote citizen participation	Increase civilian trust of police forces	• Citizen-initiated communications with police. • Public fear or distrust of police increase or decrease. • Citizen attendance at police-sponsored community meetings increase or decrease.

Legend:
HN   host nation
MOE   measure of effectiveness

SECTION II – ORGANIZING FOR POLICE OPERATIONS

2-31. Military police organize to conduct police operations based on mission variables and other environmental factors. On bases and base camps, the organizational structure and characteristics of the policing mission resemble those of many civil police organizations. These organizations are resourced by military police law enforcement detachments and other specialized military police elements to provide the core law enforcement capability required for police station operations and technical law enforcement support.

2-32. Maturing bases that support U.S. forces within expeditionary environments will, in many cases, evolve to a point where dedicated law enforcement support for the base camp is required. In these instances, military police law enforcement detachments will typically provide the core law enforcement capability required to establish a functional police operations center.

2-33. Police operations conducted to establish and maintain civil control within a HN population and to conduct HN police development and transition operations are typically organized within the structure of military police brigades, battalions, and companies. These military police elements will typically require augmentation and task organization by elements with technical law enforcement capabilities to conduct sustained police operations. The centralization of HN police development and training within military police functional command structures ensures the consistent application of law enforcement and policing

capabilities across the AO. This structure is critical to ensure that HN police organizations receive consistent training, policy, and operational guidance and support.

BASES AND BASE CAMPS

2-34. Typically, a police operations section in support of U.S. military commanders within the United States or at enduring bases overseas are composed of a PMO, manned by a military police law enforcement detachment, and augmented by military police companies or civilian Department of the Army (DA) police to provide law enforcement capability. The PMO and associated law enforcement personnel and resources are typically organized within a directorate of emergency services structure and managed by the installation management command. This same structure, generally on a much smaller scale, is also used to provide law enforcement support to U.S. military base camp commanders supporting expeditionary missions on mature bases within an AO. In these instances, the PMO is typically under the command and control of the senior military police commander (brigade or battalion).

DIRECTORATE OF EMERGENCY SERVICES

2-35. At bases camps, military police law enforcement and other emergency services operations are typically conducted under the supervision and control of the director of emergency services. The director of emergency services is responsible for advising the garrison commander on emergency services (including police operations), providing oversight of, and ensuring the execution of police operations that are consistent with the priorities and protection efforts of the garrison and senior commander. The directorate of emergency services capabilities normally include—

- Police operations resources organized within a PMO.
  - Law enforcement resources (police operations center, military police investigations, traffic accident investigations, MWDs, crisis response assets, police administration section).
  - Physical security resources (physical security inspectors, access control, alarm monitoring).
  - Crime prevention.
  - Police intelligence analyst.
  - Vehicle and privately owned weapons registration.
- Fire department resources.
  - Response resources (response capability, prevention, protection, training assets).
  - Alarm maintenance; fire suppression; hazardous material (HAZMAT) tasks; and chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear (CBRN) waste.
- Contingency operations support.
- Emergency medical services.
- An emergency dispatch center (911 services).

2-36. Within the directorate of emergency services, the PM is the chief law enforcement officer and is responsible for police operations. The PM may act as the director of emergency services, having dual-hatted functions. The director of emergency services ensures that appropriate resources are available to support policing requirements. The consolidation of the various emergency agencies aligned under a single agency provides a platform for integrated services across Army bases and base camps. The director of emergency services ensures that variations in the standard and level of services to the Army community are not reduced.

PROVOST MARSHAL

2-37. As the chief law enforcement officer, the PM provides the commander with professional and technical advice concerning policing objectives, policies, and directives. Planning military police support is a continuous process at every echelon. The PM should have police operations experience and will be the senior military police officer. The PM plans the use of military police assets; evaluates current operations; and projects future courses of action, organizational requirements, and resource requirements. The PM makes operation and resource decisions based on analysis and planning consistent with a high degree of situational

understanding, a thorough understanding of the operational environment, and the effects of specific mission variables. Other PM responsibilities include—

- Identifying high-risk personnel requirements.
- Conducting threat analyses for U.S. bases and base camps.
- Developing plans to prevent acts of espionage, sabotage, and terrorism.
- Coordinating with multinational forces, HN military territorial organizations, local government forces, and civilian police authorities concerning support to the protection of friendly assets and forces.
- Coordinating with other organizations, to include the directorate of logistics or sustainment units; public affairs elements; Staff Judge Advocate (SJA) offices; and federal, state, local, multinational, and HN agencies in regard to critical incident responses, special events, or changes in force protection conditions.
- Conducting military police investigations according to AR 190-30 and AR 195-2.
- Coordinating forensic and biometric support.
- Managing and ensuring training and certification of special-reaction teams (SRTs) and MWD teams in conjunction with military police commanders.
- Managing the DOD Customs Inspection Program and coordinating 10 USC responsibilities for United States Customs and Border Protection support for border patrols and port and international activities.
- Implementing random antiterrorism measures. The Random Antiterrorism Measure Program is a DOD security program that involves implementing multiple security measures in a random fashion to change the appearance of the security posture. See AR 525-13.
- Controlling base access and egress points.
- Serving as the on-scene commander during law enforcement and security-related incidents and emergencies, as required.
- Certifying or verifying certification of military police Soldiers before assuming law enforcement duties.
- Training Army civilian police and guards according to the training and qualification policy in AR 190-56.
- Monitoring and managing DA Form 4833 (*Commander's Report of Disciplinary or Administrative Action*) reporting.

MILITARY POLICE DUTY OFFICER

2-38. The military police duty officer is a military police officer or senior noncommissioned officer performing law enforcement duties during nonduty hours. The military police duty officer is the PM or senior military police commander's representative after normal duty hours and must be thoroughly familiar with Army regulations, local policies, and the conduct of police operations. The military police duty officer responds to serious incidents that require the presence of an officer, senior noncommissioned officer, or senior leadership representative to provide guidance and direction to law enforcement patrols. The military police duty officer responds to, and makes appropriate notifications regarding, matters of command interest or those that may bring unplanned or unforeseen attention to the base, base camp, or operation.

2-39. Other responsibilities may include—

- Reviewing and supervising the publication of the daily military police blotter.
- Ensuring that proper notifications are made for specific incidents.
- Supervising law enforcement operations.
    - Control of law enforcement assets.
    - Coordination with the SJA on matters of due process and use of government resources.
    - Crime or incident scene protection.

● Securing police and government facilities.
● Inspecting detention cells for proper health compliance.

POLICE OPERATIONS SUPPORT TO BASE CAMPS IN CONTINGENCY OPERATIONS

2-40. Police operations support to U.S. military base commanders supporting expeditionary missions on mature bases within an AO is typically required as the AO matures and base camps become more established. The decision to establish dedicated police operations supporting U.S. base camps during contingency operations is based on staff recommendations of numerous factors. The senior military police commander and echelon PM should weigh heavily on staff analyses and recommendations to establish dedicated police operations supporting base camps. Factors to consider include the—

● Size and the number of elements on the base.
● Relative levels of crime or Soldier indiscipline on the base.
● Mission load for units on the base.
● Ability of the base commander to deal with criminal activity and Soldier indiscipline with internal resources.

2-41. Police operations supporting U.S. forces within an operational environment are typically conducted using the military police law enforcement detachment as the base element for law enforcement activities and establishing a base PMO to execute control over dedicated law enforcement assets. The PMO, in these instances, is typically under the command of the senior military police commander (brigade or battalion). Additional military police capabilities can be added as required. The PMO will establish connectivity with Army Law Enforcement Reporting and Tracking System (ALERTS) and other law enforcement-related information systems. One expeditionary PMO (typically collocated with the senior military police commander in the AO) will be designated as the station of record. This PMO is responsible for managing and providing oversight to ALERTS input and military police records and reports. Other police operations supporting other base camps will be conducted as satellite operations to the station of record for law enforcement reporting requirements.

PATROL AREAS AND PATROL DISTRIBUTION

2-42. Patrol areas and patrol distribution are methods used by law enforcement agencies to divide a jurisdictional area into manageable and organized subordinate areas for law enforcement personnel to conduct law enforcement activities. Patrol areas delineate boundaries within the AO or jurisdiction. When identifying and establishing patrol areas, the staff should carefully consider all operational variables (political, military, economic, social, information, infrastructure, physical environment, and time constraints) and mission variables (mission, enemy, terrain and weather, troops and support available, time available, and civil considerations). See FM 3-39 for additional information on operational and mission variables.

2-43. When establishing patrol areas within HN AO where U.S. forces may not be familiar with historical, cultural, tribal, socioeconomic, and environmental boundaries ingrained within the population, law enforcement personnel may experience serious problems with ethnic clustering, cultural divides, and economic issues. Military police staff and commanders must make every effort to learn the demographic details specific to their AO and area of interest to mitigate potential problems that can erupt by placing arbitrary patrol area boundaries within the AO.

2-44. The patrol distribution arranges individual law enforcement patrols across the AO or jurisdiction. Patrol distribution workload among patrol units should be based on areas with the highest crime, traffic issues, or the most service calls. If the workload is unbalanced, one unit may spend its entire shift responding to calls and completing reports while another unit is underemployed. Unequal workloads can also adversely

affect morale. Effective patrol distribution spreads the mission load as equally as possible across assigned patrol or mission areas. Patrol distribution must consider, at a minimum, the following factors:

- Crime and complaint histories for the AO.
- Geography and characteristics of the AO, including—
  - Population and critical resource densities across the AO.
  - Obstacles and number of ingress or egress routes.
- Minimum response requirements.
- Manpower and mission requirements, including personnel available and mission loads.

2-45. These considerations, when taken holistically, provide information necessary to develop patrol distribution decisions. In stable areas where law enforcement and policing activities have been well-established, historical patrol areas and patrol distributions provide a baseline from which changes can be implemented. This is the case on bases and base camps overseas. In some situations, especially within the context of expeditionary operations, these baselines may not exist or are not readily known by U.S. forces. In these cases, complete analysis must occur and patrol distribution recommendations and decisions must be made without the benefit of a historical baseline. Regardless of the initial amount of available information, military police and USACIDC personnel and police intelligence analysts conducting police intelligence activities can provide significant capability useful in identifying patterns in the criminal environment. See ATP 3-39.20 for information regarding police intelligence operations.

CRIME AND COMPLAINT HISTORY WITHIN THE AREA OF OPERATIONS

2-46. Staff planning and decisions regarding patrol distribution require specific crime data (such as complaint history, crime hot spots, traffic accident hot spots, calls for service) about the AO requiring law enforcement patrol coverage. In established areas (bases within the United States), the PM and supporting military police commanders and staffs have the crime data required to conduct analysis, produce recommendations, and make patrol distribution decisions. This data comes from historical records of criminal and other police- and security-related activity, demographic data for the jurisdiction in question, seasonal and other cyclical events or activities, and areas of specific command emphasis. Data can be used to validate current patrol requirements and project future requirements.

2-47. In cases where police operations are implemented in areas without the benefit of historical records, military police personnel must base recommendations and decisions on information derived from elements within the AO. Military police and USACIDC collect police information by assessing local conditions and conducting police engagement at to assist in decisions regarding patrol distribution.

2-48. Military police should also coordinate with U.S. and multinational forces within the area and local sources to determine areas of criminal activity, cyclical events that may temporarily change normal activity levels, areas requiring increased security, and other information specific to the local area and demographics. These local sources may include—

- Government agencies and officials.
- Informal sources (tribal, business, religious leaders).
- The local population.

2-49. Documented calls for service can be a key source of crime data to determine the areas of the greatest activity. The number of complaints received per month can vary markedly during the year. For example, education cycles, school vacations, and ethnic and religious observances are predictable events and activities in the social domain that lead to fluctuations in social activity and stress enforcement mechanisms in an area. Military police must examine the relationship between the population and the police and identify hybrid threats, criminal threats, terrorist threats, and patterns within a society. Caution must be exercised to consider any changes that might affect the rate of offenses in an AO (unit deployments, increased troop strengths, local economic factors).

2-50. Analyses can be more precise if offense patterns are known, specifically patterns tied to specific days of the week and hours of the day. Additional consideration may be given to greater offenses (assaults, robberies) as compared to lesser offenses (disorderly conduct, damage to private property). Patrol distribution

decisions should include response prioritizations based on the relative severity of the incident. See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on trend analysis.

2-51. A data table can be used to depict a 24-hour-a-day, 7-day-a-week complaint frequency distribution. Table 2-3 illustrates how data can be used to track activity for specific hour, day, and time ranges. The table shows that complaints tend to rise from a low on Sunday to a high on Saturday; it also illustrates that peak times are during the afternoon and evening through approximately 2300 hours.

Table 2-3. Complaint levels compiled by the day and hour

Time the Crime or Complaint Occurred			Day of the Week the Crime or Complaint Occurred						
Time	Number	% of total	Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
0000–0100	61	3.0	10	5	4	8	10	15	9
0100–0200	94	4.7	7	5	7	14	18	20	23
0200–0300	43	2.1	6	3	4	10	8	7	5
0300–0400	31	1.6	3	4	4	6	2	5	7
0400–0500	37	1.8	1	3	5	7	6	7	8
0500–0600	35	1.8	3	2	4	7	6	5	8
0600–0700	45	2.2	9	7	5	4	8	2	10
0700–0800	64	3.2	7	10	10	5	8	9	15
0800–0900	86	4.3	4	20	10	9	15	18	10
0900–1000	105	5.3	9	10	15	17	18	16	20
1000–1100	56	2.8	10	8	9	8	10	5	6
1100–1200	68	3.4	10	9	7	10	15	8	9
1200–1300	70	3.5	15	9	8	15	10	7	6
1300–1400	97	4.8	18	10	15	18	17	14	5
1400–1500	92	4.6	10	8	12	20	10	15	17
1500–1600	102	5.1	5	7	18	15	16	27	14
1600–1700	113	5.6	7	9	15	20	18	30	14
1700–1800	125	6.2	10	20	17	16	19	25	18
1800–1900	103	5.1	7	17	14	12	15	18	20
1900–2000	108	5.4	5	15	20	18	13	12	25
2000–2100	132	6.6	9	14	18	20	22	21	28
2100–2200	113	5.6	12	19	14	13	10	15	30
2200–2300	125	6.2	15	10	15	18	16	20	31
2300–2400	101	5.0	8	7	9	11	15	24	27
Total complaints by day			200	231	259	301	305	345	365
Total complaints: 2,006									
Daily % of total complaints by day/total complaints			10.0	11.5	12.9	15.0	15.2	17.2	18.2

2-52. Table 2-4 illustrates data tracked by month. The table illustrates that complaints are up significantly during the summer months (June through September). The period documented may be quarterly, yearly, or different time spans depending on the intent of the analysis. Compiling data over a long period helps to avoid making patrol distribution recommendations and decisions based on a statistical anomaly (such as a temporary but significant period of activity that is outside the norm).

2-53. The activity data can be presented as aggregates or averages (table 2-4 depicts aggregate numbers for the specific hour and day). The activity data can enable the staff, commander, or PM to identify high-offense

days during the week and high-offense hours during the day, enabling informed decisions regarding the distribution of patrols and other law enforcement resources to establish proactive measures to reduce and optimally prevent crime from occurring again.

Table 2-4. Complaint levels compiled by the month

Month	Monthly Totals	Percentage of Total Monthly Complaints		Rank (Less is Better)
January	124		6.2	12
February	143		7.1	10
March	157		7.8	6
April	147		7.3	8
May	138		6.9	11
June	178		8.9	4
July	210		10.5	2
August	251		12.5	1
September	186		9.3	3
October	177		8.8	5
November	150		7.5	7
December	145		7.2	9
Annual total	2,006			
Average number of complaints reported per month: 167.17				
Average number of complaints reported per day: 5.5				

2-54. With no environmental changes (increased patrolling, weather, variations in troop strength, major population changes), previous offense types will typically occur in similar patterns. Significant changes in the patterns can typically be attributed to deliberately applied changes by Army law enforcement personnel (increased patrolling, police engagement with the public), a change to the demographics (unit deployments, movement into or out of the AO), or another change in an area of interest that spills over into the AO (significant population shifts or major economic, political, social events causing impact within an adjacent area). With this basic data, recommendations and decisions regarding the distribution of the patrol force by shifts and days of the week can logically be applied, based on actual statistical rates of crimes and requests for assistance.

CRIME MAPPING

2-55. Geographic distribution analysis (crime mapping) documents the occurrence of specific activities or incidents, the time and date of those incidents, and the exact location over a particular geographic area. It emphasizes the use of graphics to depict activity and emerging patterns. This capability, coupled with data depicting crime frequencies by the specific time of day and day of week, enables military police and USACIDC personnel to identify when the greatest criminal activity occurs and where the areas of increased activity are located.

2-56. During offense, defense, and stability operations, crime mapping should be compared with military intelligence all-source analysis to look for patterns indicating hybrid threat activity. High-profile criminal activity (such as kidnapping) can indicate threat activity, but low-level activity (such as the theft of remote-controlled devices or nitrogen-based fertilizer) can also indicate a serious threat and enhance the commander's situational understanding.

2-57. Crime mapping can be done with rudimentary pin mapping techniques by using a physical map and colored pins, stickers, or other methods. Geographic information system (GIS) software technology found in existing Army Mission Command Systems and applications can also identify patterns and distributions of criminal activity. Police intelligence analysts and Army law enforcement staff conducting event, incident, crime pattern, and crime distribution analysis can use GIS applications to conduct geographic distribution

analysis using layered graphics, geographic data, and descriptive information to display results on a map. See ATP 3-34.80 and ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on crime mapping and GIS.

GEOGRAPHY AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AREA OF OPERATIONS

2-58. Geography, urban concentrations, and locations of critical infrastructure and resources must be considered when establishing patrol distribution guidance along with information specific to the historic frequency and dispersion of criminal activity discussed previously. These considerations must be analyzed to determine the appropriate priority for limited patrols and other law enforcement resources. When developing patrol areas and patrol distribution requirements, the military police staff should arrange patrols to make response times relatively equal across all patrol areas.

2-59. When considering geographic impacts on patrol areas and patrol distribution requirements, military police commanders and staffs analyze the operational variables and civil considerations that influence crime environments by using existing analysis areas, structures, capabilities, organizations, people, and events [ASCOPE]) framework (see ADP 5-0) and intelligence preparation of the battlefield (see ATP 2-01.3). While using these standard analysis tools to ensure common language and understanding, military police analyze the operational environment from a policing perspective while maintaining a deliberate focus on crime, criminals, police and corrections institutions, and the drivers of instability and disorder (see ATP 3-39.20). When conducting analysis of variables influencing crime environments military police should consider the—

- Population and critical resource densities.
- Minimum response times.
- Communication limitations (distance, structures, and dead zones).
- Realistic times for additional law enforcement or other response forces to provide assistance.
- Locations of, distances of, and travel times to emergency medical treatment facilities.
- Obstacle impacts.
- Ingress and egress routes.

Population and Critical Resource Densities

2-60. Areas where population density is greatest will typically require specific attention. Densely populated areas may have greater than average rates of crime, traffic, and pedestrian congestion and can complicate and inhibit the ability of law enforcement patrols to respond in a timely manner. A higher frequency of calls may tie up patrols and generate requirements for additional resources to meet demand. Patrol areas within densely populated areas will typically be smaller than in less populated areas.

2-61. Rural areas may not experience high crime rates; but the distances between people, homes, businesses, or other locations requiring law enforcement response will be greater, thus increasing response times. The distance between points and the dispersion of people and law enforcement patrols in an area can also increase the risk to law enforcement patrols due to the response time required for backup patrols or other assistance.

2-62. The military police staff should identify critical resources that may require increased coverage or rapid response operations. These locations can be facilities or entities that are at a greater threat of criminal or terrorist attacks. Many of these areas may be designated as mission-essential vulnerable areas or high-risk targets by the commander responsible for the AO. Threat assessments specific to the AO must be conducted to determine which facilities or entities are at a greater risk (or warrant command designation as a mission-essential vulnerable area), what the priority should be for protecting these resources, and which element and method should be used to provide protection. See AR 190-13 and ATP 3-39.32 for additional information on the physical security of critical assets.

Minimum Response Times

2-63. Some assets may have minimum response times that must be factored into planning patrol distribution. These requirements may be mandated by the local commander or directed by an Army regulation (such as AR 190-11). Minimum response times must be considered to ensure that law enforcement patrols, when required, can respond to incidents within the designated time frame.

Obstacles and Limited Access Routes

2-64. Natural or man-made obstacles must be considered when determining patrol areas and patrol distribution requirements. Natural obstacles (rivers, lakes, mountainous terrain) can create choke points or force long circuitous routes for law enforcement patrols to negotiate. Likewise, rail lines can block travel when trains are transiting the area, drawbridges can prevent the ability of law enforcement patrols to cross, and built-up areas can create congestion that slows a patrol's ability to respond. Some areas, especially those with significant natural or man-made obstacles, may have limited ingress or egress routes. A single access route over a bridge into a patrol area creates a choke point. A high traffic volume or a bridge that is out due to a natural or man-made disaster can isolate a patrol and prevent additional response forces from providing assistance. If this condition exists within an area, law enforcement patrols may be prevented from entering an area and responding to an incident.

2-65. The existence of obstacles and limited access routes must be identified and considered when establishing patrol areas and patrol distribution. If single access routes cannot be avoided, multiple law enforcement patrols within the area may be required to ensure officer safety and response capability. In some cases, access may be limited to wheeled-vehicle traffic; bike, boat, or foot patrols may be considered to overcome the constraint. All available options should be considered.

MANPOWER AND MISSION REQUIREMENTS

2-66. The efficient use of manpower is crucial to effective law enforcement operations. Manpower requirements for police operations are affected by the availability of personnel and resources, mission changes, special events, and critical incidents or conditions resulting from force protection condition increases. The safety of law enforcement personnel, the safety of the public, mission effectiveness, and quality of life issues are areas of significant concern for commanders, PMs, and leaders when Army law enforcement personnel are required to work extended hours for prolonged periods or long periods with little or no days off. Numerous studies show that law enforcement personnel who work long hours and shift work for extended periods or who work normal shifts with little time off are at an increased level of risk for low morale, poor performance, health problems, and increased safety risks. While these conditions are sometimes unavoidable, military police and USACIDC leaders must be cognizant of the potential for these problems and take positive actions to address these conditions and mitigate their effects.

2-67. Careful planning and the efficient and equitable use of manpower can help reduce on-duty accidents and improve the quality of public safety for the community. Law enforcement staff, commanders, and PMs must establish, maintain, and enforce mission schedule standards that provide adequate time off and time for training and unforecasted mission requirements. While some environments and missions require personnel to operate with minimal downtime for extended periods, all leaders must monitor missions to ensure that some time off is provided. Commanders and PMs should establish contingency plans that include a projection of manpower requirements to be immediately implemented during force protection control measures increase. Continued rehearsal and shared understanding of these contingencies mitigate gaps in manpower coverage and protection against threats. Law enforcement staff and PMs should establish minimal patrol distribution thresholds to allow predictability in contingency activation to provide a seamless transition to an elevated threat.

2-68. Identifying law enforcement patrol allocations and manpower requirements is the key to maintaining sustained police operations. The methods used to determine law enforcement patrol requirements and, subsequently, the number of personnel needed to conduct patrols will vary based on the information available to military police planners. Many of these calculations require extensive historical data relating to criminal activity, police activities, personnel policies, and other factors. Some environments, especially during expeditionary missions, do not readily provide data for calculations to determine these requirements. In these cases, comparative analysis between similar AO may be the best method for an initial determination of police patrol and manpower requirements. Appendix E provides examples of methods for identifying law enforcement patrol and manpower requirements.

INCREASES IN THREAT AND FORCE PROTECTION CONDITION LEVELS

2-69. Military police and USACIDC staffs must plan enforcement measures for increased force protection condition levels. When the protection level escalates, requirements for law enforcement resources are affected dramatically. Enforcement and random antiterrorism measures are stepped up, requirements (especially manpower) for access control operations are raised significantly, and there is an increase in security checkpoints and security of critical assets (hospitals, air bases, headquarters commands, other mission-essential sites [water, power, pumping stations, railheads]). Resource requirements are greatly increased to meet the demands of the increased enforcement measures. Planners must identify resources (including personnel, equipment, and other sustainment requirements) at each corresponding force protection condition level. At higher levels, personnel augmentation, equipment, and other sustainment support from nonmilitary police elements are typical. These requirements must be coordinated through the senior commander and documented within appropriate support planning documents to ensure that the required augmentation and other support are available when needed.

MEMORANDUMS OF AGREEMENT AND MEMORANDUMS OF UNDERSTANDING

2-70. Memorandums of agreement or memorandums of understanding with local police and other emergency response agencies are routinely established between Army law enforcement and other military or civilian agencies to clarify command and control relationships, resourcing, and other administrative relationships. The PM, military police, or USACIDC commander often relies on outside police agencies for assistance and to share police information and intelligence in support of police operations. Antiterrorism efforts should always include local, state, and federal police and intelligence agencies as required by AR 525-13 and DODI 2000.12. Strong relationships with these agencies are important for mutual support and public safety. Representatives from these external agencies and representatives from available Army and DOD agencies should be invited to planning meetings, working groups, and forums to exchange ideas, solicit input, and participate in appropriate exercises.

2-71. Memorandums of agreement and memorandums of understanding with civilian law enforcement and other emergency response agencies are developed based on identified capability gaps, mutual support and resourcing requirements, and command guidance. Memorandums of agreement and memorandums of understanding are typically staffed between the outside agency and the PM or the military police commander responsible for the policing mission. The approval authority for the Army typically resides with the base commander or the senior mission commander, depending on the scope and support requirements within the memorandum of agreement or memorandums of understanding. The Army approval authority for USACIDC memorandums of agreement and memorandums of understanding is typically the USACIDC group commander or the Commanding General, USACIDC, depending on the significance of the memorandum of agreement or memorandums of understanding and the organization involved.

CRITICAL INCIDENT RESPONSE AND EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT

2-72. Army law enforcement personnel must plan for and be prepared to respond to critical incidents (natural and man-made). Army law enforcement personnel typically provide the initial emergency response to critical incidents occurring within their AO. Critical incident response planning typically requires coordination with multiple agencies and organizations to—

- Ensure the synchronization of effort.
- Identify the lead agency for the specific event.
- Deconflict communications (methods, frequencies, networks).
- Ensure the identification and understanding of responsibilities and capabilities of each organization.
- Identify triggers and decision points specific to the plan.

2-73. Specific response requirements vary depending on the nature and location of the event. Each critical incident requires specific response activities. This requires preplanning by military police and USACIDC staff to ensure that response elements are properly trained, equipped, and knowledgeable of response and reporting requirements. Army law enforcement personnel must understand unique aspects of the incidents to which they may be required to respond and be capable of rapidly assessing the situation upon arrival,

initiating immediate actions required for public safety and security, and requesting appropriate follow-on emergency responder capability (HAZMAT, fire, medical).

2-74. Army law enforcement personnel conducting critical incident response and emergency management planning must consider potential incidents in the Army AO and incidents occurring in surrounding areas of interest. Incidents in surrounding areas of interest can cause negative effects, directly and indirectly, on the AO. There may be memorandums of agreement, memorandums of understanding, or requests for assistance that will require support by Army law enforcement or provide support from outside agencies. Army law enforcement planners must consider the support requirements associated with these agreements. Critical incident response and emergency management plans can include—

- Special threat situations.
  - Hostage situations.
  - Suicide threats.
  - Barricaded criminals.
  - Terrorist attacks.
- CBRN response actions associated with—
  - CBRN threats and hazards.
  - Major accidents due to vehicle mishaps, including wheeled vehicles, rail cars, downed aircraft, industrial incidents, fires, and natural disasters (based on likely natural occurrences for the geographic area).
  - Terrorist incidents.
  - Pandemic responses.

2-75. Most incidents on Army bases and base camps are of a scale conducive to response, command, and control of the incident by Army assets without external assistance. In these cases, the incident will typically be handled by the directorate of emergency services and other Army support agencies within the AO. However, some incidents may be of a scale requiring response by multiple agencies within the Army structure and elements outside the Army. Likewise, during DSCA tasks, Army resources may be used in support of federal, state, and local civilian emergency response agencies. (See DODD 3025.18.) Military police and USACIDC staffs must understand and plan for participation within a unified command and the organizational structure of the National Incident Management System. Homeland Security Presidential Directive-5 requires federal departments and agencies to adopt the National Incident Management System and use it in their individual domestic incident management and emergency prevention, preparedness, response, recovery, and mitigation programs and activities. The National Incident Management System provides the following management characteristics as the foundation of incident command:

- Common terminology.
- Modular organization.
- Management by objectives.
- Incident action planning.
- Manageable span of control.
- Incident facilities and locations.
- Comprehensive resource management.
- Integrated communications.
- Establishment and transfer of command.
- Unified command.
- Chain of command and unity of command.
- Accountability.
- Dispatch/deployment.
- Information and intelligence management.
- Safety and security.

CIVIL CONTROL AND HOST-NATION POLICE DEVELOPMENT AND TRANSITION

2-76. Police operations conducted to establish civil control and general order within the HN population, to include HN police development and transition operations, are typically conducted by military police brigades, battalions, and companies. Military police brigades and battalions provide planning, staff integration, and command and control over subordinate military police elements. Military police companies provide the baseline policing capability required to conduct law enforcement patrols and provide basic assistance to HN police development and transition efforts. They also contain limited capability to conduct military police investigations, physical security tasks, traffic accident investigations, and other police tasks. FM 3-39 contains more detailed information on the capabilities of individual military police and USACIDC units and elements.

2-77. In the initial stages of an expeditionary mission, these military police elements (military police brigades, battalions, and companies) conduct police operations with HN assets. As the environment stabilizes and efforts to establish or reestablish governance under the rule of law gain momentum, military police brigades and battalions will typically be augmented by specific policing capabilities resident within the military police law enforcement detachments, other specialized military police elements and capabilities, and USACIDC support. Military police brigades and battalions can then be task-organized to distribute technical law enforcement capability to support military police elements, as directed by the military police commander and based on mission requirements. Brigade combat teams with a mission to provide police operations support within their AO may receive additional military police assets.

SECTION III - POLICE OPERATIONS CAPABILITIES

2-78. Army military police elements conduct police operations at the strategic, operational, and tactical levels across the range of military operations. They operate as an integral member of the combined arms team in support of maneuver forces to provide specialized law enforcement and policing capabilities throughout the entire AO and at all levels of war. Military police and USACIDC units are organized to sustain police operations supporting the commander's efforts to maintain order within their formations, protect personnel and resources within their AO, and generate and maintain combat power. This support is provided across all environments (from bases and base camps to contingency operations) within an assigned AO. Military police forces can be tailored to provide law enforcement and policing capabilities to establish civil control within an HN and to build HN police capability and capacity. Table 2-5 provides staff planning factors for determining the allocation of military police and USACIDC elements for police missions.

Table 2-5. Unit allocation planning factors for police operations

Unit	Planning Factors for Unit Allocation	Additional Data (when required)
Military Police Units		
Headquarters and headquarters company, military police command	One headquarters and headquarters company, military police command, for up to five military police brigades supporting the senior Army headquarters in the theater. Typically, only one military police command is allocated per theater.	NA
Headquarters and headquarters company, military police brigade	One headquarters and headquarters company, military police brigade, for every two to five military police battalions (any combination of two to five military police battalions and detention battalions).	NA
Headquarters and headquarters detachment, military police battalion	One headquarters and headquarters detachment, military police battalion, for every two to five military police companies.	NA

Table 2-5. Unit allocation planning factors for police operations (continued)

Unit	Planning Factors for Unit Allocation	Additional Data (when required)
Military Police Units (continued)		
Military police company	A minimum of one military police company per up to— • Three forward bases during stability tasks for police operations to U.S. commanders. *Three police stations (initially) for multinational HN police support.	NA
** Military police platoon	A minimum of one military police platoon per— • Forward operating base during stability task for police operations support to U.S. commanders. *Police station for combined HN police support.	NA
Military police LE detachment	One military police LE detachment per— • Strength of 20,000 personnel in a corps or smaller area for police operations support to U.S. commanders. • Strength of 12,500 personnel in a theater or port area for police operations support to U.S. commanders. • *Up to five police stations for multinational HN police support.	A military police LE detachment consists of— • A headquarters team. • An operations team. • A desk team. • Five traffic accident traffic management and enforcement teams. • Five military police investigation teams. • Two force protection teams. *Note.* The teams comprising a complete military police LE detachment can be deployed as individual teams or as military police LE detachments to provide technical expertise to units, based on identified capability gaps.
MWD kennel master team	One MWD kennel master team per— • Military police command to serve as the theater MWD program manager. • Military police brigade to provide technical support to MWD teams and serve as the brigade MWD program manager. • Sea port of debarkation. • Military police battalion. • Military police detention battalion. • Four MWD squads.	The MWD kennel master team is comprised of one Sergeant First Class kennel master and one Staff Sergeant plans NCO. The team is modular and provides technical supervision and training of assigned MWD teams.

Table 2-5. Unit allocation planning factors for police operations (continued)

Unit	Planning Factors for Unit Allocation	Additional Data (when required)
Military Police Units (continued)		
Patrol explosive detector dog team	• One patrol explosive detector dog squad per military police battalion or detention battalion. *Note.* The patrol explosive detector dog squad has one patrol explosive detector dog – enhanced team	• An MWD patrol explosive detector dog team consists of a patrol explosive detector dog and a handler that is certified to work as a unit. • Requests for additional MWD support for aerial port of debarkation operations and sea port of debarkation should be coordinated through the echelon PM and MWD program manager supporting the AO.
Patrol drug detector dog team	• One MWD patrol drug team per military police battalion or military police detention battalion.	• An MWD patrol drug detector dog team consists of a patrol explosive detector dog and a handler that is certified to work as a unit. • Requests for additional MWD support for aerial port of debarkation operations and sea port of debarkation should be coordinated through the echelon PM and MWD program manager supporting the AO. Normally, no more than two MWD patrol drug teams are allocated per major airport.
Note. MWD structure task-organized under *Standard Requirements Code 19 Military Police*, as sized detachments: large, medium, and small. Each detachment is task-organized against an approved military police detachment table of organization and equipment recapitulation.		
Senior military customs inspection supervisor	One senior military customs inspection supervisor for up to two senior military customs inspection teams.	This element consists of one senior NCO trained in customs inspection requirements.
Senior military customs inspection team	One senior military customs inspection team per— • Port complex for customs support to U.S. commanders. • Border entry point for combined HN police border control support.	A senior military customs inspection team consists of five trained military customs inspectors.
Headquarters and headquarters detachment, criminal investigation division group	One headquarters and headquarters detachment, criminal investigation division group, per senior Army headquarters in the theater.	NA

Table 2-5. Unit allocation planning factors for police operations (continued)

Unit	Planning Factors for Unit Allocation	Additional Data (when required)
Military Police Units (continued)		
Headquarters and headquarters detachment, criminal investigation division battalion	One headquarters and headquarters detachment, criminal investigation division battalion, per— • Every two to five criminal investigation division elements. • Deployed expeditionary forensics capability during stability operations.	NA
USACIDC Units		
Criminal investigation division teams	*Two criminal investigation division teams per police station for combined HN police support.	NA
Criminal investigation division element	One criminal investigation division element per— • Strength of 37,000 personnel in a corps or smaller area. • Strength of 14,500 personnel in a theater area. • Port complex. *Up to five police stations for combined HN police support.	The criminal investigation division element is composed of— • A headquarters section. • Two criminal investigation division sections. *Note.* Criminal investigation division sections are composed of three 3-person investigative teams, with a total of eight investigative teams per criminal investigation division element.
For planning purposes, one HN police station can support approximately 30,000 persons or cover an area of 250 square kilometers, whichever threshold is reached first. **Military police platoons are not deployed as individual units; however, they may be detached from their parent military police units and attached to other military police units, brigade combat teams, or multifunctional units, as needed, to fill military police requirements or to increase military police capacity.		
Legend: AO area of operations HN host nation LE law enforcement MWD military working dog NA not applicable NCO noncommissioned officer PM provost marshal U.S. United States USACIDC United States Army Criminal Investigation Command		

2-79. Military police and USACIDC units and Soldiers may contribute advanced law enforcement skills to assist with law enforcement, policing, and judicial support for HN government and stability tasks in the AO. Military police and USACIDC units are ideally suited to conduct police operations with Army forces and other U.S. and multinational policing elements. They are also well-suited to work as a combined force with HN police patrols to restore or maintain civil order. Military police Soldiers and USACIDC SAs can provide training, mentorship, and partnership with local police elements, establishing and maintaining police station operations for local police forces through police development and transition activities. These units can work

side by side as a combined police force by acting jointly in shifts, conducting staff assistance through embedded relationships, or performing frequent or one-time assistance visits.

MILITARY POLICE FORMATIONS

2-80. Military police units providing police operations support include military police organic to nonmilitary police organizations and military police held in a military police force pool. The military police units within the force pool include all operating force military police units not organic to a headquarters staff. Organic military police policing capability within nonfunctional units is extremely limited. These elements require augmentation and additional military police task organization within the assigned multifunctional headquarters to adequately perform long-term or extensive police operations. The force pool consists of military police headquarters units (a military police command, military police brigades, and military police battalions), baseline units, and specialized military police units and teams. These assets (in the force pool with policing capabilities) can provide the necessary policing augmentation to brigade combat teams, other multifunctional brigades (such as the maneuver enhancement brigade), and echelons above brigade combat teams. See FM 3-39 for specific information regarding the capabilities of these units.

2-81. Military police elements can conduct police operations within functional military police organizations, brigade combat teams, or other multifunctional organizations. In unstable environments, where the mission focus is on policing-related tasks and initial efforts to establish civil security, police operations are typically conducted in a decentralized manner under the control of a wide range of organizational structures. Within these unstable environments, police operations are rarely the primary task of military police elements (with the exception of USACIDC). Military police elements conduct policing as secondary shaping missions in preparation for the transition to deliberate police operations. Stability tasks are the dominant element of decisive action, and efforts to establish civil control and the rule of law across the AO are the focus. The more stable the environment, the greater the requirement for centralized control of military police elements conducting police operations under a functional military police chain of command to optimize performance. The centralized execution of police operations within a functional military police chain of command ensures the synchronization and consistent application of law enforcement and policing capability critical to establishing the legitimacy of police forces and a criminal justice system operating under the rule of law.

2-82. When police operations are decentralized, it is critical that military police technical channels are used to ensure consistent applications of police-related activities. Technical channels refer to the transmission path between two technically similar units or offices within a command that perform a technical function that requires special expertise or control. Military police technical channels are used to complement existing command and support relationships; they do not replace existing command and support structures. The military police technical chain passes guidance and information through the echelon PM sections to ensure adherence to applicable laws and policies and the proper use of doctrinal techniques and to provide technical support and guidance relevant to police operations and other areas requiring military police technical oversight (such as HN police development). Applicable laws and policies can include relevant U.S. laws, the law of war, international laws, policies, directives, Department of Defense instructions, and orders.

MILITARY POLICE ORGANIZATIONS WITH SPECIFIC POLICE CAPABILITIES

2-83. Police operations organization requires an assessment of required capabilities specific to law enforcement and policing tasks associated with the police operations discipline. Most capabilities required to conduct dedicated police operations are associated with the military police law enforcement detachment. Additional capabilities may be required based on the specific environment and mission set. See FM 3-39 for additional information on military police organizations and capabilities.

POLICE OPERATIONS CENTER

2-84. Military police establish and organize law enforcement activities primarily from the police operations center (referred to as the military police station on military bases and base camps). The police operations center is the center of activity for law enforcement. The police operations center can be an elaborate structure equipped with state-of-the-art command and control systems (such as those found in support of many military

police stations within the United States) or relatively austere, temporary operating structures with basic systems for executing protection (common in the early stages of many expeditionary police operations).

2-85. A police operations center can be established anywhere law enforcement activities are required. Regardless of the location, the police operations center operates 24 hours a day, 7 days a week to provide police assistance and emergency response, suppress criminal behavior, act as a repository for police information and police intelligence, and disseminate public safety information. A stand-alone police operations center is typically employed for law enforcement support to bases and base camps. Optimally, a police operations center will be manned by elements of a military police law enforcement detachment. In some environments, law enforcement activities will be conducted by an organic military police brigade or battalion staff. In the earliest stages of the transition, from an extremely unstable security environment to stability tasks where civil security and civil control efforts have not yet been achieved, military police brigades and battalions conduct command and control of military police elements. As the environment stabilizes, military police law enforcement detachments will typically be deployed to augment the military police staff or establish a stand-alone police operations center supporting the base camp commander.

MILITARY POLICE LAW ENFORCEMENT DETACHMENT

2-86. Military police law enforcement detachments are built with specific capabilities. These teams are designed to be deployed to support specific law enforcement requirements in an AO. These specialized teams provide skills required for police station operations and specialty skills, including criminal investigations, physical security, and traffic enforcement. They provide the core capabilities for military police station operations in support of U.S. forces. Military police law enforcement teams also have the capability to support, train, and mentor HN police leadership and other HN police personnel regarding police station operations, basic criminal investigations, traffic enforcement and investigation, and other policing-related skills. Law enforcement teams can also provide the expertise required to plan, train, and monitor military police support to HN police operations (law enforcement raids, high-risk apprehensions, cordon and search, police intelligence operations).

2-87. The military police law enforcement detachment can be deployed—
- Individually to provide specific capabilities in support of a military police brigade or battalion to augment an existing capability or to meet specific capability requirements.
- As an intact military police law enforcement detachment from a single location. The deployment of an entire detachment from a single home station location is not typical because it strips the home station of the core capability required to operate the military police station. Army Reserve and Army National Guard military police law enforcement detachments are typically deployed as intact detachments. They do not have a full-time support mission that is impacted by the deployment of a full military police law enforcement detachment.
- As individual teams from multiple stations, consolidated at destinations to form a police operations center that provides comprehensive policing capabilities. Deploying individual teams from multiple locations limits the impact on any one home station location.

2-88. At bases, the teams that comprise the military police law enforcement detachment are assigned law enforcement duties within the PMO, making up the core of dedicated technical policing expertise supporting U.S. bases and base camps. Deployed military police law enforcement detachments are normally assigned to a military police brigade that is trained and equipped to provide technical supervision, planning, employment, and coordination of support for police operations. The military police law enforcement detachment will typically be under the operational control of the base commander for operational law enforcement support to the base. Military police law enforcement detachments form the core of policing capabilities on U.S. military bases and base camps within mature theaters, providing the administrative and technical expertise required to operate a forward police operations center. Employing a military police law enforcement detachment can greatly extend and optimize limited military police assets.

2-89. A military police law enforcement detachment consists of the following:

- A headquarters team to provide oversight to law enforcement activities and unit level personnel, logistics, and administrative support.
- An operations team to provide planning, employment, and coordination of law enforcement support; technical supervision of law enforcement teams; and oversight to police administrative and logistical requirements.
- A desk team to establish and maintain police desk operations.
  - Receipt of telephone calls and complaints.
  - Prioritization of task patrols and investigative personnel (as required).
  - Completion of initial reports.
- A force protection and physical security team to assist in risk and threat identification and mitigation, crisis planning, access control requirements, and personnel and equipment safeguarding at a fixed site.
- Military police investigation teams to investigate criminal incidents, conduct surveillance operations, and collect and maintain evidence and operational information, to include personal identification (biometric) and police information. Military police investigators maintain liaison with USACIDC elements regarding criminal investigations and information.
- Traffic accident investigation teams to investigate accidents and provide expertise regarding trafficability, traffic flow, and enforcement regulations.

2-90. While possessing significant capability, military police law enforcement detachments must be tasked appropriately to ensure that the capability is effective and not overextended. Planning considerations for selecting the right number of military police law enforcement detachments include the—

- Quantity of supported forces or populations.
- Characteristics of the AO.
- Maturity of the theater.
- Nature of the civilian population (friendly or hostile).
- Capability of HN forces to support and control the civilian population.
- Specific policing capabilities of the HN police force.

Headquarters Team

2-91. The headquarters team serves the same function for the military police law enforcement detachment as the company headquarters serves for the military police company. It provides unit level support to detachment personnel. This includes training and unit level logistics and administrative support.

Operations Team

2-92. The operations team provides overall mission supervision for police operations. The team supervises police-related planning; the employment of military police assets supporting the policing mission; and staff coordination with other military units, law enforcement agencies, and governmental and civilian organizations. The operations team conducts police administration requirements specific to law enforcement organizations. The team provides technical supervision for military police investigators, traffic management and collision investigators (TMCIs), and personnel within the force protection team. When assigned, the operations team also provides oversight and technical supervision of any assigned MWD and customs teams.

2-93. The operations team consist of the PMO and the police operations section. Within police station operations, the police operations section is the equivalent operations staff (battalion or brigade operations staff officer [S-3]) section within a brigade or battalion. The operations officer and operations sergeant provide mission supervision of all personnel assigned to the police operations center. Military police personnel assigned to the operations section must be thoroughly familiar with all aspects of the Army operations process and be able to multitask and manage complex operations. The operations section conducts staff planning and technical supervision required to support the policing mission. Only experienced personnel should be assigned to the operations section. Whether conducting police operations that support large bases at home stations, establishing civil control, restoring law and order in support of a HN population, or

supporting HN police development and transition teams (PDTTs) in building HN police capability and capacity, the tempo and requirement for experience and maturity from police operations personnel is high. The police operations section—

- Ensures that all law enforcement operations, military police intelligence analyst activities, and investigative activities are implemented, coordinated, and controlled as directed by the PM or military police commander responsible for police operations.
- Ensures that police liaison with other law enforcement agencies is coordinated and conducted.
- Establishes and maintains public relations activities with the military, civilian, or HN communities served as directed by the PM or military police commander responsible for police operations.
- Provides support to mission contingency plans, as required.
- Plans for the use of resources; provides operational control of military police assets and resources; and establishes patrol areas, policies, and responsibilities for military police personnel.
- Coordinates personnel requirements to support police operations with supporting military police commanders.
- Issues orders and develops plans specific to policing missions.
- Collects, documents, organizes, and analyzes police and criminal information to determine trends, patterns, and associations identifying law enforcement problem areas and crime trends. See ATP 3-39.20.
- Coordinates specialized technical and forensic support.
- Generates serious incident reports according to AR 190-45.
- Finalizes military police reports and forms.
- Ensures security and chain of custody for evidence and confiscated and recovered property.

Desk Team

2-94. The desk team serves as the primary control point for all law enforcement-related incidents, communications, and operations initiated by assigned patrols or received directly from the field. The desk team is critical to the overall success of military police law enforcement activities.

2-95. The duties of the desk team include—

- Receiving and recording complaints.
- Maintaining the military police desk blotter and daily staff journal.
- Dispatching and monitoring patrols and investigative personnel, as required.
- Coordinating and requesting other emergency services to respond to incidents.
- Providing incoming police information and criminal data to the operations section for analysis and distribution, as required.
- Controlling and protecting offenders in custody at the military police station.
- Affording proper protections to juveniles while at the police operations center.
- Monitoring the detention cell and ensuring that proper procedures are employed.
- Ensuring that required notifications are conducted and required reports are initiated (USACIDC notifications, serious incident reports, chain of command notifications).
- Keeping the operations team, PM, or senior military police commander informed of major incidents as they develop.
- Ensuring that desk operations are in compliance with established standard operating procedures (SOPs), regulations, and legal requirements.

Force Protection Team

2-96. The force protection team provides expertise and technical capabilities related to antiterrorism and physical security required to assist units in the protection of personnel and equipment according to Army regulations, command policies, and field operating procedures. These capabilities are relevant across all environments. The team—

- Conducts vulnerability assessments to identify and prioritize critical facilities and key terrain within the AO.
- Identifies mission-essential activities that are vulnerable to criminal acts or disruptive activities.
- Conducts physical security inspections and assessments to determine if safeguards are adequate. See ATP 3-39.32.
- Provides recommendations for active and passive defense measures.
- Identifies gaps in protection efforts and posture and recommends solutions to mitigate those gaps.

2-97. The capabilities that the force protection team provides can be especially critical in the building of base camps. The team should also coordinate with members of a larger threat and vulnerability assessment team to assist commanders in ensuring that adequate protection measures, to include physical security applications (barriers, lighting, observation and detection technologies), are integrated into the planning and construction of the bases.

Military Police Investigation Team

2-98. Military police investigators provide technical capabilities for investigating criminal incidents, conducting law enforcement -related surveillance activities, and conducting predictive criminal intelligence analysis. Military police investigators are specially trained to analyze police information and collect and properly store evidence. When required, military police investigators coordinate with USACIDC SAs to synchronize and deconflict ongoing investigations and share law enforcement information. (See ATP 3-39.12 for more information on law enforcement investigations.) Other duties and responsibilities of military police investigators include—

- Conducting juvenile crime investigations.
- Conducting gang-related investigations.
- Evaluating and conducting crime prevention activities.
- Providing drug suppression support to USACIDC.
- Conducting interviews and law enforcement interrogations.
- Providing court testimony.
- Conducting crime analysis and criminal intelligence.

2-99. Military police investigators can provide the military police and multifunctional commanders with valuable experience and expertise in support of site exploitation. Military police investigators are specially trained to analyze police information and recognize, preserve, collect, and store forensic material to evidentiary standard. The actual standard they use in conducting forensic exploitation will depend on the permissiveness of the operational environment. For example, forensic collection performed under combat conditions on an objective in support of a raid may require using only basic site exploitation techniques. Military police investigators can work with HN and civilian police agencies to conduct joint and multinational investigations and also train HN police in conducting investigations. Operating in direct support of a tactical commander, military police investigators can provide forensic expertise, conduct site exploitation training for U.S. and allied forces, and coordinate with tactical intelligence and operations counterparts in support of the commander's common operational picture. They are trained to conduct interviews and law enforcement interrogations. Although they are trained and honed for use in criminal investigations, these skills can be extremely valuable when conducting tactical questioning of personnel detained at an incident site or during the conduct of military operations. These capabilities are also valuable in interviews of HN citizens, local officials, and other personnel to gain valuable information and increase situational understanding.

Traffic Management and Enforcement Team

2-100. Army law enforcement personnel assigned to the traffic investigation section should successfully complete the Traffic Management and Accident Investigation Course at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. TMCIs provide technical capabilities required for investigating traffic accidents and augment military police capabilities in conducting traffic enforcement and education.

2-101. TMCIs reconstruct accidents involving fatalities or extensive property damage and investigate accidents involving minor injuries or damage to government property. They can assess the causes of accidents (operator error, environmental conditions, equipment failures). The team provides military police reports, accident information, and testimony to magistrate courts, commanders, insurance agencies, and other law enforcement agencies when required. (See chapter 8 for additional information on traffic enforcement.) Other TMCI duties and responsibilities include—

- Conducting traffic control and safety operations.
- Conducting traffic enforcement.
- Conducting drunk driver suppression operations.
- Identifying and processing abandoned vehicles.
- Preparing traffic studies.
- Preparing and tracking traffic reports (including citations).
- Conducting special traffic enforcement (special events, emergency operations).
- Preparing traffic control plans.

2-102. TMCIs can also provide substantial support during policing activities associated with security and mobility support. Their knowledge of traffic control and flow, protection measures associated with vehicle movement, and traffic study capabilities can be valuable assets to military police and multifunctional commanders in their efforts to protect U.S. personnel and assets, ensure freedom of movement, and establish and maintain civil order and control.

ADDITIONAL POLICING CAPABILITIES

2-103. Military police possess additional policing capabilities beyond those associated with the military police law enforcement detachment. These capabilities are found in teams that are typically assigned to military police law enforcement detachments, but are not an organic element of the military police law enforcement detachment modified table of organization and equipment. Some capabilities are held by individual military police Soldiers who have received specialized training, including SRTs and protective services capabilities.

Customs Inspection Teams

2-104. The military police customs inspection teams are ad hoc teams that possess the training and capability to support unit deployment and redeployment. Customs activities are conducted with United States Customs and Border Protection approval and oversight. Military police Soldiers may be tasked to inspect and examine all DOD cargo, equipment, aircraft, vehicles, and people leaving their locations outside the United States en route to the United States. Inspectors ensure that returning military equipment conforms to United States Department of Agriculture standards and that the gear returning with personnel serving abroad complies with United States Customs and Border Protection regulations for reentry into the United States. Army customs inspectors have jurisdiction over all customs and operational washdown sites in their AO. Customs inspection teams will typically be assigned to a military police command or military police brigade operating at an aerial port of embarkation or a seaport of embarkation in support of transportation operations.

2-105. Military police that conduct customs activities can transfer their experience from supporting United States Customs and Border Protection operations to supporting HN customs requirements at entry points and other checkpoints, as required. MWDs provide the capability to detect contraband being smuggled. Military police units can provide law enforcement expertise and work closely with HN border personnel, providing

training and assistance until the HN is capable of assuming full authority. Successful border control operations include the following:

- Border control and customs integration efforts to—
  - Identify contaminated or infested vehicles, cargo, and personnel that could introduce foreign invasive plants, insects, or other organisms into the AO.
  - Identify drugs, explosives, or other contraband at border entry points.
- Efficient, regulated movement of personnel, vehicles, material, and goods.
- Cooperative efforts with adjacent state border agencies.
- Detection capabilities.
  - Illegal trafficking across borders.
  - Organized criminal networks.
  - Movement of irregular forces and conventional forces.
  - Terrorist activities and movements.
  - Other threats to the HN.

Evidence Response Teams

2-106. An evidence response team is an ad hoc or expediently formed team of technical experts, mobilized to respond to a significant event requiring the collection and preservation of evidence. They will typically be manned by military police Soldiers and led by military police investigators or USACIDC SAs. Law enforcement professionals assigned to augment headquarters elements can also provide requisite expertise to lead an evidence response team. (See chapter 9.) The primary focus of an evidence response team is to—

- Identify the crime scene or incident site boundaries to facilitate protection of the scene (the actual area that may contain valuable evidence may not be obvious to untrained personnel).
- Collect and preserve physical evidence.
- Document evidence and establish the chain of custody.

Military Working Dog Teams

2-107. The Military Police Corps Regiment is the Army proponent for MWD training. Training for dogs and dog handlers is conducted at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas and Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri. There are three types of MWDs in the Military Police Corps Regiment:

- **Patrol-explosive detector dogs.** Patrol explosive detector dogs are trained to passively respond to explosive material and components.
- **Patrol-explosive detector dogs-enhanced.** Patrol explosive-detection dogs are trained to passively respond to explosive material and components and certified to work off the leash (ahead of the MWD handler) under the direct control of the MWD handler
- **Patrol-drug detector dogs.** Patrol drug detector dogs are trained to passively respond to drug paraphernalia and narcotics.

2-108. All dual purpose MWDs in the Army inventory are trained in patrol and either explosive or drug detection. Patrol dogs are used in routine military police law enforcement patrol operations at bases and base camps. The patrol explosive detector dog, patrol-explosive detector dog-enhanced, and the patrol-drug detector dog can provide support to maneuver commanders in tactical search missions against hostile forces by detecting firearms, ammunition, and explosives. All dogs train and certify with a handler, and they must be employed as a team. See ATP 3-39.34 for additional information on MWD capabilities.

Note. MWDs are placed under the operational control of the PMO/Director of Emergency Services in support of law enforcement operations.

2-109. MWD teams provide a valuable asset to military police, combined arms, DOD, and other governmental agencies. The dog's sight, smell, and hearing ability enhance detection capabilities and provide commanders with a physical and psychological deterrent to criminal activity. MWD teams are key resources

for use in Army law enforcement, combat, logistics, and sustainment operations for explosive, drug and human detection. MWDs are trained for patrolling and performing building, vehicle, and area searches. Specific law enforcement mission support includes—

- Customs enforcement.
- Secondary device search during reported suspicious packages, bomb threats, and alarm responses.
- Search and rescue operations.
- Protective services operations.
- Crowd control.
- Limited detainee operations.
- Access control.
- SRT operations.
- High risk personnel security missions.
- Health and welfare sweeps.
- Postal activities support.
- Perimeter security measures
- Predeployment and redeployment sweeps.

Note. MWD teams are not used for crowd control or direct confrontation with demonstrators unless the responsible commander determines it to be absolutely necessary. When it is necessary, dogs are kept on a short leash to minimize the danger to innocent persons. Dogs are not released into a crowd. Civil disturbance contingency plans include specific criteria for the use of MWD teams that are consistent with AR 190-12, AR 190-14, and ATP 3-39.34. MWD teams are not used for detention operations except as external security assets for security at detention facilities. They are not used to directly control detainees. See FM 3-63.

Protective Services and High-Risk Personnel Protection Teams

2-110. Select military police and USACIDC personnel receive specialized training to provide protection for high-risk personnel in accordance with AR 190-58. High-risk personnel are individuals who are more likely to be terrorist or criminal targets because of their grade, assignment, symbolic value, vulnerabilities, location, or specific threat; these individuals can be military or civilian personnel. USACIDC provides protective services details to Army high-risk personnel serving in designated positions based on their rank, position, geographical location, and the specific threat. USACIDC trains SAs in protective services tasks and assigns teams to individuals, as required. These teams are supported by trained military police Soldiers, as required. Military police and USACIDC personnel conducting designated high-risk personnel missions and select additional personnel attend the Protective Services Training Course at the USAMPS.

2-111. The skills acquired by military police during protective services training also provide capabilities to commanders for the protection of personnel in combat environments. Military police may be assigned to conduct high-risk personnel security in combat environments or be responsible for protecting commanders in key leadership positions, as designated by the combatant commander or identified through a personal security vulnerability assessment.

Special-Reaction Teams

2-112. An SRT is a specially trained and equipped reaction force integral to contingency plans for bases and base camps responding to a major disruption or special threat situation. Commanders organize, equip, and train the SRT according to ATP 3-39.11. Installation senior commanders may establish an SRT that includes personnel from local civilian law enforcement agencies via an intergovernmental support agreement, memorandum of agreement, or mutual aid agreement. Installation senior commanders may also establish resident SRTs on their respective Army installations using organic Army assets.

2-113. The SRT is one of the most technical and highly trained law enforcement assets. The SRT has the capability to neutralize, through control and selective fire functions, persons who, if not removed by fire,

pose an imminent threat of death or serious bodily injury against others. ATP 3-39.11 provides guidance for training, equipping, and employing SRTs. Special threat situations where SRTs can be employed include—

- Precision high-risk entry for barricaded persons or hostage rescue.
- Dangerous suspect apprehensions.
- Offensive or counter sniper operations.
- Support buildings or vehicle searches, raids or seizures.
- Support to protective services.
- Support force protection or other venue over watch operations.
- Close quarters battle tactics instruction to HN police.
- Support to drug suppression teams.
- Support to other special threat response requirements.

ARMY CIVILIAN POLICE AND SECURITY GUARDS

2-114. The increased demands on military police have facilitated the need for a greater expansion of the Army civilian police and security guard program. Army civilian police and security guards are governed by AR 190-56. Army civilian police officers and guards are trained via a standardized program of instruction. The USAMPS is the proponent for Army civilian police and guards training and doctrine. Army civilian police and guards are trained professionals who fill the public safety gap by providing police and security activities to bases and base camps. Army civilian police can be employed across the full range of military police law enforcement capabilities but not deployed to support decisive action. A DA security guard serves as access control and other physical security duties not requiring law enforcement-trained personnel. A DA security guard may detain personnel, but they are not authorized to apprehend. A DA security guard is not qualified for use as a law enforcement officer. Access control considerations and procedures are described in ATP 3-39.32 and TC 19-210.

UNITED STATES ARMY CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION COMMAND SUPPORT

2-115. USACIDC SAs support Army policing efforts within an independent organizational structure. USACIDC elements support unit commanders and work with Army military police, but remain under the control of the USACIDC command structure. USACIDC elements support the senior commander or geographic combat commander in maintaining order and discipline by deterring crime through proactive crime prevention efforts and investigating major crimes that impact unit readiness and the commander's ability to preserve combat power.

2-116. USACIDC criminal investigations focus on serious crimes (wrongful deaths, controlled-substance offenses, theft, fraud, sexual misconduct, assaults) as prescribed in AR 195-2. USACIDC also conducts protective service missions, sensitive and special investigations involving senior Army officials, and investigations associated with classified programs. These elements are assigned to a geographic area of responsibility and typically support organizations within that area. When tasked to support a specific organization, USACIDC elements may be attached to a supported commander (if authorized by the commanding general, USACIDC). See FM 3-39 for additional information on USACIDC structure and employment.

2-117. USACIDC provides technical criminal investigative support, integrating its capabilities with Army military police activities, other law enforcement investigative agencies, and military criminal investigative organizations from sister Services. USACIDC SAs provide—

- Law enforcement investigative support (SAs conduct investigations of crimes against persons and property).
- Casualty investigations when incurred from friendly forces (friendly fire incidents or criminal fratricide).
- Drug suppression operations.
- Fraud investigations.

- Investigations into—
  - War crime allegations.
  - Abuse of detainees, displaced indigenous personnel, or local national employees who allege abuse by U.S. forces.
- Investigations of violations of international agreements, status-of-forces agreements, and other sensitive incidents as directed by appropriate authorities.
- Law enforcement professionals to support police intelligence activities, evidence collection, and targeting efforts of commanders at all levels.
- Reachback support to the USACIDC headquarters, sister Service military criminal investigative organizations, the Defense Forensic Science Center, and other federal and international law enforcement agencies.
- HN police development in advance law enforcement investigations.
- Digital forensics analysis.
- Polygraph support.
- Forensics exploitation and lab support.
- Protective services.
- Terrorism and criminal investigations.

2-118. USACIDC provides forensic analysis through the Defense Forensic Science Center, the Forensics Exploitation Directorate, and the Global Exploitation Center via modular, deployable laboratories and forward-deployed forensic support to Army and maneuver commanders. These capabilities enable more responsive and timely forensic analysis (latent fingerprints, toolmarks, firearms, trace and bulk chemical analysis, drug chemistry, explosive triage and explosive chemistry, electronic engineering, deoxyribonucleic acid [DNA]).

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Chapter 3

The Police Station

The police station is the heart of all law enforcement activity. This is true whether the law enforcement agency is civilian or military police. Police stations supporting bases, base camps, or metropolitan areas can be large operations with significant capabilities beyond basic law enforcement requirements, while small stations can be austere with only the most basic equipment and facilities. This chapter discusses how deliberate law enforcement activities require organizational structure and technical and tactical capabilities and oversight specifically focused on law enforcement and policing activities, provisions of due processes, and support to the rule of law. These activities and capabilities are managed within the construct of police station operations.

SECTION I - POLICE STATION CAPABILITIES

3-1.   Law enforcement includes numerous distinct activities performed in an effort to maintain order, protect personnel and equipment, enforce laws and regulations, apprehend offenders, and investigate crimes. Police station operations comprise the activities and capabilities required to organize, plan, direct, and control law enforcement and policing assets.

POLICE STATION

3-2.   The military police station provides the base for law enforcement communications, planning, patrol operations, investigations, employment of special capabilities, temporary detention of subjects, and logistic and administration support specific to law enforcement. Military police must be familiar with the basic requirements of a functional police station to understand police station operations. These capabilities will be found within military police and civilian HN structures. Military police and USACIDC should understand that within HN police station structures, these capabilities may be organizationally aligned differently and may contain variant command and control structures; however, the capability should be available for the efficient conduct of law enforcement and policing.

3-3.   Military police stations providing law enforcement support to U.S. military bases and base camps will typically have elements not required in stations supporting civilian populations. All military police stations require an operations section to provide planning and direct oversight to the police station and associated personnel and resources. The various sections and capabilities required for effective law enforcement and policing activities are under the control of the operations section. The operations section and subordinate law enforcement capabilities are typically provided by a military police law enforcement detachment and associated teams. See chapter 2 for a description of the military police law enforcement detachments and associated law enforcement capabilities.

3-4.   Military police Soldiers and leaders must be thoroughly familiar with basic police station operations requirements. These requirements are relevant, whether performing police operations in support of bases and base camps or building HN police capability and capacity in support of contingency operations. There are several requirements and capabilities that are typically found in all police station operations. The relative size of the individual capability elements depends on the size of the organization or AO to be supported, resource constraints, and other environmental factors. The minimum elements required for any police station to conduct effective law enforcement and policing must include—
- A law enforcement operations section.
- A police desk section.

- A law enforcement patrol section.
- A criminal investigations section.
- A traffic management and enforcement section.
- A police administration section.
- A logistics section.
- A police training section.
- Absent without leave/deserter recovery.
- An SRT.

Law Enforcement Operations Section

3-5.   The operations section provides oversight and control of the law enforcement mission and all elements and resources of the organization engaged in law enforcement activities, including those shown above. The operations section conducts near-term and long-range planning for the organization, assigns tasks and produces operations orders for law enforcement elements, and coordinates with other military and civilian agencies. In addition, the operations section provides oversight for—

- Evidence custodian and evidence storage procedures.
- Emergency response requirements.
- Special-event planning and execution.
- Coordination of police engagement activities.
- Shift change and guard mount briefings.
- Patrol debriefings.
- Police intelligence activities.
- Security detail for distinguished visitors.

3-6.   These functions will typically be performed by the military police brigade or battalion S-3 within expeditionary environments during the early stages of deliberate policing missions associated with decisive action. For missions supporting U.S. forces, this function will typically be assumed by a deployed military police law enforcement detachment attached to a military police battalion or brigade. During missions in support of HN civil control efforts, military police brigades and battalions will retain the mission as the theater matures but will typically require augmentation by military police law enforcement detachments and other modular law enforcement elements.

Police Desk Section

3-7.   The police desk section is responsible for managing the communications and daily task assignments for available law enforcement assets. The police desk section works under the direct control and supervision of the law enforcement operations officer within the operations section. The desk operations section includes, at a minimum, a desk sergeant and a radio and telephone operator. For larger operations, multiple desk sergeants and communications personnel may be required. These larger operations may also require the addition of an administrative clerk to support production of the police blotter and a watch commander to provide overall supervision when the span of control exceeds the capability of a single desk sergeant. The police desk section receives all incoming calls for military police assistance and is typically the first point of telephonic contact the public has with a police organization. The police desk section prioritizes the employment of resources and assigns tasks appropriately, initiates notifications (when required), reviews the initial case work of law enforcement patrols, and produces the police blotter. The desk section also—

- Conducts alarm monitoring.
- Controls detained personnel and associated detention cell requirements.
- Maintains police journals to document police activities and contacts.
- Provides information to law enforcement patrols and other support personnel.
- Accesses law enforcement databases and reporting systems (the National Crime Information Center, ALERTS).

- Performs maintenance on breath analysis equipment required for cases involving driving under the influence or other alcohol-related incidents.
- Maintains station key control.
- Performs station security.

LAW ENFORCEMENT PATROL SECTION

3-8. The law enforcement patrol section within a police station provides the baseline patrol and initial response capability within an assigned AO or jurisdiction. Typically, the patrol section within military police operations is manned by military police Soldiers from supporting military police companies augmenting the military police commander, the PM, or the military police law enforcement detachment responsible for the law enforcement mission. In these cases, the military police operations section must coordinate support to ensure that adequate manpower is available. This section can be supported with civilian DA police assets on bases or base camps within the United States. Within a civilian agency, the law enforcement patrol capability is an organic asset of the civilian law enforcement organization.

CRIMINAL INVESTIGATIONS SECTION

3-9. The investigations section conducts criminal investigations of identified criminal activities. These investigators typically conduct follow-on investigations (when required based on the offense, the severity of the crime, and the evidence available) following the report of a crime and the initial response by law enforcement patrols. When warranted, criminal investigations can be initiated by criminal investigators without an initial response by a law enforcement patrol. Law enforcement personnel assigned to the investigations section require specialized and extensive training to conduct criminal investigations.

3-10. Within many civilian police agencies, investigators are referred to as detectives or SAs. Within military police organizations, minor criminal investigations are conducted by assigned military police investigators. Military police investigators are typically assigned to the military police investigations team within a military police law enforcement detachment, although limited capability exists within military police companies and platoons. Serious crimes are investigated by USACIDC SAs. USACIDC SAs operate within the USACIDC chain of command. See AR 190-30 for additional information responsibilities for criminal investigations.

3-11. The investigations section, in support of criminal investigations and the law enforcement mission, conducts—

- Interviews and law enforcement interrogations.
- Crime prevention activities and surveys.
- Case reviews.
- Law enforcement surveillance.
- Legal coordination.
- Evidence collection and preservation.
- Drug suppression activities.

TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT AND ENFORCEMENT SECTION

3-12. The traffic management and enforcement section provides specialized patrols that conduct activities focused on maintaining the safety of public roadways, enforcing traffic laws, investigating traffic collisions, and working to mitigate traffic problems due to traffic congestion, accidents, and emergency situations. Law enforcement personnel assigned to the traffic section require specialized training to conduct traffic management, investigations, and enforcement. The traffic section also conducts—

- Traffic studies.
- Special-event planning and support.
- Traffic control directional and warning signage (normally coordinated with the Directorate of Public Works)
- Checkpoints.

POLICE ADMINISTRATION SECTION

3-13. The police administration section provides critical support capabilities required by law enforcement agencies. This section typically manages automation systems and access requirements for the organization, but also—

- Manages and allocates case file numbers and monitors cases for administrative completeness and accuracy.
- Conducts processing and storage of police reports.
- Submits law enforcement records to the United States Army Crime Records Center for long term retention by means of assigning a United States Army Crime Records Center control number to the report.
- Distributes police reports (as appropriate) and ensures that the distribution is controlled and conducted within legal and regulatory constraints.
- Conducts liaison with the court system.
- Produces police-related correspondence, as required.

LOGISTICS SECTION

3-14. A logistics section is critical to any police operation. Within military police and USACIDC organizations, this capability is provided by the organization logistics staff officer section. This section is responsible for ensuring that law enforcement and support elements have the required equipment and supplies to perform their missions. These requirements can range from vehicles and radios to paper and cleaning supplies.

3-15. Ongoing law enforcement requires extensive amounts of expendable administrative and routine policing and investigations supplies. These supplies include—

- Evidence collection materials.
- Biometric collection equipment and materials.
- Personal-protective equipment and other safety-related equipment, materials, or supplies.
- Communications equipment.
- Vehicles equipped for law enforcement activities. Law enforcement operations inherently require large volumes of fuel and other petroleum supplies and extensive vehicle maintenance and repair capabilities.
- Special-response equipment.
- Speed-measuring devices.
- Emergency lighting.
- Canine-related equipment, food, shelter, and protection items.

3-16. A myriad of other materials may also be required. Planners should identify ongoing logistical requirements early and develop and coordinate an appropriate military police support plan.

TRAINING SECTION

3-17. A training capability is critical to any police organization. The training capability within military police and USACIDC organizations is maintained within the company headquarters and military police brigade and battalion S-3 sections. The training section must manage training records and certification documentation for all law enforcement personnel. This includes annual and cyclical in-service training required to maintain proficiency in critical or perishable skills. Some law enforcement capabilities require certification of any law enforcement personnel before allowing them to conduct specific activities. These requirements mitigate the chance of injury or death to law enforcement personnel or civilians and possible legal liability. Examples of capabilities requiring periodic certification and training include—

- Initial certification to perform law enforcement duties.
- Emergency vehicle operations.

- Weapons qualifications, including less lethal weapons (police batons, oleoresin capsicum [OC] [pepper spray], electronic control device).
- National Incident Management System certification.
- Radar and laser speed detection device certification.
- Drug and explosive dog detection certification.
- Breath analyzer certification.

3-18. In cases where military police must support the establishment of HN police organizations, training capability must be established for planning, resourcing, and conducting initial-entry police academies and advanced police training. While initial training for military police Soldiers and USACIDC SAs is the responsibility of USAMPS, civilian police organizations often maintain their own organic training capability or use a regional facility that meets local certification requirements. Military police and USACIDC personnel must be prepared to assist HN police agencies in establishing and maintaining this capability.

ADDITIONAL POLICE STATION CAPABILITIES

3-19. Some capabilities (due to the environment, organizational structure, or resource constraints) may not be resident within police station organizations. Additionally, the nature of police operations in support of military communities typically requires many capabilities resident within the military police station that may not be required within their civilian counterparts. These capabilities will be present in most military police stations supporting bases within the United States. The requirement for some capabilities outside the United States or for operations in support of HN civil control efforts may not exist (for example, a conservation law enforcement officer is not typically required outside the United States).

Civilian Police Liaison

3-20. The civilian police liaison section is a military-specific capability required to support commanders by maintaining communications and relationships with civilian law enforcement agencies in the area. This section provides a dedicated capability to identify Soldiers who have been detained by civilian law enforcement and coordinate for their return to military control. The civilian police liaison section provides support to unit commanders to ensure that legal requirements emanating from a Soldier's apprehension are understood by the individual and their chain of command. The section also conducts coordination with civilian law enforcement to return Soldiers to military control who are absent without leave and have been apprehended by civilian authorities.

Conservation Law Enforcement Officer

3-21. The Conservation Law Enforcement Program is responsible for actively enforcing local, state, and federal environmental, natural, and cultural resource laws and regulations. The conservation law enforcement officers are key components in the preservation of these resources that have been entrusted to the Army. Conservation law enforcement officers—

- Identify and respond to HAZMAT releases or dump sites.
- Control access, movement, and egress of sportsmen or other personnel who are authorized to hunt, fish, or conduct other activities on military bases and base camps. It is critical to know the location of all personnel operating in and around training and operational areas to avoid conflicts with military elements and to mitigate safety hazards.
- Identify, cite, or apprehend illegal hunters, trespassers, area access violators, boating/watercraft violations or illegal fisherman.
- Respond to accidents (training, hunting, and vehicular) outside the populated areas of the AO.
- Enforce and investigate violations of the Federal laws identified in DODI 5525.17.
- Provide for the safety of recreationists and military users of the land.
- Conduct inspections of hunters, anglers, and trappers to ensure that recreationists are in compliance with state and local laws.
- Perform emergent nuisance wildlife and predator control functions.

- Provide education and training to the installation populace, workforce, and general public to prevent inadvertent violation of natural and cultural resource laws
- Enforce 10 USC, 16 USC, and 18 USC as they pertain to conservation law enforcement and applicable Army or local regulations and state laws.

Physical Security and Access Control

3-22. Dedicated physical security and access control elements are typically not found in civilian law enforcement organizations. The unique requirements and the environment of the military community require personnel in these elements to monitor physical security posture, provide physical security presence and response, and educate the military community regarding physical security requirements and techniques. They are also a critical element in community crime prevention efforts. Typically, the physical security section—

- Conducts inspections and surveys.
- Recommends and monitors mission-essential vulnerable areas.
- Publishes and maintains a physical security plan.
- Maintains physical security alarm systems.
- Recommends access control procedures.

Biometrics

3-23. *Biometrics* is the process of recognizing an individual based on measurable anatomical, physiological, and behavioral characteristics (JP 2-0). These characteristics are useful for tracking individuals, making positive identifications, establishing security procedures, or using as tools to detect deception based on measurable biological responses to stimulus. Biometric data can be used for protection and security efforts, contributions to biometric-enabled intelligence activities, and evidence in investigations and criminal prosecution. Matching biometric data from persons against forensically collected biometrics correlates a person to a place or activity. Units must maintain operability of assigned biometrics equipment and appropriate levels of user proficiency training to best facilitate biometric enrollment to enhance force protection. The following are the major types of biometric data used by police and intelligence collectors:

- **Personal identification data.** Biometric collection and identification devices use biological information (fingerprints, voiceprints, facial scans, retinal scans) to match an individual to a source database. The identity of a specific individual can be identified from the target population during screening.
- **Data that indicates source truthfulness.** Devices such as voice stress analyzers and polygraphs are useful in determining a subject's truthfulness. The USACIDC commanding general, in coordination with the Army Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans, exercises overall Army staff responsibility for the DA Polygraph Program and policy guidance with respect to using the polygraph in criminal investigations. The Army Deputy Chief of Staff for intelligence promulgates policy on the use of polygraph and credibility assessment for intelligence and counterintelligence applications in AR 381-20.

Forensics

3-24. Forensic is the application of multidisciplinary scientific processes to establish facts. The forensic functions of recognize, preserve, collect, analyze, store, and share are used to establish facts and identify connections between persons, objects, or data. Forensic is most commonly associated with evidence collected at crime scenes or incident sites, but also includes methodologies for the analysis of computers and networks, accounting, psychiatry, and other specialized fields. Forensics is typically employed to support legal proceedings that lead to criminal prosecution. Additionally, forensic analysis is used to answer commander's critical information requirements, provide situational understanding, and support other mission requirements in support of military operations.

3-25. The primary mission of the Defense Forensic Science Center is forensics support to Army criminal investigations and operations. The primary laboratory facility maintained by the Defense Forensic Science Center is stationary due to the nature of the equipment required; however, within the Defense Forensic Science Center, forward-deployed mobile forensics emerged as a solution to operational requirements to

support deployed commanders. Operational developments in recent years have documented a growing demand for forensics support to deployed commanders. The Defense Forensic Science Center deploys forensics exploitations teams with trained examiners to support commanders in the field as far forward as possible. These deployable capabilities enable the Defense Forensic Science Center to provide more timely forensic analysis across the spectrum of capabilities, including latent fingerprints, toolmarks, firearms, DNA, digital forensic analysis, and explosive and drug chemistry. The USACIDC digital forensic cells and the Defense Cybercrime Center Cyber Forensic Laboratory also conducts digital forensics.

3-26. The need for the proper handling of material from a crime scene or incident site is critical to the success of forensic examination by forensic scientists and technicians. Military police are trained to properly handle and preserve collected material, whether in the context of processing a crime scene or collecting and protecting material in support of military operations. Recent operational developments have emerged requiring Soldiers to train on the collection and preservation of forensic evidence on the battlefield. Soldiers of many specialties beyond military police forces are now being required to understand basic evidence collection procedures to protect crime scenes and incident sites.

Absentee Deserter Apprehension Program

3-27. The criminal offenses of absent without leave and desertion are within the purview of the PMO/Director of Emergency Services in accordance with AR 195–2. Investigation and documentation of the criminal complaint is a law enforcement responsibility. Proactive efforts by military law enforcement to physically apprehend the absentee will not generally be committed unless the PM determines such efforts are warranted by specific circumstances. This does not preclude coordination with local, state or Federal law enforcement agencies to affect apprehension if evidence exists or is developed to indicate the absentee's location. Military police efforts will generally extend only to the documentation, investigation and collection of evidence regarding the offenses; any evidence the Soldier's absence was a result of foul play or the criminal actions of others; reporting information developed in the course of the investigation to the United States Army Deserter Information Point to aid in the location and apprehension of the absentee; and providing a completed report to the absentee's commander for action. See AR 190-9 for additional information on Absentee Deserter Apprehension Program.

DETENTION CELL OPERATIONS

3-28. Most police operations centers that support bases and base camps are equipped with a detention cell to temporarily hold military or civilian subjects, subsequent to apprehension for an offense. Detention cell operations and construction requirements are governed by AR 190-45 and AR 190-47. The temporary detention of personnel within the detention cell is conducted only when necessary to—

- Ensure proper custody and control of detained personnel.
- Ensure that the detained individual is safe.
- Ensure that law enforcement and other personnel are safe.

3-29. In situations where a detention cell is not available within the military police station, subjects may be held in civilian facilities that meet the minimum Army requirements referenced above. Memorandums of agreement are typically used to formalize the arrangements between military and civilian facilities.

3-30. The detention cell should be constructed where constant supervision and monitoring can be conducted by police desk or unit personnel to ensure that detained personnel are safe. This may be via direct observation or through the use of video capability. The detention of military personnel typically will not exceed 24 hours; however, detention up to 72 hours may be approved in extreme circumstances. Approval of detention over 24 hours and up to 72 hours is typically delegated by the supported base or base camp commander to the PM or senior military police commander responsible for activities. The detention of civilian personnel should only be done in extreme cases and only until the subject can be released to civilian authorities or any threat the subject poses to themselves or others has been resolved or acceptably mitigated (such as a drunk driver who is sufficiently sober or can be released to a third-party). A commissioned officer or PM typically must approve the detention of a civilian subject.

3-31. The detention of civilian personnel should be conducted only—

- In cases of serious felony offenses when the individual is considered a flight risk.
- To ensure that the individual or the community (such as in drunk-driving cases) is safe.

Notes.

1. Male and female personnel should never be detained in the same cell simultaneously.

2. Juvenile offenders should never be detained in a military police detention cell and must be separated by sight and sound from adults under apprehension.

3-32. An apprehended person must be thoroughly searched before being placed in the detention cell to ensure that the subject has no weapons, contraband, nor any other items that could be used for personal harm or to harm others. All valuables, including money and personal property (other than clothing and wedding rings), should be removed, inventoried, and safely secured. Some detained subjects may become distraught and attempt to inflict harm on themselves; therefore, any clothing items that could be used to inflict personal injury (belts, shoelaces, neckties, garters, suspenders) should be removed to ensure that the subject is safe. These items should be inventoried and secured with the subject's other property. All property, other than that identified as having evidentiary value in a criminal proceeding, will be returned to the subject upon release or transfer to civilian authorities. All property collected, retained, transferred, or released should be documented according to AR 190-45 and AR 190-47.

3-33. Military police detention cells may be used for holding subjects subsequent to apprehension for criminal activity and housing military prisoners under the following circumstances:

- **Temporary confinement.** This confinement is conducted to house a military prisoner who is—
  - Awaiting transfer to a DOD corrections facility as a result of a court-martial sentence to confinement.
  - Sent to a base or base camp from a DOD confinement facility to appear as a witness in a court-martial proceeding or other legal proceeding.
- **Pretrial confinement.** In some cases, subjects awaiting court-martial may be held in pretrial confinement within a military police detention cell (or a civilian facility meeting Army requirements). Normally, military personnel awaiting trial remain under the control of their units. Prisoners will only be placed in pretrial confinement and retained by military police when the legal requirements of the Rules for Courts-Martial (contained in the *Manual for Courts-Martial*) are met. Rule 305(k), *Manual for Courts-Martial*, requires probable cause belief that a court-martial offense has been committed, that the prisoner committed it, and that a more severe form of restraint is necessary to ensure that the prisoner will appear at pretrial and trial proceedings and not conduct serious criminal misconduct. Military personnel are only subject to pretrial confinement when the confinement is approved by the appropriate authority, as directed in AR 27-10. Within expeditionary environments, apprehended U.S. military personnel or convicted military prisoners may be held in a field detention facility. Military police use these facilities to detain U.S. military prisoners placed in custody for short-term detention. Field detention facilities are used to hold prisoners in custody only until they can be tried and sentenced to confinement or evacuated from the immediate area for detention in a facility on a U.S. base or base camp. When possible, prisoners awaiting trial remain in their units and not at a field detention facility. These facilities should comply with regulatory construction standards to the greatest extent possible and within the constraints of the operational environment. The lack of facilities and other infrastructure constructed to standard does not reduce the requirements for providing for the safety and humane treatment of any person held in detention. See FM 3-39 additional information on field detention facilities.

ARMY LAW ENFORCEMENT COMPLIANCE ASSESSMENT PROGRAM

3-34. The Army Law Enforcement Compliance Program provides the Army a comprehensive tool for objectively measuring Army installation PMO compliance and standardization in executing law enforcement operations. The information obtained through the Army Law Enforcement Compliance Program is used to develop performance improvement strategies tailored specifically to the needs of the PMO. Strategy implementation supports attainment of the Army Law Enforcement Compliance Program's primary goal—to improve PMO readiness to respond to incidents spanning the all-hazards environment by fostering continuous performance enhancement. The Army Law Enforcement Compliance Program objectively measures policy compliance and performance in 15 LE functional areas. The functional areas are—

- Access control.
- Communications.
- Credentials.
- Criminal investigations.
- Detention cell.
- Evidence and property.
- Equipment and uniforms.
- Certification program.
- Law enforcement operations.
- Police administration.
- Records and reporting.
- Motor vehicle traffic program.
- Training.
- Use of force.
- MWDs.

SECTION II - POLICE INFORMATION MANAGEMENT

3-35. Police information management is ongoing and integrated throughout law enforcement activities. The military police, PM, or USACIDC operations officer is responsible for the management of police information, including integrated police intelligence activities and products produced in support of police operations. While the responsibility to provide oversight and management of police information typically resides with the operations officer, Army law enforcement personnel (including police intelligence analysts and associated staff) must understand the legal and regulatory requirements for handling and sharing law enforcement information. Military police and USACIDC personnel—

- Collect information from a wide variety of sources. The collected information must be reported as soon as possible through the operational chain to the echelon operations section for processing by police intelligence personnel.
- Collaborate to develop effective police networks and databases.
- Provide information, police intelligence, and mutual support to other agencies and organizations to enable the targeting, collection, and interdiction of criminals and criminal activities.
- Provide appropriate information to the general public to aid in crime prevention and other law enforcement efforts.

3-36. During contingency operations police information can greatly enhance situational understanding. Police information informs the Army's operations process through its associated integrating processes (intelligence preparation of the battlefield, targeting, and risk management). Police information may be restricted within the United States or in cases involving U.S. persons outside the United States.

3-37. Information or police intelligence that must be retained within law enforcement channels to protect information, sources, or ongoing investigations is characterized as law enforcement-sensitive. The term law enforcement-sensitive is used to classify information or intelligence that is obtained for, processed through,

or managed by law enforcement organizations. Data must be restricted to law enforcement channels, unless otherwise directed by a competent authority that is managing police information. (See ATP 3-39.20.) Distribution restrictions must be understood by the producers and the recipients of disseminated police information or police intelligence. At times, products may contain data drawn from multiple unclassified sources. These products may—

- Remain unclassified.
- Receive a distribution caveat of law enforcement-sensitive or sensitive but unclassified.
- Receive a classified restriction when warranted.

3-38. Documents or data classified as law enforcement-sensitive must be restricted. It may be possible to prevent the creation of a classified product simply by protecting the manner in which the information was collected or processed. In the event that a product requires classification, immediate action should be taken to ensure that the classified data or document is properly stored to prevent unauthorized access or the compromise of information or intelligence. Personnel should conduct coordination with the local offices responsible for computer network defense and security issues to ensure that security requirements are maintained.

3-39. An increased emphasis on information sharing and networking among police agencies and advances in database technology have resulted in the development and expansion of information networks accessible by law enforcement organizations. Army law enforcement personnel continue to access the National Crime Information Center database (managed by the Federal Bureau of Investigation). There are also numerous databases containing criminal threat information from the Department of Homeland Security; Federal Bureau of Investigation; tasks forces; fusion centers; and federal, state, and local law enforcement organizations. See AR 190-45 for information on personally identifiable information and how to prevent the unauthorized release of information.

LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS

3-40. There are strict legal and regulatory constraints on storing information about U.S. persons. The supporting SJA should be consulted to ensure that data storage is in compliance with applicable laws and regulations. Specific regulations, statutes, and other directives relevant to collecting and managing police information include—

- 5 USC 522a (commonly known as the Privacy Act of 1974).
- AR 190-24.
- AR 190-45.
- AR 195-2.
- AR 381-10.
- AR 525-13.
- DOD 5240.1-R.
- DODD 3025.18.
- DODD 5200.27.
- DODD 5240.01.
- DODI 2000.12.
- DODI O-2000.16, Volumes 1 and 2.
- DODI 3025.21.
- EO 12333.

3-41. Military police, USACIDC staff, and law enforcement personnel must understand applicable statutes, regulations, directives, and orders pertinent to managing law enforcement information to ensure law compliance. Military police and USACIDC personnel collect, analyze, store, and disseminate information and police intelligence during the conduct of law enforcement activities.

3-42. These activities are conducted within the guidelines and constraints established by national and international laws, federal statutes, DA directives and regulations, and applicable status-of-forces agreements. See ATP 3-39.20 for more information on managing police information and police intelligence.

ARMY LAW ENFORCEMENT REPORTING AND TRACKING SYSTEM

3-43. The primary automation tool used by military police and USACIDC is DA Form 190-45-SG (Army Law Enforcement Reporting and Tracking System (ALERTS)). AR 190-45 mandates the use of ALERTS by Army military police for law enforcement activities. This system provides a standardized database and reporting system for military police reports. ALERTS is a secure systems for unclassified law enforcement-sensitive information. Civilian agencies cannot access ALERTS.

3-44. ALERTS enables the rapid dissemination of standardized law enforcement and investigative reporting, as well as police intelligence products generated though the criminal and crime analysis processes. ALERTS supports worldwide military police operations with real-time police information and police intelligence sharing across the Army law enforcement community. The tools and reports inherent to ALERTS enables police intelligence analysts and investigators to organize, analyzing, and disseminate police intelligence products by presenting police information and police intelligence in easily understood and standardized formats.

3-45. ALERTS allows military police staffs and USACIDC personnel the ability to generate standardize police reports for dissemination. There are several varieties of reports generated by ALERTS that facilitate criminal and crime analysis, police management and planning, and other internal analysis or operational functions.

3-46. ALERTS is accredited for unclassified law enforcement-sensitive operations and uses private, network-based software applications. Military police and USACIDC personnel have local office and global access to most data in ALERTS. ALERTS helps analysts and investigators by providing a common reporting and storage database for police information. This allows stored police information to be retrieved, collated, and used for criminal and crime analysis across law enforcement and investigative organizations. (See chapter 4 for discussion of ALERTs support to analysis). ALERTS also allows for the rapid query of police information to meet immediate information requirements, inform key decision makers, or share with relevant and authorized stakeholders. (See chapter 5 for discussion of ALERTS support to dissemination).

3-47. A central feature of ALERTS is the common repository of police information that allows law enforcement personnel across the Army to access common information, reports, and standards to support local analysis processes. Given the common access to this database by law enforcement officers across the Army, the seams that previously existed between military police and USACIDC data storage systems have largely been eliminated.

3-48. Besides being a database and repository for police information, ALERTS also provides analytical tools and capabilities that enable police intelligence analysts to perform criminal and crime analysis. Many of the analysis techniques explained in this manual can be performed using the tools inherent to ALERTS or using the data stored in ALERTS. ALERTS supports analysis and production with several tools, reports, and product outputs that can be generated using the system. These include law enforcement reports, crime prevention surveys, be on the lookouts (BOLOs), and criminal intelligence reports, raw data files, and reports that enable analysis and manipulation using common spreadsheet programs to determine patterns or develop charts to depict police information and police intelligence.

3-49. ALERTS replaced the Army Criminal Investigation/Intelligence system and the Centralized Operator's Police Suite, becoming the primary case management system for all Army law enforcement professionals. This system provides the Army with an integrated case management system for law enforcement, supporting both military police and USACIDC personnel. ALERTS streamlines the referral process and data flow from military police reports to reports of investigation to prevent duplicate reporting of the same criminal incidents. Additionally, external data reporting and sharing features, such as the Defense Data Exchange and the Defense Incident Base Reporting System, improve the ability of military police and USACIDC to share information with relevant stakeholders. For additional information on ALERTS, see AR 190-45 and DA Pam 190-45.

NON-ARMY LAW ENFORCEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS

3-50. When conducting police operations in support of HN police agencies or maneuver unit operations targeting populations other than U.S. personnel, information and police intelligence collected by military police and USACIDC personnel may be shared within the U.S. military or with HN police, security personnel, or others that require the information. These information systems may be Army systems or other information systems. Access to local, theater, DOD, non-DOD, and commercial databases can provide valuable information sharing capabilities. A validated Defense Intelligence Agency customer number (acquired by the appropriate level intelligence staff section), in combination with Secret Internet Protocol Router Network and Joint Worldwide Intelligence Communications System connectivity, is required to establish access to most online databases.

DISTRIBUTED COMMON GROUND SYSTEM–ARMY

3-51. The Distributed Common Ground System–Army provides a net-centric, enterprise information collection, weather, and geospatial engineering capability to organizations of all types at all echelons from battalion to joint task force levels. The Distributed Common Ground System–Army provides the capabilities necessary for commanders to access information from data sources and to synchronize sensors. Distributed Common Ground System–Army provides continuous acquisition and synthesis of data and information from joint and interagency capabilities and multinational partners. These capabilities allow forces to maintain an updated and accurate awareness of the operational environment.

3-52. Criminal information related to U.S. persons will typically be stored within secure law enforcement-only systems. Law enforcement- related information obtained by military police or USACIDC elements regarding non-U.S. persons is not typically required to be retained within secure law enforcement-only systems, allowing it to be populated into tactical databases (such as the Distributed Common Ground System–Army). This information can be a significant enabler for U.S. military staff and commanders to enhance situational understanding, targeting, and information collection priorities. Distributed Common Ground System–Army facilitates the rapid conduct of operations and the synchronization of warfighting functions. This capability enables commanders to operate within the threat decision cycle and shape the environment for successful follow-on operations.

AUTOMATED DATABASE AND ANALYTICAL APPLICATIONS

3-53. Numerous database applications are available to Army law enforcement but are not exclusive to the law enforcement community. These applications include automated databases with powerful analytical capabilities that can be used to aid Army law enforcement in identifying trends, patterns, and associations relevant to individual crimes, criminals, and criminal organizations. These software applications can be used to populate large amounts of data for analysis, prepare reports, and produce law enforcement products (to include police intelligence). See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on automated database and analytical software capabilities.

GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SYSTEM

3-54. The GIS can be extremely helpful to Army law enforcement. The GIS software may be used by Army law enforcement, typically the police intelligence analyst within the operations section, to conduct a geographic distribution analysis through layered graphics, blended geographic data, and descriptive information to map places, events, and criminal incidents to identify patterns and associations.

3-55. There are numerous commercial and DOD GISs to assist Army law enforcement in organizing, analyzing, and producing geographic data and products. These tools are useful and have the capability of providing layered, three-dimensional images of specific areas of interest. Data can be imported from an existing database or manually input into the GIS. Data for ongoing operations must be continuously updated to ensure that current and accurate data is used. GIS tools enable layering of informational data on top of

terrain to provide a more accurate picture of the AO or a specific target. These capabilities are especially useful in support of operations in dense urban areas. A GIS can be used to—

- Portray the effects of terrain on operations. For example, a GIS can produce a three-dimensional image of a target building for rapid analysis and decision making where a law enforcement raid or SRT mission is planned.
- Map and analyze criminal activity and associated structures and locations, aiding the identification of trends, patterns, and associations.
    - Identifying high-risk areas (areas at high risk for ambush, kidnapping, assassination, and improvised explosive device threats).
    - Identifying hot spots for focusing law enforcement patrol and crime prevention efforts.
    - Depicting criminal activity and emerging patterns facilitating geographic profiling to predict potential criminal or disruptive activity.
    - Displaying locations of connected crimes or activities, enabling the determination of probable areas of bases of operation, offender residences, or other key locations.
- Plan for emergency response to mission-essential vulnerable areas or high-risk targets.
- Plan for traffic control measures (traffic control points, communications nodes, supply and refuel points, road conditions).
- Plan for traffic control activities during disaster operations or special events.

HOST-NATION LAW ENFORCEMENT DATABASES

3-56. When U.S. forces partner with HN forces, especially as their capability increases and operations are transitioning to HN control, information sharing is required. Military police and USACIDC personnel conducting HN police development and transition activities may provide law enforcement information collected on HN personnel to HN police and security elements for inclusion in their databases. The information provided must be synchronized with U.S. military and other friendly elements operating in the AO, but the information must not compromise U.S. and other friendly operations.

SECTION III - POLICE STATION CONSTRUCTION CONSIDERATIONS

3-57. Oversite of law enforcement activities require organizational structure and technical and tactical capabilities specifically focused on law enforcement and policing activities, in support of the rule of law. This structure and the required capabilities are managed within the police station. Regardless of size, military police stations have basic requirements common to all functional military police operations. An understanding of the basic requirements can help military police in establishing military police stations in support of operations and when assisting HN police agencies in building their police station capability and capacity.

GENERAL REQUIREMENTS

3-58. The public must have access to military police station activities to conduct legitimate business. These areas must be easily accessible and clearly marked. However, controls must be established to prevent visitors and unauthorized personnel from wandering through the station. Such controls must not interfere with personnel who are conducting business with the various PM sections. Electronically operated visitor control doors can be used to gain access to the information desk. Military police station criteria for permanent stations in support of bases and base camps are outlined within the UFC 1-201-01. UFC 1-201-01 provides standardized planning guidelines for small and large military police stations. Minimum standards for detention cells are prescribed in AR 190-45 and AR 190-47.

3-59. Mission requirements determine the need for specific station features. To support the basic military police mission, space is required for—

- The PM, the deputy PM, and administrative support personnel (office space).
- A station desk.
- Law enforcement sections.

- - Operations.
    - Traffic.
    - Investigations.
    - Physical security and access control.
    - Police administration (records and reports).
    - Conservation law enforcement officer (if required).
  - An offender-processing area.
  - Conference and interrogation or interview rooms.
  - Patrol work areas, with automations support.
  - Arms, evidence, and property storage.
  - Briefing and debriefing patrol and reserve areas.
  - Detention facilities.
  - Public waiting rooms.
  - Latrine facilities.
  - Parking for employees, visitors, and military police vehicles.
  - Impounded-vehicle parking.
  - Communications and automations equipment (including a National Crime Information Center terminal).
  - Storage for riot control and other special equipment.
  - Shower facilities.

3-60. Specific station features should include—
  - Outside lighting 360° around the station, with a 50-foot standoff area free of private vehicle parking.
  - Controlled or monitored access to the station on all doors.
  - Special entrances provided for military police personnel.
  - Interior and exterior doors with shatterproof windows for maximum observation, with the exception of the door leading from the public waiting area to the detention area, which must not permit observation. This door is electrically operated.
  - A minimum of exterior windows. Where required, shatterproof windows may be substituted for plate glass.
  - Emergency lighting and power.
  - Separate latrine facilities for public and station personnel.
  - A field safe for storing property and evidence during nonduty hours when the evidence custodian is not readily available.
  - Interview rooms with one-way mirrors (where possible) for identification purposes.
  - A private work area for the duty officer. This area can also serve as an interview room.
  - A break area, out of public sight, for military police personnel. Break areas may contain vending machines.
  - A communications room with intrusion detection alarms for the post exchange, the finance office, and the bank.
  - Furniture (in public areas) inconspicuously secured to the floor to prevent its use in a scuffle.
  - Access to detention facilities that are free of items that can cause prisoner injury.
  - Offices that require frequent coordination (such as operations and administration) located close to one another.

3-61. Efficient design can enhance the security of the station, reduce personnel requirements, and ensure that station facilities are used effectively. The general planning guidance in each sample design is based on programming factors (staff composition, organizational structure, physical development requirements consistent with a hypothetical set of functional and operational objectives). Space organization principles are based on established organizational and functional needs and on requirements for the design and construction

of military police facilities. For more information on designing military police facilities, see UFC 1-201-01. Figure 3-1 and figure 3-2, page 3-16, provide examples of small and large military police stations.
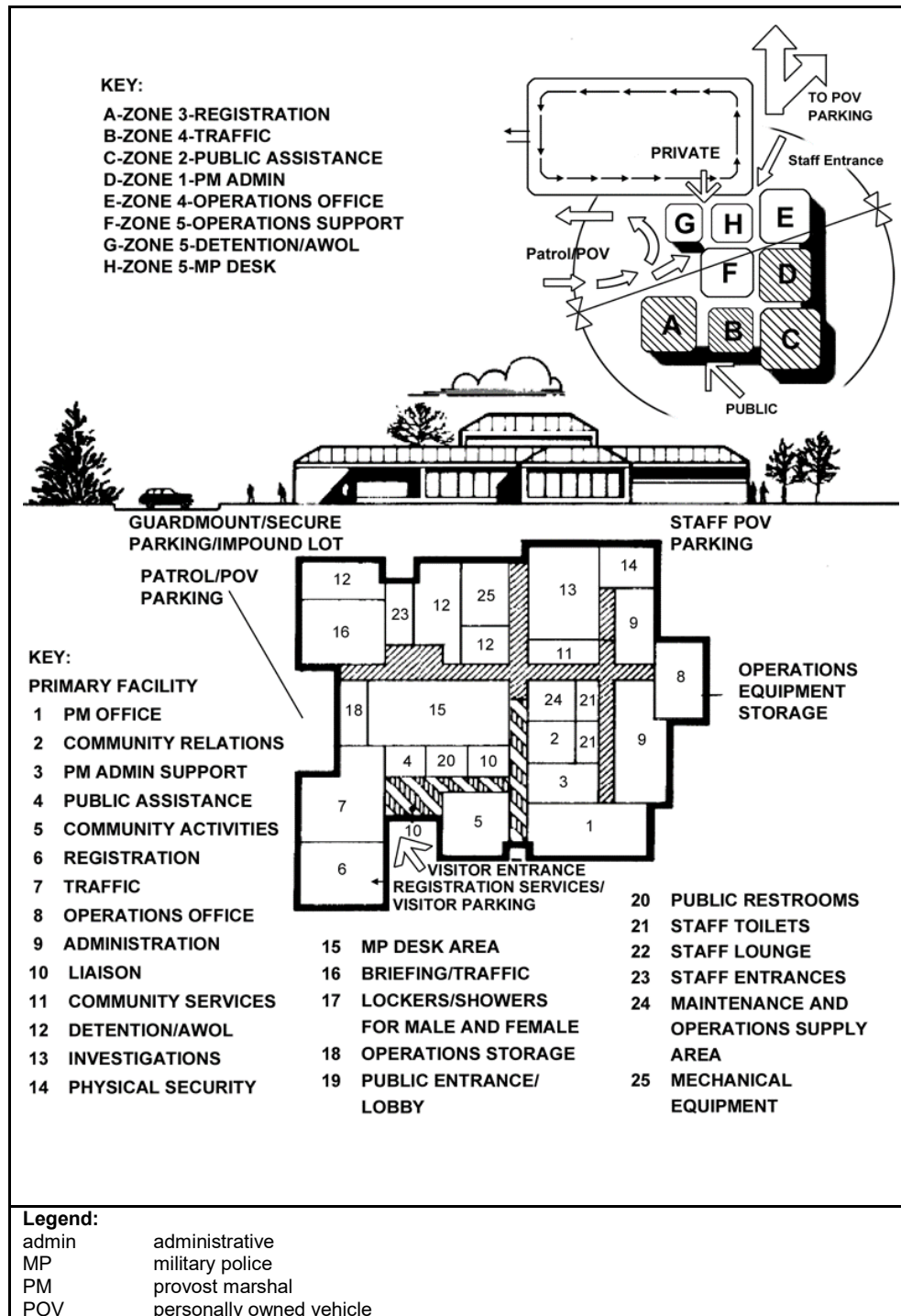

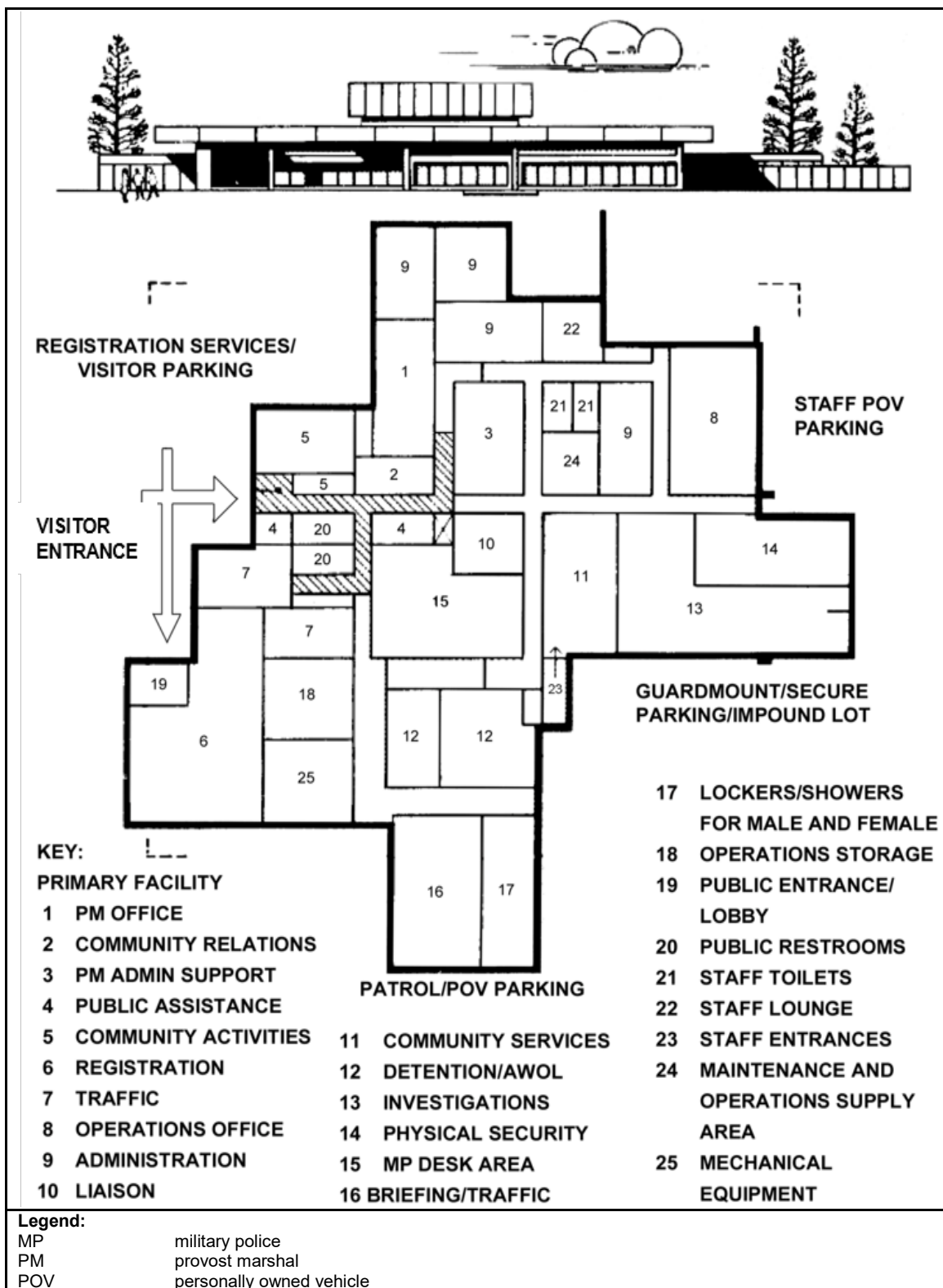**Figure 3-1. Example of a small military police station**

Figure 3-2. Example of a large military police station

RECONSTITITION OF HOST-NATION POLICE STATIONS

3-62. During the conduct of stability tasks, the U.S. military may be required to reconstitute HN police organizations and infrastructure. Military police (in conjunction with Civil Affairs, other multinational forces, governmental agencies, and HN forces) must assess the existing police structures to coordinate for construction support. They must coordinate reconstruction and funding efforts with contracting personnel to ensure compliance with procedures for expending funds in direct support of HN organizations. Military police must be prepared to write a statement of work and properly staff it through higher headquarters. Any project statement of work for an HN police station should address construction, protection, and other requirements identified in an assessment (as necessary) for the functionality of the police station. Project plans should be staffed with interagency and HN partners.

3-63. Police personnel and facilities are often targeted by criminals, terrorists, and insurgents; therefore, police personnel, equipment, and facilities require robust security and protection. Regardless of the physical structure or layout of the various police stations, basic protection measures need to be in place before police operations begin. Many of these measures may take weeks or months to construct. Protection measures include—

- Protection in-depth (includes the integration of supporting technology—lighting, surveillance cameras, automations and communications systems, alarms and alarm monitoring).
- Standoff distance.
- Access control.
- Barriers and blast mitigation.

LAYERED DEFENSE IN-DEPTH

3-64. There is no single security system, method, or design that protects against all threats. The central mechanism in the Army to protect against threats is through the layering of security, better known as layered defense in-depth. Commanders must apply layered defense in-depth to any protected facility to render an attack ineffective. Figure 3-3 illustrates the general, layered defense approach to the implementation of a physical security system. The protected facility is located within an innermost ring of security. Additional layers of security are provided at increasing distances from the asset to be protected. The number of layers, the components that comprise the layers, and their resistance to penetration depend on the threat and the importance of the asset to be protected. However, protection measures should not deter citizens' access to the police station to report crimes and other problems/concerns.

Figure 3-3. Example of layered protection

3-65. The objective of providing in-depth defense is to manage risks with redundant security or multiple protective measures between the threat and the target. Subsequently, these measures help a commander achieve a more complete security posture. Each measure must present unique obstacles to the threat, while also affording detection and protection capabilities. This action will increase the risk of detection to the adversary and reduce their chances of a successful intrusion or attack. Theoretically, if one layer of security proves inadequate protection, another layer will prevent the threat from conducting a full breach.

STANDOFF DISTANCE

3-66. The best protection from the effects of blasts is standoff distance. The standoff distance is the distance maintained between where a threat may be and the target. The initial goal should be to make that distance as far from the target as practical. In most countries, police stations are built from conventional construction (common unhardened construction). These buildings will not withstand common blast effects. To mitigate blast threats to police stations, standoff distances and exclusion areas must be established and enforced. See ATP 3-39.32 for data on minimum standoff distances to mitigate blast effects.

ACCESS CONTROL

3-67. Local citizens should have access to police stations to report crimes, seek assistance, or receive public safety information. However, access must be controlled and monitored to prevent adversaries from causing injury, death, or destruction to the police station and personnel. Personnel trained specifically in access control may be required in high-threat environments.

3-68. Initially, HN personnel may require military police Soldiers or other U.S. and multinational elements as partners to provide security or access control. This can be especially critical when HN loyalties or the infiltration of HN elements is a concern. HN security personnel must be monitored and supervised. Combining security forces enhances capabilities and provides different styles and levels of control. Using different methods to apply control measures confuses would-be adversaries. Access control procedures are described in TC 19-210.

3-69. Planning facility access control includes developing procedures for inspecting all incoming personnel, hand-carried items, and vehicles. Specific areas to be considered during access control operations include—

- Identification methods to be used (photograph identification, badges, biometric screening, finger print systems, and other supporting technologies).
- Authority for access and identification confirmation.
- Criteria for access to the police facility for—
  - Assigned personnel.
  - Visitors.
  - Media.
  - Maintenance personnel.
  - Contractors.
  - Delivery personnel.
  - Other emergency personnel.
- Material control procedures (consider inspecting all hand-carried items and deliveries).
- MWD team employment.
- Vehicle control (vehicle inspections, parking, emergency vehicle procedures, and other vehicle-related activities).
- Security overwatch and fighting position locations.
- Additional security measure locations.
  - Protective barriers.
  - Lighting (to include emergency backup lighting).
  - Communications.

- Response force operations (military police employ response force operations as described in ATP 3-39.30 and TC 19-210).
- Contingency planning (responding to fire alarms, bomb threats, hostage situations, natural disasters, and other emergencies).

BARRIERS AND BLAST MITIGATION

3-70. The most important protection measures used to protect personnel and facilities are barriers and blast mitigation. The detonation of vehicle bombs generates four primary hazards to personnel in fixed structures and shelters and in the open. These hazards include—

- Primary fragments.
- Secondary fragments from barriers and structures.
- Secondary debris in fixed structures.
- Blasts.

3-71. Barriers capable of stopping moving vehicles include chain link fences reinforced with cable, reinforced concrete barriers, ditches, and berms. Barrier materials may not be available in large quantities. Concrete barriers will need to be constructed locally and delivered to the site using large trucks and equipment. Engineers should be employed to ensure that the concrete is reinforced and that it meets minimum standards to prevent spalling, fracturing, and other forms of degradation caused by substandard production. Other types of barriers used to protect against blast threats include—

- Earth-filled barriers.
- Portable, water- or sand-filled barriers.

3-72. Reinforced concrete barriers used for countermobility should not be used to mitigate blast damage. Concrete barriers at the detonation point can help (when properly constructed and placed) to mitigate fragments, but do little to mitigate the blast. Reinforced concrete barriers should be linked with cabling to ensure that the integrity of the barrier is maintained. Earth-filled barriers work well for fragment protection, but do little to reduce structural damage. Water-filled barriers are ideal for quick deployment. Water-filled barriers are lightweight when they are empty, but they can weigh several thousand pounds when full. Therefore, water-filled barriers should be chained together for effectiveness.

3-73. Maximum protection can be achieved when different types of barriers are integrated into a system of protection. Personnel should consider using a combination of concrete and earth-filled barriers for countermobility protection and to reduce the effects of a blast. TC 19-210 describes each barrier and its protection capabilities. See ATP 3-39.32 for the planning and implementation of barriers, blast mitigation, and the other aspects of hardening measures related to protection.

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Chapter 4

Policing Measures and Strategies

Military police incorporate various policing measures and strategies depending on the community, the agency, the problem, and other operational and environmental considerations. Often, different approaches overlap because different groups develop similar solutions to the same types of problems. This chapter discusses how military police synchronize, integrate, and organize complementary and reinforcing policing measures and strategies to safeguard the force, protect populations, and enable the existence of law and order.

SECTION I – POLICING MEASURES

4-1. Military police conduct police operations to support a commander's efforts to maintain order and discipline, control and protect populations and resources and to facilitate the existence of a lawful and orderly environment, thus protecting combat power and enabling freedom of action. Police operations and associated activities are critical to the commander's antiterrorism program (see AR 525-13). Military police also conduct police operations to support civil security and enable the establishment of civil control and a functioning criminal justice system supporting HN populations. It is the responsibility of the PM or senior military police commander tasked with the law enforcement mission to develop measures to enforce these requirements. The same measures can be applied when conducting police operations to establish and maintain civil control within the HN population during stability tasks.

4-2. The PM or senior military police commander establishes police operations measures to—
- Enforce compliance with policies, directives, and applicable laws by the U.S. military community or HN populace.
- Prevent or mitigate illegal or disruptive activity.
- Respond to emergencies.
- Protect and educate the populace.

4-3. These measures are integral to the police operations discipline and can be generally aligned within three categories (law enforcement, physical security, and crime prevention). While these categories serve as general descriptors, it must be understood that activities within the separate categories are mutually supporting and are rarely conducted as a singular effort. They are most effective when conducted in a synchronized and integrated manner, producing a layered approach to security and law enforcement supporting U.S. or supported HN assets. The intent of law enforcement, physical security, and crime prevention measures are to prevent, detect, and respond to crime and criminal activity. Law enforcement measures are focused on the enforcement of laws through preventive patrolling, response to criminal activity, and law enforcement investigations (see appendix C for additional information on special response considerations). Physical security includes measures designed to safeguard personnel; prevent unauthorized access to equipment, installations, material, and documents; and safeguard against espionage, sabotage, damage, and theft. (See ATP 3-39.32.) ***Crime prevention* is a crime control method that applies to efforts to reduce criminal opportunity, protect potential human victims, and prevent property loss by anticipating, recognizing, and appraising crime risk and initiating actions to remove or reduce it.** Crime prevention measures seek to—
- Educate the populace to encourage appropriate attitudes and actions conducive to preventing or mitigating criminal activity.
- Anticipate crime-conducive conditions and eliminate or reduce opportunities and incentives for criminal acts to occur.

4-4.   There are numerous law enforcement, physical security, and crime prevention measures that can be implemented. Police operations in support of home station locations are typically very thorough and well established within Army law enforcement organizations and the military community in general. The law enforcement, physical security, and crime prevention measures in other operational environments may be more limited or restricted, depending on the maturity of the AO, the specific security considerations for the AO, and whether the location will be enduring. Army law enforcement personnel must consider mission and operational variables, local and international laws, status-of-forces agreements, and cultural norms of the operational environment.

LAW ENFORCEMENT MEASURES

4-5.   The law enforcement measures include all activities employed in an effort to enforce laws and regulations within an AO. They support command efforts to maintain good order and discipline within their formations, protect personnel and resources, and maintain and generate combat power. Law enforcement activities are conducted by military police Soldiers, Department of the Army Civilian Police, USACIDC SAs, and supporting law enforcement personnel. These personnel require technical training and certification to perform law enforcement duties. Although law enforcement activities focus primarily on enforcement measures, criminal investigations, and supporting tasks, many activities serve multiple purposes. For example, law enforcement patrolling is a key enforcement activity that also serves as a major crime prevention role. Law enforcement-specific activities include—
- Police station operations (see chapter 3).
- Law enforcement patrolling (see chapter 5).
- Traffic management and enforcement (see chapter 8).
- Law enforcement investigations (criminal and traffic related)

LAW ENFORCEMENT INVESTIGATIONS

4-6.   Investigation of criminal activity and traffic-related matters may be required in any environment in which military operations occur, from home station to austere operational environments. Regardless of the operational environment, criminal activity committed against U.S. forces and property degrades military discipline, morale, and operational capabilities. Army law enforcement works in coordination with federal, state, local, and foreign law enforcement agencies to investigate crimes and incidents in support of the commander's effort to protect personnel, resources, and critical assets.

4-7.   Army law enforcement activities, including law enforcement investigations, are typically conducted within the framework of the military police operations discipline. Law enforcement investigations are primarily conducted as a supporting law enforcement task within the police operations discipline. Law enforcement investigations typically fall into two primary categories—criminal investigations and collision (traffic accident) investigations.

4-8.   Criminal investigations supporting Army operations are conducted primarily by USACIDC SAs and military police investigators (see AR 195-2 for information on investigative purview). TMCIs are a specialized investigative asset focused on investigation of traffic collisions and other traffic-related concerns. All military police Soldiers must be knowledgeable in basic investigative techniques and are required to identify and secure crime scenes, document initial observations and identify and preserve evidence, conduct preliminary investigations, and assist dedicated investigative assets as directed by their supervisor or the lead investigator.

CRIMINAL INVESTIGATIONS

4-9.   A criminal investigation is the process of identification, collection, preservation, documentation, analysis, preparation, and presentation of both physical and testimonial evidence to prove the truth or falsity of a criminal allegation. Criminal investigations are typically conducted by trained criminal investigators (USACIDC SAs and military police investigators) supported by military police patrol elements. They cover a broad spectrum from nonviolent incidents of larceny or fraud to physical attacks such as homicide or rape. The sheer magnitude and range of possible crimes that may be investigated requires a large body of

knowledge and skills for criminal investigators to master, as well as a significant pool of technical experts supporting the investigator within their areas of expertise.

4-10. Criminal investigation is both an art and a science. In science, the absolute truth is often achieved. Experience has shown that in criminal investigations a less decisive hypothesis may sometimes be all that is possible to achieve. Objectives of criminal investigations include—

- Determining if a crime was committed.
- Collecting information and evidence legally to identify the perpetrator or responsible party, victims, and witnesses.
- Apprehending the person(s) responsible or reporting the individual (or group) to the appropriate civilian police agency.
- Recovering stolen property.
- Presenting the best possible case to the prosecutor.
- Providing clear, concise testimony.

4-11. While criminal investigators conduct deliberate criminal investigations, all military police must be knowledgeable in basic investigative techniques. Military police patrols are typically the first on the scene and must always secure the scene, observe, and document their initial observations (including personal behavior of witnesses and potential subjects). They are also in the best position to identify and preserve potential evidence and conduct initial interviews of witnesses and potential subjects. See ATP 3-39.12 for additional information on criminal investigations.

COLLISION INVESTIGATIONS

4-12. A collision investigation is the process of observation, collection and documentation of evidence (including physical measurements of objects, markings, and vehicles), analysis, preparation, and presentation of both physical and testimonial evidence to determine the cause or causes of a collision or mishap involving a vehicle. Collision investigations are typically conducted by a trained TMCI; however, any military police patrol may be required to conduct investigations of minor traffic incidents or assist TMCIs in major incidents or complex collision investigations.

4-13. Military police investigators or USACIDC SAs may assume investigative responsibility over criminal offenses discovered as a result of the collision. If evidence of criminal activity is identified by responding military police patrols or TMCIs, military police investigators, or USACIDC SAs should be notified as soon as possible. Military police will notify the supporting USACIDC element whenever a traffic accident involves a fatality or an offense within USACIDC investigative responsibility as described in AR 195-2. In all cases, TMCIs or military police patrols will complete the investigation of the actual collision and provide a copy of the report to the USACIDC element or military police investigator as appropriate. See ATP 3-39.12 for additional information on collision investigations.

PHYSICAL SECURITY MEASURES

4-14. Comprehensive and consistent physical security practices are vital to protect Army personnel and resources by mitigating or eliminating crime-conducive conditions. The protection of physical resources ensures a commander's ability to maintain combat power. *Physical security* is that part of security concerned with physical measures designed to safeguard personnel; to prevent unauthorized access to equipment, installations, material, and documents; and to safeguard them against espionage, sabotage, damage, and theft (JP 3-0). The Provost Marshal General is the proponent for the Army Physical Security Program, and the military police play a key role. While military police are heavily involved in physical security measures on a continuous basis, the physical security of Army property is the responsibility of every commander, Soldier, and Army civilian entrusted with the care and stewardship of that property. Physical security standards are established to assist Army personnel in providing adequate security for Army resources. Minimum physical security standards and guidelines are found in—

- AR 190-11.
- AR 190-13.
- AR 190-51.

- AR 190-54.
- AR 190-58.

4-15. Today, commanders have a full array of sophisticated electronic security systems; sensitive CBRN sensors; explosive detection devices; and forward-looking infrared radar systems to employ. These systems provide multilayered, 360°, real-time capability to detect, assess, alert, and act against air and ground threats at fixed sites. The goal of the security system for an installation, area, facility, or asset is to employ security in depth to preclude or reduce the potential for sabotage, theft, trespass, terrorism, espionage, or other criminal activity.

4-16. In contingency environments, commanders of expeditionary forces protect combat power by establishing a system of complementary, overlapping security measures to control access to critical resources and personnel. Electronic security systems and other physical security measures (physical barriers, clear zones, lighting, access and key control, security badges, and defensive positions) should work together to greatly enhance the unit protective posture and to prevent crime. Recent improvements in analytical tools (such as the United States Army Security Management System [Countermeasures]) have enhanced physical security surveys and inspection processes. This system enables commanders to quickly detect vulnerabilities that may be exploited by terrorists and criminals and to develop options that eliminate or mitigate those vulnerabilities.

4-17. Physical security includes a wide variety of measures, employed together to create a full-dimensional, integrated, layered, redundant, and enduring defense against criminal or other threats. ATP 3-39.32 includes detailed information on the implementation of physical security measures, to include—

- Site design to enhance security.
- Access control.
- Protective barriers.
- Physical security lighting.
- Electronic security systems.
- Security locking systems and key control.
- Security force planning.
- In-transit security procedures.
- Physical security inspections, surveys, and assessments.

4-18. Specially trained and credentialed military police Soldiers and Army civilians conduct physical security inspections and assessments to determine vulnerabilities, criticalities, and appropriate safeguards to protect the command, personnel, materiel, and other assets (such as critical infrastructures). These inspections and assessments are typically conducted in support of bases and base camps within expeditionary environments. At bases and base camps, a physical security office within the organization of the PMO provides general support to units, activities, and facilities within the AO. As the AO matures within expeditionary environments, physical security teams deploy with military police law enforcement elements to provide this necessary support.

4-19. In operational environments where credentialed physical security personnel are not available, military police elements provide basic physical security support in the AO. While not all military police Soldiers are trained as physical security inspectors, all military police units typically have some capability to assist commanders and provide advice on physical security-related issues. They can also use military police technical channels to obtain assistance when needed.

4-20. Physical security measures are applied to Army property and personal property of Army personnel. Increased security measures are applied to sensitive items (arms, ammunition, and explosives; controlled substances within medical treatment facilities; motor pools, logistical warehouse facilities, or other facilities where there is a high concentration of equipment, supplies, or other pilferable items). Many of these areas will be provided with alarms; military police are typically responsible for alarm monitoring and response to these areas. Military police respond to these areas when a crime is committed or when alarms indicate a crime may be in progress; however, the day-to-day physical security responsibility falls on the Army personnel responsible for the property being secured. Military police also support logistics security to support the prevention, identification, and investigation of criminal acts committed by terrorists, criminal elements, or

insider threats ranging from the United States Army logistics provider to the military force on the ground. For additional information on logistic security see ATP 3-39.30.

4-21. Military police are typically responsible for access control to bases, base camps, and other critical facilities (when directed). They are also heavily involved in random antiterrorism measures conducted as part of a holistic security plan for these types of locations.

ACCESS CONTROL

4-22. A critical aspect of the security posture of any base or base camp is access control. The purpose of access control is to prevent unauthorized access by personnel and vehicles, including criminals or other threats. Access control is an integral part of the overall security plan of any base or base camp. On bases and base camps, access control is typically the responsibility of the PM conducting law enforcement in support of the base. In many instances, access control is performed by specially trained security guards, whose sole focus is access control. These personnel will typically fall under the command and control of the PM or senior military police commander to ensure coordination and synchronization of access control and law enforcement activities. Vigilant access control, combined with aggressive law enforcement patrolling, deters attempted attacks against an installation.

4-23. Access control activities are conducted while maintaining optimum vehicular flow and pedestrian traffic. Access control is the first visible line of defense to identify and prevent threats from entering a controlled AO and mitigating associated vulnerabilities to those threats. Access control can also be enabled through police intelligence, forensics, and biometrics capabilities. These activities enhance the overall protection posture while minimizing the impact on normal operations. Access control measures are tightened or relaxed based on threat levels and associated force protection condition levels. Force protection condition levels are established in a graduated scale based on available intelligence and the relative risk of attack. In mature bases within the United States, access control procedures are addressed in the installation access control plan. See ATP 3-39.32 and TC 19-210 for detailed information on access control activities and other physical security tactic techniques and procedures.

4-24. In expeditionary environments on bases that have matured to a level requiring dedicated military police law enforcement support, the senior military police commander can assume responsibility for the access control function; however, the responsibility for access control may be retained under the control of the base commander. Regardless of the command, access control must be synchronized with law enforcement elements supporting the base to ensure a seamless security posture. Law enforcement elements and security elements conducting access control must be in constant communication to enable a synchronized response to threats and to avoid possible fratricide.

RANDOM ANTITERRORISM MEASURES

4-25. Random antiterrorism measure program activities are implemented according to AR 525-13 and DODI O-2000.16, Volume I. This program involves implementing multiple security measures in a random fashion to change the appearance and activities of security personnel and resources employed to secure a base, facility, or activity. Units are required by regulation to employ year-round random antiterrorism measures as part of an antiterrorism program.

4-26. Commanders responsible for a military base or activity implement random antiterrorism measures based on staff recommendations and current threat assessments. Random antiterrorism measures are typically recommended by the base antiterrorism officer with input from the PM or military police commander providing base law enforcement support. Most random antiterrorism measures at this level are implemented by police and security personnel and are documented and maintained on file for review. Random antiterrorism measures should be visible to allow the threat to see the change in security profile. A typical random antiterrorism measures may include—

- Placing or moving barriers.
- Establishing or changing exclusion areas for standoff.

- Changing access requirements.
    - Implementing multiple picture identification requirements.
    - Increasing escort or sponsorship requirements.
    - Implementing bag and vehicle inspections.
    - Employing biometrics or identification scanning equipment.
- Increasing security or law enforcement patrols.
- Deploying unmanned aerial systems.
- Setting up or moving static checkpoints.
    - Modifying gate, building, or other access points.
    - Establishing single points of entry into key facilities.
    - Closing specified gates or converting to one-way ingress or egress points.
- Employing mobile cameras.

CRIME PREVENTION MEASURES

4-27. Crime prevention is a critical element in an overall policing strategy. It includes law enforcement, physical security, and crime prevention measures. These measures are mutually supporting. Military police support the commander's crime prevention and protection efforts through a wide range of activities. Crime prevention measures, like physical security measures, are conducted by all Army personnel. Even though military police play a large role and participate heavily in many crime prevention programs, crime prevention should be recognized as a commander's program rather than a military police program. Crime prevention efforts can also be established within HN communities to develop community involvement and a sense of ownership by the HN community and leaders.

4-28. Crime prevention programs and strategies can have major impacts on reducing crime rates at bases and base camps with a relatively minor cost in dollars and manpower. It takes less effort to discourage a criminal from perpetrating a crime or to teach a Soldier to avoid becoming a victim than it does to investigate a crime and identify, prosecute, and punish an offender.

4-29. Community crime prevention councils or boards with representation from groups and organizations across a community (at a military base or in an HN community) can also be very effective for disseminating crime prevention-related information and establishing awareness across the community or AO. Commanders and PM use community-based forums to promote crime prevention efforts—

- Provides representatives from major segments of the population with a forum where they can provide feedback regarding crime prevention initiatives and identify criminal problems that are of the greatest threat and concern to them.
- Allows representatives of major organizations or groups to review the available options to counter a crime and select the level of resource commitment that is compatible with capabilities and internal priorities.
- Increases the probability of participation, thus ensuring that the resources of the entire community are mobilized to attack the problem.

CRIME PREVENTION PROGRAMS

4-30. While military police use crime prevention measures as an integral part of their policing activities, crime prevention must always be recognized as a commander's program rather than as a military police program. Military police personnel have the expertise to analyze data, identify major problems, and develop lists of possible countermeasures. They perform these functions in support of a crime prevention council or working group, typically appointed by the base, base camp, or mission commander and composed of representatives of all major organizations and activities. Military police can also provide support to individual unit commanders when requested.

4-31. Many crime prevention programs (Drug Abuse Resistance Education®, Gang Resistance Education and Training, McGruff the Crime Dog®) are tightly controlled and require specific training for military police

personnel conducting the programs. Others require less formal training, but can still produce positive results when appropriate emphasis is applied. Crime prevention measures can include—

- Preventive patrolling (saturation patrols, directed patrols, foot patrols) in crime hotspots.
- Community-based activities (neighborhood watch programs, iWATCH program, other organizations focused on community improvement and responsibility).
- Public initiatives that promote—
    - Engraving or indelibly marking property for ease of identification.
    - Locking or otherwise securing personal property.
- Situational crime prevention.
- Order maintenance (graffiti removal, abandoned car removal, broken/improved street light repairs).
- Juvenile programs.
    - Drug Abuse Resistance Education.
    - Gang Resistance Education and Training.
    - McGruff the Crime Dog.
    - Police explorer programs.
    - After-school activity programs.
- Police engagement with the community.
- Crime prevention education programs.
    - Workplace crime prevention.
    - Military unit crime prevention.
    - School faculty crime prevention.
- Crime tip lines.
- Environmental design for new construction or renovation projects.
- Crime prevention and residential security surveys.
- Technology focused deterrence.
- Field interviews.
- Surveillance.

CRIME PREVENTION OFFICERS

4-32. The PM or military police commander responsible for police operations typically appoints a senior noncommissioned officer or officer who has a extensive background in military police investigations or physical security to serve as the crime prevention officer. This person supports the crime prevention council by serving as the military police representative responsible for providing crime and criminal data analysis to identify problem areas, recommending programs for council consideration, and coordinating the efforts of unit crime prevention officers to support the implementation of the crime prevention program.

4-33. As a member of the PM staff, the crime prevention officer develops the law enforcement section of the crime prevention program, develops and maintains the written crime prevention plan, and coordinates crime prevention programs with civilian police agencies and community groups.

4-34. Crime prevention officers are also appointed in each organization, down to the company level. At the company level, written crime prevention plans are not required; however, SOPs are established. A crime prevention officer serves as the organization focal point for coordinating crime prevention plans and supervises the implementation of the crime prevention program within the organization.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

4-35. Crimes that are the most susceptible to crime prevention measures are those that exhibit a high probability of recurrence. Crimes such as murder are typically not repetitive and are poor candidates for inclusion in the crime prevention program. Information collected through police intelligence operations is the starting point for developing a crime prevention program. Analysis of crime and criminal activity can

help develop tailored crime prevention efforts. (See ATP 3-39.20.) This analysis identifies significant crime and criminal trends and patterns that are susceptible to crime prevention efforts.

4-36. Police intelligence products (crime statistics, predictive analysis) can be critical enablers to many crime prevention efforts. These products can help identify specific areas of concern and focus efforts. Military police personnel have the expertise to analyze data, identify major problems, and develop lists of possible countermeasures.

4-37. Since it is seldom practical to attack all criminal problems simultaneously, crimes should be prioritized based on their impact on the command's ability to perform the mission and the impact on personnel. Next, the whole range of countermeasures that can be used to combat each problem must be identified. Once developed and prioritized, the list of criminal problems and possible countermeasures is presented to the installation crime prevention council for action. The council should decide which crimes will be addressed and which countermeasures will be used for each crime. A sample crime countermeasure matrix is shown in table 4-1. The council may then identify specific objectives for its crime prevention campaigns.

Table 4-1. Sample crime countermeasure matrix

Crime	Command/Law Enforcement Countermeasures												Community Programs					
	Crime Tip Lines	Increased Lighting	Environmental Changes	Directed Patrols or Surveillance	Publicity Campaigns	Residential Security Surveys	Juvenile Programs	Fraud Programs	Employee Theft Countermeasures	Arson Programs	Electronic Surveillance	Warning Signs	Neighborhood Watches	Identification Programs	Neighborhood Walks or Escorts	Mobile Patrols	Project Lock	Public Awareness and Education
Arson				X	X					X			X			X		X
Auto theft	X	X			X								X		X	X	X	
Burglary or housebreaking	X	X	X	X	X	X							X	X	X	X		X
Employee theft	X				X				X		X	X		X				X
Fraud	X				X			X				X						X
Larceny	X		X				X		X					X				X
Rape	X	X	X	X	X	X							X		X	X		X
Robbery	X	X	X	X	X								X		X	X		X
Juvenile delinquency	X			X	X		X						X		X	X		X
Vandalism	X	X		X	X		X											

CRIME AND CRIMINAL ANALYSIS

4-38. Crime and criminal analysis is a system for identifying trends, patterns, and associations that may exist. This analysis is an integral component of integrated police intelligence activities, applicable across the operational continuum. It is an ongoing function for the PM and military police brigade and battalion staffs. Crime and criminal analysis is the foundation upon which a bases and base camps physical security and antiterrorism program are based. ATP 3-39.20 provides detailed discussion of crime and criminal analysis

and other police intelligence activities. An effective crime and criminal analysis seeks to identify the following:

- Crimes having a significant impact on a bases and base camps.
- Segments of the population being victimized.
- Criminal or perpetrator identifications.
- Locations, times, and causes for enduring/chronic crime problems.
- Offense information (weapon types, victim actions that may be enabling criminal activity).
- Information critical to bases and base camps or mission commander threat and vulnerability assessments.
- Information essential to formulating successful patrol distribution plans.
- Identifying successful crime prevention strategies and programs.

CRIME PREVENTION SURVEYS

4-39. An important factor in understanding the crime prevention survey is that it must be considered as an ongoing process. While a particular survey will result in specific recommendations, each survey will provide a foundation for future actions. In combination, these surveys form an information database that can be used in support of a community crime analysis and action guide to support the resolution or reduction of problems on a community-wide basis.

4-40. Six steps are used to conduct surveys and assess the impact of implemented recommendations. These steps include—

- Analyzing the overall environment for threats, current protection and enforcement gaps and measures, and crime-conducive conditions.
- Assessing the general vulnerability of the premises.
- Defining the specific points of vulnerability.
- Recommending specific security and enforcement procedures.
- Including specific remedial hardware recommendations.
- Conducting a follow-up study to assess the implementation and success of recommendations, including continuous crime and criminal analysis.

4-41. Based on crime and criminal analysis and crime prevention surveys, personnel can identify needed objectives. Crime prevention objectives should clearly identify the—

- Crime that should be reduced.
- Target population that will be addressed.
- Specific changes and behaviors on the part of the victims or perpetrators that will be encouraged.
- Actions that the command must take to reduce the opportunities for the crimes to occur.

4-42. With the information from crime and criminal analysis and crime prevention surveys, milestones and specific countermeasures can be developed to mitigate crime-conducive conditions, reduce the opportunity for a crime to occur, or remove the incentives for perpetrators. Without an effective crime and criminal analysis, the overall security effort is unfocused. Moreover, a base or base camp patrol distribution plan may be ineffective.

4-43. Crime prevention countermeasures can include—

- Physical security measures (lighting, barriers, alarms). See ATP 3-39.32 for an in-depth discussion of physical security measures and applications.
- Police engagements.
- Command and public information and education campaigns.
- Targeted law enforcement patrols (walking, bicycle, mobile).
- Command emphasis and enforcement on existing physical security and crime prevention countermeasures.
- Proactive environmental designs to enhance crime prevention and physical security.

- Juvenile crime prevention and awareness programs.
- Neighborhood watch and other community programs.

CRIME PREVENTION PROGRAM EVALUATIONS

4-44. Crime prevention programs must be continuously evaluated and assessed for effectiveness. This analysis requires the PM, commander, and staff to—

- Develop program objectives.
- Determine if the program was implemented and resourced as designed.
- Identify measures of effectiveness.
- Identify data requirements.
- Develop baseline data for comparisons and collect new data.
- Identify changes.
- Determine if desired or intended effects and outcomes were achieved.
- Describe results and make recommendations for change. See figure 4-1.
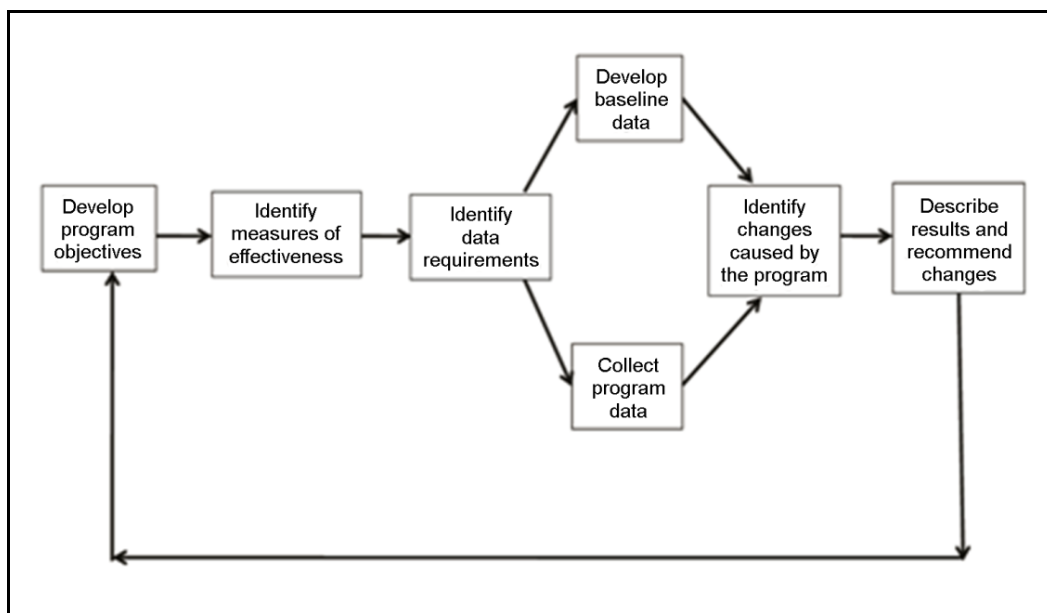
Figure 4-1. Crime prevention program evaluation

4-45. Several inherent difficulties in data collection on crime prevention programs make it difficult for personnel to determine, with 100 percent accuracy, that a particular reduction in a crime rate is the result of a particular crime prevention measure. These difficulties include the control of variables, the displacement effect, and unreported crimes.

Control of Variables

4-46. In its simplest form, the type of evaluation most commonly used in academic or scientific settings will determine the relationship between two variables. By varying the independent variable, the effect on the dependent variable is determined while all other variables are held constant. For example, police designate two like areas (demographics, crime problems) to test crime prevention methods. One neighborhood is business as usual, no change in police operations, tactics, or resources (control group). Second neighborhood is the one that police and community partners saturate with new tactics, capabilities, and resources (experimental group). After 3-6 months, they assess the measures of performance and the measures of effectiveness in each neighborhood. If crime is down in the experimental group, then it is highly likely that it is a result of the newly imposed crime prevention methods.

4-47. These considerations also apply in the evaluation of crime prevention programs. However, since crime prevention programs deal with human subjects in environments that cannot be readily controlled, certain complications arise. The degree of success may have nothing to do with the effectiveness of the program, but only with the way it was introduced or with the personal predispositions of the groups involved. There is no standard population; human beings are not standardized as mice are for laboratory purposes. A program found successful at one base or base camp may be a failure at another.

4-48. This evaluation is further complicated by the behavior of the offenders. The offenders cannot be treated directly or separated into experimental and control groups; they will not stand up and be counted. The effectiveness of these programs is normally determined by looking at statistics of reported crimes and arrests, which are more indirect indicators.

4-49. In a crime control program, it may be impossible to classify variables as dependent and independent; they may all affect and be affected by each other. Furthermore, because of the difficulty in determining why people behave the way they do, a number of variables may go unnoticed. Police programs designed to reduce crime may have their most direct effect on the behavior of the general public toward the police, which in turn affects the crime rate.

4-50. Evaluations are not necessarily restricted to the analysis of objective crime data; they can also include subjective considerations and perceptions. These subjective evaluations can be of significant benefit in augmenting the statistical analysis of the program results. They are especially helpful in assessing why and how a program worked and whether a statistical outcome is actually evidence that the program was successful. Interviews of participating agency personnel and residents of the program area are usually used to supply this information. They can give the evaluator new insight into the actual program operation.

Displacement Effect

4-51. In many cases, where crime reductions have been measured and attributed to programs, it is unclear whether there has been an actual reduction in crime or whether the crime has been displaced. The amount of displacement depends, to an extent, on the offender's characteristics. An opportunistic offender can be pictured as having a relatively elastic demand—if the risk level is too high, he will forgo the crime. A drug addict is typically described as having a relatively inelastic demand for the product because of the inelastic demand (need) for drugs (despite the risks, they need the product). The displacement effect manifests itself in multiple ways, including displacement to other—

- Crimes.
- Tactics and targets.
- Areas.

Note. While displacement has been noted to occur in some instances, there is research that suggests and proves a diffusion of crime may be more likely. Many studies show a spreading of benefits to areas near or next to the targeted area, not only does the crime hotspot see a reduction in crime, but the surrounding also has a reduction in criminal activity.

Unreported Crimes

4-52. Crime statistics are based on crimes reported to the police; however, many crimes go unreported. Victimization studies can estimate the extent of unreported crime, its change from year to year, and by areas of the country. They can also help determine reasons that victims fail to report crimes. These victimization studies are best suited to determine long-term effects. They are not suited for most crime prevention evaluations in which short-term changes must be assessed.

4-53. However, crime statistics do not always paint an accurate picture of criminal activity in an AO. Not all crimes are reported to the police. There are estimates based on comparisons between known crimes reported to the police and crimes detected as unreported by victim surveys. It works out to an average one out of every three crimes committed being reported. The most common reason why a crime goes unreported is the victim chooses to deal with it in another way, which is normally in a personal or private manner. Normally a crime
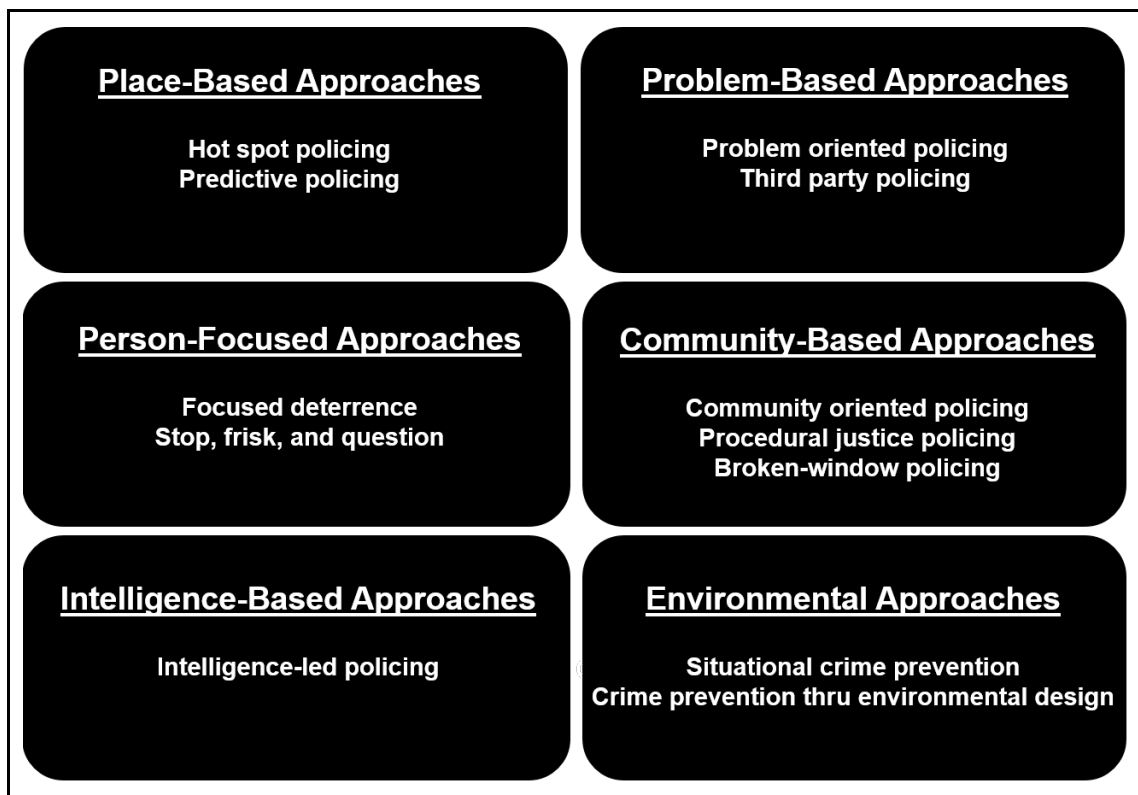
a committed by a casual acquaintance will go unreported more often than a crime that is committed by a complete stranger.

4-54. Police intelligence products (crime statistics, predictive analysis) can be critical enablers to many crime prevention efforts. These products can help identify specific areas of concern and focus efforts. Military police personnel have the expertise to analyze data, identify major problems, and develop lists of possible countermeasures.

SECTION II – POLICING STRATEGIES

4-55. Policing strategies and approaches vary depending on the community, the agency, and other operational and environmental considerations. Several policing strategies and frameworks have been developed and implemented over the years with varying degrees of success. When selecting a policing strategy, military police leadership must determine the greatest priority for policing within the AO or jurisdiction. When the primary goal is to establish rapport and legitimacy with the populace, models that stress community involvement and interaction (community-oriented approaches, problem-oriented approaches) are the preferred modes. If crime reduction is the greatest concern, then the problem-oriented policing approach, harmed focus policing approach or the focused deterrence approach may be more viable.

4-56. A thorough understanding of different policing models and strategies will assist leaders in forming the best strategy or combination of strategies for their AO or jurisdiction. This section provides overviews and assessments for six different categories of policing strategies and frameworks: place-based, problem-based, person-focused, community-based, intelligence-based, and environmental-focused (see figure 4-2). The strategies listed are not all-inclusive but provide a good overview of the more prevalent and widely embraced policing models.

Place-Based Approaches

Hot spot policing
Predictive policing

Problem-Based Approaches

Problem oriented policing
Third party policing

Person-Focused Approaches

Focused deterrence
Stop, frisk, and question

Community-Based Approaches

Community oriented policing
Procedural justice policing
Broken-window policing

Intelligence-Based Approaches

Intelligence-led policing

Environmental Approaches

Situational crime prevention
Crime prevention thru environmental design

Figure 4-2. Policing strategies and frameworks

4-57. Many of these strategies and frameworks have distinct similarities in their application and is evidence of a normal evolution in policing strategies. Academically, many of these strategies and frameworks are developed and analyzed as stand-alone approaches; police agencies virtually never implement a single

policing strategy across an entire AO or jurisdiction. Typically, military police apply a combination of differing strategies in a hybrid approach. Depending on the problems, military police may be able to achieve greater synergies and complementary effects by integrating components from different strategies into a unified approach greater than the results achieved by employing a single method.

PLACES-BASED APPROACHES

4-58. Places-based policing is not the employment of policing strategies and frameworks to an AO. Military police typically identify their AO as a specific patrol area, a tactical AO (for example, support area) or a base or base camp. Places-based policing focuses on a more specific location where crime is highest as opposed to attempting to employ crime prevention across entire AO, such as a block of streets or street corner, a community center, or an address where crime is high. Military police use hot-spots policing and predictive policing to maintain safe and secure environments and prevent crime and disorder in specific areas where crime has concentrated.

HOTS-SPOTS POLICING

4-59. Hot-spots policing is based on the theory that crime does not occur evenly across an AO and that crime is clustered in small areas (hot spots). Unlike random patrols and rapid responses, hot-spots policing is intelligence driven. It requires a police intelligence capability to identify where and when crime concentrates; the types of crimes occurring; and factors driving criminal opportunities and security vulnerabilities.

4-60. Hot-spots policing uses crime pattern analysis (see ATP 3-39.20) to identify patterns, trends, and association of criminal activity throughout an AO. Crime pattern analysis seeks to identify and map the occurrence of a specific activity or incident over a particular geographic area, and crime pattern analysis emphasizes the use of graphics to depict the activity and emerging patterns. This further enables the police intelligence analyst to identify hot spots and facilitates geographic profiling to predict potential occurrences. Once an area has been identified as a hot spot, it should be targeted by an increase of policing activities.

4-61. Based on the police intelligence assessments, military police design tailored strategies and employ tactics and resources against crime hot-spots. Military police employ focused police patrols (mobile and foot) at specific times and places; integrate situational crime prevention and crime prevention through environmental design principles and techniques; and conduct surveillance at crime hot spots in order to contain, reduce, and prevent crime and disorder.

4-62. During large-scale combat operations commanders have traditionally employed aspects of hot-spots policing in their analysis and assessments of high concentrations of threat activities such as sniper attacks, indirect fire attacks, and improvised explosive device detonations. Military police integrate police intelligence operations during police operations to identify likely hot spots for threat activities and hazards. This allows military police to employ resources and capabilities in specific locations and at specific times to enhance their abilities target threats and hazards enabling operational success.

4-63. Studies have found that hot-spots policing interventions tend to diffuse crime reduction and prevention benefits as opposed to displacing crime into areas immediately surrounding the targeted locations. Most studies conducted to date have focused on assessing short-term crime prevention effects and outcomes so it is not known if hot-spots policing interventions achieve sustained and enduring crime prevention outcomes over long-term periods.

PREDICTIVE POLICING

4-64. Predictive policing is the collection of police information from different sources, the analysis of information, and the use of police intelligence products to enable military police to predict, prevent, and respond more effectively to potential criminal activity throughout an AO. Military police have employed aspects of predictive analysis during current campaigns and past conflicts with success to target hazards, crime conducive conditions and threats.

4-65. The goal of predictive policing is to become less reactive by planning for future criminal activity and implementing law enforcement control measures to change potential crime activity. Predictive policing is a collective combination of the key elements of various policing models and strategies (broken-window theory,

community-oriented policing, computer statistics, problem-oriented policing, intelligence-led policing, and other proven policing models).

4-66. Predictive policing also requires a police intelligence capability to support the data collection and analysis used by the predictive algorithms (see ATP 3-39.20). The combination of police intelligence assessments and algorithms' outputs can enable police to predict which crimes may occur by type, time, and location; predict offenders; and predict victims. Military police use the results of these assessments to inform not only the design of their crime prevention interventions, but also on when and where to employ military police capabilities based on predicted times and locations.

PROBLEM-BASED APPROACHES

4-67. Problem-based approaches encourage solutions that are preventive. Rather than create a solution from a law enforcement-focused view, problem-based approaches seek to create a broad-base of solutions to a problem. Military police use analysis from clusters of related or similar incidents and elements outside the traditional criminal justice system to develop effective strategies to address the condition or specific criminal problem.

PROBLEM-ORIENTED POLICING

4-68. Problem-oriented policing is an analytical method for designing, implementing, and assessing crime prevention and reduction strategies and tactics. Military police employ a cyclic process known as scanning, analysis, response, and assessment (SARA) to enable detection and understanding of public safety problems, such as chronic issues pertaining to crime, disorder, and the fear of crime. They use the results from their problem analysis to inform tailored crime prevention strategies and tactics to mitigate or resolve the underlying factors contributing to the public safety problems. Problem-oriented policing does not advocate a specific set of tactics for military police to employ. Instead, military police have broad flexibility to employ tactics they assess most effective at solving problems. Military police use the assessment phase of the SARA process to ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of their policing strategies and tactics. If required military police make necessary adjustments until they achieve their desired prevention effects and outcomes.

4-69. The problem-oriented policing SARA process (see ATP 3-39.20) is a viable and effective process that military police company-level units and below benefit from using. SARA enables their ability to effectively identify and understand the types of chronic security problems throughout their AO. Military police units at the company and below level incorporate the SARA process into their planning and operations as a complementary framework to the troop leading procedures to inform the design and implementation of interventions enabling partners to solve problems, target threats, hazards, and unsafe conditions, and build enduring relationships.

THIRD-PARTY POLICING

4-70. Third-party policing is similar in many aspects to other strategies such as problem-oriented policing. Under third-party policing, military police leverage and work with mission and community partners to help solve public safety problems. Many partners, such as housing authorities and social services, have different authorities and access to unique resources that military police do not. Third-parties also have different perspectives and understandings of problems that may provide military police with insights and critical information that may have been overlooked during their analyses of the problem; in some instances, partners, such as neighborhood residents, may be aware of problems that military police have yet to detect. Third-party policing generates significant short-term reductions in crime and disorder. A distribution of crime-control benefits may be seen in nearby areas.

4-71. Military police integrate third-party policing principles and techniques into their plans and operations across the range of military operations. Incorporating third-parties into military operations is consistent to building partner capacity efforts and recognizes the reality that Army forces operate as part of joint, interorganizational, and multinational teams during large-scale combat operations. Third-party policing could be used to inform the design and implementation of interventions enabling partners to solve problems, target threats, hazards, and unsafe conditions, and build enduring relationships.

PERSON-FOCUSED APPROACHES

4-72. Person-focused approaches enable military police to focus on crime among a small percentage of the criminal population. It employs focused deterrence and stop, frisk, and question strategies to identify problems and their causes and then prevent future crime by tailoring solutions on specifics to affect the cause.

FOCUSED DETERRENCE

4-73. Focused deterrence attempts to deter crime by directly confronting known criminal offenders with specifically tailored, legally permissible interventions that are designed to encourage offenders from desisting from further criminal activities. Legally permissible interventions could include presenting a combination of both incentives (such as social services, health services, job training services, and support on leaving gangs) and disincentives (such as the clear explanation of likely increased attention by law enforcement, to include potential arrest, if the offender continues to engage in criminal activities). The presentation of incentives and disincentives to known and high-risk offenders may occur as part of broader crime prevention strategies and or other policing approaches.

4-74. Focused deterrence achieves significant crime reduction effects and outcomes over both short-term and long-term periods. This is not a strategy normally used by military police in a garrison environment, but its principles and tactics may be useful to employ in support of stability operations as a way to deter and prevent threat activities.

STOP, QUESTION, AND FRISK

4-75. Under stop, question, and frisk military police use their legal authority to stop people when they observe unusual conduct which leads them to believe that the person they are stopping may either be about to commit a crime; may have committed a crime; or may be armed and dangerous. In the course of investigating this behavior the military police identify themselves and makes reasonable inquiries about the person's suspicious activities. If military police make inquiries of the person's activities and nothing dismisses the suspicious conduct, military police may conduct a limited search of the outer clothing in an attempt to discover weapons for the protection of themselves and others in the area. The search must be confined in scope to discover guns, knives, clubs, or other instruments that could be used to harm military police or others. While military police can employ this approach in response to reported crimes, military police may also use this approach as a way to deter and prevent crimes from occurring throughout their AO if so authorized.

4-76. Military police may also apply stop, question, and frisk when attempting to counter unconventional and irregular threat forces across the range of military operations. However, based on reported community perceptions on police abuse of power and discriminatory practices associated with this approach, it is recommended that leaders implement clear policies and sufficient training be provided to mitigate potential adverse responses by communities and populations. Stop, question, and frisk is effective at targeting threats in high crime areas and has also lowered crime rates throughout these areas but it could undermine the building of enduring relationships throughout the community. Leaders enacting such policies should consult their servicing Office of the Staff Judge Advocate for guidance on legally implementing such policies. For additional information see chapter 5.

COMMUNITY-BASED APPROACHES

4-77. Community-based approaches recognizes that military police can rarely solve public safety problems alone. This strategy encourages long-term partnerships between military police, members of the community, and Army leadership. The geographic stability required in community-based approaches may inherently force a degree of organizational transformation. This approach encourages interactive partnerships with a wide range of relevant stakeholders to develop solutions to problems through collaborative problem solving and improved community trust and confidence.

4-78. Community-based approaches could be problematic and difficult for Army law enforcement. Cyclical rotations between bases and base camps and troop rotations supporting expeditionary requirements make consistent and long-term relationships and a situational understanding of the community are likewise

complicated by rotations of military families within Army communities. The steady rotation of families in and out of Army housing areas constantly changes the dynamics of neighborhoods. This significant change is more magnified than in the typical civilian neighborhood.

COMMUNITY-ORIENTED POLICING

4-79. Community policing promotes organizational strategies that support the logical use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime. The foundation to community policing is effective and enduring partnerships between military police and the communities they serve. Together, they work to identify problems and the solutions and resources required to solve or mitigate the problems. There are three inter-related elements to community policing:

- Citizen involvement in identifying and addressing public safety concerns.
- Decentralization of decision making to encourage development of local responses to locally defined problems
- Problem solving to respond to community crime and disorder concerns.

4-80. Community policing has evolved over time to include the goals of crime prevention and reduction; building collective efficacy and empowerment; promoting procedural justice and legitimacy; and increasing police accountability. Community policing programs generates positive effects on citizen satisfaction, perceptions of disorder, and police legitimacy. Military police and mission partners could employ community policing concepts during stability operations to inform interventions by enabling partners to solve problems and by building enduring relationships. Academic research has found community-oriented policing to have limited benefits in reducing crime and disorder and to effectively target threats and hazards.

PROCEDURAL JUSTICE POLICING

4-81. Procedural justice policing emphasizes the need for military police to interact with community members in a just, objective, and fair manner. Its goals are to bolster police legitimacy, promote positive and trusting police-community relationships, and encourage citizens' voluntary compliance to laws through military police lawful and fair execution of their authorities. The approach encourages four main characteristics of military police behavior that are viewed as affecting perceptions of police legitimacy:

- Military police provide the public opportunities to voice their concerns and issues.
- Military police make decisions in ways that the public view as neutral, consistent, and objective.
- Military police treat people with dignity, courtesy, and respect; and
- People believe military police actions and motives are trustworthy, benevolent, and measured.

BROKEN WINDOWS POLICING

4-82. Broken windows policing (also referred to as disorder policing, order maintenance, or zero tolerance policing) claims that physical and social disorder are contributing factors to crime and fear of crime. By resolving disorder problems, military police crime prevention and reduction strategies can begin to take root and achieve enduring effects and outcomes. Military police focus on strengthening both formal and informal social controls as a way to resolve disorder problems and to build more resilient and cohesive communities. Tactics common to broken windows policing may include strict enforcement of laws and codes, issue warnings and citations, and integration of community partners into policing strategies (gaining support and resources from the department of public works to fix street lights and clean up trash). Broken windows policing interventions that use place-based and problem-solving practices to reduce social and physical order have achieved short-term crime reduction outcomes.

4-83. Broken windows policing principles in support of targeting hazards and crime conducive conditions mitigate and counter factors contributing to persistent disorder. However, military police should ensure that the interventions used neither violate the trust nor create perceptions within communities and populations that could undermine the ability to enable partners to solve problems and build enduring relationships.

INTELLIGENCE-BASED APPROACHES

4-84. Intelligence-led policing focuses on key criminal activities and conditions that contribute to crime and other public safety problems. It emphasizes the use of police intelligence to drive police operations. Intelligence-led policing is similar to the framework of the military police integrated task police intelligence operations (see ATP 3-39.20). Intelligence-led policing recognizes the need to use criminal intelligence and crime analysis to take a comprehensive and holistic approach to identifying, understanding, and solving chronic public safety problems, such as crime, disorder, and fear of crime. Intelligence-driven police operations enable military police and their partners to concentrate (mass) personnel, capabilities, and resources on crime hot spots instead of attempting to cover large areas with limited resources.

4-85. Commanders establish information requirements to drive police intelligence operations. Law enforcement patrols and specialty sections (military police investigator, traffic, and so forth) collect police information and submit it to police intelligence analysts for analysis. Police intelligence analysts identify trends, patterns, and associations and provide assessments to inform strategies to prevent, mitigate, or interdict criminal activity. Within the organization, law enforcement patrol personnel must be trained to observe and report information through appropriate channels for input and analysis in the police intelligence cycle. Supervisory and administrative support personnel must likewise be trained to forward information that is reported by patrol personnel. Once crime trends, patterns, or conditions are identified and quantified through intelligence assessments, repeat offenders or chronic crime-conducive conditions can be targeted. The primary benefit of intelligence-led policing is that it enables military police to focus limited resources as effectively as possible to achieve the greatest crime reduction and prevention effects and outcomes.

4-86. To be effective, intelligence-led policing requires the significant sharing of police information between law enforcement agencies from all levels of government, including international law enforcement organizations. Information sharing and collaboration across jurisdictional and agency boundaries enable police intelligence analysts to obtain a thorough understanding of all information sources, allowing them to yield products and information that enable police resources to be employed in the most productive manner possible. The proliferation of fusion centers within the law enforcement community has greatly enhanced intelligence-led policing capabilities. Intelligence-led policing is best used when the capability is combined with other policing methods (community-oriented policing, problem-oriented policing, hot-spots policing). Similar to other policing approaches, intelligence-led policing recognizes the need to work with multiple stakeholders to solve issues through the analysis of crime, criminal elements, and environments that promote crime opportunities. However, intelligence-led policing typically employs a wider range of available sources to produce police intelligence, develop action plans, direct the targeting of criminal elements and activities, and manage law enforcement resources.

ENVIRONMENTAL APPROACHES

4-87. Both situational crime prevention and crime prevention thru environmental design offer military police, security professionals, businesses, and residents various principles, measures, and processes that have been found highly effective at preventing and reducing crime. The Army has incorporated principles from both frameworks into its physical security program and antiterrorism program for decades. Many of the previously mentioned policing approaches incorporate aspects from both frameworks as core components to their interventions. Military police should continue to incorporate situational crime prevention and crime prevention thru environmental design into their crime prevention strategies with heavy emphasis on selecting interventions in support of targeting threats, hazards and harmful conditions.

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Chapter 5

Law Enforcement

Law enforcement is an effective way to maintain public order, reduce and defeat crime, and the fear of crime. Law enforcement includes those activities performed by personnel authorized by legal authority to compel compliance with, and investigate violations of laws, directives, and punitive regulations. Typically, law enforcement activities are conducted by personnel trained as military police and held directly accountable to the governmental source of their authority.

LAW ENFORCEMENT PATROLS

5-1.   An effective law enforcement patrol is a critical element of any effort to prevent crime, maintain an orderly, environment and to respond to emergency calls and calls for service (maintain order, apprehend offenders, protect personnel and resources, and obtain relevant police information). The law enforcement patrol is responsible for maintaining a routine presence within the community and conducting proactive measures to help deter and prevent crime from occurring. It is the most visible means by which its proactive measures help deter and prevent crime from occurring.

5-2.   Military elements conduct patrol operations across all environments to support military operations. Military police conduct patrol operations in operational environments across the range of military operations. The characterization of the patrol as a law enforcement patrol depends on the specific mission conducted.

5-3.   When the environment is unstable and characterized predominantly by large-scale combat operations, law enforcement patrolling is extremely limited and tactical or security patrols will be predominantly employed. As the environment stabilizes and the focus shifts from strict order maintenance to establishing the rule of law, more military police patrols are characterized as law enforcement patrols.

5-4.   Military police law enforcement patrols are required within stable environments to maintain order, protect personnel and resources, prevent and deter criminal activity, and apprehend individuals when prevention fails. These missions can be in support of U.S. commanders and their assigned AO or in support of efforts to establish and maintain law and order within an HN population. Military police law enforcement patrols can also be crucial to restoring order and assisting in the transition from instability to stability. Military police conducting patrols in support of a police operations mission can also be a significant source of police information.

5-5.   When supporting contingency operations overseas, military police patrols can also be a valuable source of tactical information. One of the primary purposes of the patrol is interaction and observation of the local population. The military police Soldier is highly suited for this unique interaction with local populations. Military police Soldiers are technically and tactically proficient and are trained to effectively use interpersonal communications skills. Their character and competence represent the foundation of a trained and ready Army and unique military police capabilities. Military police Soldiers and leaders exercise mature judgment and initiative under stressful circumstances and are capable of learning and adapting to meet the demands of an adaptive and changing enemy and criminal threat.

5-6.   Within operational environments characterized by high violence and instability, military police patrols are conducted to establish order and provide a visible presence. These patrols are typically focused more on policing activities intended to support efforts to restore and maintain order and establish civil security. Military police patrols restore order and focus on acquiring police information; enforcing curfews and other populace control measures; and identifying and detaining criminals, terrorists, enemy special operations forces, intelligence agents, and members of belligerent parties. As the operational environment stabilizes and

initial efforts to establish or reestablish governance by the rule of law develop, military police patrols begin to support civil control efforts and transition to law enforcement functions that support U.S. and HN efforts.

5-7.   Depending on the operational environment, specific capabilities of the HN police, and their disposition toward U.S. interests, military police may conduct initial police operations supporting the civil security of the local population with or without HN involvement. If initial local involvement is not possible, efforts to establish a friendly HN capacity should begin as soon as feasible to facilitate reconciliation and reconstruction efforts. During this period of reconciliation and reconstruction, military police may conduct combined police patrols to train and mentor HN police forces. Military police use combined police operations to help legitimize and train an HN police force; increase police visibility; build confidence with the local populace to gain police information; identify potential threats; and improve U.S., multinational, and HN relations. As police capability and capacity continues to increase, military police patrols become increasingly law enforcement-focused and typically perform policing tasks in support of the overall law enforcement effort.

5-8.   Military police patrols have the most visible law enforcement element and have the most consistent and regular contact with the public. Typically, they are also the first to respond to a criminal incident or other emergency. This constant presence among the public places military police Soldiers in a unique position to present a positive image to the public through regular contact and assistance. Military police perform several law enforcement activities as a result of law enforcement patrols, to include—

- Crime prevention and deterrence.
- Personnel and resource protection.
- Service or assistance response calls.
- Apprehension of subjects following reported or observed criminal activity.
- Crisis and serious incident responses.
- Police information, evidence, and material collection.
- Traffic management and enforcement.
- Crime scene or incident site preservation and security.
- Report writing.
- Court testimony.
- Police engagement and community relations.

> *Note*. Military police must be fair, transparent, and objective in the execution of their duties in order to earn public support. If not, improper practices and behaviors can undermine the confidence not only in the police, but with the government as well. Law enforcement patrols can significantly damage the legitimacy of the police force in the eyes of the public if their actions, appearance, and manner of engagement with the public are perceived as unprofessional, corrupt, or excessive.

5-9.   During police operations in support of U.S. military personnel and resources, the military police desk section operating within the police operations center typically monitors and controls military police patrols. The desk should shift patrol resources based on incidents occurring during the AO. Typically, the desk sergeant, in coordination with the patrol supervisor, assigns patrol areas based on the PM or senior military police commander's guidance. The commander's guidance should focus on the need to have patrols focus in high crime areas as opposed to generic patrol areas. This guidance should be intelligence driven; task and purpose; and effects and outcomes-based patrol assignments with specific instructions. A law enforcement patrol briefing should include (at a minimum)—

- An assigned patrol area and method of patrol based on police intelligence assessments.
- Use of force.
- Method of communication.
- The mission of the patrol and any special enforcement instructions.
- The current force protection condition, to include any recent changes.
- Random antiterrorism measures to be conducted in the AO during the patrol period.
- Weather and road conditions.

- Any specific police information requirements to be collected and reported.
- Information on any recent criminal or mischievous activity.
- Any traffic problems or obstructions within the AO.
- Mission-essential vulnerable area and high-risk target coverage.
- Special events (concerts, festivals, dignitary visits, redeploying units) and associated special patrol requirements.
- Ongoing investigative and law enforcement activities (law enforcement surveillance, planned raids).
- Additional patrols available during the shift (traffic, military police investigators, MWD, or conservation officer).
- Overview of 4th Amendment search and seizure procedures.

5-10. Typically, patrols are controlled through the military police chain of command, their operations section, and S-3 section when supporting civil control and police operations that support an HN population and when establishing HN police capability and capacity. The military police commander and staff develop the patrol plan consistent with the mission and intent of the higher command. The military police company operations center manages and monitors the patrols. The company commander provides a mission briefing to the platoon leader and other subordinate leaders. Missions within this environment should emphasize the—

- Current criminal threat environment.
- Locations, call signs, and frequencies of—
    - Senior terrain owning unit and other friendly units in the AO.
    - Response forces.
    - Medical treatment facilities and medical evacuation assets.
- Locations of adjacent police stations.
- Distances and times between stations.
- Protection status of the stations.
- Status of routes in the AO.
- Status of HN police forces.
    - Proficiency of HN police forces.
    - Equipment status of the indigenous police (weapons, vehicles, uniforms).
    - Number of police officers available.
- Number of U.S. forces available to partner with the indigenous police.

Note. Peer competitors may attempt to influence the criminal threat environment.

5-11. Regardless of the location or operational environment, military police patrol personnel must know how to respond to emergencies that require immediate and informed actions. Procedures for performing self-protection techniques; requesting emergency medical services; performing HAZMAT operations, and fire support missions; and responding to other emergency assistance (quick-response force, attack aviation, unmanned-aircraft systems, terrorist attacks) must be planned, rehearsed, and trained with the same priority as other critical tasks. Military police patrols maintain constant communications with their S-3 element, the terrain manager, and adjacent patrols while being continuously aware of other friendly forces operating in the AO.

PATROL METHODS

5-12. Basic methods used for conducting police patrols have not drastically changed over the years. However, advancements in technology and better application of police intelligence assessments have increased the effectiveness of police patrols. Sophisticated communications, automation, and high-speed data

information systems have greatly improved patrol response and police information collection and reporting capabilities. The most common law enforcement patrol types include—

- Static (fixed).
- Dismounted (foot).
- Mounted (vehicle).
- Bicycle.
- MWD.
- Boat or watercraft.
- Other specialized patrols (motorcycle, aircraft, snowmobile).

5-13. Military police use mounted and dismounted patrols. These patrols investigate complaints and crimes, deliver/employ crime prevention measures in crime hotspots, and establish relationships within the community by getting to know and assisting the people who work in or visit the local community. During stability tasks, combined HN police and military police patrols are often crucial to restoring order, controlling populations, gathering police information, and building confidence in the local police.

5-14. Patrol methods can vary greatly. The method used for law enforcement patrolling depends on the specific mission variables, commander or PM guidance, and desired effect. In most cases, no one patrol method will be employed as a single solution; combinations of different patrol methods will typically be used to maximize the impact and achieve the desired effect. There are advantages and disadvantages to every patrol method. The military police staff must weigh these advantages and disadvantages to determine the best method or combination of methods to be employed. See table 5-1 for a list of advantages and disadvantages for common patrol methods.

Table 5-1. Advantages and disadvantages of specific patrol types

Patrol Methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Static (fixed)	• Surveillance of a specific area, target, or activity focused	• Manpower-intensive and loss of flexibility • Effectiveness of the patrol reduced (mundane over long periods)
Dismounted (foot)	• Effective at reducing and preventing crime and other problem areas. Especially in known high crime areas • High degree of community interaction • Greater situational understanding • Access to limited visibility or confined areas • Intensive enforcement availability in densely populated or high crime areas	• Coverage area limited • Law enforcement personnel safety reduced (access to backup patrols challenging) • Communications equipment limited • Response time slower than mounted patrols • Greater impact of environmental effects (weather, pollution) • Offenders, victims, or witnesses transport required • Possible personnel transport required to and from the areas of operation
Mounted (vehicle)	• High degree of mobility • Larger patrol area coverage • Greater protection for patrol personnel • Greater access to emergency equipment due to vehicle load capacity • Longer patrol durations available	• Access to some areas reduced (without dismounting) • Situational understanding reduced when enclosed within a vehicle • Opportunity and likelihood of community interaction reduced • False sense of security created for patrol personnel within vehicles
Bicycle	• Greater mobility than foot patrols • Increased saturation of law enforcement assets in densely populated or high crime areas	• Specialized training and equipment required • Inability of transport offenders, victims, or witnesses

Table 5-1. Advantages and disadvantages of specific patrol methods (continued)

Patrol Methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Bicycle (continued)	• Greater situational understanding for patrol personnel • Greater degree of community interaction than mounted patrols • Greater carrying capability for protection and communications equipment than a foot patrol	• Impact to environmental effects increased (weather, pollution) • Safety reduced and risk to law enforcement personnel increased

Military working dog	• Effective visual deterrent to criminal and threat elements
	• Extremely versatile; can operate mounted, dismounted, or static
	• Economy of force is maximized
	• Keen sense of smell for—
	  ▪ Drug detection
	  ▪ Explosives detection
	• Human Detection
		• Extensive training and certification required
		• Canine assets limited
		• Environmental conditions adversely impact military working dogs (heat, cold)
		• Resource-intensive
		• Cultural sensitivity may affect use
		• Unintended bite risk when employed within crowded areas

Boat and watercraft	• Capability to cover significant water obstacles • Emergency response capability for water incidents	• Overall use limited; extremely specialized • Resource-intensive • Specialized training requirements are not readily available within the Army

5-15. In most police operations, no single patrol method is employed across the entire AO at all times. Individual patrols and methods are assigned specific patrol areas and methods to target specific problem areas or initiatives based on the current environment, police intelligence assessments, or a combination of both. Using a combination of patrol means and methods allows patrols to complement each other and maximize the advantages of each individual method while reducing the associated risk. Using patrol methods in combination allows Army law enforcement to balance requirements and expectations to—

- Interact with the populace.
- Gather or disseminate information.
- Reduce the chance of setting identifiable patrol patterns that could be used by criminals to their advantage.
- Effectively provide a deterrent presence for specific locations and times based on police intelligence.
- Enhance their ability to respond to crimes in progress or emergency situations.
- Provide multiple means and reinforcing capabilities between various patrol types.

STATIC (FIXED) PATROLS

5-16. Static or fixed patrols are used when a law enforcement presence is required to protect or observe a specific area, person, or activity. These patrols are resource-intensive and are typically used only when there is significant criminal or other intelligence that suggests an imminent threat to high-risk personnel or assets.

5-17. Static patrols may be used to conduct surveillance of a specific target to gather information, interdict an illicit activity, or apprehend a subject. Static patrols may also be employed as a temporary measure during adverse weather conditions (during ice storms or other environmental conditions that make travel extremely hazardous). During these conditions, law enforcement patrols may be directed to go static at designated locations and maintain communications with the operations section or police desk. These elements are directed to respond only to the most severe incidents until the environmental conditions improve.

DISMOUNTED (FOOT) PATROLS

5-18. Dismounted patrols provide significant opportunities for Army law enforcement to enhance community relations and conduct police engagement by allowing the law enforcement patrol the opportunity

to interact with the community on a more personal level. This interaction fosters a stronger relationship and sense of mutual trust and understanding. Additionally, dismounted patrols can provide intensive law enforcement presence in high-density and high-crime areas.

5-19. The dismounted patrol can be conducted as the sole method assigned to the patrol element, or it can be conducted as a directed mission for a mounted patrol. In the latter case, the mounted patrol would dismount and patrol on foot within designated areas and time frames. Communications with the military police desk or operations center is critical for officer safety. Patrol personnel who dismount their vehicle to conduct foot patrols must notify the desk or operations center and report the location and direction of their travel. Dismounted patrols must maintain communications with the police operations center. Mounted patrol elements that conduct dismounted patrols should maintain a distance from their patrol vehicle that allows for immediate return to a mounted posture to enable timely response to emergencies.

5-20. Dismounted law enforcement patrols are especially beneficial within stability tasks. They may be conducted by military police alone or as a combined patrol with HN police counterparts. The dismounted patrol allows interaction with the public. This can help establish trust and a public feeling of legitimacy for police elements. When working with HN police elements, the HN police should be the lead element as soon as they are capable; military police Soldiers should maintain a support role. This places the HN police in the authority position with their own populations and speeds the transition to total HN control.

5-21. The threat level within the patrol area must always be considered when establishing dismounted patrols. The dismounted patrol is extremely vulnerable to threats due to reduced protection equipment and mobility. Deliberate risk management is vital to establish risk mitigation factors that reduce the threat to dismounted elements to an acceptable level. See ATP 5-19 for information on risk management.

MOUNTED (VEHICLE) PATROLS

5-22. Mounted patrols assist law enforcement efforts in most environments. They provide a highly mobile capability that can respond and react to a wide variety of situations. Mounted patrols operating in defined areas provide a planned continuity of operations and complement the effects of dismounted patrols. Mounted patrols are also the method of choice for traffic control activities and enforcement of traffic regulations.

5-23. Mission variables determine the patrol composition, equipment required, and vehicles used. Within stable environments, military police and other law enforcement agencies typically perform mounted patrol operations in specially equipped, commercial, nontactical vehicles (sedans, trucks, vans). These vehicles may be configured with light systems, heavy-duty suspension systems, crash protection devices, and restraint systems. Police vehicles are typically equipped with law enforcement equipment, to include—

- Communications equipment.
- Automations equipment.
- Special protective gear.
- Crisis response kits.

Note. Army law enforcement personnel must be trained and certified for military emergency vehicle operation to operate these vehicles and associated equipment safely.

5-24. In contingency operations, the military police up-armored, high-mobility, multipurpose wheeled vehicle M1151 is typically used. Typically, the Mine Resistant Ambush Protected-All Terrain Vehicle should not be used for routine patrolling during police missions due to the limited visibility and the barrier the vehicle places between military police and the population. The M1151 can be used for very high threat and special-response situations when interface and communication with the populace is a low priority or not required. These tactical vehicles provide ballistic protection and are designed for use over all types of roads and in all weather conditions. They are extremely effective in the most difficult terrain. As the environment transitions and becomes more stable, Army law enforcement may transition to nontactical vehicles equipped for law enforcement activities. See appendix D.

5-25. The base element for a military police patrol within a tactical vehicle is the military police team. It is composed of a team leader, a driver, and a gunner. The team is trained and equipped to conduct independent

tasks as part of a military police section or squad mission. The size of a tactical military police patrol is based on the threat. In relatively benign environments, individual teams can be employed as a patrol element. At increased threat levels, squad-size elements may be required to conduct a single patrol mission. This enables the individual teams to benefit from mutual support and security while operating in a high-threat environment. In the early stages of a transition to dedicated police operations when the threat remains elevated, military police law enforcement patrols use tactical vehicles in a manner more consistent with tactical combat or security patrols more than law enforcement patrols which are conducted within a more stable environment.

5-26. Military police law enforcement patrols using nontactical vehicles are typically operating within a reduced threat environment versus an unstable environment that is associated with many contingency operations. These law enforcement patrols will typically consist of one vehicle with one or two military police Soldiers manning the vehicle platform. Careful consideration must be used when determining whether to employ one- or two-man law enforcement patrols. One-man patrols can result in doubling the number of patrols operating within an area, thus increasing the perceived police presence within an AO. They can also stretch limited manpower resources. Two-man patrols may be preferable in high-crime areas and when an inexperienced force is a concern. Junior grade military police Solders are typically younger and have less experience and maturity than their civilian law enforcement counterparts. These younger military police Soldiers may require teaming with a more experienced military police Soldier. When two-man patrols are not possible due to manpower constraints, patrol assignments should be made so that more experienced military police Soldiers are assigned to adjacent patrol areas to assist junior military police Soldiers as backup patrols.

5-27. Combined mobile patrols are often used to develop partnerships with indigenous and multinational forces or to train and mentor foreign police forces. These patrols can be critical in HN police development and transition operations focused on building HN police capability and capacity. Initially, military police Soldiers and other civilian non-HN police personnel supporting the mission may take the lead role to train HN police personnel. The goal is always to transition to HN lead and, eventually, to total HN control over police activities targeting HN populations.

BICYCLE PATROLS

5-28. In many locations, bicycle patrols are popular options that allow military police Soldiers or civilian law enforcement personnel greater access to populated areas. Bicycle patrols are community-oriented assets that primarily patrol the housing areas, youth centers, school bus stops, schools, and special-event areas. Bicycle patrols can enforce laws, directives, and regulations and rapidly respond in constricted areas where accessibility by motorized vehicles is limited.

5-29. A major benefit of bicycle patrols is the accessibility to the patrol element by the community, thus enabling positive interaction and police engagement. They can emphasize positive interaction, while identifying problem areas (ongoing criminal activity, community concerns, areas where crime prevention measures can be employed). Bicycle patrols normally consist of two-person teams equipped with appropriate safety items. Commanders must ensure that proper training is conducted before assigning bicycle patrols.

MILITARY WORKING DOG PATROLS

5-30. An MWD team supports a variety of military police operations. They are used in all operational environments and greatly extend military police capabilities. An MWD patrol can operate mounted (MWDs only serve as a psychological deterrent while operating in a mounted capacity) or dismounted; however, the team contribution to law enforcement and policing efforts is most effective when the team is dismounted. An MWD patrol will typically operate from a mounted platform and dismount to conduct specific patrol duties and maximize the effectiveness of the team. (See ATP 3-39.34 for additional information on MWD teams.) MWD team capabilities are most effective when employed for—

- Visual and psychological deterrence.
- Drug detection.
- Explosives detection.
- Human Detection.

- Building or area searches.
- Entry or access control points.
- Traffic and border checkpoints.
- Customs support operations.
- Commander health and welfare inspections.

BOAT AND WATERCRAFT PATROLS

5-31. Many AO are bordered by, or have within their boundaries, large bodies of water, including lakes, rivers, bays, and other shorelines. A body of water can be of great concern when it lies on a boundary with an element that is not under U.S. military control or when it bisects the AO. These bodies of water create natural obstacles and avenues for ingress and egress into the AO.

5-32. Bodies of water may be used for commerce, trade, modes of transportation, or recreational purposes by the local population. They can also be used as ingress or egress points by criminal or other threat elements attempting to access the AO. Regardless, military police may be required to use boats or watercraft to maintain a patrol capability and presence on these bodies of water to deter threats, respond to threats, and respond to accidents or other incidents requiring emergency response.

5-33. The use of boats and watercraft for patrol purposes requires special training and certification to ensure that Army law enforcement personnel can operate the platform safely and effectively. Military police commanders and PMs must ensure that Army law enforcement personnel required to use boats or other watercraft receive adequate training.

OTHER SPECIALIZED PATROL METHODS

5-34. Military police operate in a variety of conditions and environments. While not common across the Army, other patrol means are sometimes required based on the local conditions, terrain, and other factors. Military police commanders and PMs must be flexible and consider these patrol methods when they prove feasible and can meet the requirements of the specific AO. They must also understand that any nonstandard patrol method has its own set of training, licensing, and resource requirements. These requirements must be researched, understood, and implemented appropriately to ensure that Army law enforcement personnel and the community are safe and secure. These nonstandard methods can include—

- Aviation patrols.
- Motorcycle patrols.
- All-terrain vehicle patrols.
- Horse patrols.
- Snowmobile, snowshoe, or ski patrols.
- Unmanned aerial systems.

LAW ENFORCEMENT PATROL STRATEGIES

5-35. There are numerous techniques or strategies commonly used to organize and employ basic law enforcement patrols. These techniques can be employed using any of the methods discussed in the previous paragraphs. The patrol strategy (or strategies) used is based on mission variables specific to the AO and the effects desired. While a single patrol strategy may be used across the entire AO, a combination of techniques is more commonly employed to achieve the desired effect. The PM, commander, and staff must conduct mission analysis to determine the patrol strategies that will be most effective in addressing specific problems within their AO. There are several common patrolling strategies used by Army law enforcement and civilian police agencies. These strategies include—

- Directed.
- Split-force.
- Saturation.
- Differential-response.

DIRECTED

5-36. Directed patrols are given specific tasks and instructions, which focus patrol efforts. Directed patrolling is considered a proactive strategy. This strategy reduces patrol downtime and addresses concerns over patrol productivity and effectiveness. It also focuses patrols on identifying crime-conducive conditions and gathering critical police information, thus allowing the implementation of crime prevention and interdiction efforts. Patrols are provided specific guidance based on—

- Information collection and police intelligence requirements.
- Police intelligence analysis results.
- Crime prevention strategies.
- Command or PM law enforcement initiatives.
- Police engagement strategies.
- Complaints or reports of crime from the community.

5-37. Directed patrols can be especially useful when employing inexperienced military police Soldiers. Directed patrols provide structure and direction to their patrol activities when their level of experience does not allow for the initiative and situational understanding inherent with more experienced military police Soldiers. For more experienced military police Soldiers, directed policing may limit the ability of the patrol to take the initiative and fully capitalize on police engagement opportunities with the community or develop leads that may result in the prevention or interdiction of criminal activity. Directed patrolling can also result in an added workload for the desk crew and patrol leaders or supervisors, especially during police operations with large numbers of active patrols. Directed patrolling requires that the desk section and patrol leaders or supervisors continuously prioritize and manage tasks for the patrols; this can adversely impact other duties. The military police commander, PM, and operations staff must balance the advantages and disadvantages of directed patrols.

SPLIT-FORCE

5-38. Split-force patrolling involves identifying one portion of the patrol force to perform routine patrols. A routine patrol responds to calls assigned by the desk section. The remaining elements are employed as directed patrols.

5-39. Typically, directed patrols are not required to respond to incoming service calls unless routine patrols are not available and the call is considered time-sensitive. This strategy allows the military police commander or PM to conduct reactive and proactive measures simultaneously. Split-force patrolling can result in significant disparities in workloads. The routine patrols can quickly become overwhelmed with calls, required patrol responses, and associated casework while directed patrols will typically not be assigned missions and tasks that are time-sensitive in nature. Military police commanders, PMs, and staffs must carefully monitor split-force patrols to ensure that personnel rotate between directed- and routine-patrol missions to prevent patrol burnout.

SATURATION

5-40. Typically, saturation patrols are used within the split-force construct. This strategy places a higher number of patrols into AO that are characterized by higher crime activity, traffic offenses, or other incidents to increase law enforcement presence. Saturation patrols are placed in an area during peak criminal or disruptive activity. They may be instructed to enforce zero tolerance for specific activities (speeding, loud music, curfew violations, prostitution). These patrols will perform increased vehicle and pedestrian stops and conduct more field interviews than normal.

5-41. Studies have shown that saturation patrols can be significant deterrents to criminal or other disruptive behavior. They can also result in large amounts of police information that can be used by police intelligence analysts supporting policing efforts. Care must be exercised when using saturation patrols as they can be perceived as heavy-handed if employed too frequently in the same AO. The key to a successful saturation patrol strategy is an aggressive police engagement effort to inform the community of the purpose and intent of the mission and to receive community feedback. Coordination with the SJA for legal advice and opinions before conducting saturation patrols may be required.

DIFFERENTIAL-RESPONSE

5-42. A differential-response strategy focuses on maximizing the use of law enforcement patrol assets through the prioritization of calls and associated law enforcement patrol responses. Differential-response is the least preferred method and least effective method at preventing crime. This technique is regularly employed when law enforcement patrol resources are inadequate due to—

- Unavailable personnel or resources (a high deployment operational tempo of supporting military police companies, a significant flu outbreak that reduces the available force).
- Environmental conditions that limit the ability of patrols to respond or that make response for nonemergency situations too hazardous to justify (such as severe ice storms that make road conditions treacherous).
- An incident that creates a large number of high-priority calls (a terrorist event, an industrial accident, a natural disaster).

5-43. Within a differential response construct, the military police commander, PM, and staff must prioritize incidents that require a law enforcement response by severity. Incidents of significant severity (reports of injuries, crimes or emergencies in progress, reports or discoveries of serious incidents [deaths, sexual assaults]) would continue to require a law enforcement patrol response. Other less serious incidents (larcenies, minor traffic accidents, simple assaults with no or minimal injuries) would be placed on low priority for a response or be handled by an alternative method. Many incidents (lost or stolen property, noninjury traffic accidents) can be documented over the phone for follow-up and processing at a later date, or the victim or reporting party can be asked to come to the military police station to make a report at their convenience.

TRAFFIC ENFORCEMENT AND INVESTIGATIONS

5-44. An effective traffic enforcement program begins with highly trained TMCIs. These specially trained personnel are subject matter experts in the laws and methods encompassed in executing traffic programs and conducting traffic collision investigations. See chapter 8 for additional information on traffic enforcement.

5-45. The capabilities of TMCIs and other military police conducting traffic management and enforcement can be especially critical in support of contingency operations in an effort to establish civil control. Many operational environments are marked by the lack of order and structure. The roadways can be chaotic and hazardous due to congested and inadequate road networks and the lack of traffic control and enforcement. Military police with experience and training in traffic management and enforcement can be a critical element within a multifunctional team of engineer, transportation, and other specialties to develop plans and implement solutions to these issues.

5-46. TMCIs can also provide training and mentorship to HN police to develop their traffic enforcement capabilities. Regardless of the environment, TMCIs possess the knowledge and capability necessary to—

- Investigate major and minor traffic collisions (to include those with fatalities or serious injuries).
- Plan traffic control and flow for special events.
- Determine selective enforcement measures required for problematic traffic areas.
- Provide traffic safety education, training, and reports.
- Develop traffic volume and distribution studies.
- Enforce speed and parking limits.
- Provide motorist assistance.
- Provide roadway hazard reports.
- Suppress the frequency of incidents that involve driving under the influence and while intoxicated.

CRIMINAL INVESTIGATIONS

5-47. Regardless of the operational environment, offenses committed against U.S. forces and property degrades military discipline, morale, and operational capabilities. In coordination with federal, state, local, and foreign law enforcement agencies, law enforcement personnel investigate crimes and offenses in support of the commander's effort to protect personnel, resources, and critical assets. Criminal investigations are

conducted primarily by military police Soldiers (military police investigators and TMCI) and USACIDC SAs. See ATP 3-39.12 for additional information on law enforcement investigations.

5-48. In support of HN populations, police development, and transition activities, Army law enforcement may be required to conduct criminal investigations pertaining to crimes committed by and against HN personnel. Army law enforcement may also be required to train and mentor HN police investigators in an effort to build HN criminal investigations capability and capacity. (See chapter 6 for additional information on building HN police capability and capacity.) Regardless of the operational environment, criminal investigations conducted by Army law enforcement personnel include—

- Criminal investigations of major incidents involving death, serious bodily injury, and war crimes.
- Investigations concerning customs violations, illegal traffic of controlled substances and other contraband, and black-market activity.
- Fraud and economic crime investigations.
- War crimes, human trafficking, and other crimes against humanity.
- Investigations of minor offenses (low-value personal property thefts, simple assaults).
- Juvenile investigations.
- Traffic accidents.

5-49. Even though military police investigators and USACIDC SAs are typically responsible for criminal investigations of serious crimes, military police law enforcement patrols are, in most cases, the first to respond to a crime scene or incident site. A law enforcement patrol must be prepared to conduct a preliminary investigation (whether a criminal investigation or traffic accident investigation) to ensure that perishable information and evidence is captured and reported. This initial information can be critical to successful follow-up investigations conducted by military police investigators or USACIDC SAs. In relatively minor cases, follow-up investigations may be performed by military police law enforcement patrols on scene or at the military police station to obtain additional information or conduct additional interviews or interviews that could not be performed concurrent with the initial response or other law enforcement requirements.

PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATIONS

5-50. Preliminary or initial investigations begin when the first patrol arrives at the scene of an incident. The preliminary investigation should include—

- Observing and documenting—
  - The general condition of the scene.
  - Activities occurring upon approach and after arrival.
  - Spontaneous statements or comments made by victims, witnesses, or potential subjects.
- Maintaining and protecting the crime or incident scene by establishing—
  - A protective perimeter around the crime scene.
  - An access point and briefing area to control and document entry into the controlled area.
- Conducting evidence collection, as required.
- Locating and identifying victims, witnesses, or potential subjects.
- Conducting initial interviews with victims, witnesses, or potential subjects and ensuring that witness statements are properly documented.
- Apprehending subjects, as required.
- Completing all required documentation.
  - Patrol reports.
  - Witness statements.
  - Chain-of-custody and evidence documentation.
- Back briefing military police investigators and USACIDC SAs on all aspects of the preliminary investigation and providing copies of reports, statements, and evidence documentation.

FOLLOW-UP INVESTIGATIONS

5-51. Follow-up investigations are common to obtain additional investigative information for cases, perform checks on victims, conduct additional interviews, or complete other law enforcement requirements. A follow-up investigation can be conducted by law enforcement patrols for relatively minor cases. The use of law enforcement patrols for follow-up investigations can free military police investigators and USACIDC SAs to concentrate on more serious investigations. It can also provide a positive image of the organization to the community by demonstrating an involved patrol force. When possible, the same patrol that conducted the preliminary investigation should be used to conduct the follow-up. If this is not possible, the law enforcement patrol conducting the follow-up investigation should thoroughly review previous documentation to ensure familiarity with the case.

5-52. Follow-up investigations by law enforcement patrols may be directed by the desk sergeant, the patrol supervisor, or the operations section. They can also be initiated by the original responding patrol, when required. Follow-up investigations may include additional searches or interviews, subject apprehension, and victim or witness assistance.

INTERVIEWS AND LAW ENFORCEMENT INTERROGATIONS

5-53. Interviews and law enforcement interrogations are critical tools for Army law enforcement to obtain information from victims, witnesses, and suspects concerning their actions and observations during a crime or incident. Interviews and law enforcement interrogations are a means of obtaining testimonial evidence to help determine what occurred at an incident. Within the context of law enforcement investigations, testimonial evidence is a statement based on personal knowledge or belief that serves as evidence or proof concerning a crime or incident under investigation. To obtain this information, law enforcement personnel ask appropriate questions designed to illicit required information and determine the truthfulness of the information by observing and interpreting the actions and words of the person being interviewed. Effective interviewing and interrogation require an understanding of human nature, good interpersonal communications abilities, and sharp observation skills. This section will provide a description of interviews and interrogations, focusing primarily on interviews conducted by law enforcement patrols. Interviews and interrogations are covered in detail in ATP 3-39.12.

INTERVIEWS

5-54. Interviews conducted during law enforcement activities and investigations are less structured than law enforcement interrogations. Interviews are conducted by law enforcement personnel to gather information and determine facts about a crime or incident. An interview is a nonstructured discussion, where open-ended questions are asked to determine facts about an incident or crime. Interviews are characterized by the questioning of a person who is cooperative and voluntary provides information; interviews are used for fact finding and are probative in nature. During interviews of potential suspects, reasonable suspicion of guilt may not be established; persons being interviewed are typically not under apprehension and may depart the area at any time. During an interview of a victim, witness, or potential suspect, and if a statement is made that raises a reasonable suspicion of guilt that the individual committed a crime, questioning must cease until the subject is advised of their rights (see Miranda versus Arizona, 1966). Interview questions may only continue if the subject waives their right against self-incrimination and legal counsel. This should be documented on DA Form 3881 (*Rights Warning Procedure/Waiver Certificate*).

Note. Persons suspected of committing a crime that are a subject (active duty) to the UCMJ must immediately be advised of their rights in accordance with Article 31 (b) of the UCMJ. Persons suspected of committing a crime that are not subject to the UCMJ must immediately be informed of their Miranda Rights. See Part II of DA Form 3881 for rights warning procedures.

5-55. During law enforcement operations, law enforcement patrols conduct interviews to determine as many facts as possible about the crime or incident in question to support the preliminary and follow-up investigations. The law enforcement personnel must know the elements of proof for any crimes that may have been committed to ensure that appropriate questions are asked and relevant information is obtained.

Military police with less experience or knowledge of the elements of proof should seek assistance and guidance from patrol supervisors, squad or team leaders, military police desk personnel, law enforcement investigators, or operations personnel. At a minimum, interviews conducted by law enforcement patrols and investigators should be conducted to answer—

- **Who**. Ascertain the people involved in the incident. This includes victims, witnesses, and potential subjects.
- **What.** Determine what happened during the incident. This includes major events or actions relevant to the crime or incident.
- **When.** Identify when the incident occurred. Establish the time that the crime or incident occurred, to include a chronology of events leading up to and following the crime or incident in question.
- **Where.** Determine the exact location where the incident occurred. This may include multiple locations.
- **Why.** Identify the cause or motivations for the crime or incident to occur. This is very important during a suspect interview to help determine the motivation and state of mind of the individual.
- **How.** Determine how the crime or incident occurred. Identify events leading up to and during the event; obtain details of specific actions.

5-56. There are several types of interviews conducted by Army law enforcement personnel during police operations. These interview types include—

- **Canvas interviews.** Canvas interviews are conducted in the immediate areas surrounding a crime scene or incident site. Canvas interviews are used to obtain information and identify witnesses who may not come forward on their own. These witnesses may be able to provide relevant information to aid in the investigative effort. Law enforcement patrols may be required to conduct canvas interviews to determine the facts about an incident subsequent to the initial response, as part of a preliminary investigation, or in support of law enforcement investigators while they are processing the crime scene or incident site. Canvas interviews do not target specific persons; they target all persons within a specific area around a crime scene or incident site.
- **Field interviews.** Field interviews, unlike canvas interviews, target a particular person seen in an area. Field interviews are conducted to find out what a person is doing in an area and to determine their activities. Field interviews are typically initiated upon observation of suspicious activity or due to potential association with a crime or incident. Any information collected during a field interview should be documented and forwarded through operational channels to the operations section for processing. Locally produced field interview cards can be useful to assist law enforcement patrols in obtaining relevant information. Persons identified during field interviews may be contacted later if crimes are reported later in the area where they were stopped. Patterns of activity can also be identified if the same person is habitually stopped in an area where criminal activity is identified.
- **Victim interviews.** Victim interviews are conducted to obtain specific information concerning the crime or incident that has occurred and resulted in harm to the individual or their property. Victim interviews are conducted to obtain specific details of the incident and determine what crimes may have been committed. Victims are often traumatized and emotionally upset following a crime or incident; care must be taken when talking to victims of physical violence, emotional abuse, or major incidents. Their state of mind may be very fragile. For violent crimes or traumatic incidents, responding law enforcement patrols will typically conduct only a brief initial interview and defer in-depth interviews to law enforcement investigators or other personnel trained to conduct a more formal interview.

- **Witness interviews.** A witness is anyone having knowledge of an incident. Witnesses can include—
    - **Eyewitnesses.** Eyewitnesses are persons who observe the actual event and have direct knowledge of the crime or incident. Eyewitness interviews are critical to verify accounts of victims and suspects. Law enforcement personnel must understand that eyewitness recollections of specific events may differ from person to person, depending on their state of mind and experiences.
    - **Significant parties.** Significant parties are people having other than direct knowledge or observation of an incident; however, they may have relevant information that can prove or disprove aspects of the crime or incident being investigated. Significant parties may be able to verify or refute an alibi, confirm or refute historical facts about a crime scene or incident site, or may have been witness to and be able to document statements made by an individual involved in a crime or incident (even though they were not present when the crime was committed).
- **Suspect or subject interviews.** A suspect or subject is anyone suspected of committing a crime. Before the interview of a subject, a DA Form 3881 must be completed. The subject and their demeanor at the time will determine how the interview is structured.

Note. It is not uncommon for each witness to perceive or remember events differently from other witnesses. It is also not uncommon for traumatized victims to have issues recalling certain aspects of a crime.

LAW ENFORCEMENT INTERROGATION

5-57. A law enforcement interrogation is conducted by trained law enforcement personnel, typically military police investigators or USACIDC SAs. **A *law enforcement interrogation* is the systematic effort by law enforcement investigators to prove, disprove, or corroborate information relevant to a criminal investigation using direct questioning in a controlled environment.** A law enforcement investigator conducting a law enforcement interrogation uses an understanding of human nature and natural human responses to obtain information from individuals during questioning in support of a law enforcement investigation. Law enforcement interrogations are employed when a reasonable suspicion of guilt is known.

5-58. During a law enforcement interrogation, the subject of the questioning is not free to leave. The interrogation is conducted in a controlled and structured environment using direct, close-ended questions designed to obtain an admission of guilt or a confession. An admission is a self-incriminating statement that falls short of a complete acknowledgement of guilt; a confession results when the whole truth has been disclosed by the subject, including the acceptance of responsibility for their actions. Law enforcement interrogations may include polygraph examinations by trained and certified USACIDC polygraph examiners. Polygraph examinations can result in law enforcement investigators obtaining confirmation of a reasonable suspicion of a subject's guilt or may result in the investigator eliminating the individual as a viable subject.

SEARCHES AND SEIZURES

5-59. For Army law enforcement personnel to effect legal searches and seizures, it is critical that the following definitions are understood:

- **Search.** A search is an examination, authorized by law, of a specific person, property, or area for specified evidence or property or of a specific person for the purposes of seizing such property, evidence, or person. A search without probable cause will not be considered by the courts unless it was conducted incident to a lawful exception.
- **Seizure.** A seizure is the taking of property from the possessor by an authorized person or the restriction of freedom of movement of an individual against their will by an agent of the government. Any item that is reasonably believed to be an unlawful weapon, contraband, or evidence of a crime or that might be used to resist apprehension or to escape may be seized.

- **Probable cause.** Probable cause to conduct a search or seizure exists when there is a reasonable belief that a crime has been committed and that the person, property, or evidence sought in connection with the crime is located in the place (a room, barracks, privately owned vehicle, quarters) or on the person to be searched. The authorizing authority must determine that there is a reasonable belief that the person, property, or evidence sought is located in the place or on the person being searched. The probable cause determination is based on the totality of the circumstances at the search time. See Rule 315f[2], *Manual for Courts-Martial*.
- **Search authorization.** In the military, a search authorization (based on probable cause) may be issued by a competent military authority. A competent military authority includes a military judge, a military magistrate, or a commander who has control over the place where the property or person to be searched is situated or found. See Rule 315d, *Manual for Courts-Martial.*

4TH AMENDMENT RESTRICTIONS

5-60. When there is a reasonable expectation of privacy (person, home, papers, effects), the 4th Amendment will not be violated. The 4th Amendment to the United States Constitution establishes the right to be free from unreasonable searches and seizures.

5-61. The following key criteria need to be considered to determine if there is a violation of the 4th Amendment:

- **Whether there is an intrusion into an area where a person has a reasonable expectation of privacy.** When determining whether the area intruded upon is an area where one has a reasonable expectation of privacy, courts review the subjective. Did the person have an expectation of privacy in the home, car, footlocker, desk, or other area? Is society objectively willing to recognize that it is reasonable to expect privacy in that area? Both inquiries need to be answered in the affirmative for the courts to find a reasonable expectation of privacy.
- **Whether the intrusion was effected by a U.S. government official or agent.** The 4th Amendment does not apply unless there is U.S. government intrusion. Private searches and foreign searches are not covered by the 4th Amendment as long as the private individual or foreign officials are not acting as agents of the U.S. government. A search may not be unreasonable if it is in an area where a person does not have a reasonable expectation of privacy or the search is conducted by someone who is not a government agent.

Reasonable Search

5-62. A search is not unreasonable when conducted pursuant to a search warrant or authorization that was issued upon a showing of probable cause. Probable cause is a reasonable belief that the person, property, or evidence sought is located in the place or on the person to be searched. (See Rule 315f, *Manual for Courts-Martial.*) Law enforcement personnel can conduct a lawful apprehension or seizure of a person based on probable cause. Once a subject is lawfully seized based on probable cause, the subject's reasonable expectation of privacy, in their person, is diminished and they are able to be searched because of the probable cause supporting the apprehension. Exceptions exist which allow for searches and seizures and do not violate the 4th Amendment, consent being one of them. A person's consent to search an area means that the search is not unreasonable because that person has authority over the area and is inviting law enforcement personnel into the area.

Exclusionary Rule

5-63. Army law enforcement personnel must know and understand the law surrounding the 4th Amendment and lawful searches and seizures to be effective in their positions. Failure to understand and act according to the 4th Amendment and subsequent judicial holdings can result in the exclusion of evidence.

5-64. The exclusionary rule (the court's response to constitutional violations) allows the court to exclude—

- Evidence obtained as a result of an unlawful search or seizure (evidence which violated the 4th Amendment rights of the accused).
- Any derivative evidence from the original 4th Amendment violation. Derivative evidence is evidence obtained as a result of the original 4th Amendment violation, as a product of the violation

or as evidence which flowed from the violation (often referred to as fruit of the poisonous tree), unless it was evidence that was obtained as inevitable discovery. Inevitable discovery permits admission of evidence that was obtained through illegal means if it would inevitably have been obtained, regardless of the illegality

Contacts and Stops

5-65. A contact occurs when Army law enforcement personnel engage a member of the community. Often, Army law enforcement personnel make citizen contacts to gain further information before determining whether an apprehension is warranted. This begins with simple communication with a person. Army law enforcement personnel can make contact with a person anyplace where Army law enforcement personnel are lawfully present. Under the context of a police contact, the individual contacted is not under any form of detention or apprehension and can terminate the contact and leave anytime. Examples of lawful contacts include questioning witnesses of a crime or warning an individual of hazards within the AO. These types of contacts are reasonable, permissible, and within the normal activities of Army law enforcement personnel and commanders.

5-66. A stop usually occurs after Army law enforcement personnel witness a disturbance, traffic violation, or other incident that violates laws or threatens public safety and order. The communication is similar to the citizen contact communication in that the questioning is administrative in nature. The citizen contact and the stop are not apprehensions. Within the context of a contact, the individual is under no requirement to stay and may depart at will. A stop, while less restrictive than an apprehension, does limit the individual's ability to break contact and leave at will; a stop can be described as a temporary detention for an investigative purpose, only long enough to confirm or dispel suspicion that a crime occurred, is occurring or is about to occur. Apprehension and detention involve government control over the freedom of movement of a person, although apprehension is based on probable cause and is more permanent in nature.

5-67. At any point in which Army law enforcement personnel make contact with the public, items that are in open view can be seized if identified as contraband. This is known as plain-view doctrine. Plain-view doctrine has several key elements.

5-68. Army law enforcement may seize an item of evidence in plain view if the following elements are met:
- The officer is lawfully in the place from which he observes the item—the officer did not violate the 4th Amendment in arriving at the place from which the evidence can be plainly viewed.
- The item is immediately recognizable as contraband (no manipulation of that item occurred to determine its contraband nature).
- The item may lawfully be reached from the officer's location. Therefore, an officer must distinguish between situations in which contraband is observed and may be immediately seized and times when the contraband is observable but an authorization or warrant must be obtained or an exigency exception is present. For example, seeing contraband through the window of a residence would require, in the absence of an exigent circumstance, a search authorization before that residence could be entered and the contraband seized. However, contraband observed on a table in a residence and room that the officer was invited into could be seized immediately.

Investigative Stops (Terry Stops and Frisks)

5-69. A Terry Stop (*Terry versus Ohio*, 1968) (also known as an investigative stop) is the brief detention of a person when Army law enforcement personnel have reasonable suspicion of criminal activity. Reasonable suspicion is a lesser belief than probable cause but, like probable cause, is based on the totality of the circumstances. The experience of Army law enforcement personnel; the crime conditions (such as a high-crime area); the mannerisms, dress, and activities of the detainee; and the time of day are factors when considering the totality of the circumstances for a Terry Stop.

5-70. The Terry Stop allows for a frisk of the detainee for the safety of Army law enforcement personnel. However, the frisk is not automatic and should only be performed when there is a reasonable belief that the person is armed and presently dangerous. The frisk does not rise to the level of a body search. A frisk consists of a pat down of the outer clothing; the inner clothing is not touched and personnel should not conduct a pocket search unless a weapon is found. Within the context of law enforcement officer safety and frisks

associated with Terry Stops, weapons are defined very broadly. Many objects can be used as and considered a potential weapon, (a screwdriver; scissors; other sharp, heavy, or dense objects). If other contraband is discovered during the conduct of a lawful frisk, Army law enforcement personnel may seize that contraband. The Terry Stop can turn from a detention to an apprehension if probable cause develops that a crime has occurred or will be committed by the detained person.

5-71. If, in the course of a lawfully conducted frisk of an individual's outer clothing, an Army law enforcement officer feels an object with a contour and mass making its identity immediately apparent as contraband, the officer may seize the object. In this instance, there is no unauthorized invasion of privacy; law enforcement personnel were already acting within established constraints to search for weapons. The contraband may be seized without a formal search authorization and would be justified by the same practical considerations that inhere in the plain-view context (see *Minnesota versus Dickerson*, 1993). This action is also known as plain-feel doctrine.

5-72. Army law enforcement personnel cannot arbitrarily conduct a search based on a hunch or without proper authority. The following paragraphs describe the requirements to conduct a search, whether granted by an authorization or by consent of the individual having control over the area or property to be searched.

AUTHORITY TO GRANT A SEARCH

5-73. To conduct a legal search, a search authorization must be provided. A search authorization is an expression of permission, written or oral, issued by a competent military authority. The military authority must be an impartial individual who is a commander, a military magistrate, or a military judge. The commander must be an officer in charge or hold a position of command over the place where the property or person is to be searched or seized. A military magistrate is a neutral and detached impartial judge advocate who received appointment from a senior military judge. The military judge is also authorized to grant a search authorization but will typically be used as an authority of last resort. After a proper search authorization is granted, Army law enforcement has the authority to conduct the search, within the parameters or scope of the authorization, and to seize any evidence found as a result of the search.

Scope

5-74. A search authorization is limited to the scope of the person, place, or things to be searched. This means that the person conducting the search must carefully comply with the limitations imposed by the authorization. Only those locations described in the authorization may be searched, and the search may be conducted only in areas where it is likely that the object of the search will be found. For example, if personnel have the authority to search the quarters of a suspect, a parked car near the quarters may not be searched. Likewise, if the authorization states that a computer is being sought, areas unlikely to contain the computer may not be searched (such as a jewelry box). The limits of the search authorization do not prohibit the seizure of evidence consistent with plain-view doctrine.

Searches Not Requiring a Search Authorization

5-75. Although the general rule is to obtain a search authorization, there are instances when a search authorization is not required. The following searches are exceptions to the search authorization requirement:
- **Consent search.** A search may be conducted of any person or property as long as lawful consent is given. A person can always consent to a search of their own person or property, unless that person no longer has control of the property (for example, an owner of a vehicle lends vehicle to a friend. Owner is not in control of said property but may issue consent to search. It is their property). A person in control of property, but who might not own it, can also give consent to a search of that property. Consent can be withdrawn anytime; Army law enforcement personnel must then stop the search and get proper authorization if the search is to continue. Ideally, the consent to search should be obtained in writing.
- **Search incident to apprehension.** When a person is lawfully apprehended, that person and the surrounding area can be searched. The search may be conducted for weapons or destructible evidence. The surrounding area of the person consists of the area within immediate control and the area in which the person being apprehended could reasonably reach with a sudden movement

to obtain a weapon or evidence. This immediate control area can be anywhere, to include a vehicle. To search a vehicle incident to apprehension, the apprehended person must be in reaching distance of the passenger compartment or it must be reasonable to believe that the passenger compartment of the vehicle contains evidence related to the offense of the apprehension. This search does not include the trunk or the engine compartment.

- **Operable vehicle search.** An operable vehicle may be searched if there is probable cause that the vehicle contains evidence of a crime. The key to this exception is that it would be impractical to obtain a search authorization under the circumstances. The elements of probable cause and exigent circumstances that make obtaining a search authorization impractical must be present. The scope of the search is not limited to the interior of the vehicle and may include the entire vehicle. The vehicle must be one that a reasonable person would believe to be operable. Clear indications of an inoperable car would be if there was no motor or the car was on blocks. This search exception is different from the search incident to apprehension in that Army law enforcement personnel must have probable cause of a crime above and beyond that of the probable cause to apprehend. See *Carroll versus United States*, 1925.

- **Hot pursuit.** Under exigent circumstances, Army law enforcement personnel may enter an area normally requiring a search authorization (residence, barracks room, office) to detain or apprehend a subject. A subject committing a crime (or located by Army law enforcement personnel in a public area) that is wanted for a previous offense can be pursued into a private area if he flees to avoid detention or apprehension.

- **Medical emergencies.** When there is a valid medical emergency, Army law enforcement may take necessary actions to preserve the health of personnel. For example, if a law enforcement patrol finds an unconscious person, that person may be searched in an attempt to find some identification and determine the cause of their condition.

- **Crimes in progress and destruction of evidence.** An observation of a crime in progress warrants immediate action. Army law enforcement personnel may enter a home or vehicle without a formal search authorization. For example, an Army law enforcement patrol moving through a neighborhood hears screams for help emanating from a residence. Taking time to obtain a search authorization to enter the home could result in serious injury or death to the victim; no formal search authorization is required. During these incidents, law enforcement personnel with requisite probable cause may take immediate action to secure evidence in the immediate area that is in danger of being destroyed.

INSPECTIONS

5-76. An inspection never requires probable cause and, at times, can be more intrusive than a search. A commander may not use a health and welfare inspection as subterfuge to avoid the requirements of a probable cause search. Although suspected criminal activity (such as suspected drug use) may form part of the basis for a health and welfare inspection, the primary purpose must remain the military fitness and discipline of the unit. Commanders may consult with their SJA prior to conducting inspections.

5-77. One key aspect of an inspection is that all inspected individuals are subject to the same level of scrutiny during an inspection. Evidence that is obtained lawfully during a health and welfare inspection may be used for criminal prosecution.

5-78. An inspection is an examination of the whole or part of a unit, organization, or installation. This includes an examination at the entrances and exits of an installation. The primary purpose of the inspection is to determine and ensure the security, military fitness, and good order and discipline of the unit, organization, or installation to be inspected. The inspection is also a lawful procedure to determine the fitness of an individual Soldier and is often conducted in the way of a urinalysis examination.

5-79. Other examinations include—

- **Inspections upon entry to or exit from an installation.** A commander of a U.S. military installation may authorize appropriate personnel to search persons or the property of those persons as a prerequisite for entry or exit to any base or base camp. Any individual that refuses the search can be denied entry. This inspection or search can include the entire vehicle (including the trunk and engine compartment) or any containers in the subject's possession. The inspection or search cannot be conducted for the primary purpose of obtaining evidence of crimes to be used in courts-martial or other disciplinary proceedings. If evidence is found during an inspection where the purpose was for the security of the unit, that evidence can be used against the person.
- **Health and welfare inspections.** A health and welfare inspection is an inspection of an area in the commander's control. The primary purpose of health and welfare inspections is to ensure the security, military fitness, or good order and discipline of the unit. A health and welfare inspection cannot be used to find specific evidence that can later be used in a court-martial proceeding. If the commander is aware of possible criminal activity, then a search based on probable cause must be authorized by that commander or other competent authority.
- **Urinalysis inspections.** A random or 100 percent urinalysis inspection is permissible, if it is for the military fitness of the unit. If the sole purpose of the inspection is to obtain evidence of a crime, that evidence cannot be used against the person. If evidence of a crime (the use of an illegal substance) is found during the urinalysis inspection, that evidence can be used against the person. Urinalysis inspections must be conducted according to Army regulations and unit policies.

INVENTORIES

5-80. Inventories are conducted according to the appropriate regulations that mandate them. The purpose of an inventory is administrative. The purpose is not to determine whether there is evidence of a crime, but to maintain accountability of government property, place monetary liability on those responsible for loss of government property, or account for the personal property of an individual placed in custody. If weapons, evidence, or contraband are discovered during a lawful inventory, that evidence may be seized and used as evidence in a subsequent court-martial proceeding. As with an inspection, an inventory cannot be conducted as a ruse for a search.

LAW ENFORCEMENT RAIDS

5-81. Law enforcement raids are normally conducted to apprehend offenders, obtain evidence of illegal activity, safeguard hostages, or recover U.S. government property with the aim of using the element of surprise. Military police normally select an unusual time of day to conduct the raid and rely on the element of surprise to collect evidence and arrest suspects before people have a chance to conceal or destroy materials of interest. In contingency operations, combined U.S., multinational, or HN law enforcement may be used to collect information, capture or eliminate threats (terrorists, criminals, insurgents), or confiscate weapons.

5-82. Law enforcement Raids require thorough planning and preparation. They are most effective when conducted in cooperation with specially trained law enforcement personnel (such as military police or USACIDC SAs skilled in raids, apprehensions, and evidence collection and preservation). Specially trained SRTs are well suited to support high-risk law enforcement raids. The SRTs are experienced military police who are trained in breaching techniques, barrier penetration, and threat and occupant control. During planning military police must also determine what specialized support is required and coordinate for specialized support, such as MWD, explosive ordnance disposal (EOD), and HAZMAT personnel.

DRUG RAIDS

5-83. Drug raids are a good example of a raid requiring specialized support and equipment. Clandestine labs present significant chemical hazards that may be immediate health and safety threats. For example, most processes for manufacturing methamphetamine include the use of volatile organic chemicals, acids, bases, metals, and chemical salts. Law enforcement personnel who must enter a methamphetamine lab may be exposed to contamination from chemicals and residue that exceeds the levels recommended by experts.

5-84. The level of exposure will depend on the cook method used by the perpetrator and the stage of the cook when personnel enter the site. Acids or bases will cause a burning sensation on the skin and in mucous membranes and can cause severe eye damage. Exposure to metals and salts can cause a wide range of health effects, including respiratory irritation, decreased mental function, anemia, kidney damage, and birth defects. Metals such as lead and mercury are particularly hazardous. Clandestine laboratories, even ones that have been inactive for some time, will contain contamination of some type on surfaces or in the air. Military police entering a lab will likely end up with some of the contamination on their body or clothing.

5-85. Consider any items or persons that were in the lab site to be contaminated. Military police contact with subjects—making arrests, patting down, or handcuffing subjects—will probably result in incidental contamination. Contaminated clothing and equipment will transfer such residual contamination into police vehicles, offices, and eventually even the homes of law enforcement officers. Minimize the risk of injury by wearing appropriate personal protective equipment. In addition, coordinate the operation with the base or base camp fire department and HAZMAT response teams when raids will occur within a known or suspected drug lab. Support units located near the scene have short response times and can minimize damage from inadvertent fires and explosions, monitor the air quality, and assist with identifying and handling toxic chemicals. Unit decontamination team or emergency response HAZMAT teams should be available for decontamination operations. If additional capabilities are needed, coordinate with the local CBRN unit for a field site decontamination of personnel and equipment. See ATP 3-39.11 for additional information on raids.

APPREHENSION BY ARMY LAW ENFORCEMENT

5-86. Apprehension is the taking into custody of a person. It occurs when a government official causes a person to lose the freedom of movement. A lawful apprehension must be based on probable cause. Probable cause to apprehend is a reasonable belief that a crime has been committed and that the person to be apprehended committed the offense. Military law enforcement personnel (military police Soldiers; Army civilian law enforcement personnel; USACIDC SAs; and all commissioned officers, warrant officers, and noncommissioned officers) are authorized to apprehend persons.

> *Note.* USACIDC civilian SAs' possess the statutory authority to arrest civilians or military personnel, with and without warrant depending on the circumstances, on or off a military installation, for violations of federal law.

GENERAL GUIDELINES

5-87. An apprehension may be made on an installation, without an authorization, as long as there is probable cause; the exception for apprehension is in the private dwelling of the person to be apprehended. If an apprehension is required in a private dwelling, proper authorization must be obtained from a competent legal authority (an installation or garrison commander, a military magistrate, or a military judge). Apprehensions within a private dwelling not on a military base or base camp require authorization by civilian authority (civilian judge) and are typically executed by civilian law enforcement. A private dwelling is a single-family home, duplex, or apartment—this does not include the barracks. Exceptions to the requirement for search authorizations are discussed within the searches and seizures section in this chapter.

5-88. Army law enforcement personnel must be prepared to take immediate coordinated action at the scene of a crime or during an investigation. This action often involves making an apprehension. An apprehension is the taking of a person into custody and is the equivalent of arrest in civilian terminology. The need to apprehend an offender can occur with little warning. Army law enforcement personnel must be familiar with apprehension policies, regulatory directives, the use of force, handling and custody of evidence, and crime scene protection procedures. Apprehension policies and procedures must be clear and described in written guidance. These procedures must be trained and rehearsed on a recurring basis and given the same degree of training as other law enforcement skills. See ATP 3-39.12 for information on the custody of evidence and crime scene procedures.

JUVENILE APPREHENSIONS

5-89. Juvenile offenders may be apprehended on U.S. military bases and base camps by Army law enforcement personnel. The authority of Army law enforcement personnel regarding juveniles not subject to the UCMJ is derived from the installation commander's inherent authority to maintain order on the installation. Upon apprehension, Army law enforcement personnel will follow normal apprehension procedures and will notify juveniles of their legal rights and the offense for which they are apprehended. This procedure typically occurs in the presence of a parent or legal guardian. Parents or guardians must be advised of the juvenile's rights and the offense for which they are apprehended. Parents or guardians must be notified of the apprehension immediately upon arrival at the police operations center.

5-90. After the military police duty officer or duty investigator has conducted an initial interview, the juvenile will typically be released to the parents or guardian. If a major offense is involved (rape, armed robbery), the initial interview is deferred to USACIDC SAs or other appropriate authorities maintaining jurisdiction. In cases where the offense or condition of the offender is serious enough to warrant detention, the juvenile will be released to civil authorities. See ATP 3-39.12 for a more detailed discussion on interviewing juveniles.

5-91. The military police desk blotter will not contain any identifying information for juvenile offenders. This includes names of juvenile subjects, their parents or sponsors, or addresses. Protected identity also applies to the juvenile victims of such offenses as rape or child molestation. (See AR 190-45 for detailed procedures.) The desk blotter must indicate that the person is a minor with protected identity.

REPORT WRITING

5-92. An important tool in support of enforcement measures are the written reports of the military police Soldiers and USACIDC SAs. It is essential that these reports are well written and accurately reflect the facts of an incident. Military police reports provide police information critical to police intelligence activities and are an important contributing factor in the successful prosecution of criminals. Poorly reported incidents may result in inaccurate or insufficient information that does not support law enforcement and police activities. Poorly reported incidents can severely jeopardize criminal investigations.

5-93. A report of the investigation is an official record of pertinent information disclosed through the conduct of a law enforcement response and subsequent criminal investigation. It is prepared by the responding unit and forwarded through the appropriate channels. Reports are written and submitted to—

- Provide an official record of relevant information.
- Provide the commander and the SJA or trial counsel with the facts surrounding the alleged offense.
- Identify the alleged perpetrators, witnesses, and victims or complainants.
- Pinpoint event times.
- Identify the location of the incident.
- Identify offenses and activities relevant to the incident.
- Identify evidence and the location where the evidence was found.
- Provide data for statistical purposes, analysis, and development of enforcement measures.
- Use for future court testimony.

5-94. A report of an incident is an objective statement of responding law enforcement personnel. The report can be completed by military police Soldiers, Army civilian police, or USACIDC SAs. When writing a report, personnel should—

- Organize notes. Categorize and evaluate items of evidence and background information. Once this takes place, the report is ready to be written.
- Initiate the law enforcement report, and ensure all useful and mandatory information is entered into DA Form 190–45–SG, also known as ALERTS (see DA Pamplet 190-45). Write the report to present a word picture in a chronological manner.
- Write the report clearly, concisely, and with grammatically correct language, proper spelling, and accurate punctuation. Avoid the use of slang and informal language unless they are direct quotes from a person associated with the incident or report.

- Include all facts relevant to the investigation. This includes details that will prove or disprove facts surrounding the alleged offense. Do not dismiss information that is felt to be inadmissible as evidence at a trial. Include mitigating circumstances related to the case.
- Identify each person related to the investigation, to include the responding patrol and investigator. Information concerning juveniles must be protected.
- Verify the report information to the fullest extent possible by conducting interviews of those associated with the incident, including witnesses and bystanders.
- Ensure that the report is complete and answers the questions: who, what, where, when, why, and how? While brevity is desirable in report writing, do not sacrifice accuracy and completeness.
- Review the report for the above information before submitting it through appropriate channels (desk sergeant, operations).

COURT TESTIMONY

5-95. Law enforcement personnel frequently engage in activities that may require them to testify before a court, board, or administrative hearing. While law enforcement investigators are routinely required to provide court testimony regarding criminal cases, law enforcement patrol personnel may also be required to testify regarding their responses to an incident, observations, actions, and support to the investigative process. ATP 3-39.12 provides additional information regarding testimony before courts, boards, and administrative hearings during judicial and nonjudicial procedures.

5-96. Law enforcement patrol personnel should approach every call with an understanding that they may be required to appear before a court, board, or administrative hearing to describe their observations and actions at the crime scene or incident site. The best way to ensure preparedness is to take detailed notes and produce complete and thorough patrol reports that clearly and concisely capture as many relevant details of the law enforcement response as possible. These notes and reports should be recorded as soon as it is safe and practical to do so, given the environment and specific characteristics of the law enforcement response in question. Detailed notes and reports can effectively assist in the recollection of specific facts about an incident or event.

5-97. Law enforcement personnel should take notes in a timely manner to ensure that their observations and understanding of the incident, their actions, and the actions of others are accurate and verifiable before being entered into a record or report. Although accurate and timely fact finding is essential to sound police practices, law enforcement personnel should never jeopardize the safety of personnel or the success of an ongoing police activity simply to record data.

5-98. If required to testify before a court, board, or administrative hearing, law enforcement patrol personnel should address the following requirements and general guidelines:

- **Preparation.** Ensure that—
    - Military police report (including associated statements and evidence) documentation is reviewed before providing testimony to ensure an accurate recollection of the incident.
    - Inexperienced law enforcement personnel seek advice from experienced personnel, including trial counsel, if appropriate, to ensure an adequate understanding of the procedure, the layout of the specific court or hearing room, and any advice regarding what to expect. This allows adequate mental preparation before the court, board, or administrative hearing appearance.
    - Practice with SJA representatives is conducted, when possible, in a mock court training scenario that seeks to create the conditions of a courtroom or official hearing.
- **Professionalism.** Law enforcement personnel should—
    - Look like professionals. Uniforms or civilian clothes should be pressed and clean. Any law enforcement gear worn should be clean and free of debris. Personal hygiene should be of the highest standards.
    - Avoid appearing with anything in their mouths when testifying. This includes chewing gum, candy, tobacco, snuff, or toothpicks.
    - Avoid sunglasses or exceptionally trendy glasses.
    - Be courteous and respectful to the parties involved in the proceeding.

- **Confidence.** Law enforcement personnel should—
  - Be confident and look confident. Law enforcement personnel should project the appearance that they have been in a courtroom before; if this is not the case, a visit to the court or hearing room should be coordinated before the proceeding to familiarize them with the surroundings. A reconnaissance of the courtroom or hearing room before their testimony can help build confidence by eliminating surprises associated with unfamiliar surroundings. Law enforcement personnel should understand who will be participating in the proceedings during their testimony and where they will be seated. These actions can help law enforcement personnel feel at ease as they enter the room. This is especially important for personnel with minimal courtroom experience.
  - Stick to the facts. Law enforcement personnel should avoid providing opinions, speculation, or unqualified testimony. This can damage the case and the credibility of the individual law enforcement officer as a witness. If asked a question that is unclear or not understood, they should request clarification. If the answer to the question is not known by the law enforcement officer providing testimony, they should simply state, "I do not know."
  - Make eye contact and speak clearly in a volume that allows everyone in the room to clearly understand. This will help law enforcement personnel communicate effectively and create a favorable impression with the panel or judge regarding their candor and honesty. Mumbling gives an appearance that the individual providing testimony is unsure and unconfident.
- **Technical language.** Avoid the use of jargon or technical language. If jargon or technical language is used, the term should be explained. Army law enforcement personnel should never assume persons within the proceeding will understand law enforcement-related terms or jargon.
- **Technical procedure.** Army law enforcement personnel often use techniques or equipment requiring specific procedural responses or methodology in application. If law enforcement personnel use or employ a police procedure of a technical nature in any part of their testimony, they should be prepared to articulate the rudiments of that process or procedure in basic terms to the level of expertise required for the safe and effective use of the technique or equipment.

CUSTOMS SUPPORT

5-99. Military police conduct customs support in support of deployment and redeployment requirements for entry into an HN and reentry into the United States, respectively. U.S. forces must meet the specific customs requirements of the country to which they will deploy before entry and, consequently, must meet the requirements established by United States Customs and Border Protection and United States Department of Agriculture for reentry into the United States.

5-100. Meeting United States Customs and Border Protection and United States Department of Agriculture standards is the obligation of each individual and commander. Historically, military police conduct and authenticate customs preclearance under the supervision of the United States Customs and Border Protection and United States Department of Agriculture. Military police customs personnel are trained to conduct customs inspections and to clean and disinfect vehicles, equipment, and personal baggage.

5-101. There are two types of military customs inspectors that support military operations:
- **Military customs inspector-excepted.** These customs inspectors conduct routine customs inspections under the supervision and training of the United States Customs and Border Protection and United States Department of Agriculture. They may be civilians who are trained in that capacity. Training may occur within the United States or in foreign locations, depending on the immediate need and the availability of resources to support the training location.
- **Customs/border clearance agent.** These customs inspectors are the most prevalent customs capacity filled by Army military police. They provide customs support to redeploying units who request preclearance operations. DTR 4500.9-R addresses these inspectors in detail.

5-102. Customs inspectors are the first line of defense against the introduction of foreign plant and animal pests and diseases into the United States, and they help prevent contraband from entering the country. Their mission involves eliminating restricted and prohibited items (agricultural pests, environmental hazards, controlled substances, contraband) from traveling into the United States while under DOD control or contract.

5-103. Military police customs personnel are trained to inspect for prohibited items and enforce the requirements. They inspect and examine DOD cargo, equipment, aircraft, vehicles, and personal baggage leaving from locations outside the United States en route to U.S. points of entry. The customs inspectors ensure that returning military equipment conforms to United States Department of Agriculture standards and that gear returning with personnel serving abroad complies with United States Customs and Border Protection laws for reentry into the United States. The United States Army customs inspectors have jurisdiction over all customs and operational washdown sites in their AO. During the increased deployment of U.S. forces, additional forces may be required to perform the customs mission in support of the United States Customs and Border Protection and United States Department of Agriculture. Military police can provide training for nonlaw enforcement Soldiers to perform duties as customs inspectors to support the combatant commander's rotation of forces in and out of theater when authorized by United States Customs and Border Protection and United States Department of Agriculture.

5-104. Concurrent with customs jurisdiction is the responsibility of military police elements to advise and provide training to units identified for movement. Advice includes broad, general customs information to specific information (such as washdown operational suggestions and requirements). Military customs inspectors establish administrative procedures for the review and final inspection of vehicles by United States Department of Agriculture at the point of entry. They appropriately mark each vehicle cleaned and inspected and maintain a log to track the number, owning units, and disposition of the vehicles.

5-105. Military police have the capability of providing trained and certified military customs team support when required to enforce United States Customs and Border Protection laws and regulations. A military police customs element is composed of a five-person team of military police. The team is organized to train and supervise members of other nonmilitary police units (multinational forces, contractors) to perform customs inspections at a seaport of debarkation or aerial port of debarkation. Military police customs elements, along with these trained personnel, conduct customs operations. A military police customs element consists of a—

- **Senior military customs inspection supervisor.** The senior military customs inspection supervisor coordinates logistical support, operational integration, staff planning, and coordination for customs team operations. The senior military customs inspection supervisor provides technical supervision for customs team operations.
- **Senior military customs inspection team.** The team is composed of four trained military police customs personnel. They augment United States Customs and Border Protection or United States Department of Agriculture personnel in conducting customs training and performing customs operations in support of units and personnel redeploying to the United States or its territories. Customs teams may also provide technical expertise and support for border operations to enforce restrictions on contraband or other regulated items

Chapter 6

Policing

Policing is the application of control measures within an AO to maintain law and order, safety, and other matters affecting the general welfare of the population. The Army conducts policing continuously to maintain order within its communities and formations. Policing is a critical step in establishing civil security as a precursor to establishing civil control and the transition to self-governance by the rule of law. When directed, the Army also applies policing activities to civilian populations to restore order when the rule of law has broken down or is nonexistent. During DSCA military police conduct security activities in response to requests for assistance from civil authorities for domestic emergencies, law enforcement support, and other domestic activities or from qualifying entities for special events.

MILITARY POLICE SUPPORT TO CIVIL SECURITY AND CIVIL CONTROL

6-1. Establishing civil security and civil control requires initial actions to restore order in a chaotic and potentially lawless environment. In most operational environments requiring U.S. forces to establish civil security, the rule of law has failed or was never put into place. U.S. forces, to include military police, must establish and then maintain a secure environment, enabling civil control lines of effort and the rule of law to be established. Restoring and maintaining order may require combat operations to eliminate specific threats, disarm the population and disruptive elements, monitor and disperse crowds that become violent and destructive, and physically separate belligerents.

Host-Nation Police Training and Equipping

In Iraq and Afghanistan, lightly armed policeman equipped with 9 millimeters, limited body armor, and unarmored vehicles suffered heavily casualties. The police were not equipped to fight insurgents armed with heavy machine-guns, mortars, rockets, rifle-propelled grenades, and improvised explosive devices. DoD forces used the Afghan and Iraqi police in combat roles against the insurgents, despite the fact that Afghan and Iraqi police training and equipment were oriented toward community policing.

Between 2004–2006, the police in Iraq suffered 12,000 casualties—4,000 were killed, and 8,000 were wounded. Between January 2007–March 2009, Afghan police experienced the injury or death of 3,400 Afghan police. Police combat losses in 2008 were three times greater than those of the Afghan National Army, with an average of 56 casualties per month.

The Iraqi and Afghan police were not trained to fight insurgents. If the security levels that permit the development of community policing can be achieved, planners must then look at another disadvantage of community policing—the in-depth basic training and field service training required.

RESTORE AND MAINTAIN ORDER

6-2. Operations to restore order are conducted to halt violence and to support, reinstate, or establish civil authorities. These operations provide security and stability after a conflict, while setting the conditions for transition to the rule of law. Providing effective security for the local population by reducing its exposure to the threat of violent conflict is critical to enabling a stable environment for continued stability tasks and reconstruction. Military police are uniquely suited to engage in operations to establish civil order. Military police Soldiers are trained and experienced in graduated-response techniques and the application of the

minimal force necessary to de-escalate and control a situation. In operational environments that are between major conflict and instability, the ability to gain control of a potentially violent event, establish order, and disperse the population without resorting to a significant application of force can make a significant impact. Successful efforts to establish order with minimal use of force to ease the transition from instability toward stable peace and enable the establishment of effective governance under the rule of law.

6-3.   Efforts to transition to the rule of law must start as soon as stability tasks begin, often simultaneously with large-scale combat operations. First, security conditions that support policing, judicial, and corrections systems for fair and equitable treatment of citizens by the HN government must be established and political conditions initiated. This is often easier said than accomplished. Many nations simply do not have the underpinnings of the rule of law to understand and implement the system; they require coaching, mentoring, training, and support along a continuum toward peaceful existence. Additionally, if efforts in combat operations do not include shaping the area for stability, criminals, insurgents, and organized crimes will control the population and develop a government, making rule-of-law plan efforts exponentially more difficult. Citizens must have the right to ownership, fair treatment by policing and judicial systems, and corrections systems that enforce compliance with the law in a manner that is equitable and uniformly fair to everyone.

6-4.   Military police forces are well suited for providing HN assistance and training for principally two of the three legs of the rule of law—the policing and corrections aspects. Military police units must cultivate relationships with HN police and local officials in the operational area, if they exist, early in the operation to maximize efficiencies later during the transition period. Military police must also coordinate and work with interagency and multinational partners on the efforts to transition to the rule of law. This process provides valuable police intelligence that aids the unit in planning and recommending courses of action to assist in establishing the rule of law.

6-5.   Military police support to transition to the rule of law is helping establish and train local police officers in basic to advanced law enforcement skills, operating police stations, and conducting police intelligence operations. Military police units can assist with developing requests for law enforcement equipment and sustainment items necessary for local law enforcement. Military police units can provide joint patrolling and can operate the police station, mentoring HN personnel until the HN is capable of independent operations. Military police detention units can assist with establishing corrections operations in a reopened or temporary facility. They can train the guard forces and prison operations staffs to properly operate a facility. These activities encourage the local population to perceive that law-abiding citizens are treated fairly and equitably and that laws are equally and uniformly applied to all citizens. Citizens must understand that they are not unlawfully detained or imprisoned. They must be confident that the unlawful activity of others are policed and punished.

SUPPORT TO BORDER CONTROL AND BOUNDARY SECURITY

6-6.   Military police Soldiers are periodically tasked to support border operations along U.S. borders to support the United States Border Patrol and/or the U.S. customs and border protection mission. The support provided includes technical equipment (such as thermal imagery, night vision, and infrared detection) and the operation of the equipment to help with the detection of personnel illegally entering the United States. Except where noted the Posse Comitatus Act prohibits Regular Army and Army Reserve Soldiers from enforcing civil law; they may only respond to defend themselves or other personnel from imminent danger. Nonfederalized National Guard military police performing missions that are under the control of their respective state governors are not prohibited from this by the Posse Comitatus Act. Upon mobilization (federalization), National Guard Soldiers are restricted under the Posse Comitatus Act.

6-7.   Military police may be required to support border entry control points or to patrol specified international border areas. This operation can be conducted in support of efforts to control the borders by U.S. military forces during contingency operations, in support of HN border control organizations as border operations transition to HN control, or in support of a stable HN government and associated border control organizations. Border control operations are conducted for many reasons, to include—
- Maintaining security at border crossing sites and along national boundaries.
- Controlling movement of the local population (on both sides of the border).

- Limiting the smuggling of contraband.
- Controlling the spread of disease vectors through applicable quarantine measures.
- Enforcing tariff requirements to protect the economy. Deter or detect infiltration by peer competitors' conventional and unconventional forces and irregular threats.

6-8. In conducting border control, military police normally coordinate with HN police, counterintelligence units, and Civil Affairs units. They watch for individuals or items that may be involved in criminal and customs offenses. Support to border control may be paramount in preventing adversaries from moving weapons, supplies, and personnel across borders to attack or disrupt friendly forces.

6-9. Military police provide relevant capabilities to enhance border operations. Military police units are trained in access control, physical security measures, and technologies that can enhance border checkpoint operations. Military police, United States Customs and Border Protection, or United States Department of Agriculture personnel can use their experience supporting HN customs requirements at entry points and other checkpoints, as required. An MWD team provides the capability to detect contraband being smuggled across state boundaries. Military police units can provide law enforcement expertise and work closely with HN border personnel to provide training and assistance until the HN is capable of assuming full authority. Military police border control operations include the—

- Integration of border control and customs efforts.
- Enforcement of regulations and restrictions on the movement of personnel, vehicles, material, and goods.
- Cooperative efforts with adjacent border agencies.
- Detection and apprehension of—
  - Illegal trafficking across borders.
  - Criminals, including localized and organized criminal activities.
  - Movement of irregular forces, including terrorist activities and movements.
  - Enemy infiltrators.
  - Other threats to the HN and persons of intelligence interest.

Unstable Environments and Transitioning Host-Nation Customs and Border Control Operations

6-10. Effective border control is a central component of civil security. Generally, border and naval or coast guard forces secure national boundaries while customs officials regulate the movement of people, animals, goods, and other resources flowing across national borders at border crossing sites (including illegal crossing sites used to bypass border control enforcement measures). Most countries take significant efforts to control the movement of personnel and resources at their borders.

6-11. In contingency environments following a significant conflict or major man-made or natural disaster, the U.S. military and its multinational partners may be required to establish border control operations until an HN capability and capacity can be developed. As border capabilities are increased within the HN, the U.S. military will assume a training and mentorship role as the HN transitions to full control of their national borders.

6-12. Control is maintained through the establishment of authorized road or rail crossing points, patrols of designated border areas and entry control points, and liaison agreements with authorities of neighboring countries. Prohibited or restricted zones are often used to help control movement at borders. While military police can perform border patrol operations on a limited basis, the mission is typically conducted by maneuver units in contingency operations and by specially trained HN border patrol assets when the HN is capable of patrolling its own borders. Military police elements are typically employed in support of border control operations at established border crossing sites and entry control points.

6-13. Border control operations are paramount during contingency operations to prevent adversaries from moving weapons, supplies, and personnel across borders to attack or disrupt friendly forces. When conducting border control, military police should coordinate with HN police, intelligence units, and civil affairs units concerning the populace and resources control aspects of the mission. They should watch for

individuals or items that may be involved in criminal and customs offenses. Military police can also deploy technologies such as small unmanned aerial systems, sensors, and biometrics capabilities to enhance effective border security.

Stable Host-Nation Customs and Border Control Operations

6-14. Military police in HNs may be tasked to enforce customs laws and regulations in support of local government officials. The U.S. military enforcement of customs laws in countries where U.S. forces are stationed is often part of agreements like the North Atlantic Treaty Organization status-of-forces agreement between the United States and an HN. Under such agreements, military police enforce the customs laws of the host country with respect to U.S. forces personnel and their dependents. Military police assist the HN and—

- Prevent the illegal sale or transfer into the local economy of U.S. forces' goods entering the country free of customs duties and taxes.
- Authenticate and issue customs import documents to members of the U.S. forces for importation of personal property.
- Issue permits to transfer customs or duty-free personal property to nonmembers of U.S. forces.
- Verify the status of retired U.S. forces personnel residing in the country so that these personnel (who are not members of the U.S. forces as defined in the status-of-forces agreement) may apply to the HN customs authority for customs certificates. These certificates entitle them to purchase items in commissaries and post exchanges without payment of import duties or taxes.
- Work with HN border police and customs agents to prevent import and export violations by members of U.S. forces.
- Prevent peer competitors from infiltrating conventional, unconventional, and intelligence assets/forces as well as proxies over borders to undermine HN internal security.

6-15. At overseas airports, military police customs personnel may be tasked to provide customs control. They can perform antihijack inspections for all outbound military and civilian personnel, family members, and accompanying baggage pending departure on air mobility command charter aircraft. They may also be tasked to prevent contraband, unauthorized weapons, and illegal drugs from being introduced into the United States or the HN.

ESTABLISH AN INTERIM CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

6-16. Army forces may be required to assist in establishing an interim justice system as a prerequisite to the restoration of effective governance. Establishing an interim criminal justice system under the rule of law requires a wide range of skilled professionals, including judges, prosecutors, court administrators, corrections personnel, law enforcement personnel, and investigators. The criminal justice system consists of police, prisons, and a judicial system. This system provides the foundation on which the criminal justice system is built. Military police provide specific capabilities that are pertinent to two of the three legs of the criminal justice system—police and prisons—necessary for a functioning criminal justice system that operates under the rule of law. See FM 1-04 for additional information regarding legal support to the operational Army.

6-17. Military police units are specifically trained to support law enforcement and corrections missions within their police operations and detention operations disciplines. Military police maintain the capability to conduct law enforcement activities, including police patrols, traffic management and enforcement, MWD, police station operations, and police administrative support tasks. The USACIDC provides extensive criminal investigative capabilities and forensic capabilities that are comparable to civilian law enforcement agencies. Military police also have military police investigators with criminal investigations training. Military police investigators and USACIDC SAs can be deployed in support of rule-of-law missions, to include training HN police personnel.

6-18. As the operational environment transitions from one dominated by combat operations to a more stable environment dominated by the rule of law, military police organizations can provide valuable policing and technical law enforcement and investigative capabilities. Military police elements ranging from organic PM offices to military police companies, battalions, and brigades supporting brigade combat teams, divisions, and corps provide a wide range of law enforcement-related skills and techniques, ranging from handling

evidence during site exploitation to more sophisticated methods of investigating complex crimes. Military police are capable of training and mentoring HN police and providing expertise to U.S. troops who are conducting security operations. Support to U.S. military units may include conducting police tasks within restricted rules of engagement; conducting police-oriented engagement activities with the population; and collecting and preserving evidence. These capabilities are increasingly important as the HN transitions to the rule of law and begins criminalizing and prosecuting activities of insurgent threat elements.

CONDUCT HOST-NATION POLICE TRAINING AND SUPPORT

6-19. Building HN police capability and capacity are critical elements for establishing civil control and sustained civil order. Police organizations operating under civil control are essential to success. The clear delineation of civil police authority and military roles are essential. The primacy of civil police organizations in dealing with crime and security concerns within a population is a clear indicator of success in achieving stability and a return to civil security. See ADP 3-07 for additional information on stability operations, including civil security and civil control lines of effort.

6-20. If required, military police provide required technical capabilities and skill sets to conduct law enforcement activities in support of HN populations to establish civil security and to set conditions necessary to regenerate HN police capability and capacity. Military police play a central role in U.S. military efforts to establish civil control by identifying gaps and capabilities in HN police capacity, including infrastructure and organizational requirements. Military police can then recruit, train, partner with, and mentor HN police organizations until the forces are capable of independent law enforcement and police operations.

> *Note.* Historically, DOD is not the lead government department for assisting foreign governments. Department of State is the lead when U.S. forces provide security assistance—military training, equipment, and defense articles and services—to HN governments. The Foreign Assistance Act of 1961 specifically prohibits assistance to foreign police forces except within specific exceptions and under a Presidential directive. When providing assistance to training, Department of State provides the lead role in police assistance through its Bureau of International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs. The President, however, may delegate this role to other agencies.

Security Force Assistance

6-21. *Security force assistance* is the Department of Defense activities that contribute to unified action by the U.S. Government to support the development of the capacity and capability of foreign security forces and their supporting institutions (JP 3-22). FM 3-22 provides the doctrinal framework for security force assistance. *Security forces* are duly constituted military, paramilitary, police, and constabulary forces of a state (JP 3-22). *Foreign security forces* are forces, including but not limited to, military, paramilitary, police, and intelligence forces; border police, coast guard, and customs officials; and prison guards and correctional personnel, that provide security for a HN and its relevant population or support a regional security organization mission (FM 3-22).

6-22. Military police, working with the HN to build HN police capability and capacity, work within the security force assistance framework as part of a comprehensive effort that includes all instruments of national power. Security force assistance emphasizes the development and empowerment of HN organizations, institutions, systems, and capabilities to overcome impediments to HN success.

6-23. Military police and USACIDC Soldiers and leaders must understand that imposing solutions based on U.S. organizations, systems, procedures, culture, and equipment is inconsistent with security force assistance intent. Military police Soldiers must be open to HN solutions. HN personnel possess the advantage of understanding the local culture, traditions, and behavior that our personnel do not possess. Commanders and staffs should also understand HN police primacy will often be unachievable until relatively late in an operation and may be an unknown concept in some societies.

6-24. Below are six areas that should be considered during security force assistance activities. The discussion below applies specifically to military police and their efforts to build HN police capability and capacity. Security force assistance imperatives include—

- **Understanding the operational environment.** Military police Soldiers and leadership must fully comprehend the operational environment and be prepared for, engaged in, and supportive of PDTT efforts to succeed. Military police leaders and Soldiers must be prepared to train HN security forces in remote areas. Some of these areas may be without essential services (electricity, transportation, healthcare, communication). It is especially important that senior leadership empower subordinate leaders to make appropriate, timely decisions. While senior leaders must maintain situational understanding, decentralized control usually provides greater success and credibility with the HN police.
- **Providing effective leadership.** Leadership is critical in the dynamic and complex environments associated with reconstituting HN police organizations and building police capability and capacity. Effective leadership at all levels, from the most junior noncommissioned officer to the most senior officer, is critical. Competent and effective leadership will build trust, mutual respect, and personal and professional rapport between military police and HN police counterparts. This relationship helps shape the environment for success.
- **Building legitimacy.** The ultimate goal of military police in this environment is to develop HN police forces that contribute to the legitimate governance of the population. Legitimacy is achieved when HN police are competent, capable, committed, and confident in the eyes of U.S. and multinational forces, the HN government, and the HN population. While it is important to assist HN police in developing professionally, it is also important to realize that a mirror image of the U.S. police model may not be the optimum solution. The initial development of a constabulary style of policing may be required for failed or failing states. A constabulary force is a paramilitary type force trained for police duties. The end goal of HN police development and legitimacy should include demilitarizing police forces and orienting policing towards service and protection of the population rather than as an instrument of control from the central government.
- **Managing information.** Managing information encompasses the collection, analysis, preparation, dissemination, and storage of information directly related to police development and transition activities. It also encompasses military police and U.S. forces lessons learned and the operational information required for successful transitions between rotating U.S. military elements.
- **Ensuring unity of effort.** The unity of effort must include military police, multinational civilians, interagency partners, and HN police operating within the AO. Command and control relationships may be consistent with traditional command relationships (centralized within a single command), or they may be very complex, including multiple administrative, operational, and tactical control relationships. These relationships must be clearly delineated and understood by all elements. Supporting and supported relationships will change over time, and they are instrumental in the full transition to HN responsibility.
- **Sustaining the effort.** The effort to build HN police capability and capacity and to transition to HN control may take years to achieve. The professional skills that HN advisers possess will increase over time. Changing tactics, techniques, procedures, and environmental conditions and the incorporation of those changes into the training and preparation of each successive rotation are important to maintain the continuity and momentum of the overall effort.

Considerations During Police Operations Support to Host-Nation Police

6-25. Army law enforcement personnel must learn the specific legal requirements and constraints associated with the HN legal system when conducting police operations that support HN police and establish a criminal justice system operating under the rule of law. The laws of governing international bodies may take precedence in countries experiencing civil unrest or without an existing governing body. As HN capability and capacity are established, the control of law enforcement and policing responsibilities transition to HN control, and the HN legal system then becomes the standard for conducting law enforcement activities. Other nations will likely have different legal authorities and restrictions based on their system of government, political ideology, and culture. HN police must be contacted immediately in the event that a local national is

under suspicion of committing a crime or is found in possession of an illegal item on a U.S. base; laws of the HN may apply. It is critical that procedures for dealing with HN personnel are understood and enforced. Military police and USACIDC commanders must coordinate with the geographic combatant commander staff and consult with their supporting SJA to ensure that they—

- Understand the specific authorities and constraints of the HN legal system.
- Understand the timelines for transition to the HN system.
- Train their Soldiers and USACIDC SAs adequately to ensure that they fully understand HN authorities and constraints.
- Can advise nonlaw enforcement U.S. military elements, as required.
- Can train, mentor, and monitor HN police forces to ensure compliance with legal constraints within their systems.

Reconstitution of Host-Nation Police Forces

6-26. Reconstituting an HN police force requires enormous resources and may take years to properly organize, recruit, train, and equip. The effort requires a significant knowledge of law enforcement activities and associated technical capabilities. Organizing an HN police organization requires resolving numerous issues related to—

- Recruitment.
- Promotion screening and selection.
- Pay and benefits.
- Leader recruitment and selection.
- Training.
- Personnel accountability.
- Equipping and establishing facilities.
- Retention.
- Security force personnel demobilization.

6-27. The primary responsibility for training HN police is resident within the United States Department of State; however, in many cases, the U.S. military will be granted authority to assume the mission until conditions are stable enough for the United States Department of State to assume the lead role. Military police will typically remain engaged in the reconstitution of HN police capability and capacity in support of the United States Department of State following the United States Department of State assumption of the mission as the lead agency.

Host-Nation Police Training Responsibility

6-28. During the initial planning phase for rebuilding a foreign police force, commanders and staffs must seek out and understand the governmental agencies responsible for the reconstitution or establishment of an HN police force and determine a lead U.S. government agency that will synchronize efforts and create HN ownership. Conflicting approaches between the Department of State and DOD may cause tensions and complicate meeting HN policing objectives. In Iraq, military advisors wanted to create a force capable of counterinsurgency, whereas civilian trainers wanted a lightly armed civilian police service that used Western investigative standards and community policing techniques to remove terrorists and criminals. Additional authorities also provide obstacles to synchronizing U.S. government efforts.

6-29. The Foreign Assistance Act is one such authority that hinders DOD police assistance efforts. The act prohibits assistance to foreign police forces by DOD unless a Presidential directive provides specific exceptions. It is crucial that joint force planners are familiar with the limitations and capabilities of policing methods and take the lead to search for the resources required see chapter 4 for additional information on policing methods and strategies.

6-30. The lead role in providing police assistance to foreign governments is normally delegated to the United States Department of State, Bureau of International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs. The United States Department of Justice may also have representation through the International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program. Training and assistance programs are intended to develop professional,

civilian-based law enforcement institutions. Their objective is to develop police forces in the context of international peacekeeping operations and to enhance the capabilities of existing police forces in emerging democracies.

Interagency Resources

6-31. Support to HN police and other government functions requires substantial resource allocation that may receive strategic-level attention. For this reason, any U.S. funds dedicated to HN police reconstitution efforts must receive authorization from higher headquarters. Interagency resources may be involved in numerous ways to support training for HN security forces. The United States Department of Justice and United States Department of State have the capability to send civilian police advisers overseas to train and advise HN police forces. The quick-reaction capability of these agencies is limited, although they can attain necessary levels when given adequate time.

6-32. It is critical that civilian assets are nested throughout all the military police organizational structure to ensure that priorities of effort are coordinated and synchronized. The most effective method to accomplish these missions is through the employment of functional military police brigades and subordinate military police battalions and companies task-organized with modular law enforcement detachments. During counterinsurgencies, the effectiveness of civilian police advisers and trainers may be limited by the high-threat nature of the environment. These forces are most effective when operating in a benign environment or when security is provided separately. Civilian police advisers can be integrated into military police platoons and squads to provide security and to enhance military police capabilities.

Private Security

6-33. The private security (nonstate) industry comprises those individuals and institutions that provide security for people and property under contract and for profit. The activities of a private security industry without accountability and oversight can present unique governance problems and act as an obstacle to HN police development and training. Increased security provision by nonstate organizations is prevalent in all regions of the world. Commanders and staffs must consider the potentially serious implications of the private security industry in the HN, as well as the effects of limited regulation and accountability throughout their AO. Oversight and incorporation of these groups for reestablishment of order can prevent mob violence and establish multiple layers of security. Planners should look at each of these groups to determine the usefulness of the security they can provide. There are many types of organizations that compose the private security industry, including—

- Service providers that conduct mine clearance, logistics and supply, and risk consulting.
- Private security companies that protect industrial and commercial sites, humanitarian aid missions, embassies, very important persons.
- Private military companies that support military training, military intelligence, and offensive combat.

Host-Nation Police Station Structure

6-34. The size and organizational structure of the newly formed police force should be determined by the geographic combatant commander, in coordination with civil authorities (U.S., multinational, and HN) before reconstitution efforts begin. Civilian and military police planners create a blueprint outlining the overall design of the HN criminal justice system and associated HN police structure, to include police station infrastructure, patrol area boundaries, command and control node locations, and linkages to HN courts and correctional facilities. This process is known as templating and should be modeled after law enforcement and policing models throughout the region. The process helps identify an acceptable end state to a police organization.

6-35. To develop a police system template, strategic planners must conduct a thorough analysis of existing police organizations, available personnel, infrastructure, vehicles, and equipment and apply a quantitative reasoning process to determine the desired police system end state. The templates must take into account the type of police system needed, the local geography, the population and cultural requirements, and previous criminal data for the AO (if available).

6-36. Templating may not translate directly from one region of the world to another; what works in one region may not work in another. Templating is a process that can be effective when all known conditions are considered. Any templated police structure should be consistent with the HN culture and governmental structure. In some AO, significant historical data and existing infrastructure may exist to serve as the initial template for planning. Some templating considerations and actions are as follows:

- Assess existing police system capability and capacity using the POLICE assessment tool. See ATP 3-39.20.
- Determine required policing areas (police station AO), based on the—
  - Geography.
  - Population groups to be policed, taking into consideration political, cultural, ideological, and tribal factors.
  - Crime and security issues.
  - Major urban areas.
  - AO population and population centers.
  - Rural and urban areas.

6-37. There are formulas and software applications for calculating police patrol and manpower requirements. Many of these calculations require extensive historical data related to criminal activity, police activity, personnel policies, and other factors. Some environments do not readily provide data for calculations to determine these requirements. In these cases, comparative analysis between similar AO may be the best method for an initial determination of police patrol and manpower requirements. Appendix E provides discussion and methods for determining police patrol and manpower requirements.

COMMAND AND CONTROL CONSIDERATIONS

6-38. In the event that U.S. forces are deployed to a joint operations area with a limited or failed policing system, military police forces may be required to initially perform law enforcement and policing activities to establish or maintain a secure environment. Long term, it is critically important to establish HN police forces to assume police duties as soon as possible. The United States, multinational partners, and the HN should institute a comprehensive program of police force development. The U.S. military police units serve best when operating as a support force for professional civilian and HN police trainers. However, there may be times when military police are given the primary responsibility for police training. The military police must be prepared to assume that role if required. This can be important early in an operation as demonstrated during Operation Iraqi Freedom in the aftermath of large-scale operations in the spring and early summer of 2003.

6-39. Police support to shape the environment and conduct operations to establish and maintain civil control should be initiated as early as possible in any operation. Initially, these shaping operations will typically be conducted by military police elements (brigades, battalions, companies, and law enforcement detachments) operating in a decentralized manner. These military police elements, (whether operating within a military police brigade organizational structure or within a brigade combat team, multifunctional brigade, division, or corps) conduct police operations in support of their higher headquarters mission and commander's intent.

Decentralized and Centralized Control

6-40. Decentralized control allows the commander to direct police operations, as required and within their AO, based on specific mission variables. During the decentralized control of police operations, echelon PMs play a critical role in providing technical and policy guidance relevant to executing police operations. Guidance and direction provided through PM technical channels (from the brigade combat team PM, up to and including, the theater PM and the Office of the Provost Marshal General) is critical to ensure that military police elements and other Army personnel are conducting operations in a lawful and consistent manner. See ADP 6-0 for additional information on determining the appropriate degree of control.

6-41. As the AO matures and stabilizes and operations transition to focus on establishing or reconstituting HN police capability and capacity across the joint operations area, police operations are typically centralized under the command and control of a military police brigade or battalion. The negative impact of the

unsynchronized and inconsistent application of police operations and efforts to build HN policing capability across an AO can have significant strategic implications and cause major delays in the operational benchmarks for success. When extensive and long-term military police technical capabilities and uniform effects are required across an AO, a military police brigade ensures technical oversight, synchronization, coordination, and consistent application of military police capabilities. This is especially true when stability operations are dominant within the AO. In cases where operational and mission variables prohibit the centralization of military police assets under a single military police organizational structure, Army commanders and staffs at every level ensure that missions related to building HN police capability and capacity are coordinated and synchronized across the joint operations area to ensure consistent policies, training, and applications of police capabilities. PM technical channels play a significant role in this effort.

> *Note.* Establishing or reconstituting HN police capability and capacity across an AO is done as commanders begin to consolidate gains. Not all areas throughout an AO will transition to the consolidation of gains at the same time.

6-42. The functional command and control of military police forces that perform police operations in support of an HN population is provided by the following primary echelons of military police headquarters units:

- Military police command.
- Military police brigade.
- Military police battalion.

6-43. Each force has a staff that allows the commander to perform command and control of military police organizations conducting police operations and other military police disciplines. For specific information regarding capabilities of these headquarters units, see FM 3-39.

Command and Control of Host-Nation Police Organizations

6-44. HN police organizations will typically operate under the command and control of their organic organizational hierarchy. In the early stages of police organizational and capability development, military police and other U.S. and multinational military elements may be heavily involved in advising and guiding HN police operations. These U.S. and multinational advisers must strive to intervene as little as necessary in the efforts and directives of HN police leadership. The goal during stability operations must always be to enable the HN to become independent and function on its own. Advisers must also be aware of the perceptions of the community at large. HN police leadership must be perceived as being in charge of their organizations. They must not be seen as mere puppets of U.S. and multinational forces.

6-45. The requirement to advise and assist HN leaders, especially early in the reconstitution process, is relevant at all levels. Advice and guidance provided to the police station commanders and patrols must be consistent with that provided to midlevel and senior HN police leaders. This is one of the primary justifications for the centralized control of police development and transition assets within a functional military police command chain. Consistency is critical. Multiple command chains directing police development and transition activities increase the risk of inconsistent guidance, policy, and training decisions within HN organizations.

MILITARY POLICE ACTIONS IN HOST-NATION POLICE BUILDING

6-46. Efforts by military police to reconstitute HN police capability and capacity are conducted at all levels of the organization. Military police commanders, staffs, and operational elements gather information from the station level through the highest levels of executive police administration. Military police commanders, staffs, and patrols gather information through deliberate police engagement with the HN population, community leaders, remaining or former HN police personnel, and other governmental agencies. They obtain information regarding existing or historical locations of HN police facilities, police organizational structures and systems, current HN police capability and capacity, and capability gaps that require resolution. Military police staffs and police intelligence analysts collate and analyze this information to develop an understanding of the existing police capability and capacity. Military police staffs and police intelligence analysts use the factors of POLICE to aid their analysis. See ATP 3-39.20.

Capabilities

6-47. An accurate assessment of the HN criminal justice system is critical to successful civil control lines of effort. Before beginning the reform or rebuilding of the criminal justice system, planners must conduct a thorough assessment of the police, judiciary, and corrections systems to enable the establishment of attainable goals and objectives. Military police and USACIDC SAs performing HN police training and development may be required to conduct initial and ongoing assessments of the police and corrections elements of the criminal justice system. Although not a primary responsibility, military police and USACIDC staff should also work with SJA and other legal advisors to monitor their efforts with judiciary assessments, as the judiciary element of the criminal justice system is inextricably linked to law enforcement and corrections.

6-48. Thorough and accurate assessments of HN police capability enable military police and USACIDC staffs to develop training and advisement plans and goals based on identified capability gaps. Table 6-1 provides questions that can assist planners in assessing law enforcement systems and capabilities.

6-49. Additional questions may be required based on the organization, the operational environment, and other factors. Each area should be assessed by policing personnel who have the appropriate background and experience to make informed assessments. This assessment is used to allocate manpower and resources. The accurate and complete reporting of data is critical for the military police and USACIDC staff to make viable assessments of current police organizations and systems.

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
	Operational Environment

General organizational data	• Who are the main security providers (state and nonstate)?
	 • What is the division of responsibility between security providers?
	 • What role, if any, does the military play in civil security matters?
	 • What are the major problems of community safety?
	 • What types of injustices do people experience regularly?
	 • What is the LE approach (for example, community-based policing versus control and enforcement)?
	 • Are some communities underserved by HN police?
	 • What are the sources of LE funding (formal and informal)?
	 • What role did the HN police play under the previous government?
	    ▪ Limited to minor crimes and traffic patrols?
	    ▪ Full capability organization consistent with Western police standards?
	    ▪ Showpiece organization?
	    ▪ State security?
	 • Do the HN police have a history of following the rule of law and due process steps, or are they known for heavy-handed or abusive policing tactics?
	 • What is the demographic breakdown of the police?
	 • Does the demographic breakdown match the breakdown of the country?
	 • Do regional and local HN police forces match their local demographics?
	 • What priorities directed the location of HN police stations?
	 • Are police stations located for political reasons or crime deterrence reasons?
	 • Are police assets equitably dispersed based on population and criminal analysis?
	 • Can the public easily access the police stations? Is the public willing to make complaints at the police station?
	 • Does the public view the HN police as a professional organization? If not, how are they viewed (cronyism, thugs, an enforcement arm of a tyrannical state, inept, incompetent, corrupt)?

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Police Training Functions	
Training	• Is formal training required before initial employment? • Is transition training required? • Is refresher or sustainment training required? • Is patrol or crime prevention training provided? • Is traffic management and accident investigation training provided? • Is daily institutionalized roll call training required? • Does a field training officer program exist? • Are distributed learning programs provided?
Training curriculum	• Does the training program fully prepare HN police officers to maintain the rule of law and abide by judicial and prosecutorial directives? • Is training on human rights incorporated throughout the curriculum? • Are HN police trained to handle known threats? • Is regular human rights refresher training conducted during normal duties? • Does the training curriculum use a skills-based environment and on-the-job training? • Does the training curriculum promote human, individual, and constitutional rights? • Does the training prepare the HN police for dealing with crimes against women and train them to interact with female victims?
Academy or training management and infrastructure	• Do formal HN police academies exist? At what command levels? • Are there national training requirements? Are they enforced at all police levels? • Does the academy have instructor and curriculum development guidelines? • Does the academy or academies have sufficient resources? • Are training records maintained for all personnel attending police training (including those who failed to complete entry level training)?
Police Station Operations	

Police desk operations	• Does each HN police station maintain a functional police desk to—
	  ▪ Receive all incoming calls for police assistance?
	  ▪ Prioritize the employment of resources and assign tasks appropriately?
	  ▪ Initiate notifications regarding reported incidents of police activity?
	  ▪ Review the initial casework of LE patrols?
	  ▪ Maintain a police journal to document police activities and contacts?
	• Do police desk personnel have access to LE databases and reporting systems?
	• Are procedures in place for maintaining police station security?

Case management practices	• What happens when an allegation or complaint about a crime is made?
	  ▪ Is an allegation or complaint recorded immediately? By whom?
	  ▪ Is there a standard format for recording initial crime reports?
	  ▪ Is an allegation or complaint made on paper or on an automated system?
	  ▪ How is the immediate action identified and managed?
	  ▪ How does the person initially recording the crime report manage the issue?
	  ▪ Who has to be notified about the crime?

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Police Station Operations (continued)	
Case management practices (continued)	▪ Are procedures in place that accurately record information about arrested suspects and their property? ▪ Are these records updated and forwarded as the suspect moves through the system? ▪ Are file copies maintained at the originating station?

Information sharing	• Does a formal information-sharing mechanism exist within the criminal justice system? How is it used?
	• Is there active and routine coordination among the police community, the prosecutor's office, corrections, and the border police? Does this include the means for—
	  ▪ Court orders to be communicated to HN police?
	  ▪ Corrections to notify police of legitimate inmate releases and illegitimate escapes?
	• Is there active coordination or formal information sharing between the police community and agencies that deliver public services (social services, public health, behavioral health)?
	• Is there a reliable liaison between the police community and nonstate providers of security operating under an official assignment?
	• Is there a formal mechanism for oversight, coordination, and regulation with any nonstate security providers?
	• Is there an operational liaison with international organizations contributing to the country policing efforts?

Police records and statistics	• Do the following functions exist?
	  • A booking station system.
	  • A property- and evidence-tracking system.

Police records and statistics (continued)	• Effective criminal records management (of active cases).
	  • Centralized historical criminal archives.
	• Are police incidents reported in a uniform manner?
	• Do the following systems exist?
	  ▪ Case tracking.
	  ▪ Police services tracking.
	  ▪ Traffic and vehicle databases.
	• Are statistics maintained on police service requests, crime reports, and arrest and conviction rates?

Public relations and interaction with the public	• Does the LE program engage in community outreach activities, public relations activities, or other routine public interaction activities? • Does the program organize public awareness meetings? • Do the HN police leaders regularly meet with local government officials (mayors, councils) to discuss police operations or issues?
Police information and intelligence	• Are statistics compiled regarding the incidence of criminal offenses against a variety of criteria? Are statistics compiled in relation to local, regional, and national geographical areas? Are statistics available to the public? Are statistics available to local, regional, and national police commanders? • Do laws govern the collection, storage, and dissemination of criminal intelligence and personal information? Do the HN police adhere to these laws and policies?

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Police Station Operations (continued)	
Police information and intelligence (continued)	• Do the HN police have a means of confirming a person's identity (photograph records, biometrics (fingerprints, iris scans)? • Do HN police develop identity records of suspects (photographs, fingerprints, narrative descriptions) as allowed by law? At what command level are these records maintained? Can stations cross-reference the data? Up to what level? • Can HN police at every level collect, evaluate, collate, analyze, and disseminate police information and criminal intelligence up, down, and laterally across the organization? • Is all information and intelligence recorded in some manner (hardcopy or electronically) at the originating station and forwarded to higher headquarters? • Do the HN police have personnel dedicated to evaluating and analyzing intelligence? Are they specially trained? • Do the HN police make operational decisions based on gathered intelligence? • Are HN police leaders held accountable for their effectiveness at responding to criminal patterns identified through intelligence?
Criminal database and collection of crime statistics	• Does a centralized criminal evidence database exist? • Who manages and maintains the database? • Who has access to the database? • Who enters the evidence and information into the database? • Can the database cross-reference evidence to develop leads or connections? • Are crime statistics collected in a reliable and generally accessible (digital or otherwise automated) criminal database? • Is the criminal database or collection of crime statistics used for strategic analysis?

Detention operations	• Are there policies in place that govern the treatment of detainees in police custody? Are HN police personnel acting in compliance with those policies?
	• Are detainees housed separately from prisoners (pretrial versus post-trial situations)?
	• Do the HN police have processes in place to move detainees to a HN police level where they will appear before a judge, or does a judge travel to police stations?
	• Are detainees normally seen by a judge within the period prescribed by law?
	• Are juvenile and women detainees housed separately from men?
	• Do the HN police have policies for injured detainees and special-needs detainees (mentally ill, a threat to self or others, or subject to threat from other detainees)?
	• Do the HN police maintain accurate records of all detainees, including—
	  ▪ Identification?
	  ▪ Reason for arrest?
	  ▪ Injury or illness?
	  ▪ Personal property?
	  ▪ Disposition?
	• Are these records maintained after the detainee is released or transferred?
	Note. Considerations on corrections operations are found in ATP 3-39.20 and FM 3-39.

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Police Station Operations (continued)	

Specialized police units	• Do HN police services have the capability to manage civil disturbances without resorting to military support?
	• Do specialized unit capabilities exist, to include—
	  ▪ Special-reaction or weapons teams?
	  ▪ Explosive ordnance disposal?
	  ▪ Protection for dignitaries, high-profile individuals, or other important persons?
	  ▪ Police dogs with capabilities in drug detection, explosives detection, and personnel search?
	• Is proper training and equipment provided? Is it employed properly?

Patrol Operations	
Patrol activities	• Do the HN police actively patrol their communities or assigned jurisdictions, or do they remain in the stations and only respond to calls? • Do HN police patrols respond to calls for service and crime threats in a timely manner? • Can HN police stations take complaints on location and telephonically? Can the stations dispatch patrols via radio? • Are HN police patrol officers equipped with the transportation and tools necessary to perform their responsibilities? • Are HN police trained for, and capable of, resolving calls for service? • Are HN police patrol officers trained in crime scene preservation? • Are HN police patrol officers trained in what to look for and how to protect evidence? • Are HN police patrol officers aware of potential cross-contamination issues? • Are HN police patrol officers supplied with latex or similar gloves? • Do HN police patrol officers know how to bag, label, and record evidence and exhibits? Is an HN police patrol officer designated in major cases to ensure the continuity and preserve the integrity of evidence? • Is the HN police are capable of employing crime prevention measures to prevent or reduce crime problems?
Community integrated policing and patrols and community action plans	• Is there substantial use of community-integrated policing? • Are foot patrols and fixed posts used in community-integrated policing? • Does a centralized complaint call-in system (such as 911) exist? • Is there a viable strategic plan to conduct community policing?
Investigative Capabilities	
Crime scene search and collection capabilities	• Do the HN police have the ability, training, and resources to secure and process a crime scene? • Do the HN police employ chain-of-custody and evidence protection techniques? • Do modern or contemporary fingerprint analysis and identification and photography capabilities exist? • Are forensics used in cases and the analysis of criminal investigations and prosecutions?
Laboratory and office management	• Do the HN police have access to criminal forensic laboratories? • At what police command level do they operate? • Are HN police adequately resourced with equipment and trained personnel to effectively conduct forensics investigations?

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Investigative Capabilities	
LE investigations	• Do the HN police or courts serve as the principal investigative arm for the government? If it is the courts, what investigative capacity do the HN police have by law? • How are investigators selected? Are they experienced police or hired directly as investigators? What required training do investigators attend? Does this training include— ▪ Laws and guidelines related to investigative powers? ▪ Crime scene preservation? ▪ Forensic techniques? ▪ Searches? ▪ Interviews? ▪ Case file preparation? ▪ Contact with vulnerable people (victims, witnesses, suspects)? ▪ Diversity knowledge? • Does a code, law, or other regulation establish the way in which a criminal investigation should be conducted? How are the powers of investigators described in the law? Is there a specific statute or are they described in a criminal procedure law or police act? By virtue of these laws or regulations, is an investigator able to— ▪ Arrest and detain a suspect? ▪ Seize property as evidence? ▪ Search for evidence (on the premises and on persons)? ▪ Interview suspects (and, in doing so, question their honesty and character, which in some countries may otherwise be considered an act of defamation [a criminal offense])? • Require samples (fingerprints, DNA evidence) and take photographs?
Forensic laboratory support	• Does forensic laboratory capability exist? • Does the laboratory have the capability to process and analyze— ▪ Firearms and toolmarks? ▪ Questioned documents examination? ▪ Drug analysis? ▪ Toxicology? ▪ Trace evidence? ▪ Serology/DNA analysis? • Pathology and forensic medicine?
Supervision and Management	
Leadership selection and training	• How are leaders selected in the police organization? • Are senior leaders experienced police officers or political appointees? • Are first-line supervisors capable of providing reliable LE guidance and direction to junior police? • Are operational police leaders changed out when new political leaders are appointed or elected? • Are management and supervisory structures considered robust and reliable?

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Supervision and Management (continued)	
Leadership selection and training (continued)	• Is the span of control of police leadership adequate to promote and sustain effective command and control of the organization? • Do first-line supervisors and managers receive leadership training? • Do executive, command, and senior management receive development training? • How are leaders selected in the police organization? • Are senior leaders experienced police officers or political appointees? • Are first-line supervisors capable of providing reliable LE guidance and direction to junior police? • Are operational police leaders changed out when new political leaders are appointed or elected? • Are management and supervisory structures considered robust and reliable? • Is the span of control of police leadership adequate to promote and sustain effective command and control of the organization? • Do first-line supervisors and managers receive leadership training? • Do executive, command, and senior management receive development training?
Strategy and mission	• Are there a wide-ranging written strategy and mission that address known crimes, threats, and incursions? • Does the strategy establish appropriate time frames for addressing the known threats? • Does the strategy define specific outcome-oriented goals with achievable, forward-leaning performance targets? • Does management have strong strategic and operational planning capabilities?
Policy and procedures	• Are directives, SOPs, policies, and written guidance that govern all principal police systems developed at the appropriate command level and disseminated throughout the force? • Do these procedures contain operational standards for coordination at central, regional, and local levels, as appropriate, for the known security risk? • Do these procedures delegate sufficient authority to the HN police at all levels to perform their duties without excessive reliance on clearing routine actions through the chain of command?
Funding	• Does the police organization have funding sufficient to sustain and nurture a proficient agency? • What level of government funds the HN police? • Are HN police funds dedicated to the police organization and protected from use for non-police-related requirements? • Is an audit system in place to provide oversight of expenditures? • Is the HN police budget publicly disclosed?

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Personnel Administration	
Recruitment and advertisements	• Does the program use a diverse recruitment policy (including, for example, targeted advertising and regional testing)? • Do all ethnicities or other groups, including women, have statistically equal representation at all levels? • Does the program use a proactive nondiscrimination policy in LE recruitment? • Does the program use a standardized application process?
Minimum qualifications, standards, and testing	• Does the police organization use standardized and documented practices and criteria for employment? • Do applicants undergo general knowledge, physical fitness, health, and psychological testing? • Is police background screening required for all new recruits?
Personnel practices	• Are national standards in place governing personnel activities (pay, personnel allocations at stations by rank, hiring and firing policies, pay scales, death or disability payments)? • Do police stations maintain accurate personnel files and send extracts, as needed, to higher headquarters? • Does the staff comprehensively and effectively administer policies, procedures, and training? • Is administrative training provided? • Are requirements for advancement to each rank clearly laid out and enforced? • Is there an appropriate manpower allocation for mission expectations? • Are HN police paid a living wage competitive with the private sector? • Is career progression nondiscriminatory? • Is career progression competitively based on merit? • What is the morale of the HN police? • Do the HN police have an established discipline policy that clearly states administrative offenses, punishments, and adjudication authority? • Are HN police who commit crimes prosecuted through the civil courts? • Does an HN police counseling and police record certification database exist?
Logistics	
Infrastructure and equipment	• Are the infrastructure and equipment readily available for use when needed? • Is operational infrastructure policy based on strategic priorities, wear-out projections, and known demands for consumable supplies and equipment? • How is equipment serviced or maintained? Are service and maintenance capabilities adequate? • Can local jurisdictions establish service or supply contracts with local vendors? • Does the headquarters track on-hand equipment supply and resupply needs of subordinate stations? • Does a system exist to track firearms and equipment issues? • Are there controls for infrastructure, inventory, and warehouses? • Do HN police support equipment and services exist (transportation or fleet management, armory, communications)? • Do technology equipment and services exist (computers, electronic information systems, forensic equipment)? • Are there practices or offices for budget, finance, and procurement functions?

Table 6-1. HN police organization assessment considerations (continued)

Area of Focus	Information Requirements
Independent Oversight and Internal Affairs (continued)	
Inspector general, appraisal, corruption unit, and tracking of abuses	• Do the HN police have a professional code of conduct? Is it followed? • Do the HN police have functional internal affairs and inspector general systems? • Are policies written that govern the activities of the inspector general or internal affairs sections (how and when they conduct investigations and to whom they report)? • Are human rights abuses identified, investigated, and tracked? • Is there documented evidence of internal review conducted by the inspector general, internal affairs, or command reviews?
Civilian oversight	• Does a civilian review board exist? • Is there a citizen complaint and information center? Is it used and generally effective? • Does civilian oversight of police activities exist?
Public perception	• What is the degree of public support (opinion) of the HN LE program? • Is there evidence that the public generally feels secure? • Does the public believe that HN police are accountable for their actions? • Does the public believe that HN police departments are generally free from systematic corruption? • Is there a system for HN police consultation with local communities?

Legend:
ATP Army techniques publication HN host nation
DNA deoxyribonucleic acid LE law enforcement
FM field manual SOP standard operating procedure

Training Strategies

6-50. Following an assessment of infrastructure, capabilities, and capacities of the existing HN police organization, military police commanders and staffs must develop training strategies to effectively train and develop effective police organizations. These training strategies must consider the current state of police forces and the strategic goals established by military and civilian leaders. Figure 6-1, page 6-20, provides an illustration of HN police capacity built over time. As HN police capacity increases, HN police organizations lessen their dependency on external support and become more self-reliant. It could take years to achieve the desired level of operational reliability and effectiveness for HN police and corrections.

6-51. In many cases, pressure to hire, train, and employ HN police officers into the community is high. It should be understood that effective police organizations require solid and consistent leadership and management systems for police operations to be effective. An effective training strategy must simultaneously address management levels (executive, mid-, and station levels), the training and employment of policing capabilities (from basic patrol to highly technical investigative functions), and the training of police and support personnel on systems to manage police operations. Expectation management is the key to maintaining focus and achieving stated goals. The development of police leadership with effective organizational hierarchies and functioning systems to manage police operations takes time, especially in cases where police organizations are nonexistent or rudimentary at best. While developing police capacity may be a key metric used by senior military and political leaders to determine success, commanders and military police staff must reinforce that building a police force, especially one that is capable of a full range of traditional law enforcement functions (community- and intelligence-driven policing, criminal investigations, evidence collection to support prosecutions) takes a long time, often longer than political considerations will find acceptable.

6-52. Training strategies should target identified gaps in capability and build upon existing capabilities. Training must be standardized across the organization. HN personnel with inadequate or no previous law enforcement experience should be trained at a standardized police academy. If required, a constabulary style

of policing may first be established. This ensures a standard baseline of training for all entry level police officers (HN police academies are addressed later in this chapter). For HN law enforcement personnel with previous law enforcement experience, within the previous HN police structure or other police organization, training must be tailored to the knowledge and skill level of police officers and their respective responsibilities.
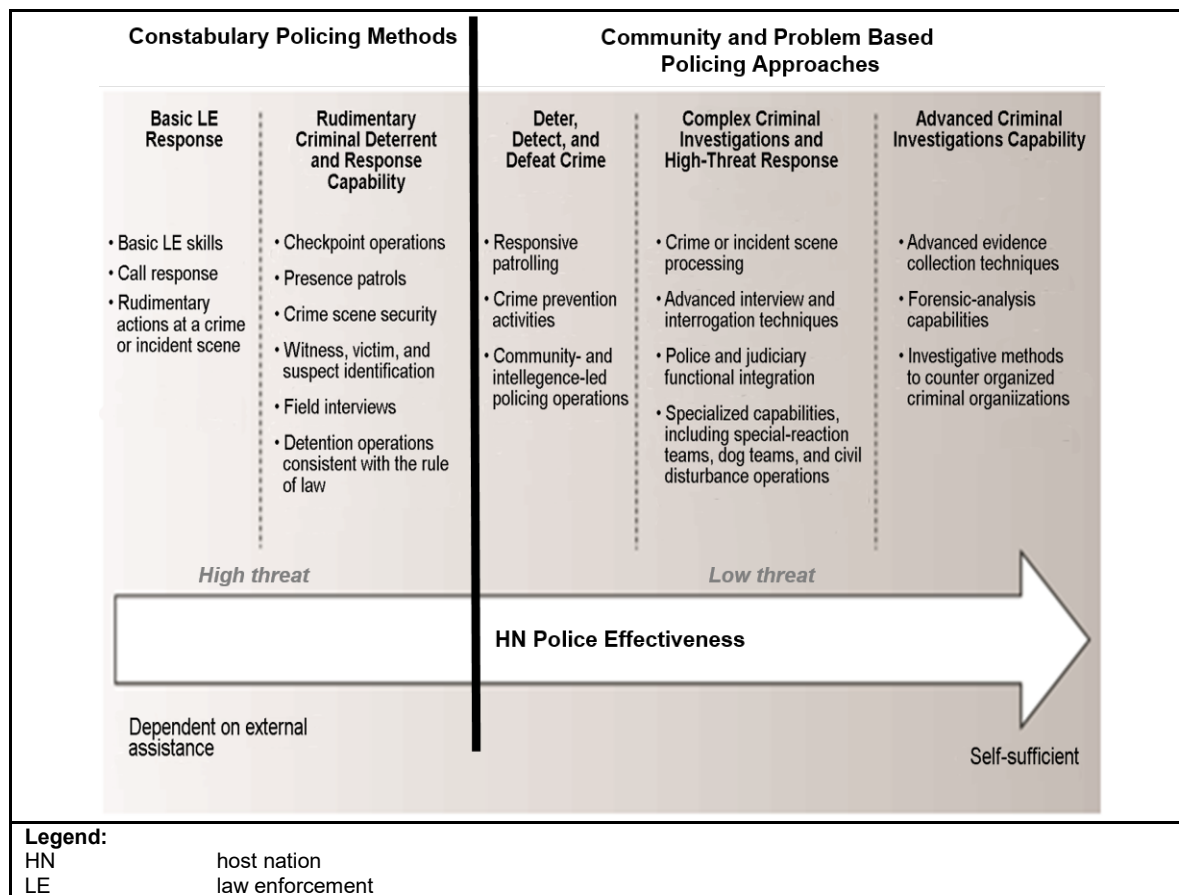
Figure 6-1. Development of HN police capabilities over time

6-53. Police management training at all levels must reinforce and support what is being trained at the police station and basic police officer levels. The HN police organization, as a whole, will typically become more self-sufficient as the organization leadership becomes more effective, systems are emplaced to support police operations, and greater police capabilities are mastered. This allows the HN police agency to achieve increasing levels of independence, which initially results in the elimination of U.S. and multinational partnership requirements and, eventually, a reduction and complete elimination of advisory requirements.

Partnership and Advisement

6-54. The level of support required by U.S. forces (including military police) will depend on the level of degradation to former HN police infrastructure and capability. In some instances, significant HN infrastructure and capability may be present within an AO. In these instances, U.S. forces will typically provide minimal support as required and requested by the HN government. However, in many instances, significant degradation to HN police infrastructure, capability, and capacity renders the HN law enforcement and policing efforts ineffective or nonexistent. This condition will typically require significant security force assistance and intervention. In some cases, initial civil security and civil control efforts may be conducted by U.S. and multinational forces as HN police and security organizations are reconstituted.

6-55. Security force assistance activities are conducted primarily to assist HNs build the capacity to defend against internal, external, and transnational threats to stability. However, DOD may also conduct security

force assistance to assist HNs to defend against external threats; contribute to multinational operations; or organize, train, equip, and advise a nation's security forces or supporting institutions. Military police conducting HN police development and transition missions rely heavily on partnering and advising to enable successful HN police reconstitution and transition efforts.

6-56. Partnering efforts assign units at various levels of the HN organization to leverage the strengths of U.S. and HN elements. This partnering includes training and multinational operations to develop HN police capability and capacity. The degree of partnering will decrease over time as HN police capabilities mature. The final partnering stage occurs as HN police forces take full control of their operations. At this stage, U.S. forces may continue to provide quick-reaction forces, overwatch, or other assistance when requested by the HN government. Military police partnering efforts with HN police organizations typically occur at the company and platoon levels, based on guidance from military police battalions. Some partnering efforts may be conducted by military police staff elements working with HN police support personnel to assist in specific areas (supply and logistics, human resources management, communications, maintenance). These military police and staff partners may be augmented or task-organized with military police law enforcement detachments as required.

6-57. Advising HN governments involves the use of individuals or teams to coach, teach, and mentor HN police personnel at all levels. Advising and partnering are complementary, but inherently different activities. Advisers must work to build relationships with HN police counterparts based on mutual personal and professional respect, thus enabling candid and open dialogue to influence the decisions and organizational development of HN police organizations. Advising efforts are typically conducted by senior military police commanders and staffs. These military police advisers work with their HN police counterparts. For example, military police company commanders and platoon leaders advise police station level commanders, military police battalion commanders and staffs advise midlevel managers and staff, and military police brigade commanders and staffs advise senior police officers or chiefs of police and staff. Advisory activities continue to occur after the requirement for unit level partnership has diminished and is no longer required.

Partnership Planning Factors

6-58. There are many factors that military police commanders and staffs must consider when planning for designating AO and partnership assignments. Military police companies are assigned areas based on the number of HN police stations in the area and associated coverage requirements. Platoons partner with HN police stations to provide periodic reports to maintain continuous assessments. One of the most critical decisions is determining the appropriate number of military police platoons required to safely and effectively conduct police development and transition operations.

6-59. Appropriate military police platoon-to-HN police station ratios are determined based on multiple factors, including the—
- Threat environment.
- Size and type of the station, specifically the number of police officers.
- Distance and time between stations.
- Reaction force response time.
- Proficiency of the station.
- Protection of the station.
- Available essential equipment (weapons, body armor, ammunition, vehicles, radios, uniforms).
- Life support sources (power, water, sewage services).
- Facilities status.

6-60. For planning purposes, in a high-risk environment or when HN police capability at the station level is seriously degraded or nonexistent, one military police platoon typically partners with each HN police station individually. Providing an HN police station with a single military police platoon ensures that military police can establish and maintain a 24-hour presence at the police station. As conditions permit and the confidence and proficiency of HN police increase, one platoon may assume responsibility for multiple HN police stations.

6-61. One platoon per station is a suggested planning factor when the initial HN police station coverage plan is executed, but may be changed based on mission variables and station assessments. Typically, one military police platoon assigned to four HN police stations is the maximum span of control for effective partnership during relatively stable conditions. (See figure 6-2.) Centrally locating the company headquarters will help ease command and control and logistical support.
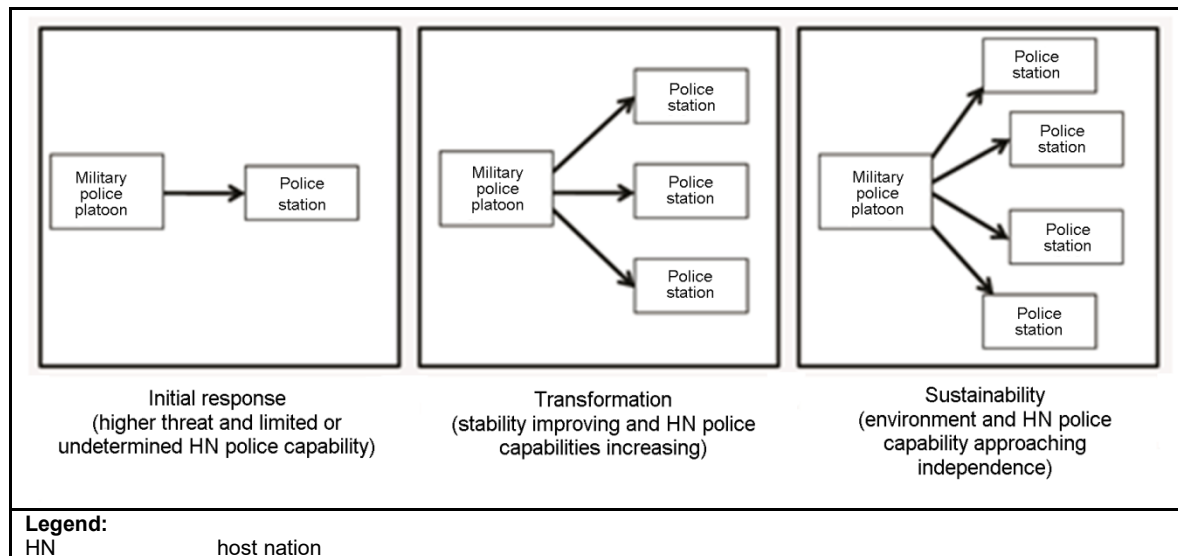
Figure 6-2. Military police span of control

Police Station Training

6-62. Military police conduct training at the station level while partnering with HN police. These training programs should be synchronized to reinforce basic police training that should have been taught at a police training and certification academy. The focus of training should initially be basic police procedures, to include—

- Patrolling and other basic law enforcement functions.
- Serving the community.
- Defending the police station.
- Managing police operations.
- Collecting, analyzing, reporting, and sharing police information and police intelligence.
- Conducting communications.
- Operating checkpoints.

6-63. In some cases, formal academy training may not exist; established police training academies by U.S. and multinational forces may have yet to occur. In these cases, initial training can be completed and documented by military police platoons supporting HN police stations. However, all HN police personnel must attend a formal training and certification academy at the earliest opportunity.

6-64. Police training programs taught at the unit level should consist of individual tasks that build to collective training tasks (police station operations, traffic enforcement, coordinated multinational police operations). The end state of any police training program is to train a legitimate, trustworthy, and professional HN police force. As proficiencies increase, HN police assume leading roles while military police observe, monitor, and advise personnel during multinational operations. Over time, military police continue to assume a more teaching, coaching, and mentoring role. The goal of unit-taught police training is to produce trained police officers and to assist HN police in assuming increasingly greater responsibilities in training police station operations and patrol supervision.

Police Development and Transition Teams

6-65. When the security environment permits or the HN police competency level has been assessed at a higher level, military police companies may be task-organized into PDTTs and assigned to HN police stations based on mission and operational variables. This change marks the transition from a primarily partnership role to a more advisory role.

6-66. PDTTs are typically composed of organic military police squads that are augmented by additional support specialties from military police law enforcement detachments and other military and civilian police specialties. Senior level PDTTs may be composed from staff elements within the military police brigade and battalion structure. They serve in an advisory role to assist in the transition of responsibility for domestic security to HN police to provide a safe and secure environment. PDTTs conduct a multitier system of training and development to complete the HN police structure (from the individual police at the station through the senior HN law enforcement official and staff). PDTTs follow and receive training and policy guidance through their functional military police structure. Typical tasks required of PDTTs include—

- Training, coaching, and mentoring HN police (from the patrol level, up to and including, the senior HN law enforcement official and staffs [developing leadership]).
- Teaching and developing personnel accountability procedures (administration, pay, leave, weapons).
- Training and developing security protection measures.
- Establishing and developing police intelligence programs (collection, analysis, dissemination, information controls).
- Planning and executing collective training programs in criminal law, criminal investigations, evidentiary procedures, and community policing.
- Ensuring that all officers receive formal individual training and certification (police academy).
- Planning, training, and coordinating effective police operations.
- Establishing and training procedures for suspect and detainee handling.
- Developing and training logistical support systems (maintenance, supply, accountability).

6-67. PDTTs must fully understand the significance of their task, the commander's intent, and applicable measures of performance and measures of effectiveness. Preparation is critical. During the initial transition to PDTT support to HN police elements, the HN may not be fully prepared to maintain security and enforce the laws; therefore, the HN government will be unable to assume full and autonomous control.

6-68. PDTTs can act as elements under operational control or tactical control of nonmilitary police units when required by mission and operational variables. In these cases, PM technical channels are required to ensure that training, policy, and law enforcement operational requirements are consistently applied across the AO. PM technical channels are also required to ensure that law enforcement and policing activities are conducted within the rule of law and that PDTTs understand and comply with HN and international legal requirements.

Advisory Role

6-69. Building rapport is one of the most important tasks for PDTT advisers. Establishing rapport is the desired method of gaining influences with a counterpart; rapport enables other activities to occur smoothly. Genuine rapport is developed slowly over time, but can be ruined in an instant. Skills that contribute to credibility include—

- Leadership.
- Courage.
- Discipline.
- Maturity.
- Judgment.
- Decisionmaking abilities.

6-70. Demonstrating proficiency as a trainer will make a good first impression. This requires a combination of technical and tactical knowledge and experience of application. The ability to provide good planning

advice requires more than a sound understanding of the planning process. It requires practice and analytical judgment to adjust and apply the process effectively during the normal confusion of actual operations.

6-71. The ability to provide sound advice is critical. This advice must be consistent with the needs of the HN. Advisers should observe, listen, and be open to solutions that are consistent with HN organizational, cultural, and political needs. A solution that may work within a U.S. military or civilian organization society may not be the best solution for the HN police organization. The ability to provide valuable tactical advice is critical. This requires an intimate understanding of the threat, the environment, and how to apply tactics appropriately. PDTTs will often have to analyze the situation and make decisions with little to no information.

Key Enablers

6-72. The success of the team mission depends on how the team performs and how well it employs enablers (civilian police advisers provided by the United States Department of Justice and United States Department of State linguists). Civilian police advisers and linguists can spell success or failure for the PDTT. Combining and embedding civilian police advisers with their respective military police counterparts can enhance the overall capability of the team.

Civilian Police Advisers

6-73. Civilian police advisers are composed of veteran police officers from across the United States who come with a wide range of experience and education. Their law enforcement experiences can cover a large specialty range, including—

- Organized crime and other complex criminal networks.
- Gang units.
- Patrol officers.
- Special weapons and tactics units.
- Hostage negotiations.
- Police intelligence.
- Criminal investigations.
  - Property crime.
  - Drugs.
  - Homicide.

6-74. Each civilian police adviser brings a unique perspective to the field. It is that personal experience from which civilian police advisers' missions draw core strengths. When combined with military police operating in the field, civilian police advisers form a strong training force with a shared goal to mentor police and security forces as they progress to becoming self-sufficient, reliant, and capable of maintaining and sustaining a viable civilian police force.

6-75. Senior level civilian police advisers are assigned to the command staff and coordinate directly with corps and theater level military PM sections. They assist in facilitating communications throughout the mission. The command staff members typically have a military counterpart with whom they interact on a daily basis. As a result of this interaction, civilian police advisers are able to infuse the civilian law enforcement perspective on the PDTT mission at a level that can provide appropriate guidance and influence across the entire AO.

6-76. Communication between civilian police advisers and their military counterparts is the fundamental component for mission success. There may be differences in philosophies between military and civilian police, which will require careful consideration while operating in a combat environment. This is why PDTT members must recognize basic and, sometimes, opposing perspectives. It is important that major differences between military police team members and civilian police advisers be invisible to HN police personnel.

6-77. Key considerations when working with civilian police advisers include the following:

- Civilian police advisers do not have the authority to arrest or detain a suspect. They can only use force in self-defense and are not authorized to engage in combat operations.
- Civilian police advisers are assigned to maximize the potential benefit of their specific experience and skill sets according to PDTT mission goals and objectives.
- The team chief and the platoon leader should sit down with the civilian police advisers and develop a standardized training model for each station. Civilian police advisers should be used liberally, allowing them to leverage their experience.
- Civilian police advisers should be kept fully informed on all aspects of the mission. They are an integral part of the team.
- Threat conditions may not be permit civilian police advisors to operate in certain areas.
- All resources should be used. Failure to use resources will severely impact the mission and may impact the working relationship between the civilian police advisers, the team chief, and the PDTT. Integration and cooperation are the keys to success for the PDTT mission.
- Civilian police advisers integrated into the team and mission should also be incorporated into the functioning combat team. It is important for military police personnel to remember that civilian police advisers—
    - Are not a force multiplier and should never be directed to take an offensive posture or participate in an offensive action during a mission. Civilian police advisers are mandated by policy to maintain a defensive posture and are to use their issued weapons only in self-defense or in the defense of fellow teammates.
    - Must be familiar with the capabilities and limitations of the weapon systems within the team.
    - Should be incorporated into the training and rehearsals of the PDTTs; this will also help build camaraderie within the team and squad.

Interpreters and Linguists

6-78. The successful use of interpreters is essential to the mission. The use of local national interpreters is typically restricted due to operations security concerns. As a general rule, local national interpreters are used for direct communication with junior HN police officials and HN police patrols. They can also be used for HN police training on unclassified and nonsensitive information and systems. Local national interpreters are not typically informed of the destination, meetings, movement times (beyond initial movement), or movement routes. Upon arrival at a mission location, only enough information is provided to local national interpreters to actively support interpreter requirements. Cell phone possession and use may also be restricted.

6-79. U.S. contract linguists are preferred when available. These assets are typically extremely limited and may only be available for missions with senior level personnel or when required due to sensitivity or classification of material or conversations requiring interpretation. A U.S. contract linguist can be used periodically to verify and validate the effectiveness of a local national interpreter's translation skills or to ensure that accurate translations are rendered. The following guidelines help facilitate the use of interpreters and linguists:

- Avoid overuse. Interpreters and linguists are there to help in all facets of translating; remember to treat them with respect.
- Use simple phrases and words. Simple, direct wording will help the interpreter and limit the chance of mistranslation. Slang and jargon should be avoided. Following this procedure will assist the linguist in understanding the meaning and will hasten the translation process. A lot of time is lost in translating.
- Speak directly to the person when trying to convey a message to them; do not speak to the linguist. This helps establish a stronger bond with the HN individual.
- Include the linguist in rehearsals.
- Limit private conversations between the linguist and the local national.

- Think operations security when working with local national interpreters. They should not be present during convoy briefs or rehearsals. Linguists will travel with PDTTs, but should not be given any mission-specific information (exact time of departure, routes to be traveled, scheduled location visits, troop strength data). Although linguists are working for U.S. forces, they are still local nationals with unknown backgrounds; operations security is imperative for the safety of the team.
- Consider the use of machine foreign language translation systems if an interpreter is not available.

Recruitment and Training

6-80. Reconstituting HN police personnel requires successful police recruitment and a training program that emphasizes basic police officer training. The more focused the training is to the officer's level and knowledge requirements, the more meaningful and insightful it will be to the person. Additional training focusing on organizational leadership should be given to midlevel and senior leaders.

6-81. Police recruitment programs should be crafted with substantial input from local HN authorities, take the local culture into account, and use themes that resonate with the local population. They should ensure that all major demographic groups are properly represented. U.S. and multinational partners should encourage and support HN efforts to recruit from minority populations. A clear set of appropriate mental, physical, and moral standards must be established and enforced.

6-82. Ideally, recruits are centrally screened and inducted. Recruitment centers need to be in areas that are secure and protected from attacks by threat elements that may oppose U.S. and HN efforts. Effective security forces can help improve HN social and economic development through the benefits that each member receives. Every recruit should be provided a basic level of literacy, job training, and the HN morals and values inculcation.

Police Leadership

6-83. Police leader candidate standards should be high. Candidates should be in good health and pass an academic test that is set to a higher standard than tests for enlisted police recruits. Potential leadership level candidates should be carefully vetted to ensure that they do not have close ties to any criminal or radical organization. Lower-level police supervisors should be selected from the best police force members to ensure that objective standards are established and enforced and that promotion is by merit and not through unlawful influence, nepotism, or other illegal factors.

6-84. The careful vetting of candidates and the cooperation of community leaders are necessary if the local police are to become an effective and legitimate force. Failure to properly vet potential police candidates can result in significant long-term problems. Criminals, persons with psychological issues, insurgent elements, and many other categories of undesirable personnel may attempt to gain employment within the police force. The military police brigade and battalion intelligence officer and staff should be heavily involved in the vetting process.

6-85. Potential recruits should undergo a basic security check and be vetted (biometrics enrollment) against lists of criminals and persons suspected of participating in illegal activities against friendly forces. As much as possible, this process should be conducted with substantial input from HN agencies and personnel. Membership in illegal or corrupt organizations must be carefully monitored; past membership should not automatically exempt a recruit from selection. Any ongoing relationship of a recruit with an illegal organization requires constant monitoring; in some cases, the recruit may be dismissed from the vetting process. Care should be exercised to ensure that no single police unit contains too many previous members of an illegal unit, tribal militia, or other militant faction.

Police Academies

6-86. Training HN police requires that senior military police leaders and planners, in cooperation with USAMPS, develop an exportable HN police basic training academy program. It should consist of a comprehensive program of instruction and necessary resources to train the required amount of HN police personnel. HN police academy programs require enormous resources and time and should be addressed as early in the planning phase as possible. The length of the program will vary, depending on the stability of the

HN environment, the assessed effectiveness of current HN police forces, available resources, and the required training on functional specialties.

6-87. In the case of a failed police system, academy programs may need to be tiered from basic-level training to more advanced follow-on training due to the urgent need to train and field as many HN police as quickly as possible. During the beginning phases, the use of U.S. and multinational instructors with training experience can greatly enhance the overall quality of the instruction. These instructors can be military police or civilian law enforcement personnel. As early as possible, academy management and instruction should transition to HN control, at first under U.S. and multinational supervision and then gradually to full HN autonomy. As the environment matures, planners and trainers may lengthen police academy courses to focus training on higher-level police training tasks.

Additional Training Requirements

6-88. Police training programs need to be developed to provide instruction that is based on the level of the officer being trained. Senior level training should address the issues necessary to manage effective police operations. These issues can include leadership, management skills, logistics, human resource management, and other requirements. At the same time, the training developed for basic police officer training should concentrate on basic law enforcement skills (understanding legal requirements; police interviews, apprehensions, and traffic stops; police officer survival techniques).

Basic Police Academy Training

6-89. If possible, basic police officer training should occur in established training academies with standardized programs of instruction. The training should be conducted by experienced law enforcement personnel on basic police procedures, weapons proficiency, and survival skills. During initial training, law enforcement trainers observe and conduct training. More experienced HN police are selected as assistant instructors and demonstrators. Over time, the instruction transitions and HN assistant trainers become the primary trainers. Most of the training should be hands-on, practical-exercise training. Tasks required for basic police officer training can include—

- Use of force.
- Police officer survival.
- Weapon retention and suspect disarming.
- Firearms training.
- Handcuff application.
- Suspect search and transportation procedures.
- Patrol procedures and techniques.
- Checkpoint operations.
- Traffic stop procedures.
- Communications.
- Cordon establishment.
- Building clearing and search procedures.
- Crime scene securing and evidence collection and preservation.
- First aid procedures.

Executive-Level and Midlevel Training

6-90. U.S. forces tasked with training HN personnel must ensure that HN police forces have capable management, through and including the highest echelon police leaders. Military police leaders should consider assigning experienced senior military police personnel to positions with their HN police force counterparts to serve as executive trainers and advisers. Military police planners, working with police experts for the United States Department of Justice and United States Department of State, should also develop formal training programs for senior police personnel.

6-91. Initial, intermediate-level police supervisor training should focus on building effective leaders and staffs for small units and then progressively move to higher echelons. Thus initial, intermediate-level officer

training should be focused at the police station level. A cadre of carefully selected midlevel police leaders can be provided advanced-level education at formal strategic-level schools. This prepares qualified cadre to assume leadership positions and become faculty for HN schools. These programs are, however, expensive and time-consuming. Executive training should include more advanced- and strategic-level considerations.

6-92. Executive-level police leaders must be prepared to engage other governmental agencies to compete for funding and other resources. They must also be competent at conducting long-range planning and establishing a strategic vision for their organization. Executive-level and midlevel training considerations include—

- **Supply and logistics.** Senior personnel must be well versed in procedures to procure and protect resources required to operate a police organization. They must be capable of identifying requirements, prioritizing needs, and supervising the procurement and distribution of supplies and equipment. Supply discipline and equipment accountability are also critical. Logistics functions can include—
    - Conducting a supply (distribution and accountability of equipment) and logistics discipline program.
    - Maintaining the vehicle fleet.
- **Budgeting.** The ability to manage funds for an organization is vital. Senior personnel must possess the skills required to forecast, document, and justify budget requirements projected for the coming years.
- **Human resource management.** Human resource skills are necessary to ensure that qualified law enforcement and support personnel are hired, trained, and retained to conduct the operations of the organization. Human resource functions can include—
    - Recruiting and vetting police officers and staff.
    - Conducting and documenting in-service training.
    - Conducting midlevel and senior-level management training on planning, observing, supervising, counseling, operating, recording, reporting, and budgeting.
    - Staffing various departments (patrol, investigations, SRT, traffic).
    - Establishing and managing procedures for pay and benefits.
    - Optimizing the talent management process.
- **Police administration.** The new HN police department will eventually become responsible for managing several internal functions and must receive training on how to manage them. These functions can include—
    - Operating a secure records section to maintain police records and reports, statistical databases, and other required records.
    - Conducting internal-affairs investigations concerning professional standards violations, internal-security issues, and preemployment investigations.
    - Scheduling patrols.
    - Planning events and contingency operations.
    - Managing police intelligence activities.
    - Allocating resources.
    - Leading and managing.
    - Supervising and monitoring desk and communications operations, to include dispatch and electronic communications (radio) maintenance.
    - Accounting for evidence collection, processing, and control.
    - Operating a field training officer program.
    - Issuing police credentials and maintaining the data in a secure database.
    - Operating a permit section.
    - Managing forensics laboratories.
    - Managing media relations.
    - Operating a temporary detention facility on the premises.

■ Operating a court liaison section for prisoner pretrial release functions, the transfer of prisoners to permanent detention facilities, and case preparation.
■ Prescribing standardized uniforms, weapons, duty equipment, and radio protocols.

In-Service Training

6-93. The purpose of in-service training is to ensure continued proficiency in necessary skills; familiarize officers with new developments and techniques; and achieve a revitalized sense of compassion, professionalism, and career interest. In-service training is intended to promote continued instruction and study in the attitudes, knowledge, skills, and procedures involved in the duties and responsibilities of law enforcement, above and beyond the fundamentals covered in basic police training and mandated weapons training.

6-94. In-service training is a mandatory training program. It can include required cyclic recertification tasks or professional development training intended to sustain and improve knowledge and proficiency while preparing personnel for possible future positions in specialized units. In-service training can also be mandated by organizational leadership to address identified problems or to impart critical information. The length and location of in-service training may range from 15 minutes during shift changes or guard mounts to days on specialized training sites. Subject areas range from weapons proficiency, to ethical conduct, to officer survival, and to the identification of improvised explosive devices. The training is limited only to the needs of the police organization.

Key Support Functions

6-95. The successful management of police stations depends on administrative specialists, human resource specialists, record keepers, budget personnel, and facilities and custodial staffs. Police operations also require armorers, supply and logistics personnel, communications and automations specialists, and vehicle mechanics. These critical staff positions are not law enforcement personnel; therefore, their numbers should not be included when identifying the number of police officers required for a police organization. These positions do not require individuals to be law enforcement officers or specific police training. However, they may require some level of security clearance and background investigation.

6-96. Military police brigade and battalion staff elements and military police law enforcement detachments have the capability to conduct or coordinate training for HN police station support personnel. In some cases, civilian support personnel may be required to augment military police capabilities.

Human Resource Management

6-97. The recruitment, training, and retention of qualified and quality police officers depend on an effective human resource management system. Once trained and assigned, personnel must be paid, accounted for, promoted, and recognized for exemplary performance. This also applies to the support staff. Clear organizational administration systems must be instituted, and a national standard for pay and promotion that is fair and equitable should be established.

Pay and Benefits

6-98. Appropriate compensation levels help prevent a culture of corruption in HN police forces. It is cheaper to spend the money for adequate wages and produce effective police forces than to pay less and end up with corrupt and abusive police personnel who alienate the population. This is especially a challenge in cultures where corruption and graft are accepted ways of life. Military police must be constantly aware that HN police who are left unchecked (when in contact with the local community) have substantial opportunity to become corrupt in their duties.

6-99. Some important considerations concerning the pay status of HN forces include the following:
● Pay for commissioned officers, noncommissioned officers, and technical specialists should be competitive with other professions of the HN. Police officers need to be paid a sufficient wage so that they do not have to supplement their income with part-time jobs or resort to illegal methods.
● Pay should be disbursed through HN government channels, not U.S. channels.

- Pay for police forces should come from central government budgets, not from kickbacks or locally procured revenue. If this happens, the loyalty of the HN police will always be in question and corruption is likely.
- Cultural norms should be addressed to ensure that questionable practices (such as taxing subordinates) are minimized.
- Good pay and attractive benefits must be combined with a strict code of conduct that allows for the immediate dismissal of corrupt personnel.
- Pensions should be available to compensate the families of police force members in the event of a service-related death.

Personnel Accountability

6-100. Military police must be fully engaged in monitoring the accountability of personnel in HN police force units. Proper personnel accountability reduces corruption, particularly in manual banking systems where pay is provided in cash. Additionally, the number of personnel failing to report for duty can be an indicator of a possible attack, breakdown in unit morale, or criminal influence upon police security forces.

Promotion Screening and Selection

6-101. Military police leaders and planners may be required to provide mentorship and influence HN promotion systems. Processes for making promotion selections should be based on proven performance and demonstrated aptitude for increased responsibility. Objective evaluations ensure that promotion is by merit and not through illegal or improper influence; promotion due to social or cultural status should always be avoided. Two methods may be worth considering when selecting leaders. First, identify the most competent performers, train them, and recommend them for promotion. Second, identify those with social or professional status within the training group and then train and recommend them for promotion. The first method may lead to more competent police leaders, but may be resisted for cultural reasons. The second method ensures that new leaders will be accepted culturally, but competence may be sacrificed. The most effective solution is often a combination of the two methods.

Human Resource Personnel Training

6-102. To maintain effective human resource staffs and programs, personnel must be thoroughly trained. Refresher and professional development training is also required to maintain proficiency and training on systems and procedural updates. Military police brigade and battalion personnel staffs can conduct or coordinate training for human resource personnel. Human resource personnel should be trained on a variety of tasks, which includes—

- Maintaining personnel manning rosters.
- Conducting recruiting and hiring processes.
- Maintaining personnel records.
- Overseeing badge and credential issuance and standards.
- Managing pay and benefits.
- Managing personnel accountability systems (records on leave of absences, sick leaves, hospitalizations, annual vacations).
- Managing promotions.
- Managing award submissions.
- Executing casualty management.
- Managing the evaluation process.
- Preparing, submitting, and maintaining administrative forms.
- Tracking administrative actions.
- Executing the talent management process.

Police Operations

6-103. The HN police operations section provides critical oversight and control of law enforcement operations (desk operations, law enforcement patrols, criminal investigations, traffic management and enforcement, police administration, logistics). The police operations section is responsible for planning for the organization and coordinating with other police and governmental agencies.

6-104. Military police brigade and battalion S-3 sections augmented with military police law enforcement detachment personnel can conduct and coordinate training for the HN police operations section. Police operations personnel should be trained on a variety of tasks, to include—

- Operating a 24-hour police operations center or desk.
- Managing work shifts.
- Preparing and executing patrol plans.
- Developing redundant coverage and overlapping patrol area boundaries.
- Securing police stations.
- Maintaining station training plans.
- Monitoring and documenting training requirements (staff training, police officer certifications, and in-service training requirements).
- Conducting detention cell operations (headcount, feeding, showering).
- Transporting detainees.
- Conducting shift change briefs and guard mount operations.
- Conducting liaison with emergency services and other agencies (including other law enforcement stations and headquarters).
- Executing crisis management operations.
- Conducting police intelligence operations.
- Managing academy attendance.
- Scheduling firearms and other qualification ranges.
- Managing evidence custodian requirements.

Police Administration (Records and Reports)

6-105. A police administration section is required to ensure that police-related records and reports are properly stored and disseminated within legal and policy guidelines for law enforcement-related information. The police administration section will typically manage automation systems and access requirements for the organization.

6-106. Military police should assist in establishing administrative functions, to include managing databases, developing forms and processing procedures, providing guidance, and setting standards for daily operations. Personnel must be familiar with the scope of police powers, authority, and jurisdiction. Reference materials should be on hand for quick reference and to establish offense codes for use in record keeping and administrative actions. Patrol reports and security checklists must be developed and used to record pertinent information and activities. Military police should not force the use of U.S. forms; the development of local forms can give ownership to HN police. After an assessment determines that there is no existing form that meets the requirement, a U.S. form may be used.

6-107. Military police law enforcement detachments have the capability to provide limited training for police administration sections. This section requires training to achieve and maintain proficiency in activities, which include—

- Managing and allocating case file numbers.
- Monitoring police reports for administrative completeness and accuracy.
- Conducting, processing, storing, and backing up police reports.
- Distributing police reports, as appropriate, and ensuring that distribution is controlled and conducted within legal and regulatory constraints.
- Maintaining liaison with the court system and legal personnel.

- Producing police-related correspondence, as required.
- Maintaining court appearance records and facilitating court appearances.

Supply and Logistics

6-108.   Other personnel essential in sustaining police operations include mechanics, facilities maintenance personnel, and supply specialists. HN police stations require a maintenance facility and a motor pool within the vicinity of the police station compound to ensure that vehicles are available for law enforcement patrol activities.

6-109.   Police operations are resource-intensive and require significant supply operations to provide law enforcement-specific equipment and expendable supplies. An organizational supply system is a key part of police operations. Military police can assist in the development of property management and logistics accountability systems, supply acquisition, and record-keeping requirements.

6-110.   Military police brigade or battalion logistics officers and staff and military police company supply personnel can provide and coordinate training for supply and logistics personnel. Supply and logistics personnel must be trained and proficient in a number of activities, to include—

- Requisitioning all classes of supplies (food, water, individual equipment, fuel, barrier materials, ammunition, sundry items, vehicles, medical items, repair and maintenance parts).
- Requisitioning automation equipment requirements.
- Preparing and submitting contract requirement packages for sustainment items (food, facilities, protection requirements) and providing assistance in managing contracted support through unit contracting officer representatives and receiving officials.
- Publishing supply and logistics policy letters and SOPs.
- Developing procedures and service agreements for maintaining fleet operations and equipment.
- Maintaining a maintenance program at the operator level for all issued equipment (weapons, communications equipment, vehicles).
- Executing a maintenance program at the regional and district levels (above the operator level).
- Maintaining infrastructure for stations, water, power, and sewage.
- Managing supply discipline and accountability.
- Distributing equipment and supplies to the user level.
- Conducting equipment inventories.
- Maintaining individual officer equipment records.
- Maintaining required station equipment levels.
- Maintaining stock levels of police forms.
- Managing equipment accountability.
- Cross-leveling equipment and supplies, as necessary.
- Maintaining ammunition accountability.

Automation and Communications

6-111.   Automation and communications specialists are required to procure and maintain critical automation and communications equipment, secure local area networks, and maintain connectivity with other databases and forums. HN police operations depend on the ability of personnel to maintain communications with law enforcement elements as they perform their duties. Military police can help establish communication protocols by creating call signs and radio procedures for daily communications, maintaining operations security, implementing information systems and security procedures, and maintaining communication security operations.

6-112.   Automation systems, to include crime and police record databases, are critical to managing police operations. The establishment of an automation system is an extremely important part of setting up a modern policing capability. Military police can assist HN police in developing a centralized data storage system that

is accessible to all police and security agencies. When designing and implementing these systems, military police personnel should—

- Ensure that a security program is incorporated into the system.
- Provide an information management system that will provide support, administrative functions, logistics, training, operation reporting, vehicle registration, police reporting, and penal information.
- Determine additional law enforcement reports needed (daily activity logs, other automated entries).
- Provide law enforcement access to automated police records from a centralized database.
- Conduct queries expeditiously and with the appropriate permission from a centralized database for real-time information and the quick compilation of crime statistics.
- Train by developing guidelines for maintaining readiness, benchmarks to gauge progress, and reasonable standards for police operations (from basic to advanced tactics and procedures).

6-113. Dispatchers and other communications personnel within the operations control center or desk dispatch respond to patrols with guidance from shift and desk supervisors. They also track and record police operations as they occur. They must be trained to professionally handle members of the public who enter the police station to report situations.

6-114. Training for automation and communications personnel can be conducted or coordinated by the military police brigade or battalion signal officer and staff. Military police law enforcement detachment desk teams can provide training for dispatch personnel. Automations and communications personnel require training to achieve and maintain proficiency in activities, which include—

- Performing dispatch procedures and administrative functions.
- Maintaining emergency response system connectivity.
- Managing a communications equipment maintenance program (including handheld, vehicle-mounted, and base station equipment and repeaters).
- Maintaining communications architecture and connectivity with outside agencies, other police stations, and headquarters elements.
- Ensuring the compatibility of communications systems.
- Preparing and submitting contract requirement packages for the requisition of communications equipment and services and providing assistance in managing contracted support through unit contracting officer representatives and receiving officials.
- Maintaining repair parts for communications equipment.
- Maintaining the operation of crime record and police intelligence data systems.
- Maintaining computer hardware and updating software as necessary.
- Maintaining automation connectivity with the World Wide Web.
- Maintaining repeaters.
- Providing emergency first aid.
- Coordinating evacuation missions for injured persons and aiding disabled motorists.
- Investigating criminal and traffic complaints and violations along the highways and major roadways.

Media

6-115. The development of strong media relationship between the press and police is a critical aspect of the information environment that can impact perceptions of law enforcement legitimacy and competence. The relationship between the media and law enforcement is an important component that can mitigate the sense of grievance and reduce the perception of violence, disorder, destabilizing events, and the fear of crime within a population. The media can also be an important accountability mechanism for police, helping to maintain the rule of law and support of the population by describing policing operations that prevent violence, disorder, destabilizing events, and reducing the fear of crime within a population. By providing communications about public and government activities, the media can encourage civic participation, give citizens a sense of empowerment, and undermine threat narratives.

6-116. Media coverage can also have an adverse impact on society. Criminals capitalize on disorder, fear, and instability. In densely populated urban terrain, ubiquitous international media may contribute to perceptions of disorder and fear when coverage overwhelmingly focuses on violence, disorder, and destabilizing events. Within a population, fear often increases the opportunities from which criminals can benefit. When populations fear for their security or property and believe the government is incapable or unwilling to protect them, they may turn to criminal organizations for protection in exchange for money, allegiance, or support. Given these conditions, criminals may exploit such opportunities to extort the population by contributing to and perpetuating the sense of fear, instability, and violence so that people continue to seek their protection. This cycle of violence and crime is most prevalent in areas lacking effective governance.

CIVIL DISTURBANCE CONTROL

6-117. Demonstrations, public disorder, and riots happen for a number of reasons. Some of these reasons are economic hardships, social injustices, ethnic differences (leading to oppression), objections to world organizations or certain governments, political grievances, terrorist acts, other man-made disasters, and natural disasters. Civil unrest is when a civil society or a segment of its population is in a disturbed or uneasy state or in turmoil. Civil unrest may range from simple, nonviolent protests that address specific issues, to events that turn into full-scale riots. Gathering in protest may be a recognized right of any person or group, regardless of where U.S. forces may be operating. In the United States, this fundamental right is protected under the *Constitution of the United States,* while other countries have various laws that protect the rights of their citizens' rights.

6-118. During a state of civil unrest, a civil disturbance can be triggered by a single cause or a combination of causes. Most protesters are law-abiding citizens who intend to keep their protests nonviolent, but some protest planners insist that the event involve violence. Violence can be the result of demonstrators beginning to conduct unlawful or criminal acts and authorities (who are responsible for the safety and welfare of all) enforcing the laws of the municipality, state, or nation. The level of violence is determined by the willingness of demonstrators to display and voice their opinions in support of their cause and the actions and reactions of the control force on scene. Military police play a significant role in restoring order when quelling civil disturbances by—

- Providing mobile patrols to enhance the security of high-priority targets (such as buildings, utilities, and services that are critical to the economic and physical well-being of the community).
- Providing support to civil authorities to monitor, disperse, contain, or limit crowd movement through the—
  - Application of appropriate use of force.
  - Apprehension of crowd members and leaders.
  - Canalization or diversion of the crowd.
  - Communication of interest and intent to the crowd.
  - Cooperation from the dissident leadership.
  - Observation points and patrols.
  - Proclamation of the illegal nature of the crowd actions.
  - Show of force.
  - Use of crowd control formations.

- Establishing area control to prevent arson and looting and to protect businesses and other targets. The military police force accomplishes this mission through saturation patrolling, including vehicle and foot patrols. With augmentation, military police units can perform air and water patrols. They can enforce populace control measures (such as ordinances to prevent gathering, permits to gather, restrictions on circulation, restrictions on interference with government and public functions and personnel, restrictions on possessing weapons, and other measures instituted by civil authorities).

- Neutralizing special threats (such as snipers and bombings) that are highly dangerous to government forces and the community. Military police Soldiers can take immediate protective actions, secure an area, isolate the threat and, when authorized, use SRTs (see ATP 3-39.33) to assist civilian authorities in apprehending or neutralizing the sniper. The military police force is trained to perform the necessary actions when an explosive device is discovered. Military police are to secure and evacuate the area, organize search teams, isolate the site, and immediately notify explosive-ordnance disposal personnel.

Note. In the United States, where the commitment of military forces to civil disturbances is considered a last resort and the military involvement is limited by law, nonfederalized National Guard military police units have long been employed by civil authorities for their unique capabilities. Military police forces can isolate and contain an area with barricades, roadblocks, and perimeter patrols. Military police units can assist civil affairs units by enforcing pass and identification systems and public utility controls.

SUPPORT TO CIVIL LAW ENFORCEMENT

6-119. Providing support for domestic civilian law enforcement applies to the restricted use of military assets to support civilian law enforcement personnel within the United States and its territories. These operations are significantly different from operations outside the United States. Army forces support domestic civilian law enforcement agencies under constitutional and statutory restrictions, as prescribed by corresponding directives and regulations. For additional information see DODI 3025.21.

6-120. Except as expressly authorized by the Constitution of the United States or by another act of Congress, the Posse Comitatus Act prohibits the use of active Army and Air Force as enforcement officials to execute state or federal law and perform direct law enforcement functions. Likewise, US Navy regulations prohibit the use of the Marine Corps and Navy for performing direct state and federal law enforcement functions. However, the Posse Comitatus Act does not apply to state National Guard forces in state active duty status and Title 32, USC status. Nor does the Posse Comitatus Act restrict the Coast Guard, even when under the operational control of the Navy, since the Coast Guard has inherent law enforcement powers under Title 14, USC.

6-121. Domestic law enforcement missions differ substantially from similar stability tasks associated with civil security and civil control. The rights of civilians take precedence during domestic law enforcement support except in extreme emergencies.

6-122. Law enforcement support falls into two broad categories: direct and indirect. Direct support involves enforcing the law and engaging in physical contact with offenders. Indirect support consists of aid to civilian law enforcement agencies but not enforcement of the law or direct contact with offenders. Federal laws, presidential directives, and DOD policy prohibit federal military forces from enforcing laws and providing security except on military installations. These laws, policies, and directives specify limited exceptions to the restrictions. When authorized by the Secretary of Defense, federal military forces may provide indirect support to civilian law enforcement agencies, but support is limited to logistic, transportation, and training assistance except in life threatening emergencies. State and territorial governors can use state National Guard forces for direct support of civilian law enforcement as a temporary expedient in accordance with state laws.

6-123.   Military police Soldiers provide support to civil law enforcement within established jurisdictional and legal parameters. This starts at home station and includes local community law enforcement. USACIDC personnel and installation PMs and their staffs are fully integrated with local law enforcement. They share information, enabling complementary and synchronized law enforcement efforts within their respective purviews. Military police support to civil law enforcement includes the following:

- Supporting counterdrug operations (see JP 3-07.4).
- Supporting antiterrorism efforts (see ATP 3-37.2).
- Conducting riot control (see ATP 3-39.33).
- Providing general support to law enforcement, as required (see ADP 3-28 and FM 3-39).

Chapter 7

Police Engagement

Police engagement is a cornerstone to successful long-term police operations. Successful police organizations interact with, and gain support from, most of the population they serve. This holds true for civilian and military forces. Military police and USACIDC elements conduct police engagement in all environments (supporting bases and base camps and contingency operations). Police engagement occurs (formally or informally) when military police and USACIDC personnel interact with area residents, installation partners, law enforcement partners (local, state, tribal, and federal), HN police and security forces, media personnel, social work services, and other organizations that allow military police to gain and share information about threat and criminal activity within an AO. Information obtained through police engagement must be collected, analyzed, and distributed in a timely fashion to be of maximum value to commanders, Soldiers, and the mission.

MILITARY POLICE OPERATIONS

7-1.   Army commanders are responsible for informing and influencing audiences inside and outside their organizations. They do so to achieve local effects while ensuring that their activities and plans support and complement their higher headquarters, available strategic communication guidance, and applicable U.S. policy. Commanders are supported by several activities, including public affairs operations, military information support operations, military deception, and Soldier and leader engagement.

7-2.   Police engagement is a type of Soldier and leader engagement specific to police operations. Police engagement is conducted by military police and USACIDC personnel to engage local, HN, and multinational police partners; police agencies; civil leaders; and local populations. Police engagement also passes and obtains critical information relevant to police operations to influence internal and external audiences and help determine policing strategies for an AO. Police engagement enables successful police operations and can influence broader military operations or affect an AO.

7-3.   The goal of police engagement is to develop routine and reliable networks and relationships through which police information and police intelligence can flow to military police and USACIDC personnel and into the operations process. Police engagement is conducted—

- Between law enforcement agencies.
- With nonlaw enforcement organizations.
- With the general population.

7-4.   Police engagement is an activity with two distinct purposes. It is used to inform the populace or other agencies and organizations of specific data points and themes in an effort to persuade the population; mitigate potential or occurring discontent or animosity; provide advanced notification of program, policy, or procedural changes to mitigate potential problems; or gain support and develop a sense of community involvement. Police engagement is also a means to interact with, and gain valuable information from, the population or other agencies and organizations. It is enhanced by regular contact and the subsequent development of trust.

7-5.   Based on the tactical situation and other requirements, police engagement can be formal or informal:

- **Formal.** Formal police engagement is generally conducted as part of a deliberate military police or USACIDC Soldier and leader engagement strategy or a crime prevention strategy to gain support or information or to convey a message. This activity requires preparation, coordination, and proper reporting after a police engagement activity. Through formal police engagement, military police and USACIDC personnel interact with and influence a wide range of personnel and organizations (HN or multinational police, civil leadership, other governmental agencies, nongovernmental agencies). In any situation, it is essential that exchanged information and data are accurate and consistent with the informational themes and operations they represent.
- **Informal.** Informal police engagement is more widespread and less directive in nature; however, it is no less important to the overall success of the mission. This level of engagement can occur many times during a single mission or shift. It is not constrained by location, prior coordination, or resources. Every time military police Soldiers and USACIDC SAs interact with personnel outside their organization, they conduct an informal police engagement. By building a rapport with the community, military police Soldiers establish avenues to obtain police information.

7-6.   During military police operations, military police conduct police engagement in support of bases, base camps, and contingency operations across the range of military operations. It is important for military police Soldiers to establish avenues to obtain police information and rapport with the HN community during deployments. It is equally important to establish open communications with populations around bases and base camps, to include civilian communities and local law enforcement organizations. Based on current geopolitical and ideological factors, operations within a foreign operational environment typically add layers of difficulty to police engagement due to language and cultural differences, possible animosity by HN police, and potential dislike for the United States.

7-7.   Commanders set priorities and goals and provide resource for police engagement activities. Individual military police Soldiers and teams interacting with the population conduct the bulk of police engagement. During engagements leaders and Soldiers maintain a deliberate focus and commit to identifying criminal actors, crime-conducive conditions. These and other criminal or policing factors could affect and area or threaten the short- or long-term success of an operation.

7-8.   Information and interaction resulting from police engagements should be reported to the staff through the chain of command at the conclusion of the mission. This can be done through verbal back briefs, written patrol reports, automated databases, or other reporting mediums. The information can then be evaluated for further dissemination, analysis, and action, as required. If valuable information is identified, an informal police engagement can quickly transition to a deliberate collection effort.

PLANNING AND COORDINATION

7-9.   Planning, information collection, analysis, and decision making are key elements of police engagement. The protection of law enforcement-sensitive information and dissemination of actionable information are central tenets that are maintained throughout police engagement operations. Effective police engagement relies on the balance between making information available and the ability to protect sensitive information. Sensitive or proprietary, if disclosed, may compromise ongoing law enforcement, intelligence, or military operations.

7-10.   Military police and USACIDC personnel employ multiple engagement considerations before and during police engagements. The preparation for collection efforts is subject to reviews and revisions as new situations emerge and additional knowledge is obtained. The ability to redirect the focus of police engagement and develop new avenues for information flow is a key strength, trained and honed by military police and USACIDC personnel during the conduct of law enforcement missions supporting operations on bases and base camps. This action provides the commander with a valuable trained asset for use during deployments.

7-11. Military police Soldiers are trained to incorporate the following:

- **Background.** As part of an initial mission analysis (whether the mission is preparing for routine patrol in support of police operations on a base or base camp or to conduct a series of province-wide cordon and search operations), military police and USACIDC personnel consider previous experiences (missions in the area or similar missions in other areas) the authority for the mission and the intent of the mission. Although these preparation operations normally involve predetermined objectives (crime prevention, traffic control, security reinforcement), military police and USACIDC personnel are flexible in their dealings with the populace, transitioning immediately from one mission set to another as situations develop.

- **People.** During meetings and discussions, military police identify and reference designated sources using a variety of means (names, positions, organizations, biometrics). The results of previous engagements and the agendas of individuals or groups in similar positions could prove beneficial to future operations.

- **Meeting preparation.** A primary source of information before a formal police engagement may include police information and intelligence, intelligence summaries, insights from Civil Affairs updates, and reviews of current command information themes and messages. Military police and USACIDC personnel conducting police engagement should also review the current collection plan for existing information and intelligence requirements. These sources may provide the latest information from political or cultural advisers. When dealing with HN or multinational officials, the protocol office and SJA can provide information regarding proper gift exchanges or similar situations.

- **Adjacent unit coordination.** Military police and USACIDC personnel frequently have boundaries that encompass two or more unit AO. When military police elements cross these boundaries, care must be taken to ensure that the owning unit is aware of their presence and mission. This coordination is important to address safety and security concerns; military police must ensure that the police engagement is nested with the maneuver commander's information plan and operations. Coordination in support of bases and base camps includes coordinating with civilian law enforcement in the event that military police or USACIDC personnel need to conduct operations outside the installation.

- **Interpreter support.** One key to successful operations is experience and rehearsal with assigned interpreters. Interpreter support will be required in most operations outside the United States and may be required in some DSCA. Care is required to ensure that interpreters translate verbiage as close to verbatim as the language and culture allow. Most interpreters are contracted HN or third world country nationals. There is generally a limited number of U.S. Soldiers and contracted U.S. citizens available who have the appropriate language skills required to serve as interpreters.

- **Uniform and equipment requirements.** Although basic uniform, protection, and equipment requirements are often in place (especially during operational deployments), it may be productive to review these requirements before police engagement missions. A risk assessment may indicate that lowering individual uniform requirements (body armor, protective gear) during meetings with HN police or civic and religious leaders will maintain adequate protection while allowing a better flow of information and connection between the parties present. At other times, recording devices may be used, overtly or covertly, to ensure that all conversations are accurately captured. Care is required to ensure that these operations comply with U.S. and HN laws.

- **Post engagement follow-up operations.** Timely summaries to stakeholders are critical to ensure that information collected is appropriately disseminated, proper analysis is conducted, information gaps are identified, and collection plans are updated for future engagements. Care must be taken to ensure that information dissemination restrictions are followed. When conducting police operations involving U.S. persons, military and other intelligence organizations must operate under significant constraints. Law enforcement agencies may make information law enforcement-sensitive, effectively restricting it to law enforcement personnel. Military police and USACIDC personnel must be familiar with legal and regulatory constraints on law enforcement information. See ATP 3-39.20.

Chapter 7

PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS

7-12. Formal and informal police engagement are critical to effective military police operations. They provide means to gain support within the community, develop positive relationships and a sense of trust with the population and other organizations (law enforcement and nonlaw enforcement), and relay important safety and protection information relevant to police operations. Information obtained through police engagements can be critical to effective police operations and, within a contingency environment, support Army operations by providing timely and relevant information to the operations process and integrating processes (intelligence preparation of the battlefield, targeting, and risk management).

7-13. When planning for police engagements, commanders, PMs, and staffs must ensure that relevant information and intelligence requirements are provided to military police and USACIDC Soldiers. These Soldiers must understand the requirements and the intent. This includes elements on deliberate collection missions and other missions. Many times, chance encounters with the public or other officials can provide police engagement opportunities, thus resulting in the spontaneous presentation of information relevant to intelligence requirements. These informal contacts can also result in the collection of information that can affect operations.

7-14. Many times, imparting information regarding police operations (law enforcement and policing initiatives, public safety information, public service communications) is necessary. The PM or military police commander may want to conduct a police engagement to educate and calm the public following a specific event or series of events; gain public support for specific investigations or general law enforcement initiatives; or provide advance notice of upcoming events, initiatives, or other potential changes to the AO that affect the community. PMs, military police commanders, and staffs must deliberately shape the message they want to portray to the population.

7-15. Specific talking points developed in advance of a police engagement can help military police and USACIDC personnel deliver a consistent message to the public. Talking points regarding policing topics and other military operations may be issued by a military higher headquarters or other Army law enforcement organization should be worked through the echelon PM. Civilian agencies, including law enforcement organizations working with the U.S. military, may also issue talking points. Military police and USACIDC elements ensure that information is coordinated and synchronized with higher and supporting elements so that there is no conflict in the message or compromise of protected information.

Individual Motivations

7-16. Military police should be aware of underlying motivations that may drive persons to interact with, and provide information to, military police and USACIDC Soldiers. While conducting police operations in support of bases and base camps, persons may be motivated to pass information to military police due to a sense of duty or justice. The military culture is based on values that encourage a sense of duty, honor, and doing what is right. This is beneficial when policing military communities. Others may come forward because they may be complicit in criminal activity and are cooperating in hopes of receiving leniency. Some may seek to obtain revenge against an individual that has done something (real or perceived) to slight, hurt, or anger them. These are just a few possible factors that may motivate members of a population to come forward with information.

7-17. Some of the same motivations discussed in the previous paragraph may be relevant within contingency operations overseas. However, HN personnel may have different motivating factors for interacting and cooperating with military police and USACIDC Soldiers specifically and with U.S. forces in general. When military police interact with the HN population, individual sources may be influenced by—

- **Feelings of support for overall U.S. goals.** This support may stem from a desire to help their country by assisting U.S. forces or a desire for justice, fear, desperation, or revenge. Individuals may provide false information to extract revenge or gain an advantage. Victims may see the United States as a liberating force and protector.
- **A hope for money or support.** Motivations of self-interest (such as a fear of criminal, terrorist, or insurgent elements) may cause victims to seek out U.S. or other multinational forces.
- **Self-serving interest.** Gaining influence, power, or prestige within their own government circles or among other police and civic leaders

7-18. In all environments and circumstances, military police (commanders, staffs, and police intelligence analysts) must be cognizant of the potential motivations behind individuals providing information and their track record of reliability in reporting information on the enemy or criminal threat. The corroboration of information is required, especially if it may lead to detention, the use of force, or other targeting.

Public Affairs and the Media

7-19. The command or installation public affairs office can be extremely important. They assist in scheduling and preparing for media interactions and will usually accompany military police and USACIDC leaders and Soldiers to interviews. Soldiers should understand that the media will publish articles about events when Soldiers are involved. Although the coverage may not always be complimentary, a leader's job is to ensure an accurate and fair presentation. Public affairs personnel monitor local media outlets for stories and citizen concerns. In overseas environments, public affairs personnel may employ HN citizens or other personnel with knowledge of the language and culture who cannot only translate articles, but can also explain the significance of terms, slang, and political displays.

7-20. The operational environment can change rapidly. Singular events may cause sudden or violent shifts in public sentiment. These events may occur within or outside the affected AO. Civilian media outlets can be key sources of information for identifying and assessing changes in public sentiment, the geopolitical climate, or ideological trends. Monitoring these venues can help commanders and staffs develop police engagement strategies. Individual Soldiers may become spokesmen or media symbols based on single events, photographs, or statements. This can occur during law enforcement activities that support bases, base camps, or contingency operations.

Cultural and Religious Considerations

7-21. In some instances, cultural and religious differences, convictions, and traditions will heavily influence how individuals within some cultures interact with military police or other Soldiers. Cross-cultural communication can require significant time to build relationships and trust. Soldiers may have to engage in conversations to build rapport before engaging in critical discussions and decision making. Many cultures see our desire to get straight to the point of business and will not build relationships. In some cultures, only the eldest male can speak for the group and women may not be allowed to speak to men outside their immediate family. These situations can be significant barriers to effective communication. Military police and USACIDC Soldiers must understand and shape their police engagement methods to overcome cultural and religious barriers. The use of female military police or USACIDC personnel may facilitate reaching female civilians in certain cultures. When available, military police planners will ensure a formal briefing on local cultural and religious considerations is conducted prior to engagements.

7-22. Chaplains, although not normally a part of specific military police operations or investigations, can often provide insight into the religious customs that may discourage an individual from cooperating with military police. Typically, there is no requirement for an in-depth understanding of all facets of a religion or culture, but simple rules of behavior and how to interact and ask questions may be extremely helpful.

COORDINATION ACTIVITIES

7-23. Coordination with other agencies, units, and organizations (other governmental agencies and nongovernmental organizations) operating in the area is critical to successful police engagement strategies. Deliberate police engagement strategies should be coordinated and synchronized with associated stakeholders, units, and organizations operating within the AO. In many formal venues, these stakeholders may participate with military police and USACIDC personnel. For example, town hall meetings scheduled to discuss problems within a community may include representation from other law enforcement agencies, local government officials, unit commanders, and community leaders. Coordination with other stakeholders and elements in the AO also ensures that supporting interests are not damaged by information disseminated by military police or USACIDC personnel. The public affairs office will typically work to ensure that talking points and strategic communication themes are published and synchronized. They can also assist in modifying or framing a specific message or talking point to mitigate conflict with other friendly efforts.

7-24. Training events with HN security forces can be used to instill esprit de corps, which often results in an increased capability, function, and desire to work with U.S. forces. Common equipment, uniforms, weapons, and tactics can contribute to a more consistent interaction between forces. Early in Operation Iraqi Freedom, planners decided to design Iraqi police uniforms with brassards. To match these uniforms closely with the U.S. military police Soldiers and for easy identification by U.S. Soldiers, Iraqi Police were provided with Iraqi Police brassards to signify their country. While considered a logistical function at face value, the action was also a deliberate police engagement strategy designed to build camaraderie and develop a sense of cooperation and teamwork between military police units and the supported HN personnel and Iraqi police.

7-25. Visitors to theater detention facilities provide opportunities for military police Soldiers to conduct police engagement operations at the individual level. Themes and agendas should be carefully vetted with the higher headquarters information operations officer and element to ensure that they are consistent with facility SOPs and command guidance. All visitors to theater detention facilities are considered potential voices to the local community reference the level of care and security provided by U.S. forces. Visitors are also potential sources of information for U.S. forces. Family members that visit theater detention facilities generally avoid contact with U.S. forces due to fear and social pressure. When possible, certain aspects of visits should be designed to lower those preconceptions and afford opportunities for information flow. See FM 3-63.

COLLABORATION AND FUSION

7-26. Effective collaboration and fusion are designed to communicate actionable information on threats, incidents, and information pertaining to the operational environment; to enhance situational understanding; and to maximize the ability to assess the level of risks and execute plans to mitigate emerging threats. Networks are developed to enhance the exchange and collaboration of police information. The effective implementation of a network is based on active participation by military, government, and private sector security partners in robust multidirectional information sharing. When organizations are provided with a comprehensive picture of threats or hazards in the operational environment and participate in ongoing multidirectional information flow, their ability to assess risks, make prudent security decisions, and take protective actions is substantially enhanced. Similarly, when military police and USACIDC personnel are equipped with an understanding of the information needs of other military and civilian organizations, they can adjust information collection, analysis, synthesis, and dissemination activities accordingly.

7-27. An information-sharing approach constitutes a shift from strictly hierarchical to a networked model, allowing distribution and access to information (vertically and horizontally) and the ability to enable decentralized decision making and actions. The objectives of the network approach are to—
- Enable secure multidirectional information sharing that focuses, streamlines, and reduces redundant reporting.
- Implement a common set of communications, coordination, and information-sharing capabilities.
- Provide a robust communications framework tailored to specific requirements.
- Provide a comprehensive common operational picture that includes timely and accurate information.
- Provide timely incident reporting and verification.
- Provide a means for the integration of state, local, tribal, and private sector security partners in the intelligence process, as appropriate.
- Protect the integrity and confidentiality of sensitive information.

7-28. Regardless of the operational environment, subtle influences will create variations in network membership. The availability of agencies within the local operational environment, the varied personalities of organizational leaders, and cultural or operational differences between agencies are factors that may influence membership participation and team dynamics.

7-29. Military police and USACIDC personnel may develop networks that support bases, base camps, or specific AO during contingency operations. Standardization provides a platform for tailoring staff, providing institutional training, and selecting the most appropriate resources (automation, other emerging technologies). The successful development of networks can increase cooperation between local agencies and

provide a mechanism for developing local, regional, national, or international networks to enable information sharing.

NETWORK PARTICIPANTS

7-30. A network should be tailored to meet the realities of the operational environment. The network is influenced by threat assessment, information and intelligence requirements, and the specific needs of participating agencies. A network will generally consist of agencies located within the immediate operational environment. Internet connectivity and functional networks have expanded the number of agencies that can participate in local networks. This is particularly important when specialized capabilities are required to fill capability gaps supporting operations within the AO. If particular agencies are not represented in the local environment (Federal Bureau of Investigation, Drug Enforcement Administration field offices, military intelligence, HN law enforcement), military police and USACIDC personnel can add them to their network by leveraging another law enforcement network or making direct contact with the agency using Internet services and functional networks.

7-31. A network will typically have a core of regular participants. Relationships beyond the core participants can fluctuate based on numerous factors (specific circumstances, operations, incidents). Relationships will continue to develop, and the number of core participants may increase as bonds are strengthened through joint ventures and as agencies expand their own operating networks. The missions and priorities of individual organizations will greatly affect personnel participation and the level of sharing.

7-32. A comprehensive communications system to support the network will ensure uninterrupted contact between elements, when necessary. Contact lists for agencies should be disseminated throughout the network and routinely checked to validate less frequent contacts and maintain personal working relationships. Agencies should have compatible communication systems for routine support. (See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on establishing networks.) There are significant restrictions regarding information sharing, especially regarding U.S. persons. The supporting SJA should be consulted to ensure that information sharing and fusion activities are within the legal parameters established by U.S. law and DOD policy.

FUSION CELLS

7-33. Fusion cells provide a structured mechanism through which government agencies, civil and military law enforcement, public safety, and private sector stakeholders can come together with a common purpose and framework to improve criminal activity prevention, security measures, and contingency planning.

7-34. A fusion cell is a collaborative effort in which participating agencies coordinate and synchronize their efforts to facilitate analytical collaboration. It can include law enforcement and intelligence agencies (depending on the environment and mission) that provide resources, information, and expertise to support the combined effort. The combined efforts of an effective fusion cell enhance the ability to detect, prevent, investigate, and respond to criminal and terrorist activity within a specific AO. The primary purpose of a fusion cell is the analysis of disparate or unrelated data sources. For example, a police agency that is a member of a police intelligence fusion cell may have information within its files that complements or completes information in another police, state, or government agency database referencing potential threats. See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on fusion cells.

MEETINGS, WORKING GROUPS, AND BOARDS

7-35. Commanders establish meetings, working groups, and boards to integrate staff, enhance planning and decision making, and ensure the synchronization of activities. They also designate staff elements to participate in meetings, working groups, and boards. (See FM 6-0 for additional information on meetings, working groups, and boards.) These forums are important venues for police engagement activities. The PM, military police, USACIDC commander, and staff should ensure that police engagement strategies and opportunities are maximized appropriately during these opportunities.

7-36. Meetings, working groups, and boards serve as forums for information exchange and integration, but are slightly different in their purpose and intent. These forums are described as—

- **Meetings.** A meeting is scheduled to present and exchange information. Depending on the meeting purpose, attendees may involve the commander, chief of staff, staff principals, subject matter experts, and subordinate echelon commanders and staffs.
- **Working groups.** A working group is a group of predetermined staff representatives who meet to provide analysis, coordinate information, and provide recommendations for a particular purpose or function.
- **Boards.** A board is a temporary group of selected staff representatives with delegated decision authority for a particular purpose or function.

7-37. The military police staff participates in numerous meetings, working groups, and boards to ensure the integration and synchronization of military police missions and requirements. Military police and USACIDC staffs participate to ensure that specific police-related information and other military police-related information and intelligence requirements are integrated, relevant, and fused into the operations process.

7-38. Typically, military police staff elements will participate in—

- **Meetings.**
  - Operations synchronization (led by the current operations cell).
  - Operations update and assessment (led by the current operations cell).
  - Movement synchronization (led by the sustainment cell).
- **Working groups.**
  - Antiterrorism.
  - Threat.
  - Operations and intelligence.
  - Plans or future operations.
  - Assessment.
  - Targeting.
  - Information operations.
  - Civil affairs operations.
  - Personnel recovery.

Chapter 8

Traffic Management and Enforcement

Traffic management and enforcement are integral parts of police operations. Maintenance and the orderly movement of personnel, equipment, supplies, and other resources are critical to military operations and a functioning civilian infrastructure. Traffic management and enforcement are important parts of the overall effort to establish and maintain traffic control to protect personnel and resources. Effective traffic control and traffic management require elements from many disciplines (military police, engineer, transportation, safety). Each element provides specific technical capabilities to develop and implement traffic management plans that enable the freedom of movement for military commanders and the communities in the AO. This chapter focuses primarily on traffic management and enforcement associated with the police operations discipline; however, a framework is provided which illustrates the relationship between police operations-related traffic management and enforcement and the related policing tasks conducted within the security and mobility support discipline.

SUPPORT

8-1.   Military police conduct traffic management and enforcement support across the range of military operations. Traffic management and enforcement are critical to maintain freedom of movement for military and civilian traffic on bases and base camps, within AO, and within HNs in support of civil control efforts to maintain freedom of movement for military personnel and resources supporting the maneuver commander during combat operations. Military police conduct traffic management and enforcement as parts of an overarching and multifunctional traffic management effort. Traffic management is the direction, control, supervision, and execution of all activities required to enable freedom of movement for persons, vehicles, and resources. Traffic management holistically involves transportation, military police, engineer, and other technical capabilities.

8-2.   Traffic management and enforcement by military police are manifest within three mission sets. Military police—
- Conduct traffic control.
- Conduct traffic enforcement.
- Investigate traffic collisions.

8-3.   During police operations, these operations are conducted within stable environments. They are characterized by support to general order and law enforcement efforts to maintain order and the rule of law. Traffic management and enforcement within this context can also be critical during a transitional period; a nation may experience instability due to certain situations (major conflicts, natural or man-made disasters). Military police units may be required to assist the HN in establishing civil control and supporting governance under the rule of law.

8-4.   Traffic management and enforcement also manifest in policing activities typically associated with the military police discipline of security and mobility support. These activities are not tied to a law enforcement effort and the rule of law, but focus on enabling orderly movement and preventing disruptions to lines of communications critical to military operations. It is important to understand that during transitional periods associated with contingency operations, there may be no clear delineation between law enforcement-related traffic management and enforcement and security and mobility support.

Note. Within the United States or its territories, any traffic operations or another law enforcement operation conducted off a military installation must be conducted within the constraints of the Posse Comitatus Act and other U.S. law, state laws, and DOD policy. The local SJA should be consulted before any activities are conducted off an installation to ensure that operations are conducted within these legal restrictions.

POLICE OPERATIONS

8-5.   Traffic management and enforcement conducted in support of police operations are law enforcement or policing tasks that directly support the maintenance of good order and discipline as part of a broader police mission set conducted by military police. Law enforcement tasks related to traffic management and enforcement include those associated with traffic enforcement and collisions. Additional traffic control tasks are conducted as a means to enable freedom of movement and maximize traffic flow through the—

- Employment of police engagement and public awareness activities.
- Use of traffic control posts (TCPs), when required, during peak traffic times, special events, collisions, disasters, or other incidents.
- Analysis and assessment of traffic conditions to develop recommendations and solutions to traffic problems.

8-6.   TMCIs receive specific training to conduct traffic management and enforcement. They possess specific capabilities in traffic collision investigations and enforcement of traffic-related laws, including suppression of driving under the influence violations. TMCIs provide expertise and assist the PM and military police staff in developing traffic control and enforcement plans. These plans combine all elements of traffic management and enforcement (enforcement, investigation, and control) into a holistic traffic plan.

8-7.   In some environments and circumstances, extensive analysis may be required to address systemic traffic problems. These problems can be the result of—

- An increase in traffic volume.
- Construction causing serious restrictions in road capacity, thus impeding the flow of traffic.
- Natural or man-made disasters or conditions that damage or restrict trafficability (including combat operations, industrial accidents, or weather and geologic incidents).
- Traffic control device and measure loss. This causes chaotic and dangerous conditions for persons and vehicles.
- Special events (ceremonies, festivals, sporting events).

8-8.   TMCIs are trained to conduct baseline traffic studies required for gathering traffic-related data to conduct analysis and assessment on traffic flow. Traffic studies and subsequent analyses and assessments are critical components to establishing successful traffic control measures. These technical capabilities are enhanced when combined with multifunctional teams (engineer, transportation, other key capabilities). These multifunctional teams may be required to conduct large-scale traffic assessments, address problems that may require road or highway construction, or assist with implementing major changes to traffic control device implementation and placement.

SECURITY AND MOBILITY SUPPORT

8-9.   Security and mobility support is a military police discipline conducted to protect the force and noncombatants and preserve the commander's freedom of action. Military police units expedite the secure movement of theater resources to ensure that commanders receive the forces, supplies, and equipment needed to support the operational plan and changing tactical situations. Security and mobility support include many traffic-related tasks required for effective traffic control. These tasks include—

- Developing traffic regulation and enforcement plans.
- Conducting enforcement of main and alternate supply route regulations.
- Providing straggler movement control.

- Controlling movement of displaced civilians.
- Conducting populace and resource control.

8-10. The same skills and capabilities required for traffic management and enforcement during law enforcement missions are equally relevant to security and mobility support and efforts to maintain freedom of action for U.S. forces. These skills and capabilities make military police Soldiers the optimum choice for traffic control tasks, regardless of the environment. Military police—

- Integrate movement control and highway regulation plans into military police traffic control plans.
- Provide traffic control on main supply routes and enforce highway regulation plans.
- Reroute and divert traffic as required by the tactical situation or directed by movement control personnel.
- Provide traffic and route reports on the status of main supply routes to movement control centers.

8-11. Military police conduct security and mobility support to expedite military traffic flow by operating TCPs at critical locations. They control traffic flow through the employment of holding areas and defiles to control movement through restricted terrain. Military police apply traffic control measures to enable freedom of movement by emplacing and monitoring route signs on main supply routes and alternate supply routes and patrolling those routes to ensure compliance with traffic regulation directives. They may conduct security and mobility support as a functional element or as part of a combined arms effort. Military police routinely work with engineer route clearance teams, EOD teams, sustainment (logistics and movement control) elements, and aviation support to open and maintain the security and viability of lines of communications to ensure that commanders can deploy and employ forces during critical times and at critical places in the operation. Security and mobility support are discussed in detail in FM 3-39.

PLANNING

8-12. Traffic management and enforcement are planned within the context of broader police operations. Traffic management and enforcement are critical elements to any policing plan; they enable freedom of movement and facilitate rapid and efficient response times. This enables military police and other traffic control elements to initiate appropriate actions to mitigate disruptions. The goal of effective traffic management and enforcement is to enable the use of existing and future road networks (with applicable traffic control measures) to enable the unencumbered movement of personnel and resources in the most efficient manner possible. Traffic control includes all active and passive measures used to mitigate traffic congestion, and it enables the safe movement of vehicular and pedestrian traffic. Traffic enforcement activities are employed to compel compliance with traffic control measures when voluntary compliance fails.

8-13. There are many considerations that PMs, military police commanders, and staffs must address when planning traffic management and enforcement. Traffic management and enforcement at bases and base camps are characteristically stable; traffic patterns and traffic management are typically well established. Consistent with law enforcement planning in general, the planning and execution of traffic management and enforcement within these AO involves incremental changes to address specific incidents, emerging traffic problems, or changes that affect traffic flow. This may also be the case in some expeditionary environments, depending on specific mission sets and environmental factors. However, many expeditionary AO require extensive traffic planning to overcome the lack of planning and significant degradation of the AO and associated infrastructure due to natural or man-made factors (combat operations, natural disasters, lack of capability within HN police and security forces).

8-14. Whether planning incremental changes to existing operations or significant and comprehensive changes to traffic management and enforcement, PMs, military police commanders, and staffs consider a myriad of factors. Failure to consider these factors can have a detrimental effect on traffic flow and the ability of military and civilian populations to move personnel and resources through the AO. Many considerations have likely been addressed on mature bases and base camps. However, it is important to understand the importance of these elements so that future recommendations for incremental traffic control adjustments (to address existing issues, emerging problems, or major construction) can be made with an understanding of the existing traffic control configurations.

FUNCTIONAL AREA IDENTIFICATION

8-15. The areas of functional specialization or purpose should be identified. On bases and base camps, these areas can include—

- Headquarters locations.
- Training areas.
- Residential neighborhoods.
- Barracks locations.
- Motor pool concentrations.
- Warehouse elements.
- School zones.

8-16. Within HN areas near military bases or base camps, areas of functional concentration can include—

- Government centers.
- Industrial elements.
- Airports and seaports.
- Residential neighborhoods.
- Commercial districts.

8-17. When establishing traffic routes and patterns, main thoroughfares should be routed around the periphery of these functional areas. Through traffic should be concentrated on a minimum number of well-defined, easily controlled routes. This action allows traffic to proceed without the delay caused by vehicles entering or exiting a facility.

TRAFFIC CONTROL MEASURES

8-18. The military police staff should identify and establish (when required) a primary traffic control plan to address high-volume conditions and to mitigate or prevent excessive traffic on side and residential streets. The traffic control plan should establish major routes to bear most of the traffic load. Primary routes should pass around the periphery of functional areas to preserve area integrity. Interconnecting routes (arterial routes and collector streets) should also skirt the boundaries of major areas. Every effort should be made to discourage the unnecessary use of roads in residential areas, troop housing areas, or other areas where significant pedestrian traffic and congestion due to high-population densities make excessive vehicle traffic hazardous; through traffic should be discouraged in these areas.

8-19. One-way roads may be implemented to improve traffic flow and safety. When throughput capacity is a problem, narrow roads can carry a greater volume when designated for one-way traffic. One-way traffic can help reduce congestion at intersections and decrease traffic collisions, especially where a high traffic collision rate is caused by vehicles that are turning across the flow of traffic. Temporary, one-way roads may reduce congestion and increase traffic flow (for example, during morning and evening rush hours). Reversing the flow can mitigate traffic congestion and delays (for example, one way in during morning hours and one way out during afternoon hours). Eliminating or restricting curb parking can increase safety and traffic flow on the road and eliminate the need to convert two-way roads to one-way roads.

8-20. Speed zones should be determined in relation to the roadway and its relative separation from the areas the road passes through. Elevated or otherwise separated highways designed for through travel can be posted for higher maximum speeds. Minimum speeds should also be considered for these roadways to prevent unnecessary traffic backups and unsafe conditions. Lower speeds are required for side and residential streets.

8-21. The established speed limit should safely handle traffic, allowing for a sufficient stopping distance between likely hazards. Reasonable speed limits encourage driver compliance. Historically, a speed in the 85th percentile (as surveyed in a particular road or condition) has been used as the rule of thumb for establishing maximum speed limits. Although, recent studies have shown that actual posted speed limits tend to be a few percentage points lower than 85 percent. By establishing a speed consistent with what the majority of the population would choose to drive with no outside interference (the 85th percentile), the speed limit will be enforceable and more likely to achieve compliance. Unnecessarily restrictive speeds may be ignored by drivers, requiring greater and unnecessary enforcement efforts.

VEHICLE AND PEDESTRIAN VOLUME AND ROAD CAPACITY

8-22. The volume or throughput of vehicles and pedestrians within an AO is an important data element for traffic management. The identification of high-volume routes and, conversely, low-volume routes can be helpful when determining routing options. Traffic studies may be required to obtain accurate data, especially if historic data is not available. Special attention should be given to cyclic and predictable peaks in traffic flow (morning and evening commutes, shift changes within major industrial areas, civic or sporting events).

8-23. All roadways have maximum traffic capacities based on their construction (reinforced concrete, asphalt, gravel, dirt), which determines vehicle weight, width, and length restrictions. The thickness, quality of the materials used, slope, grade, and other factors are critical in these determinations. The physical size of the roadway (width and number of lanes) and characteristics (the number of feeder roads, cross streets, intersections, roundabouts) can also affect the capacity of the roadway. These characteristics can be determined by military police conducting hasty route reconnaissance or traffic studies. While military police are capable of conducting basic route reconnaissance, deliberate route reconnaissance and highly technical traffic studies require engineer support. Engineers can provide the technical knowledge and capabilities to assess and classify roads and determine maximum capacities. Engineer technical expertise is also required when construction or reconstruction of roads and highway networks is needed. See ATP 3-34.81 for information on route reconnaissance and route classification.

TRAFFIC COLLISION AND INCIDENT HISTORY

8-24. Traffic collision and incident history is an important part of any traffic analysis and planning effort. The identification of traffic collision history and traffic-related incidents (driving under the influence, road rage, speeding) can enable the staff to determine trends, patterns, and associations that can be useful in pinpointing problem areas. This information can lead to further investigations to determine causal relationships that require mitigating efforts. Traffic collisions should be organized by type, severity, time, date, and other relevant criteria to aid analysts in identifying relevant trends, patterns, and associations.

8-25. Collision data for bases and base camps can be queried from ALERTS. The data can then be organized by criteria and the results manipulated to an appropriate format (written report, briefing, GIS map, or a combination of the three) to meet the purpose and intent of the assessment. In contingency environments, there may be no database available for query. The AO may have been disrupted to a point that records were destroyed; record keeping ceased, thus causing breaks in the historical record; or records relating to traffic collisions or other incidents were not kept by the HN.

8-26. When HN records are available, coordination with HN police personnel may produce the desired collision information. Many times, especially following a major disruption due to combat operations or natural or man-made disasters, traffic patterns and population movement are altered to a point that historical data may not provide a relevant picture of current problem areas. This can be especially true when a large U.S. and multinational presence (military and civilian) has drastically increased the thoroughfare on HN roads. In these cases, military police and other staff elements may be required to begin tracking collisions from a given point in time. Trends, patterns, and associations will begin to emerge as time passes and the data builds.

SPECIAL EVENTS

8-27. Special events often generate heavy traffic volume (pedestrian and vehicular). These events range from large concerts and sporting events to major holiday celebrations and political events. Regardless of the specific event, these activities can create major disruptions to routine traffic flow and typically require significant planning, preparation, resources, and manpower to mitigate disruptions and control traffic ingress and egress event parking. Traffic control planning for special events is typically conducted as part of a holistic special event plan that includes other law enforcement activities, coordination of additional joint all-hazard emergency response requirements (medical, fire, EOD, SRT), engineering assets, public affairs assets, and associate government or private sector sponsors and coordinators to ensure life, safety, and security of staff, participants, and spectators.

8-28. Traffic control considerations include—

- Ingress and egress routes.
  - Direct routes to and from the immediate event area.
  - Ingress routes that terminate at designated and identified event parking areas.
  - Routes that do not allow event traffic to spill over into residential and other nonevent areas.
  - Detour routes that allow normal traffic (not event-related) to avoid the event area.
- Emergency vehicle access. Personnel should designate, mark, and protect routes for emergency vehicles and ensure that emergency vehicle operators are briefed on these routes.
- Barriers, traffic cones, temporary signing, and other associate traffic control equipment.
- Public awareness.
  - Specific routes and parking plans publicized through media outlets, flyers, and other venues before the event.
  - Directional and guide sign use.
- Event operations centers for law enforcement and other emergency response personnel.
- Traffic control personnel requirements.
  - Critical intersections and choke points which require that manned TCP requirements be identified.
  - Personnel requirements identified, to include enough personnel for breaks or rotations.
  - TCPs in place before the event start and end times. Failure to place TCPs early may result in traffic control personnel being unable to get through traffic and reach their assigned location.
  - TCP personnel able to answer questions from the public regarding directions, parking, and other general event information.
- Communications.
  - Dedicated event radio frequency for event support personnel (apart from the standard law enforcement net) to avoid interference with normal (nonevent) police operations.
  - Additional batteries and charging capacity.
  - Dedicated call signs.
- Logistics.
  - Water points or delivery plans for event support personnel.
  - Meal delivery or rotation plans.
  - Latrine requirements.

CRITICAL INCIDENT RESPONSE AND INCREASED THREAT CONDITIONS

8-29. PMs, military police commanders, and staffs must ensure that traffic planning and traffic control requirements are included in local crisis incident response planning. Crisis incidents, regardless of their nature, will significantly impact normal traffic patterns. Planners must consider the potential impacts and the actions and resources that are required to mitigate those effects.

8-30. Some incidents are relatively localized. Traffic control considerations in these cases may be relatively easy to employ and may be within the capabilities of the force that is on duty at the time of the incident. However, other incidents may impact a larger area, creating significant traffic control challenges. These incidents are inherently chaotic and involve many elements, each with their own personnel, equipment, and other requirements. These assets must be able to move into the incident area. They must be resupplied and sustained. Civilians and military personnel not directly involved with the incident and relief effort must be evacuated, housed, and sustained. All of these moving pieces disrupt the normal flow of traffic; traffic control efforts must be emplaced to enable appropriate movements to occur.

8-31. Typically, military police staffs will be involved with establishing critical-incident response plans for bases or base camps within contingency environments. These plans will typically address a wide variety of incidents deemed most likely to be faced by elements within the affected AO. These critical-incident response plans are based on the environmental conditions specific to the AO, threats within the area, and potential

man-made disasters due to industrial or other facilities within the AO or area of interest. A critical event may result in shutting down all access points to the base or base camp stopping all vehicle and pedestrian traffic from entering or exiting. For each individual incident response plan, military police planners responsible for law enforcement and traffic control planning must assess the likely impact area for each specific incident and develop traffic control recommendations accordingly. These recommendations must be coordinated and synchronized with all other elements of the crisis response plan. Military police planners must understand the requirements of other response and relief elements to be prepared to support those requirements.

8-32. Increases in the force protection condition can also significantly impact traffic flow and traffic control requirements. Military police staff must be heavily involved with the antiterrorism personnel responsible for developing antiterrorism plans for bases and base camps to ensure that they understand the increased requirements inherent with an elevated force protection condition and plan accordingly. Increased force protection condition requirements can impact traffic control planning and execution in areas that have—

- Manpower and equipment requirements increased due to—
  - Checkpoint operations.
  - Random antiterrorism measure requirements.
  - Law enforcement patrol requirements.
  - Parking constraints.
- Movement or the addition of traffic control devices (barriers, lighting).
- Route changes.
  - Ingress and egress routes.
  - Road closures (due to increased standoff requirements).
- Traffic implications emanating from parking constraints (due to increased standoff requirements).

TRAFFIC CONTROL

8-33. Traffic control includes the actions and measures employed to facilitate the movement of personnel and resources and to mitigate disruption to the flow of traffic. These traffic control activities and measures range from those requiring extensive manpower expenditures to those requiring considerable initial-cost equipment and automated technologies expenditures (thus requiring relatively low maintenance and having little to no manpower requirements).

8-34. Traffic control activities are an integral part of military police traffic management. Traffic control measures and activities can include—

- TCPs.
- Traffic control devices.
- Police engagement and public education campaigns.
- Traffic studies and assessments.

TRAFFIC CONTROL POSTS

8-35. A *traffic control post* is a manned post that is used to preclude the interruption of traffic flow or movement along a designated route (FM 3-39). A TCP is used to support police operations or security and mobility support operations when required to facilitate movement. TCPs are established to provide traffic control on a specific point of terrain where freedom of movement is degraded. The primary purpose of TCPs is to ensure the orderly traffic movement according to the traffic control plan, prevent unnecessary delay, and meet command safety requirements.

8-36. TCPs are employed in all environments, from bases and base camps to contingency operations. They can be deliberate traffic control measures conducted based on traffic control plans, traffic assessments, or specific contingency plans. TCPs can also be conducted as hasty traffic control measures in response to traffic

collisions, threat incidents, or other unforeseen circumstances that impact traffic flow. For example, TCPs may be employed—

- When a road network is inadequate to accommodate traffic.
- To ensure that designated traffic or convoys receive priority and uninterrupted movement.
- When serious delays or congestion occur or are anticipated due to a temporary condition.
- To facilitate detours around—
  - Traffic collision sites.
  - Threat incident sites.
  - Temporary roadway degradations (downed bridges, damaged roadways, flooded streets).
- To support special control and security requirements for designated persons.
- To facilitate traffic control supporting special events.
- In response to reported interruptions of traffic.

8-37. The configuration and exact positioning of a TCP depends on several factors. The safety of military police Soldiers conducting traffic control operations is the foremost concern. It is critical to ensure that traffic control personnel are able to see all approaching vehicles and threats and that the drivers are able to see traffic control personnel. The following factors affect military police positioning:

- Degree of control required.
- Amount of time available to plan and prepare for execution.
- Design and characteristics of the intersection or roadway.
- Traffic volume and types.
- Light and weather conditions.
- Threat conditions.

TRAFFIC CONTROL DEVICES

8-38. Traffic control devices are used to facilitate traffic movement by providing information, direction, and instructions to vehicle operators and pedestrians. They are used as an economy of force measure that reduces the requirements for military police or other personnel to physically conduct traffic control functions, facilitate the safety of personnel and equipment, and transmit information to vehicle operators and pedestrians. Traffic control devices include—

- Signs. These can include permanent, temporary, or automated message boards or other information delivery means.
- Traffic signals.
- Pavement markings.
- Railroad crossing control signals and mechanisms.
- Drop gates.
- Barriers used to change traffic direction, stop traffic, or segregate traffic elements.
- Speed reduction devices (speed humps, serpentines).
- Road reflectors.
- Roadway grooving.
- Traffic cones and portable bollards.

8-39. Permanent and semipermanent traffic control devices are generally emplaced by engineer personnel, and their placement is based on extensive traffic control studies and accepted design standards. This placement typically achieves the desired effect within the capacity of the roadway in relation to traffic volume. However, in some instances, the placement and number of devices may not be adequate. Military police can provide recommendations, based on traffic studies and subsequent analyses, for additional traffic control devices or the modification of timing, phasing, or positioning of individual devices.

8-40. Temporary traffic control devices are used extensively by military police conducting traffic activities. These devices function similarly to their more permanent counterparts, but they are easily transported,

emplaced, and moved, thus facilitating traffic control operations. Temporary traffic control devices are used for—

- Traffic collisions sites.
- Temporary revisions to traffic flow (detours, channelization, redirection).
- TCPs.
- Entry control points.
- Checkpoint operations.
- Parking control.
- Public information.
- Hazard identification.
- Restricted or exclusion area marking.

POLICE ENGAGEMENT AND PUBLIC INFORMATION EFFORTS

8-41. Effective traffic control requires communication with all persons affected by traffic control measures. This is particularly important when there are significant or long-term changes to normal traffic patterns, laws, and policies. Police engagement and public information campaigns can reduce frustration and increase community cooperation. The methods used to provide for public information and police engagement strategies depend largely on the amount of time between the knowledge of a change or disruption and the actual traffic event.

8-42. Changes to traffic flow and routes may be planned with significant lead time. Construction projects, planned special events, or deliberate changes to traffic control devices and measures are examples where extensive police engagement and public information campaigns are typically conducted. In these cases, military police can inform the public of planned disruptions during normal contact operations, including at routine law enforcement patrols, community meetings, and interagency forums. Military police also coordinate with public affairs to develop and distribute community service announcements well in advance of the specific event. Key to these efforts is community awareness and expectation management. If the community knows well in advance of a special event or change to traffic flow, they can prepare and compensate for associated delays or the increased distances associated with alternate routes. The public, to include businesses and other employers, are encouraged to make adjustments to their normal operations and routines to reduce traffic impact. These methods may include—

- Carpooling.
- Driving alternate routes.
- Using public transportation.
- Adjusting or staggering work hours.
- Telecommuting.
- Teleconferencing.

8-43. Many times, incidents occur unexpectedly with little or no warning. In these instances, the timelines for developing police engagement strategies and public information campaigns are significantly compressed. In these instances, police engagement opportunities may be limited to immediate notifications and contact with the community while concurrently conducting hasty traffic control measures. In short- or no-notice situations, the public affairs office has the capability to rapidly get information to the community through a variety of methods.

TRAFFIC CONTROL STUDIES AND ASSESSMENTS

8-44. Traffic control studies are designed to obtain information on various traffic problems and usage patterns in an AO. They can be complex, man power intensive, and require multifunctional teams that include engineer, law enforcement, safety, transportation, and other specialties. The PM or military police commander uses traffic control studies to identify current conditions and problem areas. These studies can also be critical to identifying future requirements and strategies concerning traffic control and associated traffic enforcement efforts. The results of traffic control studies are used by the PM, military police

commanders, safety office, department of public works, and staffs (including police intelligence analysts) to conduct analysis and assessment of the AO specific to traffic-related concerns and incidents.

8-45. GIS software can greatly enhance the analysis, assessment, and subsequent production of police information and associated police intelligence specific to traffic flow and associated impacts. This information and police intelligence are critical to military police planning and significantly enhance situational understanding when integrated into the planning and decision cycles of other functional, multifunctional, and maneuver commanders through the Army operations process. See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on police intelligence production, dissemination, and integration into the operations process.

8-46. A traffic study is an investigation that provides a thorough assessment of the current operating conditions and physical characteristics of an AO regarding traffic movement and pedestrians. The information obtained through a traffic study can be analyzed to produce assessments of current and potential future traffic-related problem areas. This enables PMs, commanders, and staffs to develop solutions and remedial measures to mitigate identified problem areas. Mitigation solutions can include—

- Traffic movement control devices.
  - Emplacing or upgrading signs.
  - Emplacing or upgrading traffic signals.
  - Emplacing or upgrading road markings.
- Traffic control measures.
  - Adjusting traffic flow directions (one-way streets, alternate flow changes based on peak hours, traffic directions).
  - Widening or constricting specific traffic flow areas.
  - Emplacing traffic control personnel at critical intersections and choke points.
  - Access control operations hours.
- Traffic enforcement measures.
  - Setting up speed zones.
  - Increasing law enforcement presence.
- Public information and police engagement activities for—
  - Educating the public.
  - Notifying the public of changes affecting installation policies.
  - Encouraging other mitigation measures (car pools, public transportation, alternate work schedules).
- Increased visibility, safety, and driver confidence.
  - Lighting critical areas.
  - Applying or replacing reflective material on signs, barriers, and roadways.
  - Emplacing safety barriers and guardrails.
- Major construction.
  - Performing new road construction.
  - Widening roadways.
  - Repairing damaged roadways.

Note. Although PMs, military police commanders, and staffs may identify traffic control device requirements, military police do not emplace, change, or remove permanent or semipermanent traffic control devices. These efforts must be coordinated with engineers, safety and transportation personnel, and other stakeholders. Within bases, base camps, or in urban areas in a contingency environment, appropriate commanders, staffs, and HN agency personnel (as appropriate) are the decision-makers for permanent or semipermanent traffic control device emplacement or removal.

8-47. Military police have the capability to conduct basic traffic studies. Complex studies and analysis require a multifunctional team that includes engineers, safety and transportation personnel, and other specialties, based on the AO and conditions. Traffic control studies are used to ensure that the traffic control plan is adequate and provides for safe and efficient traffic movement. Continuing traffic control studies improve the flow of information for planning and action between military police, engineers, and safety and transportation personnel.

8-48. Traffic studies are required when changes occur in traffic conditions. These changes could be major issues (such as the disruption of primary ingress or egress routes) or relatively minor issues (such as the addition of a new secondary road or a new building with increased parking problems). Traffic studies may be required in contingency operations to assess traffic patterns and make recommendations to commanders about improving traffic flow, routing military or civilian traffic, and employing traffic control measures. These studies may require the formation of a traffic study team of military police, engineers, safety and transportation personnel, or other specialties (as required). The type of change will determine the nature and depth of each study. Studies may be required in day and night environments to obtain relevant results.

8-49. The traffic study team should be familiar with the traffic control devices in place. The manuals for specific traffic control devices may be required to ensure that the team understands the standardized criteria and operational capabilities for the automated devices. The team must have the administrative equipment required for their study, including—

- Timing devices (stopwatches, radar).
- Measuring equipment (tape measures, laser range finders, study equipment).
- Flashlights, reflective vests, or other safety equipment.
- Sufficient administrative supplies (pencils, pens, paper, drawing templates, standardized data collection forms).

8-50. Some studies may be focused on a single intersection or area; others may be conducted across an entire AO. The intent and breadth of a specific study will determine the study personnel and resources needed and the requirements for capabilities beyond military police operations (engineers, safety and transportation personnel, other specialties). Typically, TMCIs are best suited to participate in military police traffic studies. If TMCIs are unavailable or not available in sufficient quantities, experienced military police Soldiers are capable of conducting traffic studies.

8-51. A traffic study team should be composed of at least two study personnel per location. More personnel may be required based on the characteristics of the site and the threat conditions in the area. For large-scale studies, especially within a contingency environment, command and control are critical. Studies are best conducted as a mission assigned to a single headquarters to ensure that an adequate span of control, communications, protection, and other support considerations are coordinated and synchronized.

8-52. Additional planning operations should be considered when selecting and implementing traffic study teams. These operations include ensuring that—

- Specific guidance and intent are provided to the team members. This is critical to ensure that the collected data is valid.
- Study teams have redundant communications to notify their chain of command of problems or emergencies.
- Uniformed Army law enforcement personnel do not cause invalid study results (depending on the specifics of the study). Study teams may need to be dressed in civilian clothes or, at a minimum, be absent of uniform items or equipment that clearly indicate a law enforcement presence.
- Deliberate traffic enforcement measures in the areas of the studies are curtailed for a few weeks before and during the study. Recent law enforcement presence at the study sites can cause invalid results.
- Adequate quantity and quality data is collected. Typically, the more samples or incidents recorded, the more reliable the results will prove. For example, a study at each stop sign should span 1 hour or more and include at least 50 vehicles for each approach to the intersection. For studies on sites with high accident frequencies, personnel should study other locations with similar characteristics for comparison purposes. The greater the number of comparable sites studied, the greater the probability of obtaining relevant data and accurate assessments.

Maps and Diagrams

8-53. It is important that personnel have a detailed map or diagram of the AO to study its current condition. The map should include existing traffic control devices (signs, signals, markings, speed zones). If current traffic control devices are known and mapped, this information must be available to the traffic study team. GIS products may need to be created to provide quality map information.

8-54. Many times, especially within deployed environments, detailed knowledge of an AO is limited or nonexistent. It is likely that traffic studies may be required to cover an entire city or AO. Data must be collected and documented so that valid analyses and realistic assessments of existing traffic control measures and requirements can be conducted.

8-55. Known problem areas should be marked, including—
- Choke points.
- Key problem areas or intersections (areas of significant congestion, delay, or accidents).
- Route designations. See ATP 4-16.
  - Open.
  - Supervised.
  - Dispatched.
  - Reserved.
  - Prohibited.
- Identified danger areas or zones.
- Restricted or exclusion areas.

Photographs and Geographic Information System Tools

8-56. Photographs of key locations or problem areas can be helpful in the analysis and assessment of traffic study data. The personnel participating in the analysis and assessment may not be able to personally see the sites. This can be due to transportation or scheduling limitations. The number of personnel physically on the study team may also be limited due to increased threat, especially in a contingency environment. Aerial or satellite photographs of the AO can be extremely helpful to the traffic study team.

8-57. GIS tools can be helpful in producing incident maps with overlay data. GIS software can enhance traffic analysis through layered graphics; blended geographic data; and descriptive information to map places, events, and incidents to identify patterns and associations relevant to traffic management. See ATP 3-34.80 and ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on GIS.

TRAFFIC STUDY METHODS

8-58. There are several methods that can be used to study traffic flow and traffic control measures. The methods used depend on the specific study being conducted. Multiple methods can be used simultaneously. These methods typically involve vehicle and driver surveys (used to capture information [driving habits, trip purposes]), vehicle counts, and movement characteristics (number of passes, average speed, weight specifications). Traffic studies are most constrained by the ability to gain cooperation and willing participants. Typical traffic study methods include—
- **Mailed or distributed questionnaires.** On bases and base camps, questionnaires can be the most effective survey means based on cost versus benefit. Vehicle registration records can be used to obtain mailing lists for the questionnaires, or the questionnaires can be distributed at access control points. Developing mailing lists in support of contingency operations within urban areas overseas may be problematic. Further, HN mail systems may be inadequate or nonexistent. Checkpoints can provide a means for distribution within HN environments, although obtaining survey returns may be problematic. A large sample population must be included to compensate for historically low response rates.
- **Roadside interviews.** While manpower-intensive, roadside interviews may be the most productive method, especially within HN populations, although language barriers and interpreter support must be considered. The greatest challenge is determining a location that will minimally

affect traffic flow while allowing access to the appropriate target population. This method is not generally effective for high-volume highway studies due to traffic flow and safety considerations. Roadside interviews are typically conducted where traffic can be channelized into a checkpoint area. In general, military police should—

- Interview 50 percent of drivers during nonpeak hours and 25 percent of drivers during peak hours.
- Ensure that interview stations are visible and safe.
- Maximize contacts by arranging several interviewing stations on a lane; there should not be more than five interviewers in a single lane.
- Mitigate delays by ensuring that each interview takes no more than 30 to 40 seconds.

- **Travel diaries.** This is a technique where the public is requested to keep a detailed account of their travel habits (times, purposes, types of transportation, frequency) and other pertinent information. Travel diaries are largely constrained by the willingness of the public to participate.
- **Home interviews.** Home interviews are very resource-intensive and time-consuming operations. Because they are conducted in person, home interviews can provide explanations of intent and survey clarity. They can also provide a means for military police personnel to interact with the public and foster community support.
- **Town hall meetings.** A town hall meeting is designed for residents to meet with their local leaders and public officials to hear from them on topics of interest or to discuss specific upcoming policy or regulation. Town halls can be another means for military police to interact with the public and foster community support or to inform them about upcoming changes.

8-59. Typical traffic counting methods include—

- Installing hardware on or into the roadway. With the exception of pneumatic tubes, these devices are installed by engineers and are not typically employed by military police. Military police may coordinate with traffic engineers to obtain data from these devices.
  - **Electronic or magnetic sensors.** These devices are typically installed within the grooves in the road. Depending on the capability of the sensors used, they can detect vehicle movement (numbers), weight, and speed.
  - **Pneumatic road tubes.** This method consists of a rubber tube placed across the lanes of the road. Pressure exerted on the tube activates an attached counting mechanism. It can count the number of axle movements over the roadway. The tubes are temporary mechanisms that are relatively easy to emplace and remove.
  - **Plate sensors.** These devises are installed within the roadway and have the capability of measuring vehicle weight and speed.
- Conducting assessments from areas adjacent to the roadway.
  - **Manual observation.** This is the most common method. Manual observation involves placing personnel at specific locations to record vehicle and pedestrian movements. These counts can be done manually and totaled on standardized logs for compilation and analysis. In some cases, mechanical or electronic counting mechanisms may be employed. Manual observation allows observers to document traffic numbers, types, and directions of travel. This observation method presents a higher level of risk for the study team in areas with heavy traffic or where the threat level is high.
  - **Sensors.** A variety of sensors are available that can be placed above the roadway (from bridges, overpasses, or other structures) or along the side of the roadway. The types of sensors vary; they include passive infrared, acoustic, and microwave. These sensors can detect the presence, speed, and type of vehicle. Depending on the type of sensor employed, the weather, background noise, or other environmental conditions can limit its capabilities.
  - **Video image detection.** This technology uses video cameras and associated software applications to record vehicle numbers, types, and speed.

TRAFFIC STUDY TYPES

8-60. Traffic studies are conducted to gather specific data relevant to traffic flow and traffic control. Many of these studies will be conducted simultaneously; the data collected from a single study will generally be considered along with data from other studies. The studies discussed in this section include—
- Traffic control devices.
  - Signs.
  - Signals.
  - Pavement markings.
  - Camera, radar, and other detection devices.
- Origin destination.
- Vehicle occupancy.
- Pedestrians.
- Speed.
- Speed delay.
- Vehicle volume.
- Traffic collision.

Traffic Control Device Studies

8-61. Traffic control device studies are conducted to determine if devices are adequate (in numbers or types) and if they are placed in a manner that safely and effectively achieves the desired effect. Typically, traffic control device studies are conducted to determine the initial requirements and placement of traffic control devices. In mature areas, this will generally be in conjunction with new roadway construction or major revisions to a road or road network. These studies will typically be conducted by traffic engineers with input from, and coordination with, other technical specialists (military police, safety personnel). In contingency environments where the road infrastructure has been destroyed or is primitive, large-scale traffic control device studies are required as a precursor to major construction. Traffic engineers will lead the study, and other specialists support the effort.

8-62. Following the initial study and subsequent emplacement of traffic control devices, personnel should periodically conduct follow-up studies to ensure that the device remains effective. Scheduled cyclic studies are typically conducted by the supporting city or other supporting civil engineer assets. Changes in the environment (new roads, building infrastructure, degradation of roadways), especially those that alter traffic patterns, may render existing traffic control devices ineffective or even dangerous. These changes result in the requirement for a traffic control device study. These cyclic studies may occur annually, monthly, or at other intervals based on the operational environment and conditions specific to the locations. Military police conduct cyclic traffic device studies on a limited basis when appropriate engineer assets are unavailable.

8-63. Traffic control device studies can also be initiated based on problem areas identified through community complaints, traffic collision data, or traffic disruptions documented by law enforcement patrols on daily patrol reports. Military police, due to their patrol presence across the AO and visibility over traffic collisions and disruptions, are uniquely positioned to identify these disruptions and the requirements for conducting device studies. Areas and conditions identified by military police as traffic problem areas represent the primary instances where military police assets will conduct traffic control device studies.

8-64. The following types of traffic control devices may be studied separately or in combination:
- **Signs.** Signs are used to regulate, warn, or guide traffic. These devices include automated signs used to pass important hazards or threat warnings to the public.
  - Evaluating conditions.
  - Indicating inventory.
  - Validating placement locations.
  - Confirming adequacy of an intended message.

- **Signals.** Signals are used to regulate, warn, or guide traffic. The purpose of these powered or automated devices is the same as for signs.
- **Pavement markings.** Pavement markings are used to regulate, warn, or guide. This includes lines, patterns, words, and other markings set into pavement or curbing. These markings are all studied for the same reasons.
- **Camera, radar, and other detection devices.** These devices are used to monitor traffic flow, capture the speed of vehicles violating traffic regulations, or capture and display vehicle speed for driver awareness and deterrent effect.

Sign Studies

8-65. Sign studies can be conducted to determine the need for keeping, replacing, or adding signs. Study teams can collect data for the analysis of the relationship between driver obedience to posted signs and collision frequencies. Sign studies can enable military police to make recommendations on how to improve driver obedience; this may include selective enforcement, education, sign relocation, fresh paint, reflective material, or a combination of these measures.

8-66. Sign studies include the determination of sign—

- **Type.** The study team may determine that a change to current signage is required; for example, a stop sign may no longer be needed and should be replaced by a yield sign.
- **Size and shape.** Sign size and shape are typically standardized. In foreign countries, military police must use the standard established and understood by the HN.
- **Color.** Sign color is also standardized. The team should examine existing signs for fading or alteration due to vandalism. Signs may require replacement if excessive degradation of the sign is identified.
- **Reflectivity.** The reflective property on signs must allow visibility at night to allow for sufficient reaction time. Maintenance is required if additional reflective material or sign replacement is deemed necessary to correct degraded reflectivity.
- **Location (including sign visibility).** The team determines sign placement, including distances from pavements or curbs, distances from intersections, heights, and other key characteristics unique to specific locations. Signs should be placed in locations where the target population can observe the device and have adequate time to react. Sign movement or additional signage may be recommended. Trees, shrubs, walls, or other objects may obstruct views.
- **Driver compliance.** Key to the overall intent of sign studies is the determination of driver compliance. The level of driver compliance can be attributed to many possible factors, to include those previously listed. However, driver noncompliance may not be a result of failure to observe or understand traffic control signs or other devices. In these instances, targeted enforcement by law enforcement at identified problem areas may be required.

8-67. The data from sign studies is organized for analysis and assessment by military police and staffs from other study teams represented. The results of subsequent analyses and assessments can be used to determine a need for—

- Improved sign compliance through targeted enforcement and traffic control measures. (Facts from this study can be used to justify the need to the public.)
- Removed or modified sign types at intersections where a combination of the following factors exist:
  - Intersection views are unobstructed and allow a clear view and adequate reaction time for motorists, typically in areas where speed is low. Care should be taken when recommending a reduction in control measures at any intersection where posted speed limits are high.
  - Vehicular conflicts at the intersection are not a problem.
  - Traffic collision rates at the location are extremely low.

8-68. A lack of visibility may often be a reason for noncompliance. Obstructions affecting visibility may include—

- Hourly or seasonal variations (weather, leaves, branches on trees, parked cars).
- Man-made obstructions (buildings, fences).
- Separations between the driver and the sign. On wide, multilane streets, drivers on interior lanes may not observe signs placed on the shoulder of the road. This can be corrected by putting another sign in a center median (if available) or emplacing overhead traffic control devices.

8-69. Reflective markings on the pavement may be used to complement existing traffic control devices and help alert motorists of traffic control requirements.

Signal Studies

8-70. Signal studies are performed to check driver compliance of traffic control signals, typically at intersections or near intersections where signal devices warn drivers of upcoming traffic devices or intersections. They can be used to determine a need for targeted enforcement, education, signal retiming, or other physical changes.

8-71. Traffic control signals at intersections permit conflicting traffic movements to occur in an orderly and safe manner through a common space. The various traffic movements, whether pedestrian or vehicular, are signaled to move for specified periods or phases.

8-72. Traffic control signals are studied to identify and document—

- **Signal type.** The signal may be a fixed-time, flashing, traffic-actuated, or another type.
- **Location and position.** Signals may be centered over the intersection, over each lane direction, mounted on poles on the side of the roadway, or in other configurations.
- **Physical information.** This information includes the size of the signal, number of lights, presence of shields or other devices to control visibility, and other characteristics.
- **Phasing (the time the light is applicable to each direction at an intersection).** The movements at an intersection are grouped; these groups of movements make up a separate phase. Each phase of a signal is devoted to only one set of movements. The movements within a phase are those that can proceed concurrently without major conflict. Movements are sometimes allowed to occur simultaneously, even though minor conflicts are possible. Pedestrians can typically cross intersections while turning movements are occurring; these actions are known as permitted movements. A movement that occurs without any simultaneous permitted movement is known as a protected movement. A traffic control signal allowing only one movement to occur while all others are halted (such as a left turn across the roadway) is an example of a protected movement.
- **Phase timing (green, amber, and red time).** Timing refers to the length or duration of elements within a given phase (such as the respective duration of each light interval [green, amber, and red or the interval between green lights]). Important timing intervals for traffic control signals include the—
    - **Green interval.** Green interval is the period of the phase during which the green signal is illuminated.
    - **Amber interval.** Amber interval is the period of the phase during which the amber light is illuminated.
    - **Red interval.** Red interval is the period of the phase during which the red light is illuminated.
    - **Effective green time.** Effective green time is the total time spanning the green and amber intervals. This is the actual time that movement through an intersection (with respect to that light phase) is allowed.
    - **All-red interval.** All-red interval is any period or interval when all of the intersection signals are red.
    - **Intergreen interval.** Intergreen interval is the time between the end of a green light for one phase and the beginning of a green light for the subsequent phase.

- **Pedestrian walk interval.** Pedestrian walk interval is the time during which the pedestrian is signaled to cross the roadway. Typically, a pedestrian signal interval is 4 to 7 seconds. (The pedestrian crossing time should be based on the average time required for a pedestrian to cross the intersection.) The pedestrian crossing time must be totally within the green interval for vehicular traffic traveling the same direction as the pedestrian right-of-way. In some instances, especially for extremely wide roadways and heavy traffic areas, pedestrian movements may be isolated phases (no other movements allowed) and timing may be increased.
- **Cycle times.** A cycle is one complete iterative sequence of all phases of the signal.

8-73. Typically, a signal study is conducted with observers on opposite, diagonal corners of the intersection. In this manner, each team element can check traffic in two lanes, alternating to the left and right. This requirement is due to the traffic flow and increased fluidity associated with signaled intersections. If a specific trigger initiated the study (high vehicle collision rates, extreme congestion), personnel should ensure that the study is conducted during the same time of the day and days of the week associated with the trigger event.

8-74. Additional team members for specific sites may be required in some circumstances. Factors that may increase team size requirements include studies conducted—
- On multilane intersections.
- In higher-threat environments.
- Where high pedestrian traffic is involved concurrently with associated vehicular traffic.

8-75. Data from traffic signal studies is organized for analysis and assessment by military police and staffs from other study teams represented. The results of subsequent analyses and assessments can be used to determine the need—
- For a special enforcement program to improve signal compliance. (Facts of this study can be used to justify this need to the public.)
- To make physical changes to traffic signals.
  - **Faulty timing.** Faulty timing may be responsible for some compliance problems, particularly if the phases are too short.
  - **Lights placed at improper angles.** Improper placement may allow both approaches to see lights at the same time, thus creating confusion. This can be corrected by using hoods or louvers.
  - **Physical locations.** Signals at complex intersections may be confusing. An assessment of repositioning options may be warranted.
  - **Stop lines or other pavement markings.** Adding pavement markings can increase reaction time and driver awareness. Directional lights may be necessary at intersections with a high number of left turns.
- To improve the visibility of signals.
  - **Hourly or seasonal changes.** These changes may include foliage or the position of the sun in the morning or late afternoon.
  - **Hoods and louvers.** These devices may be used to shade the signal and help reduce glare if the sun is causing visibility problems.
  - **Illuminated advertising signs.** These types of signs may interfere with signal observation.

Pavement Marking Studies

8-76. Pavement markings are the lines, patterns, words, and other markings set into the pavement or curbing. They can be used to mark areas restricted from vehicular traffic (fire lanes, no parking zones). They can also be used to identify the roadway (such as in highway confidence markings). Pavement markings can provide advanced warning of turn lanes or exit ramps. They are used extensively to identify stop lines and pedestrian crosswalks. Pavement markings are typically used to augment or enhance existing traffic control measures

to increase awareness and compliance. When studying pavement markings, personnel should check the marking—

- **Type.** The marking types include solid lines, double lines, or left-turn lines.
- **Visibility.** The marking visibility is determined by condition and reflectivity.
- **Material.** The material used on the marking includes paint or other material.
- **Measurement.** The marking measurement includes line length and width.

8-77. Data from pavement marking studies is organized for analysis and assessment by military police and staffs from other study team capabilities represented. The results of subsequent analyses and assessments can be used to determine the need to—

- Improve pavement marking compliance observance through targeted enforcement and traffic control measures. Facts from this study can be used to justify the need to the public.
- Make markings more visible. The lack of visibility may be caused by the fading or degradation of reflective material and may often be the reason for noncompliance.
- Add pavement markings where none currently exist to augment existing traffic control measures.

Camera, Radar, and Other Detection Device Studies

8-78. Camera, radar, and other detection device studies are typically focused on obtaining data that assesses the effectiveness of the device or increased compliance. These devices are used to monitor traffic flow, capture the speed of vehicles violating traffic regulations, or capture and display vehicle speed for driver awareness and a deterrent effect. These devices are typically employed in problem areas as an additional traffic control measure to existing signs, signals, or markings. Their employment is typically based on staff recommendations to provide additional control measures in problem areas as an economy of force measure. When assessments of the effectiveness of these devices result in further noncompliance, targeted enforcement by law enforcement patrols is typically warranted.

Origin Destination Studies

8-79. An origin destination study is used to determine travel patterns for traffic in an AO during a typical day. It is useful in assisting long-range traffic planning, especially when there are substantial changes anticipated in the AO or mission. An origin destination study is conducted to determine the amount of traffic and the impact of movement on an AO. The study focuses on three categories of movement or trips, defined as one-way movement, from start point (origin) to end point (destination).

8-80. Trips are further classified as—

- **Internal.** Internal is defined as one point to another point within a given area (assigned AO, city boundary).
- **External.** External is defined as a given area (assigned AO, city boundary) to a destination outside the area or vice versa.
- **Through.** Through is defined as trips traveling through the AO, with a start point and an end point outside the area (assigned AO, city boundary).

8-81. Typically, origin destination studies are conducted using questionnaires, roadside interviews, or home interviews. The exact method must be determined ahead of time, based on the characteristics of the AO, time constraints, and other factors. The number of personnel needed to conduct this study depends on the method of study used. A sampling of the typical traffic is taken. Based on the extrapolation of the data collected, an estimate of the percentages for each type of movement (internal, external, or through) can be determined. The greater the number of samples, the greater the accuracy of the study. To encourage cooperation, the community should be made aware in advance of the reasons for the study. Information concerning the study should be disseminated to the public.

8-82. Questions directed to the public in an origin destination study may include the following:

- How do you normally travel to and from your place of duty?
  - Do you drive a car?
  - Are you a passenger in a car?

- ▪ Do you take public transportation?
- ▪ Do you walk?
- ● Please answer the following if you drive a car:
  - ▪ How many people are typically in the car (include self)?
  - ▪ Where does your trip originate (street address, city)?
  - ▪ What is your normal route?
  - ▪ Where do you park your car upon arrival at your destination (parking lot location or identification, nearby building number or landmark, or nearest intersection)?
  - ▪ Where do you work?
  - ▪ What is your destination and the destination of other members in your car pool?
  - ▪ What is the normal time for your commute?
  - ▪ What are your normal alternate routes in the event of delays?

8-83. Information from these studies can be used to anticipate present and future traffic patterns, especially the future demand on the road network, when data from consecutive studies is compared and analyzed. When compiling data, samples should be collected to provide representative percentages for a 24-hour period. Origin destination studies can provide information concerning the—

- ● Number of trips into, within, and through an AO.
- ● Time of day, mode of travel, and number of occupants in a vehicle during a trip.
- ● Current travel patterns, areas that generate the most traffic, and efficiency of traffic lanes concerning flow and safety.
- ● Evaluations of the general road plan and current or foreseeable problems.
- ● Need for revised flow patterns, alternate routes, new streets, and parking areas.
- ● Parking patterns in major functional areas of the AO.

Vehicle Occupancy Studies

8-84. Vehicle occupancy studies are used to determine the number of occupants in each vehicle passing a given location or entering or exiting a particular road. These studies can be used in conjunction with volume studies and are generally used to determine vehicle occupancy during peak traffic times. Vehicle occupancy studies are typically manual counts that require study teams to position themselves where they can observe the target traffic flow and personnel inside the vehicles. Data is tabulated to reflect the number of persons within a vehicle and the direction of travel. To ensure that enough data is collected to be statistically relevant, at least 500 vehicles should be counted at each location.

8-85. A vehicle occupancy study is typically conducted within a time period before significant increases in traffic flow begins (during shift changes, morning or evening rush hours) and after significant traffic flow has ended. The exact window should be determined by staff, based on local traffic patterns and other requirements. Separate counts can be made for morning peak, evening peak, and other peak traffic periods. Comparison data can also be collected during nonpeak times. Counts of passenger cars, trucks, and military vehicles should be in separate categories. Counts of buses or other mass transit can typically be obtained from transit system records. The results of the study can be used to determine the current use of—

- ● **Car pools.** The need for encouraging carpooling or the evaluation of requirements to establish a car pool program to mitigate traffic congestion.
- ● **Public transportation.** Available public transportation and the need for future public transit systems or capacity.
- ● **Parking facilities.** Current parking facilities and requirements for the construction of additional facilities.
- ● **Networks.** Networks and potential requirements for additional road capacity.

Pedestrian Studies

8-86. Pedestrian studies are used to determine if any pedestrian-vehicle conflicts exist at certain locations. They are also used to establish the need for special precautions at high accident locations or other congested

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areas (schools, hospitals, troop areas). The resulting data is typically a manual count, obtained by a study team using mechanical counters. Counts should be tabulated at 15- or 30-minute intervals. This enables analysts to isolate and compare pedestrian traffic at specific time frames and with corresponding vehicle traffic volumes.

8-87. Counts should be made during peak pedestrian hours; the hours should be tailored to meet the characteristics of the specific AO. If service facilities (shopping, other commercial areas) are studied, counts should be made on days of heavy use. The results of pedestrian studies can be used to determine the—

- Need for pedestrian protection measures (sidewalks, fences, crosswalks).
- Pedestrian traffic interference with vehicle turning. These determinations can result in recommendations to adjust traffic signals.
- Need for school crossing guards.
- Extent and impact of jaywalking. Where jaywalking is deemed hazardous, remedial action may be necessary. This is typically focused on public education campaigns as a first effort, followed by further traffic control or enforcement measures (if necessary).

Speed Studies

8-88. Speed studies measure vehicle speeds at specific locations. The intent is to measure vehicle speeds to determine what the maximum and minimum safe speeds are for the given roadway. To be reflective of normal driving behavior, the study should be made in good weather and without military police presence. Military police observers, who are not in military police uniform, should be inconspicuously located while collecting data. The speed detection equipment used should not be mounted on a law enforcement vehicle. Speeds should be checked on a controlled basis (such as every second or third vehicle). The study should not be conducted at a location that has recently been subjected to a speed enforcement program.

8-89. Speed study data is typically collected over a 24-hour period, and it is spread across three time periods (morning, afternoon, and evening) at each location to capture an accurate representation of vehicle speeds across the entire period (peak traffic times should be excluded). Each location should be studied for at least 1 hour, with a minimum of 50 vehicle speeds collected (the more samples collected, the more accurate the study). Data is tabulated and grouped by speed and type of vehicle (passenger or commercial).

8-90. Only free-floating vehicles should be checked. Free-floating vehicles are driven by persons who are free to choose their own speed (not restricted by traffic congestion, groups of vehicles, or other environmental conditions that would artificially slow their travel). Study personnel should only check the lead vehicle in a line or group of vehicles. They should not measure the speed of vehicles changing lanes, passing, or turning. Speed studies are typically conducted at—

- Roadways that have recently had changes in the speed limit or where existing speed limits need to be evaluated.
- Locations where traffic control devices are proposed.
- Major thoroughfares.
- Locations with high collision frequencies.

8-91. Personnel analyzing data received in a speed study must consider the maximum and minimum speeds in normal conditions. The average speed is not useful. The maximum safe speed is typically considered to be in the 85th percentile; the minimum safe speed is in the 15th percentile. To obtain percentile averages, use the following:

- Find the total number of vehicles checked (cumulative total).
- Find 15 percent of this total number (multiply the number by 0.15). Round the results to the nearest whole number.
- Subtract this 15 percent from the cumulative total. The result is the 85th percentile.
- Find the total number of vehicles traveling in each speed classification. (For example, one vehicle was traveling 66.6 miles per hour, three vehicles were traveling 60.0 miles per hour, and two vehicles were traveling 54.5 miles per hour.) List groupings on a table from fastest to slowest. In the cumulative total column, insert a running total.

- Start at the top of the cumulative total column (the highest speed recorded), and add the numbers downward until the number most equal to 15 percent of the total is found. This is the 85 percentile.
- Subtract 85 percent from the cumulative total to get the 15th percentile.

8-92. Speed studies are conducted to determine the—

- Proper speeds for new or improved roads. A speed study shows statistically the maximum and minimum safe driving speeds. From this information, speed limits can be set (or readjusted).
- Posted speeds that require revision. If the speed study reflects the 85th percentile (speeds grossly inconsistent with posted speed limits), revision to the posted speed may warrant additional assessment.
- Traffic control devices that are needed. A study helps determine where traffic control devices are needed to encourage safe approach speeds to intersections or dangerous locations.
- Potential cause and effect relationships between speed and the number of accidents (requires correlation to collision data).

8-93. Additionally, speed studies can help military police to—

- Determine compliance with established speed limits, including the effectiveness of speed control programs and the need for change in the enforcement program.
- Determine the appropriate timing on traffic signals. For example, the timing of an amber traffic signal depends on the speed of approaching traffic. Speed limits are never set to match the timing of signals.
- Prepare traffic speed maps showing areas where slow speeds cause congestion and fast speeds create danger areas.
- Determine if complaints about speeding are justified.

Speed Delay Studies

8-94. Speed delay studies are used to determine speed variations along particular routes at different times; the number, location, cause, frequency, and duration of delays; and the overall speed and travel time along a route. A speed delay study shows overall speed and moving speeds between specified locations. It shows delay times and the cause, frequency, and location of delays. Although speed delay studies target peak traffic times, nonpeak times can also be measured for comparison data.

8-95. The speed delay study requires a driver and a recorder. The study teams travel along predetermined routes. The length of the routes and predetermined landmarks should be identified before the study. The study should be conducted during peak hours, and multiple teams should conduct studies on the same day.

8-96. The study vehicle enters the mainstream of traffic at the starting point. If more than one car is used on the same route, start times should be staggered. The recorder documents the start time, the odometer reading at the beginning of the route, the elapsed time, the odometer reading when passing the predetermined landmarks, and the time and odometer reading at the end of the route. The location, nature, and time of delays are also recorded. A stopwatch is used to time delays. Delays are anytime the study car is not moving (at stop signs or signals, while waiting to make left turns, because of congestion). Speed delay studies can help military police—

- Map travel speeds on different routes to determine the most efficient routes of travel.
- Locate points of congestion and insufficient road capacity.
- Evaluate traffic control devices and the adequacy of posted speed limits.
- Determine priorities for traffic control and road construction programs.
- Study emergency vehicle movement times at different times of the day.

Vehicle Volume Studies

8-97. Vehicle volume studies are conducted to obtain information on the number, direction, and variations of vehicle traffic passing through an intersection or along a major route. Vehicle counts are typically conducted over 12- or 24-hour periods and include peak traffic times. Vehicle volume studies should be conducted on normal workdays and during good weather conditions to obtain normal volume counts. The

count should begin 30 minutes before peak traffic periods and end 30 minutes after each peak period. Vehicle volume studies are typically conducted manually by the study team. Traffic counts should be collected in tabular form and grouped in 15- or 30-minute intervals. Vehicle counts should also be tabulated by vehicle actions at intersections (straight, right turn, or left turn).

8-98. Security personnel typically maintain traffic counts as part of their normal duties at access control points supporting bases and base camps. This same requirement can be replicated for security personnel at access control posts and checkpoints during contingency operations. Counting mechanisms (pneumatic road tubes, sensors) can be employed along straight roadways or access points when vehicle turning movements are not relevant to the study.

8-99. The information gathered in a vehicle volume study is typically used in conjunction with other study data (such as traffic control device studies). The data can be used to—
- Study traffic control devices and their effectiveness. The study may justify the existence or need for—
  - Fixed-time or traffic-actuated signals.
  - Stop signs, speed zones, or pavement markings.
  - Manned TCPs at specified locations and times.
- Analyze other studies and evaluate the number of collisions based on volume and directional movement.
- Assess the need for street lighting and signals by comparing day and night traffic volume to day and night collision frequency.
- Assess future requirements (through streets, secondary roads, roadway improvements).

Traffic Collision Studies

8-100. The purpose of studying traffic collisions is to identify problem areas and measures to increase traffic safety and to reduce the frequency of collisions. Traffic collision prevention programs require the continuous study of collisions, violations, and mitigation measures to reduce traffic collisions. Traffic collision studies enable PMs, military police commanders, and staff to identify trends, patterns, and associations, enabling the—
- Identification of high collision rate locations.
- Evaluation of roadway design factors.
- Planning of traffic control and targeted enforcement measures to reduce traffic collisions.
- Evaluation of traffic control and enforcement measure effectiveness.

8-101. The validity of an analysis depends on the accuracy of the raw information that is obtained. This fact is particularly important when studying collision causes. Military police can extract a large amount of collision data from the ALERTS database. When military police are supporting HN police activities, accident analysis relevant to HN populations and locations is required. Also, other means of data retrieval may be needed. HN law enforcement organizations may or may not have detailed traffic collision information. The information they do have may be in the form of hardcopy collision files or in relatively modern, automated databases. Military police must work closely with the HN to obtain the data required to conduct relevant traffic collision analysis.

8-102. Collisions occur because of a variety of factors and in complex combinations. Phrases (following too closely, speed excessive for conditions) are often insufficient to provide for valid analysis. Military police staff and analysts should be cautious when interpreting traffic collision cases using subjective language that is not measurable. Traffic collision studies require military police to—
- Obtain collision data. The following information should be obtained:
  - Location.
  - Date and time (hour, day, month, and year).
  - Cause.
  - Type collision.
  - Light and weather conditions.

- Driver's name, age, sex, and experience level.
- Seat belt usage.
- Command or unit involved.
- Traffic controls.
- Injuries or fatalities.
- Identify high collision rate locations.
- Review or prepare collision and condition diagrams.
- Conduct field observations at the location during conditions similar to those present at the time of the collision.
- Summarize facts.
- Analyze facts and field data and recommend corrective actions.

Mapping

8-103.   The mapping of incidents is critical to the identification of high collision rate locations. Some collisions may require unique representation on the map to differentiate them from other collisions. Collisions should be plotted by type. For example, fatality collisions, injury collisions, and collisions involving alcohol or other substance abuse will typically be represented differently than minor collisions with relatively little damage and no injuries. Traffic collision maps can be created manually using pins, stickers, or other physical mediums affixed on a map of the AO. GIS applications can also be used to plot collisions and display detailed environmental features, equipment, and other terrain features relevant to studying collisions and specific collision locations.

Collision Diagrams

8-104.   A collision diagram is used for the study and analysis of particular intersections or curves where a number of collisions have occurred. The diagram consists of an outline map of the location and symbols that show the direction of vehicle and pedestrian movement that were involved in collisions. If stationary objects are important in collisions, they should be included in the diagram. Each diagram should—

- Include a drawing of the intersection.
- Identify the diagram.
- Identify the streets shown.
- Plot collisions.
  - Direction of travel.
  - Date of collision.
  - Time.
  - Road conditions.
  - Weather conditions.
  - Contributing factors (defective vehicle equipment, equipment failure [including traffic control devices], intoxication or other impairment, environmental considerations).

8-105.   Care should be taken to ensure that the collision diagrams do not show different sets of circumstances affecting the scene (such as diagrams showing an intersection before and after a stop sign has been installed). Collision diagrams should be analyzed for points of similarity. These points may include—

- Collision patterns involving vehicles traveling in the same direction (a collision caused by a vehicle traveling northbound and another vehicle traveling eastbound that causes a head-on collision, a collision involving eastbound and southbound vehicles at the same intersection).
- Collisions of one type (cars turning left).
- Collisions occurring during one season of the year.
- Collisions occurring at a certain time of day or during certain lighting conditions.
- Collisions occurring under the same weather conditions.

Condition Diagrams

8-106. When conducting traffic collision studies at a specific site, personnel will use additional detailed information during the analysis process. A condition diagram that provides an accurate picture of the physical conditions present at the location being studied can provide insight into the causes or contributing factors of other collisions at the location. This information can provide insight into the effects that obstructions can have on a driver's view and road conditions.

8-107. Condition diagrams may indicate that view obstructions are contributory causes of collisions. A driver proceeding at normal speed on one street should be able to see another vehicle approaching at normal speed from an intersecting street. Obstructions reduce this ability. A driver should have the time and visibility to react and stop or slow a vehicle to avoid a collision. Obstructions increase stopping distances. Elements that should be annotated on a condition diagram include—

- Curbs.
- Roadway limits.
- Property lines.
- Sidewalks.
- Driveways.
- View obstructions on corners.
- Physical obstructions on roadway.
- Ditches.
- Bridges.
- Traffic signals.
- Signs.
- Pavement markings.
- Streetlights.
- Grades.
- Road surfaces.
- Types of adjacent property.
- Irregularities (potholes, dips).

8-108. Personnel can obtain some diagram information from traffic collision reports and associated collision diagrams. If the collisions are relatively recent, a site visit can provide required detail. Personnel can prepare a condition diagram in conjunction with a field observation of the collision location. Field observations should be made under the same weather and light conditions present during most traffic collisions.

8-109. After a traffic collision study is completed, recommendations for improvements should be made. These recommendations may include—

- Changes to traffic control devices and measures (repairs, modifications, or emplacements).
- The removal of obstructions at high accident locations.
- Safety and education programs.
- Targeted enforcement measures.

TRAFFIC ENFORCEMENT

8-110. The enforcement of traffic laws and regulations is an important public safety activity. The purpose of traffic enforcement is to ensure that roads are safe for all traffic and to compel compliance with traffic laws by motorists. Traffic enforcement is conducted when traffic control measures alone (traffic control devices, public education campaigns) are ineffective in compelling compliance with traffic regulations, restrictions, and other safety mechanisms required to protect persons, resources, and traffic flow. An effective traffic enforcement program requires highly trained TMCIs. These specialized investigators are subject matter experts in the laws and methods encompassed in executing traffic programs and conducting traffic collision investigations.

8-111.   Traffic enforcement is routinely employed in support of bases and base camps. In an effort to reduce vehicle collisions and prevent injury or death to U.S. forces or local citizens, traffic enforcement can also be employed during contingency operations as the AO matures to enforce command safety directives. Typically, these traffic enforcement measures are conducted as a part of the overall police mission by military police in support of base and other geographic commanders.

8-112.   Military police may also be required to enforce traffic regulations on an HN population (to maintain an adequate level of civil control on the roadways and to conduct effective traffic management) until HN capability and capacity can be generated. The enforcement of traffic laws on an HN population should be done consistently with HN laws to the greatest extent possible. The unnecessary enforcement of traffic control measures not consistent with HN laws and customs typically results in excessive noncompliance, animosity toward U.S. forces, and the loss of credibility and legitimacy for U.S. forces in the eyes of the local population. When traffic control measures must be enforced to protect personnel and resources, extensive police engagement and other information strategies should be employed to educate the HN population and ensure that traffic control requirements are understood.

TARGETED TRAFFIC ENFORCEMENT

8-113.   Targeted or selective enforcement is designed to compel compliance with traffic control regulations and devices and to lessen the probability of traffic collisions at targeted high-risk locations or areas. Noncompliant behavior is identified through citizen complaints, traffic studies, observations by patrols, or other analysis of police information. During targeted or selective enforcement operations, select traffic patrol assets are assigned to areas or intersections with specific enforcement guidance targeting specific, identified behavior problems (specific times, locations, violations to be targeted). Proper data collection and analysis are necessary for effective, targeted traffic enforcement activities.

8-114.   Continuous analysis and assessment of traffic flow, collision rates, compliance with traffic control measures, and other applicable data are critical for accurate and informed targeting decisions. After a targeted enforcement activity is initiated, data is gathered for analysis to assess the effectiveness of the specific enforcement activity. Modifications to targeted traffic enforcement strategies may be necessary based on the feedback and analysis of existing activities. Based on the analysis and assessment of traffic-related data, targeted enforcement allows PMs, military police commanders, and staffs to better allocate limited traffic enforcement resources. The dispersion of limited resources and the targeting of identified problem areas facilitate the most effective use of law enforcement assets to protect personnel and resources, while mitigating traffic disruptions caused by traffic collisions.

8-115.   When significant traffic problems are identified, saturation enforcement can be conducted. Saturation enforcement measures are typically an option of last resort when other measures prove ineffective. During saturation enforcement, law enforcement patrols converge on the specified problem area in much larger numbers than during typical targeted enforcement activities. While conducting saturation enforcement, patrols are typically instructed to enforce a no-tolerance policy for traffic violations. Saturation enforcement is extremely manpower- and resource-intensive; it diverts law enforcement resources from other areas to focus on problem areas. Saturation enforcement can also result in public backlash caused by a perception that law enforcement elements are being unfairly stringent on a particular segment of the community.

CHECKPOINT OPERATIONS

8-116.   Checkpoint operations conducted by military police are command-authorized inspections. The purpose of checkpoint operations, within the context of traffic enforcement, is to create a deterrent effect (perception of increased risk of detection, citation, and possible apprehension for traffic-related violations). Checkpoint operations on bases and base camps during contingency operations can be incorporated into existing random antiterrorism measures directed by the command and implemented by Army law enforcement. Public information and education should be integral parts of vigorous enforcement program.

8-117.   Military police checkpoint operations are conducted routinely to suppress violations of driving under the influence; enforce vehicle inspections, registrations, and driver licensing requirements; and address other public safety concerns. Effective checkpoint operations require extensive planning and coordination.

8-118.   Some factors to consider when implementing checkpoint operations include—

- **Policies and procedures.** Checkpoint operations should be conducted consistent with established command and law enforcement policies. Military police must have specific procedures outlining the conduct of checkpoint operations that address checkpoint requirements (manpower, equipment, logistical support, safety, communications, transportation, command approval and SJA support). Advanced mission planning and rehearsals are critical.
- **Safe locations for checkpoints.** The primary concern in checkpoint sites is the safety of the general public and law enforcement personnel. Checkpoint sites should—
  - Be located in an area that can be controlled by law enforcement personnel.
  - Be located in sufficient space to establish inspection areas out of the traffic lanes and allow vehicles not selected for inspection to proceed with minimal delay and disruption. These inspection areas should allow for easy exit from, and reentry into, the flow of traffic.
  - Afford adequate visibility for approaching drivers and sufficient lighting within the checkpoint and inspection area.
  - Accommodate higher force protection conditions when located within contingency environments where an elevated threat level is present. The site should include areas where Soldiers can engage threats from a covered position. Overwatch elements should be included in the site security plan.
- **Traffic control devices.** Drivers should have clear warning and visibility access to checkpoints well in advance of any required action on their part. Warning methods could include—
  - Warning signs, flares, safety cones, portable barriers, and other portable traffic control devices for marking or closing lanes.
  - Portable lighting systems to illuminate an area. Care must be taken to ensure that lighting does not blind approaching drivers.
  - Marked patrol vehicles with warning lights flashing to effectively warn approaching drivers. When conducting operations with tactical vehicles, personnel should position vehicles with headlights and flashers operating to provide adequate warning to approaching drivers.
- **Legal requirements.** Coordination should be conducted with the supporting SJA to ensure that planned checkpoint operations are legally sound. Checkpoint operations must not target specific individuals or groups (profiling). To withstand scrutiny allegations and legal challenges, operations must be conducted in a manner that ensures that the persons inspected are chosen randomly. The PM or DES director should have SJA conduct a review of checkpoint operations to ensure checkpoint operations are conducted within legal constraints and that any citations or apprehensions can withstand scrutiny and result in successful adjudication.
- **Training and certification.** Sufficient law enforcement personnel who are trained and certified in field sobriety testing, breath alcohol content equipment, and other required capabilities should be on-site to expeditiously process personnel.
- **MWD assets.** MWDs can be used to search for illegal drugs and explosive contraband. The MWDs also serve as a significant deterrent by their mere presence on-site, and they can result in spontaneous confessions by subjects transporting contraband.
- **Other logistical considerations.**
  - **Personal safety equipment.** Personal safety equipment (reflective vests, flashlights, other standard law enforcement gear) should be worn by law enforcement personnel conducting checkpoint operations.
  - **Camera and video capability.** Cameras and video recording equipment should be on hand to document evidence, as required.
  - **Automation equipment and required administrative supplies.** These items should be available to law enforcement personnel for required casework.
  - **Spare radios, batteries, and other communications equipment.** These items should be readily available to ensure constant communication with the military police desk.
  - **Mobile breath test equipment and drug test kits.** These items should be readily available at checkpoint sites.

SPEED MEASUREMENT EQUIPMENT AND CONSIDERATIONS

8-119.   While speeding does not cause all collisions, it is a major contributor to many collisions. Additionally, excessive speed increases the severity of collisions, potentially causing serious injury or death and increased damage to personal and government property. Speed measurement devices are used by military police to measure the speed of moving vehicles in speed enforcement activities and traffic studies (speed studies).

8-120.   Speed measurement equipment available to military police include—
- **Radar systems.** Small Doppler radar devices can measure the speed of moving vehicles. These devices can be handheld or vehicle-mounted systems. Handheld devices are typically used in contingency environments. Military police must ensure that handheld systems requisitioned for use in tactical vehicles are configured to the vehicle electrical system.
- **Light detection and ranging systems.** These systems are similar to radar systems, except light detection and ranging systems use laser light to measure the speed of objects. Light detection and ranging systems can be handheld or vehicle-mounted.
- **Video image detection systems.** This technology uses video cameras and associated software applications to record vehicle numbers, types, and speeds. These systems are typically mounted to a stationary object and oriented on the road or intersection.

8-121.   Speed measurement equipment systems require significant initial resource investments to cover equipment and installation costs. Some jurisdictions only recognize specific types of speed detection equipment. PMs, military police commanders, and staffs must ensure that the speed equipment used is recognized by the judicial authorities within their AO.

8-122.   The use of speed measurement equipment requires training and periodic certification for law enforcement personnel. Operator training includes site selection, equipment positioning and handling, the use of an internal calibration system or tuning fork, and environmental effects judgment (terrain, structural interference, weather conditions). Documentation of this training and certification may be required in judicial proceedings. Speed detection systems also require cyclical maintenance, to include calibration. A scheduled maintenance program must be established and records maintained of services performed by qualified technicians according to manufacturer specifications. The proof of cyclical calibration may also be required in judicial proceedings. The maintenance and calibration of speed detection equipment must be considered when deployed into an austere environment where maintenance and calibration assets may be unavailable.

VEHICLE CONSIDERATIONS

8-123.   Typically, vehicles used during traffic enforcement operations in support of bases and base camps are specially equipped sedans or light trucks. These vehicles will have, at a minimum, emergency light systems, speed detection equipment, and law enforcement communications equipment. Additionally, they may be equipped with other police package details, to include special interiors designed for transporting apprehended persons; safety cages; automation equipment; and high-performance engine, transmission, and suspension systems. The level of specialization is largely dependent on command priorities and resources.

8-124.   A law enforcement vehicle may be marked or unmarked. Marked vehicles will display markings to make them easily recognizable to the public, to include top-mounted light systems and vehicle graphics identifying them as military police. Other vehicles may be unmarked. Unmarked vehicles will have no exterior graphics, and light systems will be covertly mounted to limit public ability to readily recognize the vehicle as a police vehicle. Unmarked vehicles are used extensively by military police investigators and USACIDC SAs; they are also a choice for some traffic enforcement operations.

8-125.   During the conduct of certain traffic tasks, unmarked vehicles are important to reduce the chance of identification. During traffic studies, for example, law enforcement personnel may use unmarked vehicles to avoid artificially altering data due to public reaction to a police presence. Similarly, during some traffic enforcement activities, TMCIs may use unmarked vehicles to avoid premature detection. There are advantages and disadvantages to each strategy.

8-126. The advantages of using marked vehicles include—

- **High visibility.** A marked car provides physical protection to personnel. Increased visibility can provide added safety by alerting the public to a law enforcement presence and the possibility that their maneuvers or actions on the roadway may not be consistent with normal vehicle operations. In addition, visibility conveys the appearance of an active law enforcement program in support of the community and fosters public support and good relations with the community.
- **Deterrent effects.** The mere presence of a marked vehicle typically has a deterrent effect. For example, having a marked military police vehicle in a reduced-speed zone (in highly populated market areas, school zones) can have an immediate effect on traffic speed, reducing levels without the need for issuing citations.

8-127. The disadvantages of using marked vehicles include—

- **Wind resistance.** Light systems mounted atop law enforcement vehicles increase drag, which decreases acceleration and reduces fuel economy.
- **Habitual problem areas or flagrant violators.** While marked vehicles can be a deterrent by their mere presence in an area (sometimes referred to as the halo effect), this is a temporary condition that stops immediately upon departure of the vehicle. Instances where there are significant problems with traffic violations or other offenses may require the use of unmarked vehicles to reduce the visibility and predictability of law enforcement presence. The reduced detection ability increases the probability of an offender being caught and reduces violations more effectively over a longer period.

8-128. The advantages of using unmarked vehicles include—

- **Stealth and anonymity.** Unmarked vehicles offer a greater degree of stealth and anonymity. In cases where law enforcement does not want to be detected until the time and point of their choosing, the use of unmarked vehicles is the preferred choice.
- **Detection of flagrant violators.** Flagrant violations will typically not occur at a high rate when the violator knows that law enforcement patrols are in the area. The use of unmarked vehicles can enable law enforcement to observe flagrant and habitual violators. The fact that unmarked vehicles may be in the area can also increase any deterrent effect beyond periods where law enforcement patrols (marked or unmarked) are physically present. Therefore, the unmarked vehicle can be an effective traffic enforcement tool.

8-129. The disadvantages of using unmarked vehicles include—

- **Low visibility.** Unmarked vehicles are less visible, by design, than marked vehicles. This can create an increased risk for law enforcement patrols. Army law enforcement using unmarked vehicles must be constantly aware of their surroundings and anticipate the actions of others. Only experienced personnel should be tasked with missions using unmarked vehicles. The use of unmarked vehicles also reduces the appearance of an active law enforcement program supporting the community. This can lead to the perception that law enforcement personnel are not doing enough to support the public need.
- **Officer misconduct.** The very anonymity that can be a benefit to traffic control and enforcement efforts can also provide an opportunity for increased officer misconduct. While rare, some personnel may feel that they are not recognized as Army law enforcement and engage in inappropriate conduct. PMs, military police commanders, and operations officers must be cognizant of this risk. As stated earlier, only experienced personnel should be tasked with missions using unmarked vehicles.

TRAFFIC COLLISION INVESTIGATIONS

8-130. TMCIs are specially trained to conduct collision investigations. They receive training and designation as TMCIs upon successful completion of the Traffic Management and Collision Investigation Course, Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. These investigators provide technical capabilities required for conducting traffic collision investigations and augmenting military police capabilities in conducting traffic enforcement and education. TMCIs reconstruct collisions involving fatalities or extensive property damage and investigate collisions involving minor injuries or damage to government property. They are skilled in

identifying safety issues with roadways, operator training deficiencies, and systemic mechanical problems with vehicles.

8-131.   Traffic collisions are extremely confusing events. How they occur, who or what causes them, and why they occur are factors that the military police must determine. All military police Soldiers should know the fundamentals of traffic collision investigations and how to prepare traffic collision reports. TMCIs can assist in minor traffic collisions, when required. Major traffic collisions involving death, serious bodily injury, or significant property damage should always be investigated by trained TMCIs. ATP 3-39.12 contains in-depth information regarding traffic collision investigation techniques.

8-132.   Military police investigators or USACIDC SA may assume investigative responsibility in collisions in which other offenses contributed to, or resulted from, a collision. Military police should notify the supporting USACIDC element when a traffic collision involves a fatality or when an offense occurs that is within the USACIDC investigative purview according to AR 195-2. In all cases, military police will complete the investigation of the actual traffic collision. A copy of the collision investigation will be provided to other law enforcement investigative elements involved.

8-133.   DA Form 3946 (*Military Police Traffic Accident Report*) contains the essential investigative elements required (who, what, when, where, why, and how) to complete a traffic accident report. The report will include required supporting documents (scaled diagrams, photographs, statements, results of breath analysis). This information can provide for the maximum effective use of military police resources in investigating traffic collisions.

RESPONSE

8-134.   When dispatched to a traffic collision, military police must quickly assess the situation and determine priorities based on the severity of the collision, roadway blockage, injuries, environmental conditions, and many other factors. The on-scene investigation is concerned primarily with data gathering and recording.

8-135.   Upon arrival at a collision scene, military police must conduct a number of actions that may include—

- **Establishing traffic control.** Military police should determine if traffic control is needed upon arrival. Traffic control mitigates the risk of additional collisions caused by traffic flow degradation resulting from the initial collision.
  - **Minor collisions.** Damage is minimal, and no injuries are reported. Collision vehicles may be directed out of the roadway to eliminate traffic control requirements.
  - **Major collisions.** Vehicles are best left in place until an investigation of the collision site can be completed. The intent is to prevent other collisions from occurring and to protect the scene while gaining as much information as possible to accurately report the incident.

Note. Additional patrols may be required to assist in traffic control until the scene can be cleared. For major collisions involving life-threatening injuries or fatalities, scene processing may take several hours.

- **Assessing incidents for the presence of HAZMAT.** Military police responding to a collision site should always be aware that HAZMAT may be present. This is especially true in collisions involving commercial vehicles. While not as likely, passenger vehicles may also have HAZMAT onboard. Military police responders should—
  - Remain observant when approaching a scene for any signs of a spill or odor that might indicate the presence of HAZMAT. Placards on vehicles can alert military police of HAZMAT on board that may or may not have been compromised.
  - Identify safety precautions to protect law enforcement personnel and the public if HAZMAT is discovered. The fire department or other HAZMAT response elements may be required. See appendix C for additional information on responding to HAZMAT situations.

- **Identifying injured personnel.** Military police should determine the extent of injuries to people at the collision scene and administer first aid and emergency treatment, as needed, while waiting for medical first responders to arrive. The fire department may be required to extract personnel trapped within the wreckage. Military police should always recommend that persons with injuries (even minor injuries) seek evaluation by medical personnel to ensure that more serious medical problems are not present.
- **Requesting additional support.** Military police must assess requirements for additional emergency response capabilities. Support required can include—
  - Medical.
  - Fire.
  - HAZMAT.
  - Civil engineers.
  - Towing services.
  - Portable lighting.
  - Temporary traffic control devices and personnel.
- **Obtaining vehicle and operator information.** Military police should check the driver's license, military identification, vehicle registration, and proof of insurance of persons involved in the collision.
- **Identifying damage.** Military police should determine damage to vehicles and surrounding facilities and infrastructure and document all identified information.
- **Locating and interviewing witnesses.** Military police should identify and separate potential witnesses. When possible, all witnesses should be separated until interviews are complete to prevent discussion that may influence their perception of the events surrounding the collision. Statements should be taken when potential witnesses are identified as having significant information. All witness interviews that are not reflected on a witness statement should be documented on the DA Form 3946.
- **Gathering required information.** Military police should obtain the facts surrounding the collision for inclusion in the accident report. Information should be verified by statements or physical evidence. This may include measurements for diagrams of the collision scene.
- **Completing the accident report.** Military police use all gathered data and observations to complete the DA Form 3946 and supporting documentation.

REPORTS

8-136.   A DA Form 3946 should be thorough and concise. The report may be used in civil or judicial proceedings, and the report reflects the professionalism and capability of the military police Soldier or TMCI who prepared the report. Readers of traffic accident reports seldom know the writer; therefore, opinions are often formed on the basis of the report. The credibility of the report can be compromised based on the initial impression of the audience. Poorly written reports can make the most professional military police Soldier or TMCI appear incompetent and unprofessional.

8-137.   Military police who prepare accident reports should strive for—
- **Accuracy, brevity, and clarity.** Plan and write reports so that they clearly and accurately state the essential elements of the case.
- **Objectivity and impartiality.** Conduct a thorough investigation; the investigation must be objective and impartial. Never take sides.
- **Completeness.** Ensure that reports contain the essential information of the investigation. The report should answer the following questions—
  - What took place? Include all known actions leading up to and including the collision.
  - Who was involved? Include all persons surrounding the incident (drivers, victims, pedestrians, and witnesses).
  - When did the collision occur? Include the date, day, and time (for example, 25 March 2011, Friday, 1400).

- Where did the collision occur? Describe the exact location and include any diagrams.
- How did the events occur? List the accident sequence of events in chronological order.
- What elements were involved? Include all vehicles, persons, buildings, traffic control devices, characteristics of the roadway, and other environmental factors.
- Why did the collision occur? This is a statement that includes the military police Soldier's or TMCI's conclusion, based on the operational and conditional factors of the incident.

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Chapter 9

Evidence and Forensics Support

The capability to properly secure and collect physical evidence in support of law enforcement activities and other mission requirements is critical to successful criminal prosecution and mission success. Evidence collection is a capability routinely employed by military police across the full range of military operations. Some operational environments may dictate abbreviated procedures; but when security allows and time and resources are available, it is ideally performed to full evidentiary standard. Advances in the forensic analysis of physical evidence collected at crime scenes and incident sites have expanded the awareness of forensic capabilities and the requirement for properly handling evidence to avoid contamination and maintain the chain of custody. This appendix provides a brief description of the key activities involved in evidence collection and forensic analysis. It focuses on tactics, techniques, and procedures for use in evidence collection by military police, USACIDC, or others involved in the collection and preservation of evidence. The processing and analysis of collected evidence is covered in other publications, including ATP 3-39.12 and ATP 3-39.20.

ANALYSIS AND CAPABILITIES

9-1.   The capabilities to collect, analyze, and exploit latent prints, DNA, firearm signatures, toolmarks, trace evidence, documents, and media have all been employed with great success in support of military operations. Deployable, expeditionary forensic laboratory capabilities have enabled significant expansion, timeliness, and relevant evidence collection and forensic analytical capabilities that support commanders in operational environments.

9-2.   The collection of physical evidence and follow-on forensic analysis enables analysts to identify linkages between individuals, material, organizational infrastructure, and equipment (including weapons). It identifies trends, patterns, and associations pertinent to specific incidents or exploitation sites; enables operating forces to identify enemies and add depth and scope to the intelligence picture; and answering commander's critical information requirements. (See ATP 3-39.12 for additional information on evidence collection, and see ATP 3-90.15 for additional information on site exploitation.) Forensics can provide information and intelligence that supports the following:

- **Protection efforts.** Information derived from collected evidence and subsequent analysis can enhance preventive protection measures by identifying threats and enabling commanders to implement measures to mitigate hostile actions against U.S. personnel, resources, facilities, and critical information.
- **Targeting actions.** Forensic analysis that identifies and attributes threat elements to specific sites, actions, or networks and contributes to lethal and nonlethal targeting against threats.
- **Source identification.** Evidence collected and subsequent forensic analysis can be fused with other information obtained through intelligence and operational channels to increase the commander's situational awareness and understanding of the origin and movement of components used by threats, regional groups involved, and transnational sponsorships.
- **Support to prosecution.** Evidence collected, analyzed, and exploited by analysts, law enforcement investigators, forensic laboratory examiners, and staffs can link individuals to particular locations, events, or devices and establish trends, patterns and associations. These results can be used to further criminal investigations. They can also be compiled to build a criminal

prosecutorial package for use in conjunction with the testimony of experts to further detain or charge individuals who are suspected or proven to be involved in criminal acts against U.S. forces, coalition forces, or resources.

- **Warrant-based operations.** As U.S. forces conduct stability tasks to strengthen legitimate governance and restore or maintain the rule of law, they may be required to obtain judicially issued warrants from the HN to execute site exploitation or targeting in support of the commander's objectives

KEY ACTIVITIES

9-3. Physical evidence collection and forensic analysis as an overall capability is divided into the following collection activities:

- **On-site.** On-site collection activities include the recognition, preservation, and collection of evidence. These activities can be conducted by Army law enforcement patrols, law enforcement investigators, emergency response teams, and other Soldiers at an incident site or crime scene.
- **Off-site.** Off-site activities include the storage of collected evidence, the analysis of evidence, and the production and dissemination of forensic reports and police intelligence analysis.

9-4. Depending on the mission and the environment, these activities can be conducted by evidence custodians within law enforcement organizations and forensic laboratories, law enforcement investigators, forensic analysts, police intelligence analysts, and military intelligence analysts. Figure 9-1 depicts evidence collection and forensic analysis activities.
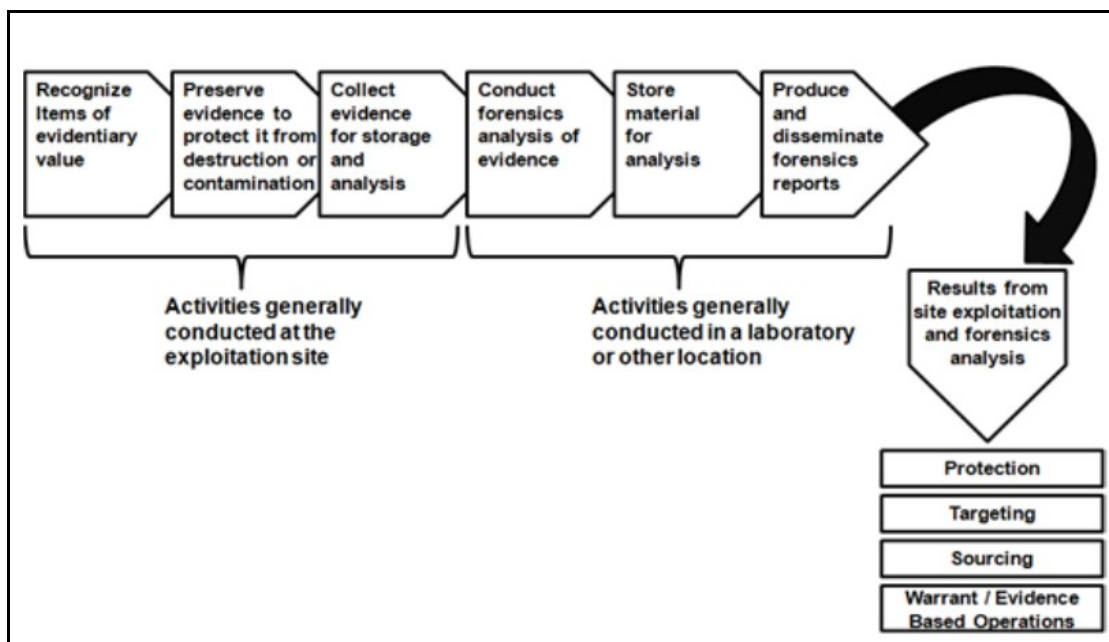
Figure 9-1. Key evidence collection and forensic analysis activities

ON-SITE ACTIVITIES

9-5. Processing a crime scene or conducting site exploitation requires specific activities. The senior person at the site is responsible for—

- Overseeing the operations, security, and site assessment.
- Specifying a detainee holding area or screening area for persons of interest discovered at the site (if required).
- Ensuring that a chronology of events is documented (a chronological timeline from arrival to departure from the site).

- Ensuring that the site is cleared of threat personnel and EOD personnel have rendered the scene safe from booby traps, and all explosive hazards and other hazards, to friendly forces, and clear the scene of all bystanders or witnesses.
- Prioritizing the site search.
- Ensuring that the site documentation is complete.
- Preparing required reports.

9-6.   While each situation is different, there are some key activities that are common when processing most crime scenes or incident sites.

Initial Walk-Through Activites

9-7.   Initial walk-through activities are typically conducted by a military police Soldier or USACIDC SA when the crime scene is processed. During contingency operations, this task may be conducted by a Soldier or support personnel trained on the recognition, preservation, and collection of evidence and assigned to the site exploitation element. The initial walk-through is conducted before the start of the deliberate search and collection effort. When conducting a walk-through, the safety of on-site personnel is of primary importance. Special attention should be placed on identifying potential hazards. Secondly, the individual conducting the walk-through should focus on identifying the evidence and prioritizing the collection. Additional considerations during the initial walk-through include—

- Establishing an entry control point.
- Verifying the number of rooms (if searching a building).
- Establishing the location for an evidence collection point.
- Determining whether the initial cordon requires expansion to protect evidence or provide hazard mitigation.
- Identifying equipment or special skills (outside the capabilities of the team) required to adequately process the site.
- Determining the best search method for the site.
- Identifying fragile evidence that should be collected during the initial walk-through or be immediately protected from environmental conditions or inadvertent destruction by team members.
- Determining which items are safe enough to collect and those that require on-site processing before collection (latent prints, trace).
- Considering the use of evidence markers (large numbers on tent-shaped markers that can be placed adjacent to evidence).
- Considering the use of still or video photography (digital) to brief the team and document the condition of the site as it was initially found.
- Drawing a sketch map for briefing.
- Annotating initial observations to use in briefing the team.

Recognition of Potential Evidence

9-8.   Military police, USACIDC, weapons intelligence teams, task-organized battalion site exploitation teams, emergency response teams, and other Soldiers must be trained and capable of identifying materials and data that have potential evidentiary or forensic value.

Preservation of Evidence

9-9.   The preservation of evidence involves protecting materials and data from the moment the items are recognized as evidence or protecting incident sites or crime scenes where latent or other evidence not readily identifiable is likely to be found. Evidence must be protected and preserved by available, reasonable measures (marking, packaging, tracking) to prevent contamination, loss, or alteration. These measures may include establishing cordons and entry control measures and providing physical protection to incident or crime scene areas.

Collection of Evidence

9-10. Collection of evidence is the recovery of materials from incident sites or crime scenes. The incident site or crime scene is documented, contextual information is recorded (within environmental and threat constraints), and materials are inventoried. The presumptive testing of materials may also be involved. It is critical to establish and maintain an unbroken and documented chain of custody. The collection of evidence inherently includes its transfer to an adequate storage area or location where a more complete analysis can be performed. Ensure that evidence is correctly processed by—

- Attaching a DA Form 4002 (*Evidence/Property Tag*) directly to the item of evidence, the evidence container, or the blank shoe tag that is attached to the item. Merely attaching a completed DA Form 4002 to an item of evidence does not meet the requirements of AR 195-5. Each item of evidence or sealed evidence container must also be individually marked for future identification. If evidence is placed in a heat-seal bag, the tag on the bag may replace the adhesive label. Initiate a chain-of-custody documentation (DA Form 4137 [*Evidence/Property Custody Document]*). This documentation includes a list of the seized items (when, where, and by whom) and a description of the items (including serial numbers).
- Conducting quality control to ensure that evidence is properly packaged, marked, and documented. All items of evidence should be marked (on the container, not on the evidence) with the initials of the collector and the time, date, and location of collection.

Evidence for Transfer

9-11. The original and three copies of DA Form 4137 must be completed and updated each time custody changes for any piece of evidence. The original and the first two copies are submitted to the evidence custodian. The third copy is placed in the official case file.

Laboratory Request

9-12. DD Form 2922 (*Forensic Laboratory Examination Request*) is used to begin a laboratory request if one is required.

OFF-SITE ACTIVITIES

9-13. Off-site activities include the processing, storage, and analysis of collected items and the production and dissemination of site exploitation reports to inform and support follow-on activities. Off-site collection and forensic analysis activities support technical exploitation. Activities include the appropriate storage of collected materials; the analysis of collected materials based on the availability and location of supporting forensic capabilities; the production of forensic reports that document facts; information and intelligence that result from the analysis and dissemination of the reports to submitting organizations and other consumers of forensic information, as appropriate.

Storage of Collected Evidence

9-14. Materials and associated information must be maintained until associated law enforcement investigations or tactical operations are fully adjudicated or resolved. Storage mediums must be adequate to preserve perishable evidence and prevent the degradation of evidence, to the maximum extent possible. Policies and procedures relevant to specific missions or activities will dictate proper disposition.

Analysis of Evidence

9-15. This activity includes analysis by investigators and trained analysts and technical examinations at forensic laboratories. Even though analysis predominantly occurs away from the incident site or crime scene, initial analysis may begin at an on-site location through the recognition of materials and contextual information.

Production and Dissemination of Forensic Reports and Police Intelligence

9-16. After analysis is complete, the results are catalogued and the appropriate reports and products are produced. These reports and products are shared according to policies and procedures relevant to the specific mission and the operational environment. The dissemination of forensic reports and associated police intelligence enables the effective exploitation of collected evidence and resultant data. Exploitation can be conducted by law enforcement and legal personnel (in criminal cases) and by U.S. military commanders (in contingency operations) when information and police intelligence is integrated into the operations process. Exploiting the results of forensic analysis can lead to targeting actions, apprehensions, and prosecutions of suspects. See ATP 3-39.20 for additional information on the production and dissemination of police intelligence and police information.

9-17. Evidence collection and forensic analysis are integral activities to criminal investigations, crime prevention strategies, police patrols, and broader police intelligence activities on Army installations. Within contingency operations, police information and police intelligence resulting from a forensic analysis of collected evidence provides critical information to the operations process and feeds the intelligence process. See ATP 3-39.20.

IDENTIFICATION, PRESERVATION, AND COLLECTION OF EVIDENCE

9-18. Evidence collection and subsequent forensic analysis are conducted across all environments, ranging from stable environments and associated law enforcement activities to unstable environments associated with contingency operations. Military police support collection efforts across the entire range of environments. Military police can function solely as part of a U.S. military law enforcement effort, a multinational law enforcement effort, or general military operations supporting site exploitation efforts. Site exploitation is systematically searching for and collecting information, material, and persons from a designated location and analyzing them to answer information requirements, facilitate subsequent operations, or support criminal prosecutions. See ATP 3-90.15 for additional information.

9-19. During law enforcement operations (including stable contingency environments that support U.S. and HN populations), the collection of evidence by military police law enforcement patrols responding to a crime scene is limited to items directly resulting from a search incident to apprehension or that may pose a danger to law enforcement patrols and others in the area (weapons, drugs). Military police law enforcement should initially focus on—

- Assessing and prioritizing immediate or potential dangers and taking action to ensure that persons at the crime scene or incident site (to include law enforcement personnel) are safe.
- Requesting additional resources (when required) and establishing and maintaining control of the situation.
- Identifying and segregating victims, possible subjects, and witnesses to the crime or incident.
- Securing the crime scene or incident site.
- Conducting initial investigations and initial interviews of victims, possible subjects, and witnesses.

9-20. Potential evidence should be identified as early as possible by responding law enforcement patrols. However, many times the priority of work for first-responder law enforcement elements does not allow an extensive search of the area until additional patrols and law enforcement investigators arrive at the scene. Once additional patrols or law enforcement investigators arrive, the division of labor can be established by the senior military police or law enforcement investigator at the scene. Any evidence identified by patrols should be protected by collection and preservation or by establishing cordons to limit access to the evidence site and enable a deliberate search for additional evidence.

9-21. All personnel who are not essential to processing a scene, to include unit and law enforcement leadership, should stay outside the established cordon area to prevent the contamination or destruction of evidence. Leadership should be briefed outside the crime scene or incident site by the senior military police or law enforcement investigator. During contingency operations, the senior leader in charge of the site may be nonmilitary police or USACIDC personnel. Incidents involving chemical, biological, radiological,

nuclear, and explosives, regardless of the environment, may require specially trained HAZMAT, CBRN, or EOD personnel to control the inner cordon until the area is rendered safe.

9-22. At major or complex incident sites or crimes scenes, a deliberate systematic search of the site to collect and document identified evidence should be conducted under the supervision of military police investigators or USACIDC SAs with military police patrols supporting the effort.

9-23. Upon arrival of military police investigators or USACIDC SAs, military police law enforcement patrols should thoroughly brief the law enforcement investigators regarding—
- Response to, and observations of, the incident.
    - Physical characteristics and the layout of the crime scene or incident site.
    - Behavior and the general demeanor of victims, subjects, and witnesses.
    - Observed physical characteristics of the crime scene and the actions or behaviors of victims, subjects, or witnesses that seem odd or out of place. These observations can be helpful to law enforcement investigators as they conduct the investigation.
- Victims, witnesses, and potential subjects.
- Initial interview and investigation results that were conducted by responding military police patrols.
- Identified evidence (including evidence physically collected and protected, but still in place).
- Physical locations and established boundaries of secured crime scenes.

9-24. In unstable environments, especially those consistent with contingency operations, evidence collection may be conducted in conjunction with hasty or deliberate site exploitation operations. Hasty site exploitation, including the collection of valuable evidence, is typically conducted in time-constrained environments, especially when the threat is too high to risk extended presence on an objective, incident site, or crime scene. This type of exploitation is conducted on an objective or site that can provide military forces an immediate and timely opportunity to exploit threat information gained through collected evidence and statements from personnel. It may be conducted by functional military police elements or as part of a combined arms team. Hasty site exploitation procedures should be included as a contingency operation in most operational plans. Hasty site exploitation is warranted in many instances, to include following:
- An immediate incident response (as with the explosion of an improvised explosive device or other attack).
- The discovery of a weapons cache.
- A raid mission or an assault where information, personnel, or material require collection.
- A tip from an informant regarding threat activity, personnel, or material.
- A deliberate site exploitation where evidence of a previously unknown site is discovered.

9-25. Deliberate site exploitation is conducted when there is sufficient time available and the conditions are conducive to secure the site, conduct deliberate planning and rehearsals, and move dedicated site exploitation assets to the site. This will typically be a combined arms operation employing technical specialties from numerous branches. When specific information or material relevant to a commander's critical information requirements is identified, hasty site exploitation can evolve into deliberate site exploitation. Deliberate site exploitation teams should include technical and functional experts that can enhance the team's ability. The specific technical capabilities required should be based on the type of site being exploited and the material expected at the site. The ability to include specialized assets as part of the site exploitation team can expedite the collection effort and the subsequent analysis of evidence collected for exploitation.

CRIME SCENE OR INCIDENT SITE PROCESSING

9-26. In any criminal investigation, the validity of information obtained from physical evidence and subsequent analysis may be challenged if the evidence has not been protected from contamination and an uncompromised chain of custody has not been maintained. Evidence must be properly collected, handled, and stored to ensure that the integrity of the evidence and the validity of a subsequent analysis are maintained and can survive scrutiny. This can also be critical for evidence collected during nonlaw enforcement-related military operations. Many times, evidence collected and processed during military operations is required to

successfully prosecute war criminals, terrorists, or other threat elements conducting criminal activities against U.S. forces and our multinational and HN partners.

9-27. No two crime scenes or incident sites are the same. Military police and USACIDC Soldiers and leaders must evaluate each site individually and conduct evidence collection based on the specific crime or the incident, threat, or hazard specific to the site; command and PM policies and directives; and other considerations that affect the environment. Each crime scene or site must be evaluated by responding military police and USACIDC personnel based on the type of incident; environmental conditions; personnel involved; and the threat (or other hazards) to responding personnel, witnesses, victims, and the general population. The senior, on-site military police or USACIDC SA should take charge and plan the activities of other responding or supporting personnel. At bases and base camps (for crimes or incidents in which USACIDC has purview as dictated by AR 195-2), the senior USACIDC SA will typically maintain operational control of the crime scene, with military police elements in support. The senior military police Soldier on-scene should coordinate directly with the senior USACIDC SA on-scene to determine required support requirements.

9-28. The senior military police or USACIDC SA should take actions to ensure that the—
- Site is protected.
    - Restrict foot or vehicle travel through the site to protect evidence.
    - Emplace ropes, tapes, signs, and guards to limit access.
- Military police and investigators follow general guidelines for processing crime scenes. These guidelines are applied in sequence, and they are relevant to most incident sites or crime scenes (although the conditions of individual sites will vary).
    - **Observe.** Perform an initial walk-through and search for items, but do not disturb them.
    - **Record.** Document the site and the evidence using photographs, sketches, and notes.
    - **Preserve.** Use proper containers and chain-of-custody documents to protect items.
    - **Process and collect.** Dust for latent prints, and bag and tag items (Consider superglue fuming of nonporous items for preservation of latent fingerprints wherever possible).
    - **Transport.** Safely move the items and paperwork to the appropriate analytical element as soon as practical.

EVIDENCE COLLECTION

9-29. The array of possible evidence at any location is as varied as the incidents or crimes associated with those locations. The collection of material at any crime scene or incident site must be prioritized and conducted based on the type of incident, any threat or hazards associated with the site, and other environmental conditions. Collectors wear gloves when gathering evidentiary material; this is for their safety and the protection of evidence.

9-30. Some evidence cannot be easily identified or is not easily collected by simply picking the item up. It should be noted that not all evidence is obvious or visible to the collector. For some types of evidence, additional measures must be taken to identify, collect, and preserve the evidence for further evaluation and use in criminal investigations and legal proceedings. Some evidence must be further developed (latent prints, blood stains) to be visible, while other items are simply too small (trace evidence) to be readily seen without the use of specific techniques and equipment. Other materials may be large enough to be observed but may be hidden by other objects.

9-31. Examples of potential evidence that dictate the need for further processing or the use of special techniques to detect and collect them can include—
- Latent prints (fingerprints, palm prints, and footprints).
- Trace evidence.
- Impressions (footwear, tire tracks, toolmarks).
- Biological materials.

Latent Prints

9-32. Latent prints can be on nearly any surface. There is a chance that anything touched by an individual could bear latent prints which may be collected as evidence. Latent prints are characterized as porous or nonporous. Porous surfaces can include cardboard, paper, and unfinished wood. Latent prints are difficult to extract from porous material. The best method is to collect and package the entire piece of material and transport it to a laboratory for print development by chemical or other means.

9-33. Nonporous material is typically an easier medium from which latent prints can be developed and collected. These materials can include glass, metal, finished wood, plastic, and other materials. Nonporous surfaces can also include textured surfaces (vinyls, appliances, computers, vehicle interiors). Items where latent prints are detected (handheld mirrors, drinking glasses) can be collected for analysis off-site. If the entire object cannot be seized, the use of print powder and tape can be used to lift a latent print from a nonporous surface. Army law enforcement investigators have the equipment and materials necessary to apply powder and lift latent prints from nonporous surfaces. See ATP 3-39.12.

9-34. Latent prints can be found by several means. A close examination of a surface may reveal the presence of a print to the naked eye. Scanning a surface believed to have latent fingerprints with a flashlight held obliquely (almost parallel) is effective for many surfaces. Perform cyanoacrylate (super glue) fuming of all nonporous evidence whenever possible. Items that are believed to have been handled, but do not show a visible print, should be seized for analysis off-site.

9-35. After a print is located and before processing it, make note of its location and condition. This data should be included in any sketches produced of the scene. The latent print should be photographed as found, using midrange, close-up, and close-up with scale identifier techniques. The use of an oblique light may be necessary to obtain the photograph. The close-up photograph of the fingerprint should fill the frame.

Trace Evidence

9-36. Trace evidence is minute quantities of material found on other material or evidence. It can be hairs, fibers, powder, or other residue. These small quantities of material are sometimes difficult to locate and extract. At times, large objects must be collected so that trace evidence can be extracted in a laboratory. When trace evidence is located at a crime scene or incident site, the location of the material must be documented and photographed before collection.

9-37. First, examine the area suspected of containing trace evidence to determine what is visible to the eye without enhancement. The likelihood of finding trace evidence can be enhanced by using oblique lighting (shining a light source [such as a flashlight] almost parallel to the surface being examined). Darkening the room while using oblique lighting is a technique that may enhance the visibility of trace evidence. Trace evidence may also be collected when packaging other evidence by placing clean paper beneath the evidence. The process of packaging the original evidence may cause trace evidence to fall onto the clean paper beneath where it can then be documented and collected.

9-38. Always wear gloves when collecting trace evidence. Rubber tip or plastic tweezers are best for collecting hair and fiber material. Other residues may be collected using low-tack tape; the sticky portion of adhesive notepads can be used as a field-expedient method. Trace evidence should be collected in clean paper using a druggist fold. A druggist fold consists of folding one end of the paper over one third, and then folding the other end one third over that. The process is then repeated from the other two sides. This creates nine squares when unfolded. Place the evidence into the center square and refold. The outside two edges can then be tucked into each other to make a closed container to protect evidence and keep it from falling out of the container. Once the evidence is folded into the paper, it can be sealed and marked appropriately. It is best not to package hairs, fibers, or biological evidence in plastic bags; plastic does not allow moisture within these materials to dissipate, thus increasing the chance of mold. See ATP 3-39.12.

Impressions

9-39. Impressions can be left behind as two-dimensional or three-dimensional imprints. Two-dimensional impressions are typically left on flat, hard surfaces; three-dimensional impressions are left in material that is

softer and gives way under the weight or pressure of the object leaving the impression. Impressions can result from many actions and can include footwear prints, tire tracks, or toolmarks.

9-40. After locating the impression, and before processing, document the location and the condition of the found item. Include a location description in any sketches produced. Photograph the impression as found using midrange, close-up, and close-up with scale identifier techniques.

9-41. Two-dimensional impressions can sometimes be lifted by powdering and using fingerprint tape. If the impression is larger than the width of the tape, layer the tape (with a 1/4 inch or more overlap) so that it fits over the impression. Place the lifted impression on a clean sheet of paper, and then package it for transport.

9-42. For three-dimensional impressions, collect the entire item containing the impression if possible. For example, a toolmark on a door frame can be collected by removing the damaged section of the door frame. Sometimes, the only way to collect a three-dimensional impression is by casting or photographing it. Photograph the toolmark from various angles so that all characteristics of the impression, including those on the vertical sides, can be seen. Photographs of impressions must be taken with and without a scale in the frame. A flash may be required to obtain adequate detail in darkness or when shadows are a problem.

Biological Materials

9-43. All biological materials at crime scenes or incident sites should be treated as a biohazard and handled with great caution. Latex, nitrile, or other nonporous polymer gloves must be worn when recovering and packaging biological evidence. Additional personal protective equipment (eye protection, surgical masks, full-body protective covering) is recommended. All items of evidence should be carefully documented before collection, to include photographing the evidence at the original location. If sketches are produced, include the location of the evidence on the sketch.

9-44. When packaging clothing or other evidentiary items that have blood, urine, or other biological material on them, ensure that the items are dried and packaged separately. Each item must be packaged separately in clean paper or cardboard packing material. Gloves should be changed after handling each item of evidence to avoid cross contamination. Also, evidence collectors should avoid talking, coughing, or sneezing around or over unsealed evidence to avoid cross contamination.

9-45. Clean, sterile swabs or swatches must be used to collect blood or other fluid samples. Dried blood or other suspect stains can be sampled with a swab or swatch moistened with clean water to gather a sample. Allow samples to air-dry before storing them in dry, breathable containers (paper or cardboard).

EVIDENCE CONTAMINATION

9-46. Evidence (fingerprints, hairs, saliva, or other contaminants) can be contaminated through contact with people or from cross contamination between items of evidence. Military police and USACIDC Soldiers must exercise care to avoid evidence contamination to the greatest extent possible.

9-47. General measures to avoid contamination of evidence include—
- Using personal protective equipment to reduce the risk of individuals causing contamination. Collect and handle items gently with gloved hands (change gloves between handling different items of evidence). Be cognizant of what is handled with gloved hands before handling evidence.
- Handling evidence where fingerprints are least likely to be (on corners, edges, rough surfaces).
- Practicing extreme care when using instruments to collect evidence (such as tweezers) to prevent possible destruction or alteration of the physical characteristics of the evidence. Ensure that any instruments used to collect evidence are sterile.
- Avoiding writing directly on evidence, when possible.
- Packaging items separately. The integrity of evidence must be maintained from the site to the laboratory; protect it from physical breakage, contamination, bacterial growth, and such. (See table 9-1, page 9-10, for detailed evidence collection guidelines.) When packaging items—
  - Use appropriate containers (clean bags, boxes, envelopes, cans).
  - Use clean, folded paper or paper bags instead of plastic bags for biological materials.

■ Ensure that improvised packaging is clean (so as not to contaminate the evidence). For example, using ammunition cans for guns or spent shell casings may transfer residue to the weapon. Using suitcases for clothing can cross contaminate DNA from hairs, fingernails, skin cells, or other contaminants.

■ Use a druggist fold of clean paper for small or trace items of evidence.

Table 9-1. Evidence collection guidelines

Item	Collection	Recommended Packaging
Sharp glass, metal objects, and metal fragments	• Use tweezers to handle objects. • Be aware of possible fingerprints. • Collect glass on top of shoes or clothing or on the hair of a subject or victim.	• Wrap items in paper or another cushioning material to protect sharp edges. • Place wrapped items in paper bags, and place bags in a rigid container.
Firearms	• Photograph weapons in place. Note the position of the safety, selector lever, and hammer (when possible); and add items to any sketches made. • Render weapons safe by removing all ammunition. Do not remove ammunition from loaded magazines. Ammunition may have latent prints. Save the ammunition as evidence (it may be useful for comparison analysis and may contain latent prints). • Handle firearms only on rough surfaces (to prevent damage to other latent evidence). • Record the manufacturer, model, and any serial numbers or other markings found.	• Place firearms in a cardboard box or wrap them in paper. • Package ammunition similarly, but wrap it separately from the weapon.
Documents and drawings	• Photograph items in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made. • Examine items for information on activity plans, personal contacts, handwriting samples, and other exploitable information. • Examine documents for fingerprints. Use care when handling (pick up by the edges to lessen the chance of disturbing latent evidence). • Seize paper pads that may contain indented writings.	• Place items in a paper envelope or plastic bag and then in a cardboard box. • Use any available dry, clean bag or box for field expediency.
Computers, laptops, digital cameras, and other electronic devices	• Photograph in place (when possible), and add to any sketches made. • If a device is powered off, do not power on. • Home computers: If on, observe open programs. If of evidentiary value, photograph and consult with digital forensic examiner. Otherwise, power off the system. • Laptops: Same as above. Remove the battery then power cord if connected. • Mobile devices: If possible, place in airplane mode or otherwise disconnect from network (faraday bag). Maintain power to the device and consult with digital forensic examiner.	• Package items in butcher paper. • Do not tape items directly to the computer tower or laptop; only attach tape to the butcher paper. • Place items in a cardboard box. *Note.* Digital electronic items may have tracking capability that can allow them to be tracked by criminal or threat elements. These items should be placed in Farady bags or others shielded containers and transported to personnel trained in digital analysis as quickly as possible to expedite exploitation and to mitigate tracking threats.

Table 9-1. Evidence collection guidelines (continued)

Item	*Collection*	*Recommended Packaging*
Computers, laptops, digital cameras, and other electronic devices (continued)	• Collect USB devices, DVDs, CDs, memory cards, and passwords.	
DVDs and CDs	• Photograph in place (when possible) and add them to any sketches made. • Pick up items on the edges to avoid disturbing latent evidence.	• Place items in an envelope, paper CD envelope, or butcher paper; and place them in a cardboard box. • Do not allow the tape to touch the DVDs or CDs. • Prop up the evidence so that only the edges are touching the sides of the box.
Chemicals	• Do not collect CBRN hazards unless absolutely necessary. Obtain safety guidance from trained CBRN or HAZMAT personnel. • Photograph items in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made.	• Never mix chemicals. • Place less than 5 mL (2–3 mL) of chemical sample into a sealed glass container, preferably with a polytetrafluoroethylene-lined cap. • Use trained personnel to retrieve and package chemical evidence.
Tobacco products and matches	• Examine items for DNA, saliva, latent prints, lip gloss, or lipstick. • Examine matches for fingerprints and other evidence that is recoverable in a laboratory.	• Place items in a clean envelope or a druggist fold, seal it, and place it in a metal container. • Use a clean glass jar or metal container for field expediency.
Biological material (saliva, semen, urine)	• Photograph items in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made.	• Collect a dry sample by moistening a cotton swab. • Prepare a moist or liquid sample by absorbing the substance onto a cotton swab. Allow to air dry. • Dry samples in place inside a paper bag; or use clean paper, wrapped in another layer of clean paper.
Soils and minerals	• Dig soil and mineral samples from an outside area. Collect at least 4 ounces per sample. • Examine carpet or other flooring, shovels and other tools, and various locations within a vehicle (accelerator, clutch, trunk, vehicle carpet) for soil samples.	• Place the sample in a small vial, jar, or clean metal can. • Use any clean glass jar or metal container for field expediency.
Tools	• Photograph in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made.	• Place the evidence in a cardboard box, ensuring that the working surface of the tool is protected
Toolmarks	• Photograph (when possible), and add them to any sketches made. • Photograph in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made. • Collect the item, when possible.	• Cushion items with paper towels or cotton; place them in a cardboard box. • Use any clean cardboard box for field expediency.

Table 9-1. Evidence collection guidelines (continued)

Item	Collection	Recommended Packaging
Toolmarks (continued)	• Remove the toolmark if the toolmark is part of a larger item (door, window frame, fence, other marked object). Mark the edges cut by investigators.	
Building materials (insulation, wood, roofing materials, ceiling particles)	• Collect samples of other material containing residue; gather as much of the damaged area or residue as possible.	• Package small trace evidence by putting it in a padded container or a druggist fold. • Use clean toilet paper or paper towels (when necessary) as field-expedient packaging materials. • Wrap larger samples in clean paper, and place them in a clean cardboard box.
Paint	• Ensure that wet paint is dry before collection; scrape or cut it from the surface. • Collect paint chips (about the size of a nickel) from the top layer of the original surface of the object painted. This may require cutting out the sample from the top all the way to the surface. • Collect a full layer (to include the top layer) through the surface if there is damage to a wall.	• Collect small chips by placing them in a druggist fold and then place the paper in a larger envelope. • Collect dried paint by scraping it into a druggist fold or seizing the entire substrate. • Document the label with the color of the sample and layers of liquid within the sample.
Drugs and narcotics	• Photograph and sketch items in place. • Do not try to process clandestine drug laboratories as they may have extremely dangerous chemicals and booby traps. *Note.* A site that contains large amounts of drugs or narcotics is likely to have additional items related to that activity, including currency, weapons, business logs and other written records, and computers containing associated digital records.	• Ensure that pills are counted and placed in plastic or glass jars or pill boxes. Keep pill types separated. • Ensure that plant material (biological substances) is not placed in plastic bags. Moisture within the material can cause mold if not packaged in breathable containers.
Wires, ropes, and cords	• Photograph in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made. • Ensure that smooth (plastic) material is examined for possible latent prints. • Examine woven materials (rough surfaces) for evidence (skin cells [do not touch with bare hands]). • Consider the possibility of biological material on ropes, cords, or wires. • Do not untie knots. Cut away a section as far as possible from the knot.	• Collect small pieces by placing them in a druggist fold and then double-wrapping it in a larger envelope. • Collect large sections by rolling them into wrapped paper and then placing them in an appropriately sized paper bag. • Use any clean paper bag or cardboard box for field expediency.
Tape	• Photograph in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made. • Place balls of tape on glass or hard plastic surfaces.	• Place tape in a clean cardboard box to preserve the nonstick side.

Table 9-1. Evidence collection guidelines (continued)

Item	*Collection*	*Recommended Packaging*
Tape (continued)	• Place unraveled tape with the sticky side on glass or a hard plastic surface to prevent smudging and smearing. • Photograph in place (when possible), and add them to any sketches made. • Place balls of tape on glass or hard plastic surfaces. • Place unraveled tape with the sticky side on glass or a hard plastic surface to prevent smudging and smearing.	• Place tape in a clean cardboard box to preserve the nonstick side.
Burnt paper	• Examine whether evidence needs to be hand-carried to a laboratory or storage site. ***Note.*** Burnt paper is difficult to collect without destroying it; sometimes burnt paper simply turns black instead of disintegrating.	• Place a piece of paper under the burnt paper. • Place paper in a box padded with toilet paper or paper towels.
Postblast, and UXO sites	• Do not touch UXO or HAZMAT. • Contact EOD or other specialized units that service such sites immediately.	NA

Legend:			
CBRN	chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear	mL	milliliter(s)
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid	NA	not applicable
EOD	explosive ordnance disposal	UXO	unexploded ordnance

Note. Areas containing, or suspected of containing chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and explosives material or explosives should be secured and left for technical CBRN, EOD, or other experts to process. This includes unexploded ordnance or stockpiles of ammunition and explosives. Postblast sites also require specialized training and expertise to safely and effectively process. In contingency environments, command guidance, policy, and established procedures must be followed when determining the appropriate actions for these types of sites.

SEARCH METHODS

9-48. A variety of search methods can be employed at crime scenes and incident sites. The specific method used to process a particular site is based on the individual characteristics of the site, the time available to safely process the site, the skill level of the team, the tools and equipment available, and the importance of the evidence itself. The search method should be determined by the senior military police or USACIDC SA on-site or the appropriate unit commander as appropriate. Search methods include—

- **Zone search.** A zone search is conducted by dividing the site or area to be searched into smaller manageable areas or zones. Searchers are then assigned specific zones in which to concentrate their search efforts. This method works well for searching buildings and individual rooms. Within each zone, a separate search method may be employed (such as a strip or quadrant method).
- **Circle or spiral search.** This method requires the searcher to start at the outside of the area or room and move in a slow circle search, gradually closing the radius to spiral the pattern inward. Care must be exercised to avoid the tendency to speed the search as the spiral tightens toward the center. To ensure thoroughness, the pattern should then be reversed to cover the same area from the opposite direction. This can be done by the same searcher, or another searcher can be employed.
- **Strip and line search.** This method is typically used for large areas (including outside sites). The area is divided into lanes or strips that can be searched by one person (1 to 2 meters in width). The search begins on an outer strip. After moving completely through each strip, the searcher moves

to the adjacent strip and searches in the opposite direction. The pattern continues until the entire area is searched.

- **Line search.** This method is a variation of the strip and line search and is used when multiple searchers are available. The lanes or strips are set, and multiple searchers move down individual lanes simultaneously.
- **Grid search.** In this method, two sets of lanes (similar to the strip and line method) are set at 90° angles to form a grid. The lanes are searched first in one direction; then the area is searched again by going over the same terrain at a 90° angle to the first search. The grid search is more time-consuming, but provides a greater degree of thoroughness and a higher likelihood that all available evidence will be found.

9-49. When searching rooms and buildings, searchers should not neglect wall hangings. Remember to search under and behind pictures or other items on the wall. Be watchful for false ceilings, false walls, false floorboards, storage areas, attic doors, and hidden compartments. Search under and behind furniture and appliances.

9-50. For vehicle searches, the zone method works well. The vehicle is divided into segments or zones and methodically searched. All areas of the passenger interior and storage compartments should be searched, to include pulling up corners of carpeted areas. Thoroughly search the trunk and engine compartment, looking under spare tires, behind padding, and inside storage compartments. On vehicles without molded bumpers, check behind bumper assemblies. The trunk, dash assembly, door panels, bumpers, fuel doors, and other areas should be checked for hidden compartments.

DOCUMENTATION

9-51. Proper documentation of the crime scene or incident site and all associated evidence can be critical to the value of the evidence during subsequent analysis and criminal prosecution. Documentation of the site helps provide context to the evidence, spatial references between evidence and other objects or features of the site, and the identification of specific physical aspects of the site itself. Following general documentation of the crime scene or incident site, more detailed documentation of specific evidence or other subelements of the site (individual rooms, courtyards, detached buildings, or other items) should be conducted.

9-52. The crime scene or incident site is typically documented through—

- Notes.
- Photographs.
- Sketches (hand drawn or digital).

Notes

9-53. Detailed notes should be taken while the site or crime scene is being documented to complement photographs and sketches and to document observations of the crime scene, the incident site, and associated personnel. Describe the general layout of the room or area and anything that is important to help recall details later. Provide descriptions of individual items and their relation to each other and their environment. The note taker should also document behaviors, spontaneous statements by personnel at the crime scene, or other observations that may help investigators during follow-up investigations.

9-54. Notes taken will be used to support sketches and follow-on reports. The notes taken at the scene should complement or add clarifying detail to the content of sketches and photographs. Details from notes taken at the scene can also provide law enforcement investigators and police intelligence analysts with details that help build an understanding of the specific incident or case.

Photographs

9-55. Photographs to document crime scenes and incident sites are generally broken down into general or overall site photographs, midrange photographs, and close-up photographs. Ensure that the flash feature is turned off before taking any incident site photographs until the site has been deemed clear of potential improvised explosive device hazards, especially inside structures. Video documentation can also be used to document crime scenes. Military police should keep a journal of the photographs taken. This allows the

annotation of deleted photographs, photographs taken out of sequence, and adds context to the photograph for further identification when being looked at later. During detainee processing, photographs of the detainee should be taken with the captured material to associate the detainee with the evidence.

9-56. An overall photograph of the area shows the general site condition. It is taken to portray a wide general view of the area being documented. It can also show the original position of large objects, bodies, or other evidence. Site photographs can be used to document efforts to hide evidence. Evidence markers can be useful for documenting specific items of evidence and can be used to cross-reference the photograph to other documentary evidence. Interior and exterior views of rooms, courtyards, or other areas should be taken.

9-57. Midrange photographs are taken to show the spatial relationship between an item and a fixed feature. Typically, the fixed feature used to show a spatial relationship with an item of evidence should be captured in an overall photograph taken previously. Several photographs from multiple vantage points may be required to fully document the spatial relationship of a target item to a fixed item. Multiple fixed items can also be referenced to establish spatial documentation.

9-58. A close-up photograph is typically taken as a follow-up to a midrange photograph. Multiple close-up photographs may be required to document the evidence—
- With the use of a tripod for clear photographs, when possible.
- As it is found at the site. Photograph the evidence as it is found before movement; attempt to fill the frame when taking the photograph.
- With a fully labeled scale (ruler, coin, or other item of known and consistent size) on the same plane as the item. This provides a reference to establish a sense of the size of evidence.
- To show various views of the evidence.
- To show serial numbers, unique markings, alterations, and damage.
- To provide a clean background with contrasting color. This provides a clearer image of the evidence without the background clutter associated with the environment in which it was found.

9-59. Video documentation can also be useful in documenting incident sites and evidence. The videographer should begin on the outside of an indoor site, with an overall pan of the outside area of the site. The videographer can then move inside (if interior scenes are being documented) or methodically around the site (for outside scenes). When approaching specific pieces of evidence, the videographer can zoom in to capture midrange and close-up images consistent with the photographic descriptions above. As with still close-ups, an item to provide scale should be added to the close-up video documentation. If audio is recorded, the videographer can narrate the film as it is recorded to provide additional context. If the video is narrated, keep others from talking and minimize other distracting noises. If external noises cannot be minimized, consider muting the recording and not providing a narration. See ATP 3-39.12 for additional information on photographing crime scenes and incident sites.

Sketches

9-60. The sketch is typically drawn as an overhead view of the crime scene or incident site, depicting items of evidence, their orientation, and their position in relation to other items of evidence or fixed objects. The sketch is an accurate representation of the scene, which is not done to a scale. Templates can be helpful when making sketches of crime scenes or incident sites; however, freehand sketches are required when templates are unavailable. Sketches are useful in portraying distances and spatial relationships between evidence and other features of the crime scene or incident site.

9-61. Sketches should include legends (depicting symbols used, primary direction, or other required points of clarification) and include the statement not to scale on the sketch. The sketch should also include the name of the sketcher, the date, and a description of the area or building depicted.

9-62. The general sketch guidelines should include—

- Overall site sketches.
  - Document the site.
  - Portray the entire site (buildings, outdoor areas, other features).
  - Record only necessary measurements.
- Individual areas or rooms where evidence is found.
  - Provide detailed sketches of the entire site or crime scene.
  - Include measurements to show the spatial relationship between each item of evidence and important fixed features of the room or area.
  - Provide separate sketches for each room, area, or subelement of the crime scene or incident site.

9-63. The depictions of measurements on sketches are important in documenting sites and accurately portraying the spatial relationships between objects. There are several methods that can be used to accurately document a crime scene or incident site on a sketch. These methods include the—

- **Triangulation method.**
  - Find two fixed reference points in the site close to the evidence.
  - Measure from each fixed point to the center of the evidence.
  - Measure both ends of the evidence when dealing with long objects (baseball bats, rifles).
- **Baseline method.**
  - Use a reference line (a wall or a line fixed with stakes with a known distance from landmarks if outside).
  - Use two measurements. Make one measurement from the end of the baseline to the center of the evidence; make one perpendicular measurement from the baseline to the center of the evidence.
- **Rectangular method.** This method is used in rectangular, enclosed areas (such as rooms).
  - Measure 90° from the adjoining walls to the center of the evidence to get two measurements.
  - Ensure that the measuring device stays level (not angled vertically or horizontally) to ensure an accurate measurement.

SAFETY CONSIDERATIONS

9-64. Crime scenes and incident sites can include significant hazards for law enforcement personnel, Soldiers, and the general public. Military police and USACIDC personnel must be aware of, and take appropriate action to mitigate, the risks associated with crime scenes and incident sites. Some of the more common hazards include—

- **Biological hazards.** Using personal protective equipment can significantly reduce the hazards associated with biological contaminants (chances of infection, exposure to harmful biological contaminants, and cross contamination of evidence). Assume biological specimens (including blood, semen, urine, saliva, or other bodily fluids) are contaminated. Care should be taken with any specimen until it is identified and appropriate safety measures are determined. There are several precautions that can be taken to ensure that personnel working in the vicinity of a crime scene or incident site are safe. Precautions against infection by contact with biological material can include—
  - Clean nitrile or other nonporous polymer gloves for protection of the individual and evidence. Leather, cotton, or other natural or synthetic work gloves typically used for normal operations should not be used as a substitute for latex gloves unless there is absolutely no alternative. If these gloves are used out of necessity, they should be discarded appropriately to avoid any further contamination. Change gloves often, particularly when moving from one type of evidence collection to another and to another area or room. Double-gloving can offer an additional layer of protection.
  - Surgical face masks to help protect from airborne biological materials.

- Disposable shoe coverings where blood and other biological substances exist to lessen the potential of tracking these materials to clean areas and to prevent the introduction of contaminants into the site.
- Full body overgarments with hoods may be used to provide protection.
- Self-sealing envelopes should be used to store biological material.

CAUTION

Never lick an envelope to seal it; this can be a safety hazard and a contamination hazard.

Note. Remove personal protective equipment and conduct decontamination, if necessary, when leaving the immediate site. Put on new personal protective equipment when reentering. All personal protective equipment should be discarded according to local policy. Consult the medical staff for disposal advice.

- **Chemical hazards.** Chemical hazards can cause immediate incapacitation or death if appropriate safety precautions are not taken. Unless absolutely necessary, the area should be controlled so that no one enters the contaminated area until CBRN or other qualified HAZMAT personnel can determine the appropriate measures to be taken. Always take maximum precautions until the chemical hazard can be identified and appropriate safety measures can be employed. If dangerous chemicals are present, personnel entering the contaminated area should be limited to those absolutely required to enter; typically, this will be CBRN or HAZMAT personnel. Common routes of exposure are inhalation; ingestion; and skin, eye, and mucous membrane contact. Precautions should be taken to protect all body parts. Precautions against contamination by chemical materials can include the use of—
  - **Protective masks.** Military-issued protective masks will protect against inhalation hazards from most chemicals. CBRN or HAZMAT personnel can advise if additional protective equipment is necessary.
  - **Chemical suits.** Law enforcement personnel should have access to chemical protective suits (military issue or commercial) that can provide some minimal protection against chemical hazards. These suits are not typically sufficient for direct contact or in areas of high concentrations of dangerous chemicals.
  - **Perimeters.** Military police and USACIDC personnel should establish an immediate protective perimeter around areas of suspected chemical contamination. The minimum safe distance for identified materials can be found in the *Emergency Response Guidebook* is based on the type of material and other environmental considerations, but should initially be established at a minimum of 50 meters from the source. Personnel should be kept outside the 50-meter perimeter and upwind of the source of the contaminant to the greatest extent possible. The perimeter may require expansion based on direction from HAZMAT personnel.

Note. Military police may come in contact with chemical hazards that may be immediate health and safety threats when handling narcotics, other drugs, and precursors. For example, most processes for manufacturing methamphetamine include the use of volatile organic chemicals, acids, bases, metals, and chemical salts.

- **Sharp items.** Be especially careful handling and packaging syringes, knives, razor blades, or other sharp objects. Use specialized sharps containers if possible. Otherwise, wrap sharp items in a paper product or other porous material to protect sharp edges.

- **Booby traps and unexploded ordnance.** The presence of booby traps and unexploded ordnance is a viable threat and hazard when performing police operations at bases and base camps in contingency environments. Military police and USACIDC personnel should always incorporate the technical capabilities of engineers, EOD, and other technical support when available. Unexploded ordnance is a common hazard on military installations, in training areas, and in AO where contingency operations are conducted. Booby traps are employed routinely by threat elements overseas, but are also used by criminal elements at home to protect assets (drug operations, caches).
  - Always follow SOPs when working in locations where the site or items may be booby-trapped. This includes buildings, caches, bodies, valuables, equipment, and other items left in the open.
  - Be mindful of the potential presence of unexploded devices while working the site.
  - Do not touch or move the device (unexploded ordnance); contact EOD immediately.
- **Firearms.** Always clear confiscated firearms upon seizure. Never ship or transport a loaded firearm that has been collected as evidence.
- **Other dangerous conditions.** Military police and USACIDC Soldiers should be aware of other potential challenges to troop and public safety and should act accordingly. These challenges can include foul weather, chemical hazards, structural defects, unsafe air, and other hazards.

LABORATORY SUPPORT

9-65. The DFSC supports Army forensic requirements. The primary laboratory facility maintained by DFSC is stationary due to the nature of the equipment required; however, forward-deployed mobile forensics emerged as a solution to operational requirements to support deployed commanders. Operational developments in recent years have documented a growing demand for forensic support to deployed commanders. DFSC provides deployable forensic capabilities to support commanders in the field as far forward as possible. These deployable capabilities enable DFSC to provide more timely forensic analysis across the spectrum of capabilities, including latent fingerprints, toolmarks, firearms, DNA, and explosive/drug chemistry to support the commander's priority intelligence requirements.

> *Note.* Mobile forensic laboratories support site exploitation and intelligence gathering but do not perform examinations in support of Title 10 criminal investigations.

9-66. Forensic-exploitation laboratories are deployable with adaptive forensic capabilities that enhance the exploitation of captured enemy materiel and evidence gathered supporting protection, targeting, sourcing, criminal prosecution, and mission success. The forensic-exploitation laboratory provides a standardized exploitation process by integrating weapons technical exploitation capabilities, including explosive exploitation and electronic reverse engineering, with the inherent forensic disciplines of serology, DNA, chemistry, latent prints, and firearms/toolmarks. Forensic-exploitation teams are composed of forensic scientists from DFSC. They provide operational-level forensic examination of captured material in support of combatant commanders based on operational priorities. Forensic-exploitation laboratories have on-site capabilities and the ability to obtain institutional support from the United States Army Criminal Investigation Laboratory through reachback if necessary. This combination of on-site and reachback capability allows the laboratory to prioritize in-theater capabilities while ensuring full forensic analysis support. Table 2-2, page 2-11, identifies forensic-exploitation laboratory capabilities.

9-67. The proper handling of material from a crime scene or incident site is critical to the success of forensic examination by forensic scientists and technicians. Military police are trained to properly handle and preserve collected material, whether in the context of processing a crime scene or collecting and protecting material in support of military operations. Recent emerging operational developments require all Soldiers to train on the collection and preservation of forensic evidence on the battlefield. Soldiers of many specialties beyond military police forces are now being required to understand basic evidence collection procedures to protect crime scenes and incident sites. The protection of collected material from untrained personnel is crucial during the recovery and transit phase of moving material. Military police must educate commanders on the forensic recognition, preservation, collection, and analysis capabilities available to them.

Appendix A

Maintenance of Good Order and Discipline

Commanders are inherently responsible for the maintenance of good order and discipline within the units and areas under their control. This includes the authority to conduct investigations of offenses and other incidents and to have offenders apprehended. In some instances, this responsibility also extends to civilians in the commander's AO that threaten or impede the normal functioning of the command by conduct that is criminal or prohibited by laws or regulations.

AUTHORITY AND JURISDICTION

A-1. Authority refers to the right of law enforcement personnel to exercise power and exact obedience. Whether subject to the UCMJ or not, AR 190-56, gives Army law enforcement personnel (security police, military police, and persons designated by proper authorities to perform military criminal investigative, guard, or police duties) the authority to apprehend military personnel for any violation of the code. This authority applies worldwide and is subject to the restrictions of Rule 302, *Manual for Courts-Martial*.

A-2. The UCMJ does not typically grant Army law enforcement arrest authority over civilians during routine police operations within the United States; however, the installation commander's inherent authority to protect the installation permits Army law enforcement, as agents of the installation commander, the authority to apprehend civilians for offenses occurring on the installation. This arrest authority is limited in that Army law enforcement personnel can detain civilians for a reasonable period of time sufficient to investigate the incident before turning them over to an appropriate civilian law enforcement authority. (See AR 195-2 and DODI 5200.08.) In 2006, the United States Congress expanded UCMJ jurisdiction to include civilian persons serving with or accompanying the armed forces in the field during contingency operations. The authority of contractor personnel to apprehend or detain individuals can be ascertained only by examining the contract under which they are performing.

A-3. Chapter 212, Sections 3261-3267, 18 USC (also known as the Military Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Act of 2000) authorizes the prosecution of certain criminal offenses committed by certain members of the armed forces and by persons employed by or accompanying the armed forces outside the United States. Under the Military Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Act, offenses committed in the United States that are punishable by confinement of more than 1 year are punishable to personnel who engage in the same conduct outside the United States. These individuals are subject to trial by the federal government if the crime is a felony, the HN fails to prosecute, and the U.S. attorney believes prosecution is warranted.

> ***Note.*** DODI 5525.11 provides implementing procedures for the Military Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Act.

A-4. Jurisdiction is the power of a court to hear a case and render a legally competent decision. Generally, there are three parties concerned with jurisdiction:
- Judge.
- Prosecutor.
- Police. Depending on where the offense occurs, the type of offense, and the status of the offender, the matter could be sent to one of three court systems:
  - State court (or foreign court if outside the United States, based on status-of-forces agreements).

- Federal court (consisting of U.S. district courts for felonies and U.S. magistrate court for misdemeanors).
- Court-martial or military tribunal.

UNITED STATES MAGISTRATE COURT

A-5. The United States Magistrate Court system enables the enforcement of misdemeanor laws on Army installations. The U.S. magistrates have jurisdiction to try persons Soldiers and civilians accused of, and sentence persons convicted of, misdemeanors committed on federal property. (See 18 USC 3401.) The United States Magistrate Court also has jurisdiction over juveniles who commit on-post misdemeanors. (See 18 USC 3401.) Cases most frequently tried include larceny, assault, and traffic offenses. Since the jurisdiction of the court is limited to the trial of misdemeanor cases, it may not impose a sentence of imprisonment in excess of 1 year.

A-6. Offenders are cited to appear in U.S. magistrate court by the issuance of a Central Violations Bureau (CVB) Form (*United States District Court Violation Notice)*. Some offenses allow payments by mail, while others require a court appearance. The trial of a juvenile may necessitate a certification by the U.S. attorney that the state juvenile court lacks jurisdiction, refuses to assume jurisdiction, or does not have adequate programs and services available. (See AR 190-45.) This certification will require coordination between the SJA and the appropriate civilian authorities.

A-7. The prosecution of a criminal charge is determined by the court or courts with jurisdiction over the case. Types of prosecutors include—
- Military (trial counsel).
- State (district, state, prosecuting, and circuit attorneys).
- Federal (U.S. attorney, special assistant U.S. attorney).
- HN (HN attorney, based on the system and court structure of the HN).

A-8. Types of law enforcement include—
- State (city, county, and state).
- Federal (Federal Bureau of Investigation; Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms; and U.S. marshals, DA police, and all other federal law enforcement activities and agencies, to include military criminal investigative organizations [USACIDC, Air Force Office of Special Investigations, Naval Criminal Investigative Service]).
- Military (military police [master-at-arms, security forces]) and criminal investigators [USACIDC, Air Force Office of Special Investigations, Naval Criminal Investigative Service SAs]).
- HN (law enforcement organizations within the HN criminal justice system).

A-9. There are general criteria that must be satisfied before a court can exercise criminal jurisdiction in a case. Jurisdiction can generally be described as the power of a court. These criteria include—
- **Subject matter jurisdiction.** This is the jurisdiction of the court over the offense. For example, a magistrate court would not have subject matter jurisdiction over an offense of insubordination because it is not an offense prohibited by the federal criminal code or any state or local code that can be assimilated. A court-martial, by contrast, would have subject matter jurisdiction over this offense because this conduct is prohibited by the UCMJ.
- **Personal jurisdiction.** This is the jurisdiction of the court over the offender or the accused. The personal jurisdiction of a court-martial is status-based. If a person is subject to the UCMJ at the time of the offense and at the time of trial, a court-martial would have personal jurisdiction over the accused.
- **Territorial jurisdiction.** Territorial jurisdiction determines the limits of the power of the court with regard to the physical location of a crime or event. In some criminal cases, there may be a question concerning what level of government or sovereign (state, federal [including military], or HN) has authority over specific personnel or violations. At times, concurrent jurisdiction may be in effect, meaning that multiple governmental authorities may have jurisdiction or exclusive jurisdiction by one governmental authority. The UCMJ is extra-territorial, which means that it is

applicable worldwide to those subject to Article 2, UCMJ. Law enforcement personnel should consult their servicing SJA concerning jurisdictional manners.

A-10. When a crime occurs that is punishable by military and civilian courts, the supporting SJA must coordinate to determine where the accused will be tried. In many situations, memorandums of understanding with state or local authorities or status-of-forces agreements with HNs will outline who has primary jurisdiction in specific cases or circumstances. The U.S. magistrate will generally have jurisdiction over on-post misdemeanors.

CIVILIAN POLICE AND GUARD PERSONNEL

A-11. The authority for federal civilian employees assigned to security, police, and guard duties is derived from Article 7, UCMJ. Federally employed civilian police, security guards, and contract guards can perform law enforcement and security duties authorized by the installation commander and are subject to any limitations imposed. The installation commander is also the source of authority for other personnel assigned to security force duties. These security force personnel may apprehend persons on an installation for committing felonies and breaches of peace or threatening the property or welfare of others. However, this apprehension authority is limited to issuing citations and turning the subject over to the appropriate civilian or military authorities. See the restrictions in the Posse Comitatus Act on the use of these personnel in providing aid to civilian law enforcement.

A-12. The PM or military police commander, in cooperation with the SJA, develops a SOP for Army civilian police and security guards. The SOP must describe the procedures and limitations for detention, apprehension, and the use of force. The SOP must also address the restrictions placed on personnel when responding as a reaction force or to a hostage situation.

JUDGE ADVOCATES

A-13. The UCMJ is federal law and the basis of the military justice system; it dictates what conduct is criminal, establishes the various types of courts-martial, and sets forth the procedures to follow in the administration of military justice. The purpose of military justice is to assist in maintaining good order and discipline in the armed forces, promote efficiency and effectiveness in the military establishment, and strengthen the national security of the United States. See FM 1-04.

A-14. The mission of judge advocates and supporting legal personnel is to provide professional legal services at all echelons of command. The Judge Advocate General is responsible for the overall supervision and administration of military justice within the Army. The commander is responsible for the administration of military justice in the unit and must communicate directly with the SJA about military justice matters.

A-15. There are three components of military justice, each with the following distinct functions:

- **SJA.** The SJA is responsible for military justice advice and services to the command. The SJA advises commanders concerning the administration of justice, the disposition of alleged offenses, appeals of nonjudicial punishment, and actions on courts-martial findings and sentences. The SJA supervises the administration and prosecution of courts-martial, prepares records of trial, manages the victim-witness assistance program, and performs military justice training.

- **Chief, United States Army Trial Defense Service.** The Chief, United States Army Trial Defense Service, exercises the supervision, control, and direction of defense counsel services in the Army. The judge advocates assigned to the United States Army Trial Defense Service advise Soldiers and represent them before courts-martial. These judge advocates also represent Soldiers in adverse administrative hearings.

- **Chief Trial Judge, U.S. Army Judiciary.** The Chief Trial Judge, United States Army Trial Judiciary, provides military judges for general and special courts-martial, supervises military judges, promulgates rules of court, and supervises the military magistrate program. Military judges assigned to the United States Army Trial Judiciary preside over courts-martial, exercise judicial independence in the conduct of courts-martial, conduct training sessions for trial and defense counsel, and perform or supervise military magistrate functions. Military magistrate functions include the review of pretrial confinements; the examination of confinements pending the outcome of foreign criminal charges; and the issuance of search, seizure, or apprehension authorizations.

OTHER POLICE AGENCIES

A-16. The PM often relies on outside police agencies for assistance and to share police information and intelligence. The PM develops memorandums of agreement and understanding with local police agencies in support of various emergency and public safety issues. Local and state police representatives should be invited to installation planning meetings, working groups, and forums to exchange ideas, solicit input, and participate in appropriate exercises. Antiterrorism efforts should always include local, state, and federal police and intelligence agencies as required by AR 525-13 and DODI 2000.12. Any HN law enforcement and intelligence personnel should be included when overseas and within the limits of operational security. These agencies are valuable sources of information and support to installation commanders and special staff.

A-17. Advances in database technology, combined with an explosion in information sharing and networking among police agencies, have resulted in the development and expansion of robust information repositories. Army law enforcement personnel continue to access the National Crime Information Center database, but increasingly turn to databases from corrections systems for fugitive information and to Department of Homeland Security and Federal Bureau of Investigation systems for terrorist threat information. DOD proprietary automation systems (such as ALERTS) greatly improve interoperability and eliminate seams that criminal and other threats might otherwise exploit.

A-18. The authority for Army law enforcement to collect and store law enforcement information is covered by numerous laws, regulations, and policies. ATP 3-39.20 contains an extensive list of documents and sources that outline the authorities and constraints related to information storage and sharing.

Appendix B

Criminals

Criminal elements exist at every level of society and in every operational environment (OE). Their presence, whatever their level of capabilities, adds to the complexity of any OE. They may be intertwined with irregular forces and possibly with regular military and/or paramilitary forces of a nation-state. However, they may also pursue their criminal activities independent of such other actors.

CHARATERISTICS

B-1. Some individuals, groups, and activities are criminal or illegal only because they violate laws established by a recognized governing authority. Others may violate moral or ethical standards of a given society or of the international community.

> *Note.* In some operational environments, the threat is more criminal than military or paramilitary in nature. Insurgents, guerrillas, or other armed groups often use or mimic established criminal enterprises and practices to move contraband, raise funds, or otherwise further their goals and objectives.

B-2. Criminal activity is a category of violence that is enmeshed in the daily life of most people in both urban and rural areas. However, criminal activity thrives in areas where there is instability and lack of government control or law enforcement. The actions of insurgents and guerrillas further erode stability and effective governance, creating more opportunities for criminal pursuits. Sometimes, given those opportunities, insurgent or guerrillas themselves turn to crime—either to sustain themselves or for personal profit. It may be difficult to distinguish crime from ethnic feuds, ideological and theological extremism, or other elements of a culture that incite insurgency or guerrilla warfare.

B-3. Governing authorities often characterize insurgents and guerrillas as bandits. The reason for this is that their activities in opposing the governing authority and sustaining themselves are illegal (from the government perspective). Acts of subversion may be against the law (that is, criminal) even if not violent.

SCOPE OF OPERATIONS

B-4. Criminal organizations are normally independent of nation-state control. Large-scale organizations often extend beyond national boundaries to operate regionally or worldwide. Large-scale organizations may have the capability to adversely affect legitimate political, military, and judicial organizations. However, individual criminals or small-scale criminal organizations (gangs) typically do not. Still, any criminal organization can affect such government organizations and/or military operations by becoming affiliated with the irregular opposing force (OPFOR) or with military forces of another nation-state.

B-5. Unless a criminal organization is in league with government officials, it must operate in ungoverned or poorly governed areas. Otherwise, the governing authority would interfere with the criminal activity. In today's world, the ungoverned area may be virtual—in the Internet and cyberspace. Criminal organizations can draw on virtual sanctuaries such as websites, chat rooms, and blogs.

B-6. Criminal organizations desire a space where they can conduct their activities unconstrained by a government. They may seek to create or maintain a region where there is no governmental control or only governmental control that they can co-opt. Such an area allows them sufficient latitude to operate and discourage rival criminal enterprises. From this base area, they can generate more and more violence and instability over wider sections of the political map.

B-7. Some criminal organizations can generate instability and insecurity within a state or across borders. They can become partners with insurgents in order to further their criminal ends. A criminal organization takes on the characteristics of an insurgency when it uses subversion and violence to negate law enforcement efforts. Some criminal organizations may seek to co-opt political power through corruption and intimidation. The more they seek freedom of action, the more they inhibit state sovereignty. A criminal organization may create its own form of government by providing protection and enforcing its will on the populace. If it can challenge the governing authority's control beyond the local level of government, it in effect becomes an insurgency unto itself, although its ends are materially focused rather than ideological.

RELATIONS WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS AND ACTORS

B-8. Criminal organizations may have some type of relationship with guerrilla and/or insurgent organizations or other actors, based on similar or shared goals and/or interests. The nature of the shared goal or interest determines the tenure and type of relationship and the degree of affiliation. Any affiliation depends on the needs of the criminal organization at a particular time. To criminals, any cooperation with other actors is viewed through the lens of profitability. They may actually oppose other actors whose activities degrade their criminal enterprises.

> *Note.* Criminals and criminal organizations, both armed and unarmed, may be considered noncombatants as long as they are neutral. However, they may be considered as combatants if they become affiliated with regular military or irregular forces. In the latter case, they can be considered part of the irregular OPFOR.

IRREGULAR FORCES

B-9. By mutual agreement, or when their interests coincide, criminal organizations may become affiliated with insurgents and/or guerrillas controlling and operating in the same area. Such allies can provide security and protection against government forces or other common enemies. They can also provide support to the criminal organization's activities. In exchange, the criminal organization may provide financial assistance, advanced technologies, or weapons.

B-10. Mutual interests of criminals, insurgents, and/or guerrillas can include preventing extra regional or local government forces from interfering in their respective spheres. The amount of mutual protection depends on the size and sophistication of each organization and its level of influence on the government or the local population.

B-11. On behalf of a criminal organization, insurgents or guerrillas can conduct—
- Diversionary actions.
- Reconnaissance and early warning.
- Money laundering.
- Smuggling.
- Transportation.
- Civic actions.

B-12. Criminal organizations may not be part of an insurgency. However, their activities—such as theft, hijackings, kidnappings, and smuggling—can further undermine the governing authority. Insurgent organizations often link themselves to criminal networks to obtain funding and logistics support. In some cases, insurgent networks and criminal networks become indistinguishable. Many insurgent organizations are more similar to organized crime in their organizational structure and relations with the populace than they are to military units.

> *Note.* If an insurgent organization creates a shadow government, criminals may co-opt elements of that government for their own benefit or reach agreements for mutual benefit.

NATION-STATE MILITARY OR PARAMILITARY FORCES

B-13. At times, criminal organizations might also be affiliated with nation-state military and/or paramilitary actors. In time of war, a state may encourage and materially support criminal actions that contribute to the breakdown of civil control in a neighboring country. Regular, reserve, and militia forces of a state can maintain various relationships with criminal organizations. Special-purpose forces can support criminal organizations and possibly conduct operations in conjunction with them.

LOCAL POPULACE

B-14. Criminal organizations may conduct civic actions to gain and maintain support of the populace. A grateful public can provide valuable security and support functions. The local citizenry may willingly provide ample intelligence collection, counterintelligence, and security support. Such support can also be the result of bribery, extortion, or coercion. For example, a criminal organization might use bribery or extortion to induce members of the local populace to act as couriers or otherwise support its activities. It might also coerce a businessperson into running a front company on its behalf.

PRIVATE SECURITY COMPANIES

B-15. Large criminal organizations may hire private security contractors to guard key facilities. Private security contractors can also provide bodyguards for a criminal leader or conduct surveillance or a search at a site prior to his arrival.

PERSONNEL

B-16. In most countries and cultures, criminals fall into the lower orders of social groups. However, there are some cases in which the criminals are well known and receive a degree of respect for their adherence to traditional social values and their public social works (civic actions).

B-17. Criminals may or may not be armed. For instance, individuals who perform money laundering or operate front companies might not be armed. Individual criminals or gangs might be affiliated with insurgents or guerrillas and still perform support functions that do not involve weapons. Conversely, some criminals are armed noncombatants who are not part of or affiliated with any military or paramilitary organization. Some minor criminals may use their weapons for activities such as extortion and theft. They might even steal from local government or extra regional forces, to make a profit. Opportunists may decide to hijack a vehicle or a convoy by force of arms.

B-18. Individual criminals may be completely neutral or have leanings for either side, or several sides. At least at the outset, they may not be members of or directly affiliated with the irregular OPFOR. However, since some of them are already armed, they could easily become combatants, if their situation charges. While some noncombatants are normally unarmed, there is always the potential for them to take up arms in reaction to developments in the operational environment and their perception of the actions of local governing authorities or an extraregional force.

> *Note.* Most criminals (especially noncombatants) are not irregular forces or part of the irregular OPFOR. However, they are included in this Army techniques publication because of their relationships and interactions with the irregular OPFOR. Their criminal acts can add to the general instability caused by the irregular OPFOR.

MOTIVATIONS

B-19. Criminals, unlike insurgents or guerrillas, are seldom driven by any political or religious ideology. They exist to make money or to wield power. However, some criminal organizations may align themselves with insurgents or guerrillas if their interests are mutually supportable. Criminal organizations may even become affiliated with military or paramilitary forces of a nation-state if their interests coincide.

> ***Note.*** Insurgents, guerrillas, or nation-states may espouse a rigid religious or political ideology. However, they may set aside those principles when using the drug trade or other criminal activities to finance their operations.

PROFIT

B-20. The primary motivation of criminals is making as much money as possible with as little risk as possible. To make a profit, they may fill a need or want with otherwise unavailable products or provide services that are illegal. To mitigate risk, they may buy influence with politicians and police officials. Failing that, they may eliminate those law enforcement and legal system personnel who interfere with their activities, as well as criminal competitors.

B-21. The enemies of criminal organizations are any political, military, legal, or judicial institutions that impede their actions and interfere with their ability to make a profit. However, there are other groups that conduct drug-trafficking or other illegal actions as a means to purchase weapons and finance other paramilitary activities. Criminals may tolerate or cooperate with such groups as long as they do not appear to be competitors or infringe on their own ability to make a profit. A criminal organization may sell or trade information to a military or paramilitary organization, for profit or mutual benefit.

POWER

B-22. Individual criminals and criminal organizations commit crimes not only for money, but also to gain power and prestige. Actions such as assassination, murder, and maiming are intended to demonstrate the criminal organization's power and control. That power may be over public officials, persons it cannot otherwise control or intimidate, criminal competitors, or people disloyal to the organization.

B-23. Larger criminal networks and transnational criminal organizations conduct criminal activities on a scale that can threaten whole societies and/or the international community. They can render governments corrupt and ineffective. They often begin to control ungoverned territory within a nation-state, acquire political power in poorly governed regions, and eventually vie with the governing authority for influence in government-controlled space. They also look for ways to exert power and influence internationally.

CRIMINAL ORGANIZATIONS

B-24. Very few crimes can be carried out by an individual criminal. Therefore, some form of organization is normally required. It may be a group of two or three individuals or a larger, more sophisticated organization. The higher the level of organization, the greater the potential for profit and power. Criminal organizations may not change their structure in wartime, unless wartime conditions favor or dictate different types of criminal action or support activities.

B-25. Weapons and equipment vary based on type and scale of criminal activity. Criminal organizations at the higher end of the scale can take on the characteristics of a paramilitary organization—either for self-protection or as a private army for hire. Criminals may have the best technology, equipment, and weapons available, simply because they have the money to buy them.

B-26. Criminal organizations generally fall into three types: gangs, large-scale criminal networks, and transnational criminal organizations. Some gangs and criminal networks develop into larger criminal networks and possibly into transnational criminal organizations. Thus, the lines of separation are not always clear-cut. However, there are some basic differences in how these three types are structured and how they operate.

GANGS

B-27. Some criminals may form loosely associated organizations with no true formal structure. These small gangs are a concern to local law enforcement, but normally are not a threat to legitimate institutions. Nevertheless, their often unpredictable acts of violence can destabilize the social and political environment. Smaller gangs tend to have loose, unsophisticated leadership focused on turf protection, gang loyalty, and

local, petty crime (such as theft or small-scale drug sales). Even when many gangs with various leaders operate in the same areas, they may or may not interrelate with each other.

B-28. These smaller gangs are not irregular forces, but their impact on the local populace can be significant and may actually assist irregular forces. Even small gangs may become affiliated with insurgents or guerrillas if they stand to gain profit or power.

B-29. Some smaller gangs may develop into larger gangs or into large-scale criminal networks. This can happen in two ways. A small gang may grow into a larger organization, or several gangs may (willingly or forcibly) be joined to form a larger organization.

LARGE–SCALE CRIMINAL NETWORKS

B-30. Gangs may develop into large-scale criminal networks. At this level, they expand illicit business, increase profits, and typically focus on trafficking and market protection. These networks and the gangs that comprise them also continue with the traditional sources of illegal income. However, they are much more versatile, flexible, and able to adapt to various opportunities. The large number of criminal organizations loosely associated with one another is able to exploit more opportunities with a variety of means. Large-scale criminal networks can include any or all of the actions listed under CRIMINAL ACTIVITIES later in this appendix.

> *Note.* The term *criminal network* more closely captures the loose structure of many large criminal groups that do have an enduring association but are more fluid and adaptable than the more specific terms *syndicate* or *cartel* imply.

B-31. Most criminal networks are loosely structured and function primarily because each participant is pursuing his own interests. Such a network is not necessarily a formally structured, hierarchical organization with one individual controlling and running the operation. Rather, it may be a loose-knit, intricate web of individuals or groups selected for their particular skills. However, they frequently continue to operate independently until the network needs their skills. The network can quickly assemble the appropriate resources to take advantage of opportunities for specific illegal activities and then release these assets between jobs. This reduces exposure to detection and keeps individuals from having too much information about the overall operation.

B-32. Even when there are strong vertical links, there can still be a great deal of autonomy among the numerous small gangs that make up the network. The hierarchy may receive payments from those lower in the organization, but each gang is free to pursue its own criminal enterprises when the larger organization does not require its services. The small gangs may still operate relatively independently (and perhaps competitively). They do not necessarily share key information with the larger structure. Even the highest level leadership may not be aware of all operations.

B-33. These criminal networks use violence as a means to create and protect their market as well as marginalize and control their competition. They seek to control or weaken state security institutions. They often begin to dominate community life within large areas of a nation-state. Criminal groups at this level may begin to develop overtly political agendas to improve their market share. They may overtly challenge state security and sovereignty. They may use subversion and violence as political interference to negate law enforcement efforts directed against them.

B-34. Criminal networks that control local or regional markets may have ties to and frequently do business with criminal organizations in other regions or other countries. They do so when they need wider networks of customers, fences, money-laundering expertise, access to technologies, and other essentials for an effective criminal venture.

B-35. Some criminal networks may develop into larger criminal networks or into transnational criminal organizations. In some cases, a smaller network may simply grow into a larger organization. In other cases, several networks may willingly join to form a larger organization. In still other cases, smaller organizations may be forced (by coercion or by circumstances) to become part of a larger organization.

TRANSNATIONAL CRIMINAL ORGANIZATIONS

B-36. Some criminal organizations develop into sophisticated transnational criminal organizations. These organizations may have ambitious economic and political agendas. They often begin to fill the power vacuum in ungoverned or poorly governed regions within a nation-state and to challenge government control of other regions. This provides the transnational organization with security and freedom of movement to pursue its criminal enterprises. In some cases, the organization becomes a de facto insurgency with ends focused on the material rather than ideological goals. Actions can include any or all of the items listed under CRIMINAL ACTIVITIES later in this appendix—such as drug and arms trafficking, money laundering, and terrorism. Transnational criminal organizations develop their own transit routes for illegal shipments and develop their own access to contraband.

B-37. Transnational criminal organizations take advantage of increased opportunities for profit and power that are found internationally. Globalization is not limited to legal trade and commerce. Criminals in various countries can cooperate in criminal ventures that take place across several countries. The increasing ease and effectiveness of global communications plays a significant role in arranging criminal ventures and in laundering the proceeds.

B-38. For example, smuggling is a big business that requires international organization. Illegal substances or legal goods less expensive elsewhere are smuggled across state boundaries. (Drugs are the most lucrative of smuggled items.) A significant part of the profits may go to suppliers and associates in other countries, and profits may be laundered using international financial systems.

B-39. Also contributing to the international nature of crime is the increased movement of people across borders. Businesses, both legitimate and illegitimate, benefit from expanding global travel. Another aspect is movement of people forced from their homes by war or political persecution. Others move in order to seek the opportunity to build a better life for themselves and their families. The vast majority of these people are not criminals. However, the size of the movement provides perfect cover for those who are connected to transnational criminal organizations. Some migrants avoid formal channels and pay smugglers to get them into another country.

CRIMINAL ACTIVITIES

B-40. Criminals use many and varied tactics and techniques. Some of these methods overlap with one another. The activities typically include an objective to make fiscal profit and/or achieve influence.

SECURITY

B-41. Security is crucial for criminal organizations. They may use the highest degree of sophistication available to conduct intelligence collection and counterintelligence activities. These activities are a priority and can be well funded. Intelligence sources may extend to high levels within government and law enforcement agencies. The local populace may willingly provide ample intelligence collection, counterintelligence, and security support. Intelligence and security can also be the result of bribery, extortion, or coercion.

B-42. Most members of criminal organizations are capable of protecting themselves and their assets. Typically, they carry small-caliber weapons, such as handguns, pistols, rifles, and shotguns. They are lightly armed out of necessity or convenience, not for lack of resources. When greater force of arms is necessary to control people, protect vital resources, or obtain information, these organizations typically have members who can use heavier arms, such as machineguns and assault weapons. Large criminal organizations may hire PSCs to conduct surveillance, provide personal security for leaders, or guard key facilities.

THEFT

B-43. Theft is the taking of another person's property without that person's permission or consent with the intent to deprive the rightful owner of it. Thus, *theft* is an overarching term that covers various crimes against property such as burglary, embezzlement, larceny, looting, robbery, and fraud. See also identity theft and intellectual property theft, both under Cybercrime.

FRAUD

B-44. A fraud is an intentional deception made for personal gain and/or to damage another individual or entity. Defrauding people or entities of money or valuables is a common purpose of fraud. Fraud can include—

- Ponzi schemes.
- Insider trading.
- Embezzlement.
- Insurance scams.
- Money laundering.
- Forgery.
- Identity theft.
- Copyright infringement.

RACKETEERING

B-45. A racket is a fraudulent scheme, enterprise, or activity. It is usually an illegitimate business made workable by bribery or intimidation. A racketeer is one who extorts money or advantages by threats of violence, by blackmail, or by unlawful interference with business or employment. Therefore, racketeering overlaps with bribery, intimidation, and extortion.

B-46. In racketeering, a criminal organization typically creates or perpetuates a problem or the perception of a problem for which it then offers a solution, for a fee. The intent is to engender continual patronage. In the traditional example of a protection racket, the racketeer informs a store owner that a substantial monthly fee will be required in exchange for protection. The protection provided takes the form of the absence of damage inflicted upon the store or its employees by the racket itself. Another example is malicious software (malware) that pretends to be detecting spyware or other infections on a computer and offers to download a cleaning utility for a fee. In actuality, the distributor of the malware is also the maker of the cleaning utility. (This aspect of racketeering overlaps with the category of cybercrime, discussed below.) In addition to protection rackets, racketeering can also involve numbers rackets or illegal lottery.

B-47. Racketeering can also include seemingly legitimate businesses that provide a front for illegal activity such as buying and selling illegal merchandise. Loan sharking is another form of racketeering in which a criminal offers loans at extremely high interest rates to borrowers who cannot qualify for loans from legitimate sources. The debtor faces violence or other criminal means to cause harm if the debt is not paid.

B-48. Black markets fall under racketeering as illegal businesses. These can include traded goods and services such as biological organs, transportation providers, illegal drugs, prostitution, weaponry, alcohol, tobacco, currency, and fuel. Black markets tend to flourish in most countries during wartime, due to rationing, and impact commodities such as food, fuel, rubber, and metal.

GAMBLING

B-49. In most societies, the act of gambling is in itself not illegal. What becomes illegal is an illicit business based on gambling (also called gaming). It is illegal because either—

- It is conducted in a fraudulent manner.
- The governing authority has outlawed it.
- The gambling enterprise fails to share all its profits with the governing authority.

B-50. Many types of gambling have been, or still are, illegal in some places. Hence, criminals may be the only operators of some games. Even when a governing authority legalizes some gambling ventures, it may be difficult to keep criminals from becoming involved, due to the huge potential for profits. Besides gaming operations recognized and (sometimes poorly) regulated by the state, there are many other gambling opportunities in which criminals may be involved.

B-51. Gambling is often associated with other types of crime. Operators of legal gambling establishments may receive kickbacks for allowing money laundering. Gambling operations earn large amounts of cash and

present particular opportunities for skimming and money laundering. Aside from skimming profits from a legalized gambling enterprise, skimming can also occur with the granting of credit, which can lead into loan sharking. In particular, problem gamblers who need money for gambling may easily fall prey to loan sharks. Compulsive gambling can also lead to crimes such as embezzlement, robbery, check forgery, and fraud.

PROSTITUTION

B-52. Prostitution is the practice of indulging in sexual relations for money. As a criminal enterprise, it also involves a criminal or criminal organization that profits from the commercial sex act. Prostitutes may also profit from the venture, although the criminal organization gets its cut. However, prostitution may be linked to human trafficking, in which case the criminals get all the profits.

EXTORTION

B-53. Extortion is the act of obtaining money, materiel, information, or support by force or intimidation. Criminal organizations use extortion to obtain information or cooperation or to protect members. Examples of extortion include—

- Intimidating politicians to vote in a manner favorable to the criminal organization.
- Intimidating judges to free an organization member.
- Forcing a farmer to grow drug-producing crops.
- Extorting money from local businesses in exchange for protection, which means not harming the business or its members.
- Using death threats against an individual or his family to cause him to provide information or resources.
- Intimidating other people not to take action against the criminal organization.
- Using information warfare methods to create and maintain fear caused by extortion.

BRIBERY

B-54. Bribery is giving money or other favors to influence someone. Criminals give money to people in power who make or influence decisions. For example, bribes to law-enforcement officials can cause them to have their patrols avoid a criminal organization's transit routes. If the organization is unable to bribe someone, it employs harsher methods, such as extortion, assassination, or murder, to gain cooperation.

ARSON

B-55. Arson is maliciously burning another person's dwelling, structures, or property. This may be done to as punishment for noncompliance with internal rules of criminal organizations. It may be the result of not paying the criminal organization for protection. It may also be done on a for-hire basis or as a means to inflict terror on a targeted person or group.

HIJACKING

B-56. Hijacking is stealing or commandeering a conveyance. Criminals may conduct a hijacking to produce a spectacular hostage situation. Sometimes criminals may hijack a conveyance as a means of escape; in that case, the criminals may eliminate any unneeded people and materiel, such as hostages or baggage.

KIDNAPPING

B-57. Kidnapping is an abduction or transportation of a person or group by force. The person is kept in false imprisonment (confinement without legal authority). This may be done for ransom or in furtherance of another crime (such as human trafficking or hostage taking). This type of crime has become very popular with criminal organizations, and the methods vary by region. Kidnapping flourishes particularly in fragile or failed states and regions in conflict, as drug traffickers and other criminal organizations fill the vacuum left by governing authority.

B-58. The risk in kidnapping is relatively lower than in hostage taking. This is primarily because the criminals take the kidnapped victim to a location controlled by the criminal organization. The criminals then make demands and are willing to hold a victim for a long time, if necessary.

HOSTAGE TAKING

B-59. Hostage taking is typically an overt seizure of a person or persons to gain publicity, concessions, or ransom. Unlike kidnapping, where usually a prominent individual is taken, the hostages are usually not well known figures. Criminals attempt to hold hostages in a neutral or friendly area. The planning and execution of a hostage taking are similar to those of a kidnapping or hijacking. However, criminals may also take hostages as an expedient measure when they have difficulty exiting a crime scene.

MURDER

B-60. Murder is the unlawful killing of another human being without justification or excuse. Murder is perhaps the single most serious criminal offense. Criminal organizations use murder as an enforcement tool and as a method of generating revenue in murder-for-hire schemes.

ASSASSINATION

B-61. An assassination is the murder (usually of a prominent person) by a sudden and/or secret attack. It is usually prompted by religious, ideological, political, or military motives, but may be done for payment. Criminals and criminal organizations may use an assassination—
- For monetary gain.
- To exert terror.
- To display power.
- To exact revenge on a public official.
- To eliminate people they cannot intimidate.
- To punish people who have left the criminal organization.

MAIMING

B-62. Maiming is a deliberate act to mutilate, disfigure, or severely wound a person so as to cause lasting damage. Maiming can involve assault and battery on a person with intent to inflict serious injury. Other methods include—
- Male castration.
- Female genital mutilation.
- Burning or branding.
- Forcible tattooing.
- Cutting off limbs.
- Removal of tongue, eyes, or ears.
- Throwing a corrosive acid or alkali to cause blindness or scarring.

B-63. The person maimed is an outward sign of the criminal organization's power and control. A criminal organization often uses or threatens maiming—
- To enforce order within the organization.
- To collect debts.
- For extortion.
- As a for-hire operation to generate revenue.

SMUGGLING

B-64. Smuggling is the clandestine transportation of illegal goods or persons. It usually involves illegal movement across an international border. There are various motivations to smuggle. These include

participation in illegal trade, illegal immigration or emigration, and tax evasion. Smuggling is often related to trafficking in persons, drugs, or arms.

TRAFFICKING

B-65. Trafficking is the transportation of goods or persons for the purpose of making a profit. Criminals conduct illegal trafficking. Human trafficking (trafficking in persons) is the second largest criminal activity in the world—followed by drug trafficking and arms trafficking.

Humans

B-66. Human trafficking is the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, or receipt of persons (including children) for the purpose of exploitation. It involves the threat or use of force, coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, and/or abuse. Criminals choose to traffic human beings because, unlike other commodities, people can be used repeatedly and because human trafficking requires little in terms of capital investment. Human trafficking may take two forms:

- Sex trafficking in which a person is induced to perform a commercial sex act.
- The recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labor or services, for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, debt bondage, or slavery.

B-67. Human trafficking is not the same as people smuggling. A smuggler may facilitate illegal entry into a country for a fee, but on arrival at their destination, the smuggled person is free. The trafficking victim is coerced in some way and is further exploited after arrival, in order to derive profits. Victims do not agree to be trafficked; they are tricked, lured by false promises, or forced into it. Traffickers control their victims by coercive tactics including deception, fraud, intimidation, isolation, physical threats and use of force, debt bondage, or even force-feeding drugs.

Drugs

B-68. The illegal drug trade is a black market consisting of production, distribution, packaging, and sale of illegal psychoactive substances. The legality or illegality of the black markets purveying the drug trade is relative to geographic location. The drug-producing countries may be inclined to tolerate the drug traffickers because of bribery or the effect on the country's economy. Drugs often cross international borders in order to reach the best paying customers. The massive profits inherent to the drug trade serve to extend its reach. The social consequences of drug trade include crime, violence, and social unrest.

Arms

B-69. Arms trafficking involves illicit transfers of arms, ammunition, and associated materials. Criminal organizations may be involved in two types of arms trafficking:

- Small-scale transactions by individuals or small firms that deliberately transfer arms to illicit recipients.
- Higher-value or more difficult illicit shipments of arms involving corrupt officials, brokers, or middle men motivated mainly by profit.

B-70. Arms trafficking is driven by a variety of clients, which include—

- Embargoed governments.
- Armed groups involved in war, banditry, terrorism, or insurgency.
- Criminals and criminal organizations.
- Citizens who cannot obtain guns legally.

B-71. Some arms and ammunition may come from illicit arms manufacturers. However, the source of a large proportion of illicit conventional arms is government disposals of surplus arms or thefts from insecure government stockpiles. Governments themselves may deliberately facilitate covert flows of arms to their proxies or allies, or to embargoed or suspect destinations for profit.

B-72. Arms trafficking is widespread in regions of political turmoil. However, it is not limited to such areas. Most arms trafficking occurs at the regional or local level. Among the most common forms are numerous

shipments of small numbers of weapons that, over time, result in the accumulation of large numbers of illicit weapons. While individual transactions occur on a small scale and do not draw attention, the sum total of weapons trafficked is large.

CYBERCRIME

B-73. Cybercrimes are offenses targeting or using information technology. This includes computers, computer networks, and other telecommunication networks such as the Internet (chat rooms, emails, notice boards, and groups) and mobile phones. Such crimes may threaten not only individuals and groups but also a nation's security and financial health. Cybercrimes can facilitate a variety of other criminal activities, including money laundering, extortion, fraud, racketeering, gambling, smuggling, and trafficking.

B-74. Criminals exploit the speed, convenience, and anonymity that modern technologies offer in order to commit a diverse range of criminal activities. The global nature of the Internet allows criminals to commit almost any online illegal activity anywhere in the world. In the past, cybercrime has been committed by individuals or small groups of individuals. However, an emerging trend is for criminal networks and criminally minded technology professionals to work together and pool their resources and expertise.

B-75. Cybercrimes include network intrusions, hacking attacks, malicious software, and account takeovers leading to significant data breaches affecting every sector of the world economy. Advances in computer and telecommunications technology and greater access to personal information via the Internet have created a virtual marketplace for transnational cyber criminals to share stolen information and criminal methodologies. The increasing level of collaboration among cyber criminals raises the level of potential harm to individuals, companies, and governments. Members of online forums discuss cybercrime topics of interest. Criminal purveyors buy, sell, and trade—

- Malicious software.
- Hacking services.
- Spamming devices.
- Personal identification information.
- Credit and debit card data.
- Bank account information.
- Brokerage account information.
- Counterfeit identity documents.
- Other forms of contraband.

B-76. Cybercrime falls into the following broad categories:
- Network intrusions and related offenses.
- National security, protective intelligence, insider threat, and defense industrial base related offenses.
- Financially motivated cyber offenses.

Computer Crimes

B-77. Computer crime refers to any crime that involves a computer or computer network. The computer or network may be the target, or it may be used in the commission of a crime, the primary target of which is independent of the computer network or device.

Crimes Targeting Computers

B-78. Criminals can cause damage to computers in many ways. For example, an unauthorized intruder can send commands that delete files or shut the computer down. Intruders can initiate a denial-of-service attack that floods the victim computer with useless information and prevents legitimate users from accessing it. A virus or worm can use up all of the available communications bandwidth on an agency or corporate network, making it unavailable to employees. When a virus or worm penetrates a computer's security, it can delete files, crash the computer, install malicious software, or do other things that impair the computer's integrity.

B-79. Extortion threats involving damage to a computer are a high-technology variation of old-fashioned extortion. Intruders may threaten, unless their demands are met, to—

- Penetrate a system and encrypt or delete a database (erasing or corrupting data or programs).
- Distribute denial-of-service attacks that would shut down (or slow down) the victim's computers.
- Steal confidential data.

Note. The threat does not need to be sent electronically.

B-80. Crimes may involve intercepting or interfering with communications through the use of electronic, mechanical, or other devices. This applies to electronic communications as well as oral and wire communications via common carrier transmissions. This may involve—

- Spyware or intruders using packet sniffers.
- Persons improperly cloning email accounts.
- Other surreptitious collection of communications from a victim's computer.

B-81. The crime may extend to the unauthorized disclosure of the contents of an illegally intercepted communication or using such information for other criminal purposes. Such crimes may also injure or destroy various types of communication operated or controlled by a government or used for a state's military or paramilitary functions.

Crimes Using Computers

B-82. Crimes using computers or facilitated by computers include—

- Unauthorized access to computers (even government computers and perhaps law enforcement).
- Unauthorized access to stored communications (including email, social networking data, and voicemail).
- Fraud (computer fraud and wire fraud).
- Identity theft.

Fraud

B-83. Computer fraud is the use of information technology to commit fraud. Criminals may devise various schemes or artifices to obtain money, property, goods, or services of measurable value. These include—

- Accessing a computer without authorization to obtain—
  - Commercial data.
  - Information contained in a financial record of a financial institution.
  - Information contained in a file of a consumer reporting agency on a customer.
  - Information from any government department or agency.
  - Information from a protected computer.
- Accessing without authorization a government, commercial, or personal computer and affecting the use of the owner's operation of the computer.
- Accessing a protected computer with the intent to defraud and thereby obtain anything of value.
- Causing the transmission of a program, information, code, or command that causes damage to a computer system, personal injury, or a threat to public health or safety.
- Trafficking in passwords or similar information through which a computer may be accessed without authorization.
- Manipulating market data for criminal purposes.

Note. Data or information or even the use of a computer can be regarded as a thing of value.

B-84. Computer fraud can also fall under the more general category of wire fraud. In what is considered wire fraud, criminals may use fraudulent pretenses, representations, or promises transmitted by various means of telecommunication, including—

- Wire.
- Radio.
- Television.
- Mobile phone.
- Facsimile.
- Telex.
- Modem.
- Internet.

B-85. Money mule schemes could be categorized as computer or wire fraud. In such schemes, criminals trick people into moving money for them. Through Internet phishing, criminals can steal money from unsuspecting people by accessing their accounts. The phishers then face the problem of moving the large sums of money acquired from the victims to their own accounts, often in other countries, without attracting suspicion. Traditionally, drug smugglers have used people (referred to as mules) willing to carry small amounts of drugs across borders for them for a price. In a variant of this scheme, phishers recruit innocent people in the countries where their victims reside by offering them a lucrative job using their home computers. Those recruited are usually unaware that these are not legitimate business opportunities. Thus, phishers can dupe a large number of individuals (called money mules) into accepting relatively small amounts of money stolen from people's accounts and transferring the funds to the phishers in return for a commission.

Identity Theft

B-86. Identity theft is almost always committed to facilitate other crimes. It involves unauthorized transfer, possession, or use of a means of identification of another person with the intent to commit, or to aid or abet, or in connection with, any unlawful activity. Most commonly, it involves the misuse of another individual's personal identifying information for fraudulent purposes. With relatively little effort, an identity thief can use this information to take over existing credit accounts, create new v accounts in the victim's name, or even evade law enforcement after the commission of a violent crime. Identity thieves also sell personal information online to the highest bidder, often resulting in the stolen information being used by a number of different perpetrators. Personal information can also be obtained for the purpose of blackmail or other forms of extortion.

B-87. Criminals can obtain credit and debit card numbers by hacking into the wireless computer networks of major retailers. Network intrusions can compromise the privacy of individuals if data about them or their transactions resides on the victim network. Once inside the networks, criminals install sniffer programs that capture card numbers, as well as passwords and account information. After collecting the data, they conceal it in encrypted computer servers that they control. Then they sell the credit and debit card numbers through online transactions to other criminals. In addition to these carders, there are phishers who obtain the same type of information via fraudulent emails.

B-88. The unlawful use of identification information can involve access device fraud. Such fraud can include any device, number, or other means of account access that can be used to obtain money, goods, services, or other things of value. It can also involve unlawful access to buildings or facilities.

Intellectual Property Crimes

B-89. Intellectual property crimes involve theft of material protected by copyright, trademark, patent, or trade-secret designation. Such intellectual property is vital to local, national, and international economies. The interconnected global economy creates unprecedented business opportunities to market and sell intellectual property worldwide. Geographic borders present no impediment to international distribution channels. If the product cannot be immediately downloaded to a computer, it can be shipped and arrive by next day air. However, the same technology that benefits rights-holders and consumers also benefits intellectual property thieves seeking to make a fast, low-risk profit. In addition, trafficking in counterfeit merchandise also generates large profits.

B-90. The most egregious violators are large-scale criminal networks and transnational criminal organizations whose conduct threatens not only intellectual property owners but also the economy of nation-states. Because many violations of intellectual property rights involve no loss of tangible property and do not require direct contact with the rights-holder, the owner often does not even know that it is a victim for some time.

B-91. Intellectual property crimes can overlap with computer crimes, especially in the following areas:
- Unauthorized access of a computer to obtain information.
- Mail or wire fraud (can include the internet).
- Devices to intercept communications.

B-92. Unauthorized obtainment of information or electronic media covered by copyright, trademark, patent, or trade-secret designation robs the rights-holders of their ideas, inventions, and creative expressions. Such theft is facilitated by digital technologies and Internet file sharing networks.

B-93. Although fraud schemes can involve copyrighted works, it is not mail or wire fraud unless there is evidence of any misrepresentation or scheme to defraud. Mail and wire fraud may exist, even if the perpetrator tells his direct purchasers that his goods were counterfeit, as long as he and his direct purchasers intended to defraud the direct purchaser's customers. Wire fraud can include the Internet.

B-94. Intellectual property crimes may involve intercepting and acquiring the contents of communications through the use of electronic, mechanical, or other devices. Criminals may then market the contents of an illegally intercepted communication, including intellectual property.

MONEY LAUNDERING

B-95. A criminal organization conducts money-laundering activities to transfer funds into the legitimate international financial system. Because of the legal restrictions levied by a governing authority, the organization must have a way of transferring dirty (illegally earned) money into clean money. The organization smuggles some currency back to its country of origin. However, large sums of foreign currency are not feasible for the organization because it must use the legal currency of its country to make transactions. For example, a farmer cannot receive payment for his drug crops in the foreign currency because he would be unable to use it.

B-96. A more productive way to transfer funds into the legitimate financial system is to operate through front companies. Front companies are legitimate businesses that provide a means to launder money. The criminal organization establishes its own front companies or approaches legal companies to act as intermediaries. Some front companies, such as an import or export business, may operate for the sole purpose of laundering money. Other companies (possibly targets of extortion) operate as profit-making activities and launder money as a service to the organization. Criminal organizations operate front companies in their own country, as well as in other countries.

B-97. Personnel involved in money laundering can include accountants, bankers, tellers, and couriers. Some are willing participants in the money-laundering process and accept bribes for their services. Extortion and intimidation keep unwilling members active in the process. Members of money-laundering organizations also establish and operate front companies.

B-98. Some members, such as accountants and bankers, perform their normal functions as in a legal business. However, they may conduct illegal acts on behalf of the organization. Because of banking regulations, members must conduct activities that do not draw attention to themselves. As an example, couriers deposit in bank accounts a level of funds small enough to avoid banking regulations. However, not all countries have such regulations, making it easier to launder large sums of money.

B-99. Couriers conduct many transactions with financial institutions. They travel from bank to bank making deposits or converting money into checks and money orders to prepare for smuggling activities. Money-laundering personnel may also use electronic fund transfers, which make tracking of illegal transactions much more difficult, especially when the country has lax banking laws.

CIVIC ACTION

B-100. Criminal organizations conduct programs of patronage under the guise of civic actions. These programs are only indirectly intended to benefit the general populace. Rather, the main intent of the criminal organizations is to gain and maintain support, reward their supporters, and facilitate their continued activities. They may build a school, improve a road, or supply food and medicine. These projects benefit the local population because they improve the people's quality of life and may improve their standard of living. For example, road building makes it easier to transport goods to market and creates jobs. Some of the jobs may be temporary, such as those in construction, while others may be permanent, such as those in education and clinics. Through its propaganda efforts, the criminal organization ensures that the population knows who is making the improvements.

B-101. Sometimes the criminal organization cooperates with an insurgent force to conduct civic actions. They do not cooperate for ideological reasons. Their sole purpose is to inhibit the governing authority's ability to affect their activities by gaining the inherent security a grateful public can provide.

INFORMATION WARFARE

B-102. Criminal organizations may have the resources to conduct a variety of information warfare activities. However, their focus is often on a well-orchestrated perception management (propaganda) effort. This can be a powerful tool for intimidating enemies (governing authority and criminal competitors) and encouraging support of the organization's money-making efforts. The use of perception management techniques can ensure that the population knows who is making improvements in the local environment and allow the organization to take credit for other benefits it provides to the local population.

B-103. The criminal organization can also use counterpropaganda to spin events against the governing authority. For example, the government may burn a farmer's drug-producing crop and then broadcast announcements that the action is a direct result of the farmer's involvement with an illegal activity. However, the criminal organization can counter this by instilling the idea that the governing authority does not have programs to help the farmer make profits legally and reminding the populace of the new medical clinic it built.

B-104. Various elements of information warfare can also be instrumental in other criminal activities. For instance, perception management and deception are related to fraud, including computer fraud. Information attack and computer warfare are parts of cybercrime.

TERRORISM

B-105. Terrorism is always illegal, whether conducted by insurgents, guerrillas, or criminals. When conducted by regular military forces or other agencies of a nation-state (perhaps in the form of ethnic cleansing or confiscation of private property), other states can consider it illegal by international standards. For criminal organizations, terrorism becomes an action against an adverse governing authority, a criminal competitor, or an innocent populace. See chapter 6 for more information on terrorism.

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Appendix C

Special Response Considerations

Police operations include responses to many incidents that are outside the boundaries of normal law enforcement and police responses or that, due to the sensitivity of the incident, may require specific actions or considerations. This appendix addresses select special-response considerations.

RESPONSE REQUIREMENTS

C-1.   Ensuring that personnel respond quickly and appropriately when incidents occur is an essential part of the police mission. Special-response situations may include domestic disturbances, active shooters, hostage situations, and natural or man-made disasters. Typically, these events involve one or more of the following factors (although the presence of one factor by itself does not automatically mean that an incident is critical):

- Threat or act of violence.
- Loss of life, significant injury, or significant damage to property.
- Substantial resource demands.
- Close public scrutiny through the media.
- Coordination among federal law enforcement agencies, state or local law enforcement agencies, public affairs, emergency relief services, or emergency response services.

C-2.   Regardless of the type of incident, all law enforcement responses require some general actions to protect the public, protect evidence, and gather information. Personnel may be apprehended, if required, based on the incident and the available information. In most cases, the initial report of an incident will be communicated to the police operations center or military police desk.

C-3.   The police operations center or desk section should attempt to obtain the following information from the caller and any accessible law enforcement databases:

- The nature of the alleged incident.
- The address or specific location of the alleged incident.
- The nature of injuries, if any.
- A telephone number where the caller can be reached and a determination as to whether the caller is the victim or a witness.
- The involvement or presence of firearms or other weapons, if any.
- The need for fire department, ambulance, or other emergency response.

INITIAL LAW ENFORCEMENT RESPONSE

C-4.   A law enforcement patrol will typically be dispatched to the scene of an incident. Upon arrival at the scene, law enforcement patrol responsibilities can include—

- Maintaining radio communications with the military police desk.
- Assessing immediate or potential dangers and taking actions, as appropriate, to mitigate risk to the public and emergency response personnel.

- ▪ HAZMAT, fire, or explosive hazards.
- ▪ Active shooters, violent persons, or other threats.
- ▪ Environmental conditions (traffic, weather, smoke).
- Requesting additional emergency response capabilities.
  - ▪ Medical.
  - ▪ Fire.
  - ▪ HAZMAT response.
  - ▪ Civil engineers.
  - ▪ Towing services.
- Establishing control of the incident scene.
  - ▪ Controlling traffic.
  - ▪ Securing identified crime scenes.
  - ▪ Evacuating personnel and establishing a perimeter, if required.
- Identifying victims and injured personnel and rendering first aid, as appropriate.
- Identifying evidence and establishing measures to protect or preserve evidence.
- Identifying witnesses, victims, or potential subjects.
- Detaining personnel at the scene (in a safe location) to conduct interviews.

INTERVIEWS AND SCENE PROCESSING

C-5.   Initial interviews will typically be conducted by law enforcement patrol personnel. After establishing control of the incident, responding law enforcement patrols should initiate the interview process beginning with identified victims, potential subjects, and witnesses. If a large number of personnel require interviews, additional patrols should be requested. Witnesses, victims, and alleged subjects should be separated to the fullest extent possible. All initial interviews should be conducted separately.

C-6.   Law enforcement personnel should ensure that victims are interviewed in an area that is out of sight and hearing range of alleged suspects, witnesses, and bystanders. Follow-on interviews and possible law enforcement interrogations may be required by military police investigators or USACIDC SAs, depending on the circumstances and severity of the incidents. Law enforcement patrol personnel do not conduct law enforcement interrogations. Circumstances will dictate how complete the interviews will be at the scene. Written statements should be collected when possible. In cases where interviews do not result in a written statement, the law enforcement patrol personnel should document the interview in their patrol report. Law enforcement patrol personnel must ensure that responding military police investigators and USACIDC SAs are briefed, as required, on conducted interviews, identified and collected evidence, and initial impressions and observations.

ACTIVE SHOOTERS

C-7.   An active shooter is typically characterized as one or more subjects participating in a random or systematic shooting spree. They demonstrate intent to continuously cause serious physical injury or death to others. Active shooters are intent on committing mass casualties, unlike criminals who engage in crimes (robbery, hostage taking). Subjects are considered active shooters if they—

- Continue to actively shoot.
- Take additional victims.
- Exhibit a willingness to harm others or themselves unless stopped by authorities.

C-8. Consequently, incidents with active shooters are dynamic events that often defy normal response protocols. Recent history suggests that the typical police response, contain and control while awaiting the arrival of tactical units, is ineffective. In an incident with an active shooter, time is clearly not an ally of first responders. Training, instincts, and initiatives of first responders that are capably equipped have proven more effective than rigid interdiction protocols.

C-9. Response tactics to incidents involving active shooters must be simple by design; flexible in nature; easy to implement; and effective against a fast-moving, unpredictable suspect. Initial responders arriving on-scene should have the authority and capability to take action without waiting for command directives or the arrival of specialty units (SRTs, negotiators). The goal of police intervention in these incidents is to neutralize the threat by various means, up to and including the use of deadly force. As with most emergencies, an effective response requires informed decision making, clear lines of decision authority based on established rules for use of force, and reliable communications.

C-10. Federal Bureau of Investigation studies have concluded that—
- Emergency management preplanning is critical.
- Responders arriving first have a drastic effect on the progress of the incident. They must quickly and safely conduct a situational assessment.
- Immediate interagency cooperation and the establishment of incident commands are essential.
- Clear and reliable communications are necessary for effective operations.
- Helicopter access for overhead assessments is a positive response asset.
- Key agencies and supporting entities (emergency operations centers, hospitals) should be mobilized as quickly as possible.
- Media response (large and immediate) is likely.
- Additional responder personnel will attempt to converge on the scene.
- Fire and emergency medical personnel should wear helmets and clearly marked clothing.
- Body armor should be worn by personnel responding within range of the shooter.
- Tactical medics to support law enforcement operations are beneficial.
- A shooter may use secondary devices.

C-11. Emergency planning for active shooters requires a commonly accepted set of assumed operational conditions that provide a foundation for establishing protocols and procedures. Responses to active-shooter scenarios must be trained and exercised with all participating elements to ensure full understanding and implementation of active-shooter response protocols. In the case of an active shooter—
- An incident may occur at any time of the day or night and on any day of the week.
- Most acts occur without warning; the succession of events is often unpredictable.
- The suspect may be better armed than the police, sometimes making use of automatic weapons, explosives, booby traps, and body armor.
- Assailants will have some degree of familiarity with the building or location they choose to occupy.
- Military police control the situation to minimize chaos and panic.
- Military police must prepare for mass fatalities and to render first aide to injured victims.

C-12. One of the most urgent concerns for responding law enforcement personnel is the safety of the public. Developing and maintaining working partnerships with appropriate staffs, building managers, or administrators responsible for high-population areas (schools, shopping areas, hospitals) is essential in responding to critical incidents. Schools may be of specific concern due to the impact on children. Military police planners should coordinate with the appropriate staffs of these entities within their AO to ensure that Army law enforcement personnel understand the response policies and procedures of each element. Administrators and staff should also be briefed on law enforcement actions and expectations in the event of an incident. In the event of an active-shooter or other critical incident, a well-coordinated and effective

response is needed to ensure the safety of persons involved. Specific circumstances will dictate the best course of action to protect potential victims. These courses of action include—

- **Evacuations.** Potential victims may be evacuated from their current location when conditions are safer outside a building or away from the immediate danger area. All persons within the danger area or hazard zone will be directed to leave their current location and move to a designated safe area. The evacuation of an entire facility or area may not always be prudent, especially if evacuation may lead to other risks by taking the occupants out of the physically secure environment of the facility and into the streets.
- **Reverse evacuations.** When conditions are safer inside a building, personnel may be directed to seek shelter indoors. After personnel are inside, the building exterior doors should be locked and lock-down or shelter-in-place procedures should be initiated. Likewise, if the situation makes movement hazardous and cover is unavailable, personnel may be directed to stay behind cover at their present location. A perimeter should be established to control the area.
- **Lock-down or shelter-in-place procedures.** When a person or situation presents an immediate threat to personnel in a building, the order to initiate lock-down or shelter-in-place procedures may be given. All doors leading to hallways or outside the building should be locked; personnel should stay in their offices, work areas, and classrooms and away from windows. Initial notification may be made using public address and emergency notification systems.

C-13. Active-shooter situations are dynamic and tend to evolve quickly. First responders faced with an active-shooter situation should be prepared for many possible outcomes. Active-shooter incidents may continue for long periods or end suddenly. Regardless, military police and USACIDC Soldiers must be prepared for—

- **Mobile crises.** The shooter continues to fire, but has chosen to do so while on the move.
- **Fleeing suspects.** The shooter has ceased the act and has fled the scene; however, he remains mobile in the immediate area. The shooter has continued capability and opportunity to engage additional victims.
- **Suicide or suicide threats.** The shooter ceases shooting others and has committed suicide or threatens to do so. This includes suicide-by-cop scenarios.
- **Homicide investigations.** The shooting has ceased, the shooter has been captured or terminated, and the process of investigation has begun.
- **Trauma responses.** The shooting has ceased, the shooter has been captured or terminated, and a large number of victims require medical attention.

BOMB THREATS AND SUSPICIOUS PACKAGES

C-14. A bomb threat is a communication, usually verbal or written, expressing intent to detonate an explosive or incendiary device to cause property damage, death, or injuries—whether or not such a device actually exists. Typically delivered by telephone or other telecommunication means, most threats are intended to cause disruption or diversion—as hoaxes or for reasons other than actual destruction of property—rather than warning of real devices. Many bomb threats that are not pranks are made as parts of other crimes (extortion, arson, robbery). Actual bombings for the malicious destruction of property, terrorism, or murder are often perpetrated without warnings.

C-15. A suspicious package can be an out-of-place object in a location. Suspicious items can appear harmless (backpack left at a bus stop or sidewalk, parcel found in an office space, toolbox left in a parking lot). Suspicion arises when no one claims ownership of the item or the item just seems out of place. At times, a suspicious package may have characteristics consistent with devices or material meant to cause harm (visible timing devices, apparent explosive material, wires, oily residue, powdery substances).

C-16. The initial moments of a bomb threat or the discovery of a suspicious package is crucial to the evaluation of an incident. To ensure the successful resolution of the incident, a bomb threat or suspicious package contingency plan should be developed and rehearsed by personnel. This is typically a component of the installation force protection, antiterrorism, or physical security plan. The contingency plan enables training on procedures for bomb threat or suspicious package responses. Military police staffs should ensure that procedures outlined in the plan are coordinated with the appropriate staff, building managers, or facility

administrators within the AO. Military police planners should coordinate with the appropriate staffs of these entities within their AO to ensure that Army law enforcement understands the response policies and procedures of each element. Administrators and staff should also be briefed on law enforcement actions and expectations in the event of an incident.

C-17. Bomb threats and suspicious packages require a multifunctional response, including assets from law enforcement, fire departments, emergency medical response organizations, and EOD. Upon notification of a bomb threat or suspicious package, law enforcement patrols will—

- Respond to the scene of the bomb threat or suspicious package and secure the area. The scene should be treated as a crime scene until directed otherwise by law enforcement supervisors.
- Ensure that additional response elements have been notified, including—
    - **Fire department personnel.** Fire department personnel normally respond to the scene and stand by. Fire is a common occurrence in connection with an explosive detonation. The early notification of fire department personnel can assist in minimizing property damage and injury if a device detonates.
    - **Emergency medical personnel.** Emergency medical personnel may arrive at the scene in a standby status. The potential for injury with any explosion or HAZMAT dispersal is high. Time can be saved by having trained medical personnel stand by with an ambulance in case of injuries.
    - **EOD personnel.** EOD personnel should be notified immediately; although under normal situations, EOD personnel do not typically respond to a bomb threat unless a suspicious item is located. EOD personnel may be able to tell if other threats of a similar type have been received and if a bomb was subsequently discovered. They can also give guidance if a device is located. See AR 75-15 for information on EOD responsibility.
    - **Military working dogs.** Patrol explosive detector dogs are trained to passively respond to explosive material and components.
    - **Other elements.** Other elements should be notified, based on local policy (PM, higher commanders, public affairs)
- Cordon off the target area to prohibit bystanders from entering the threatened location. The initial cordon distance should be at least 100 meters for placed explosive objects and at least 200 meters for potential vehicle-borne explosives. This distance may be increased based on the discovery of an actual device, the size of the device, or advice from EOD or explosive experts.
- Provide traffic control, to include roadblocks and checkpoints 100 meters or more from the area, to keep out everyone except authorized personnel.
- Be prepared to wear personal protective equipment as required.
- Determine if the building is occupied. If it is not occupied, obtain and report the names and telephone numbers of the persons responsible for the area to the military police desk.
- Notify the supervisors of nearby buildings and prepare them to evacuate if necessary.
- Obtain facts for the preliminary investigation.
- Stay on scene until relieved by the law enforcement supervisor.

C-18. Evacuation is not necessary for all bomb threats. Immediate action can include—

- Searches without evacuations.
- Movement of personnel within the area to a safer location.
- Partial evacuations.
- Total evacuations.

C-19. The decision to evacuate and search an area or building is typically made by those in charge of the targeted facility (commanders, facility managers). Leaders and supervisors may solicit the support of facility workers who may be the most familiar with their surroundings and most apt to recognize anomalies. Law enforcement supervisors may direct an evacuation when exigent circumstances exist, based on identified threats, advice from EOD experts, and established local procedures. When possible, the decision to evacuate is left to the facility commander or site manager.

C-20. The facility commander or manager should—
- Notify the PMO of the bomb threat or suspicious package and the actions taken.
- Maintain communications with the military police desk or on-site law enforcement patrols.
- Decide if the facility will react to the threat or conduct business as usual.
- Determine if a supervisor's search will be conducted without evacuation.
- Decide if the building will be evacuated and searched.
- Serve as the primary person responsible for the search team.
- Execute control of operations within the emergency operations center.
- Determine if and when normal operations will resume after the search if no device is discovered.
- Clear the area immediately and ensure that EOD is notified if a device is discovered.

C-21. When a large facility is involved, it can be very difficult and time-consuming to ensure the absence of bombs or other hazardous devices or substances. The decision to evacuate is determined based on the evaluation of available information, including—
- Information received and documented on a bomb threat checklist. (See ATP 3-39.32.) If the bomber describes, in detail, the type of device, its location, and the placing of the device, the threat may be deemed more credible. Threats with little to no detail may indicate that the subject merely wants to disrupt operations at the target location. A decision to evacuate and disrupt operations may only serve the purpose of the subject.
- Information and advice from support agencies (EOD, fire departments).
- The criticality of the mission of the targeted facility.

C-22. Law enforcement personnel may support a bomb search, but they do not generally conduct one because they are not familiar with the search area. A search of an area for a suspect device or package requires intimate knowledge of the area. This allows search personnel to identify items or arrangements that are out of place. In most cases, MWDs certified in explosives detection should be used to detect and locate potential explosives within a defined search area. (See ATP 3-39.34.) Upon discovery of a suspect package, device, vehicle, or other item must not be disturbed and EOD should be notified to confirm the existence of an explosive device and to take action to render the device safe. See ATP 3-39.32 for additional information on bomb threat response.

> *Note.* MWDs will not be used to verify suspicious packages. They can assist by searching the cordon area and around the package for hidden secondary devices.

DOMESTIC DISTURBANCES

C-23. Law enforcement personnel respond to reports of domestic disturbance just as they would to any other report of a criminal nature or a request for assistance. A domestic disturbance can manifest itself in several forms. Two of these forms are—
- **Domestic dispute.** A domestic dispute is an argument that could cause a pattern of behavior that results in emotional or psychological abuse, economic control, or interference with the personal liberty of a current or former spouse, a person with whom the abuser shares a child in common, or a current or former intimate partner with whom the abuser shares or has shared a common residence. During a domestic dispute, law enforcement typically has four courses of action available:
  - Mediation.
  - Referral.
  - Temporary separation.
  - Apprehension.
- **Domestic violence.** Domestic violence is any person who commits a violent offense against a spouse, an intimate partner, or an immediate family member of that person; or with intent to

threaten or intimidate a spouse, an intimate partner, or an immediate family member of that person—

- ▪ Commits an offense under the UCMJ against any who commits a violent offense against a spouse, an intimate partner, or an immediate family member of that person.
- ▪ Commits an offense under the UCMJ against any property, including an animal with intent to threaten or intimidate a spouse, an intimate partner, or an immediate family member of that person, violates a protection order or with intent to commit a violent offense against a spouse, an intimate partner, or an immediate family member of that person, violates a protection order; or assaults a spouse, an intimate partner, or an immediate family member of that person by strangling or suffocating.

Note. These actions limit law enforcement discretion in many instances, but serve to protect all parties involved in domestic violence incidents. Domestic violence is a violation of the UCMJ and local and state laws.

C-24. When Army law enforcement personnel receive a report of a domestic disturbance incident, the police operations center or desk section should attempt to determine (from the caller and identified accessible law enforcement databases)—

- The nature of the alleged incident.
- The address or specific location of the alleged incident.
- The nature of injuries, if any.
- A telephone number where the caller can be reached and a determination as to whether the caller is the victim or a witness.
- The involvement or presence of firearms or other weapons, if any.
- The need for fire department, ambulance, or other emergency response.
- Confirmation of sexual assault from the victim.
- If the alleged suspect is present. If the alleged suspect is not present, law enforcement personnel should obtain their name, description, direction of flight, mode of travel, and possible use of alcohol or drugs.
- If there are children present.
- If others are present at the scene, what involvement they play in the alleged incident, and their relationship to those involved in the incident.
- If there have been previous domestic disturbance incidents involving the individuals.
- If there is a protective order in effect involving the individuals.

SAFETY

C-25. The safety of an alleged victim becomes a primary concern of the law enforcement personnel receiving the initial report. Law enforcement personnel receiving the call should attempt to keep the alleged victim on the line until the patrol arrives. They may advise the alleged victim to await the arrival of the patrol at a neighbor's house or a convenience store or, if the perpetrator returns, to leave the location. If the caller is a witness, the dispatcher must keep them on the phone and relay ongoing information to the responding patrol.

INITIAL RESPONSE

C-26. Once the police operations center has received a call of domestic disturbance and has obtained as much information as possible concerning the individuals involved (including a history of past incidents), the information is relayed to the responding law enforcement patrol in person or via a secure radio network. The police operations center must periodically check the safety of the responding patrol at the scene as in other life-threatening calls.

C-27. At least two law enforcement personnel are required for response to a domestic disturbance in progress or to one that just occurred. The law enforcement patrol must approach the scene of a domestic disturbance call with great caution and treat the incident as one of high risk, taking into consideration such things as—

- Parking away from the residence.
- Waiting for backup. This is especially important when a patrol consists of one person.
- Stopping and listening from a safe vantage point before attempting contact (to increase situational understanding).
- Checking for the assailants outside the residence.

C-28. Upon arrival and after determining the best method for approaching the incident, law enforcement patrol personnel identify themselves, explain their presence, and request entry to the residence. The law enforcement personnel request to speak to the person who placed the call. If the caller is someone other than the victim, law enforcement personnel should not reveal the name or location of the caller. They should be persistent in accessing and speaking to the victim privately. If law enforcement personnel are refused entry and forced entry appears imminent to investigate the call, the desk sergeant or other appropriate law enforcement representative will coordinate with the SJA for legal advice.

C-29. If there is an obvious imminent threat to persons at the location and the patrol determines that immediate forced access is required for the protection of persons at the site, law enforcement personnel may proceed without waiting for SJA or other approval. They should thoroughly document their observations in the patrol report, specifically the details that warranted the immediate entry. Additionally, law enforcement personnel are responsible for—

- Remaining at the scene and speaking to the victim when there is evidence that indicates a crime has occurred. Such evidence may be the condition of the scene or the state of the person who is speaking to law enforcement personnel.
- Remaining at the scene if they believe that serious injury has occurred or will occur.
- Entering quarters with consent of the parties involved or, if necessary, without consent to prevent serious bodily injury or render emergency first aid to injured persons.
- Driving by the location after departing the scene to observe for any further disturbances.
- Parking away from the scene location if remaining in the area to continue observation of the premises.

C-30. Once law enforcement personnel have accessed the scene, they establish control by—

- Identifying potential weapons in the surrounding areas.
- Separating the alleged victim and the alleged suspect.
- Restraining, detaining, or apprehending the alleged suspect as needed.
- Assessing injuries, administering first aid, and notifying emergency medical services when necessary.
- Inquiring about the alleged incident.
- Identifying all occupants and witnesses on the premises.
- Separating occupants and witnesses from the alleged victims and suspects and keeping all persons out of hearing range of one another.
- Conducting a protective sweep to locate persons who may be hiding or injured.

Note. If the domestic dispute is a verbal altercation, law enforcement personnel may consider mediation as a method of gathering more information and determining if a crime or abuse has occurred. After separating the two disputants and obtaining the facts, the officers should attempt to bring parties together to discuss the problem and possible solutions. Based on the results of this mediation effort, Army law enforcement may refer the parties for appropriate professional assistance, separate the parties involved in the dispute, or if required apprehend the parties.

SCENE PROCESSING

C-31. Law enforcement personnel will follow the guidance of ATP 3-39.12 for processing a crime scene. Because of the unpredictability and volatility of a domestic disturbance, some specific procedures are included here. Law enforcement personnel will continue processing the scene by—

- Attempting to locate the potential whereabouts of the alleged subject (if the subject has fled the scene).
- Interviewing witnesses as fully and as soon as circumstances allow. When witnesses provide information regarding previous incidents, law enforcement personnel should document it to establish a pattern. Witness names, addresses, and phone numbers must be recorded for follow-on interviews or possible court testimony.
- Interviewing children (preferably alone) in a manner appropriate to their age taking into consideration the emotional trauma displayed by the child and the child's developmental level. Any interviews should be limited to statements of injuries and what they saw. Further questioning and interviews should be conducted by military police investigators or USACIDC SAs. Photographs of the children should also be taken by military police investigators, USACIDC SAs, or medical personnel. Law enforcement personnel must verify that any children present were not abused and document the children's names and ages, signs of trauma, any apparent healing of past abuse wounds, and statements.
- Collecting and preserving all physical evidence necessary to establish what took place, including photographic evidence substantiating the victim's injuries, the crime scene condition, and evidentiary articles that substantiate the incident. See ATP 3-39.12 for collecting and processing evidence.

C-32. Law enforcement personnel must follow established procedures for apprehending (military) and detaining (civilian) personnel and advising military personnel of Article 31 of the UCMJ or turning over civilians to appropriate civilian authorities. These procedures must be conducted according to the SOP of the police operations center. The investigator's statement must clearly state why an apprehension was not made if probable cause existed. These established procedures include—

- Seeking appropriate legal advice if the seizure of firearms not directly related to the incident is contemplated.
- Seizing weapons for safekeeping. If there is a weapon in the alleged subject's possession, which in the judgment of law enforcement personnel, would put the victim or alleged subject at risk, the weapon should be seized for safekeeping. Weapons may be seized regardless of whether an apprehension has been made.
- Explaining to the alleged victim why an apprehension or detention is not going to be made if it is not authorized. The decision to apprehend or detain is the responsibility of law enforcement personnel.
- Remaining at the scene to ensure that the situation is completely under control.
- Advising the alleged victim of the availability of local shelters, victim advocate and domestic violence services, and procedures for obtaining legal protection orders. If the alleged victim opts to go to a shelter, law enforcement personnel are obligated to remain at the scene while personal effects are being gathered and to provide transportation if required.

APPREHENSIONS AND DETENTIONS

C-33. When law enforcement personnel are confronted with the decision to execute an apprehension or detention, they should not consider the following:

- The victim's opposition to apprehend or detain the alleged suspect or claims of being unwilling to prosecute the alleged suspect. The decision to prosecute is made by the commander or a U.S. attorney; prosecution is the decision of the government, not the victim.
- Any speculation that the victim may not follow through with prosecution.
- Concerns regarding financial consequences of an apprehension.
- Speculation that the apprehension may not lead to a conviction.

- The relationship or marital status of the parties involved (for example, individuals who are not married, are separated, or are pending divorce).
- The denial by either party that the abuse occurred when there is evidence of domestic violence.
- Verbal assurances that the violence will cease.
- The racial, cultural, social, political, professional, or sexual orientation of the victim or the accused.
- The location of the incident.
- The absence of visible injuries.

FOLLOW-UP INVESTIGATIONS

C-34. All domestic disturbance reports prepared by law enforcement patrols should be reviewed by the chief of military police investigations or USACIDC SAs and given follow-up investigation as needed. Follow-up investigations should be initiated within 48 hours of the occurrence of the assault. Cases in which a crime was alleged, but a patrol did not make an apprehension at the scene, must be annotated in a raw data file. Follow-up investigations should examine the case to determine if available information, evidence, or leads have been overlooked by law enforcement patrols or investigators.

C-35. Follow-up investigations should focus on attempting to prove the case without the participation or cooperation of the victim in the prosecution. Each case should be analyzed in the following manner: Can the elements of the offense be established without the testimony of the victim? If not—

- Will the victim appear in court and testify truthfully if subpoenaed to do so?
- Can further investigations identify additional witnesses or information to pursue prosecution with an uncooperative or hostile victim?
- Are there additional physical evidence items, prior inconsistent statements, witness statements, 911 tapes, circumstantial evidence, or defendant statements available?

EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED PERSONS

C-36. Law enforcement personnel may be called upon to respond to individuals who are emotionally disturbed at some level. Many of these conditions can be severe and result in erratic or violent behavior. The condition may be associated with environmental factors, medical conditions, or substance-related causes. There may or may not be an underlying mental illness related to the emotional state.

C-37. Mental illness or emotional distress, especially when combined with excessive alcohol or drug use can result in a substantial risk of—

- **Physical harm (self-inflicted) to the disturbed individual.** This may be manifested by threats of, or attempts at, suicide or serious bodily harm.
- **Physical harm to other persons.** This may be manifested by homicidal or other violent behavior and serious bodily harm to others.
- **Physical impairment of the disturbed individual.** This may be manifested by evidence that the person's judgment is so affected that he is unable to protect himself.

C-38. Not all emotionally disturbed persons are dangerous. Some may become dangerous only under specific circumstances or conditions that trigger a volatile reaction. Indications that an emotionally disturbed person may present an immediate or potential danger include the following:

- Statements by the subjects which suggest that they are prepared to commit a violent or dangerous act. Such comments may range from subtle innuendos to a direct threat that, when taken in conjunction with other information, paints a more complete picture of the potential for violence.
- Past history of mental illness or treatment and a personal history of violence under similar or related circumstances.
- Lack of control of emotions (rage, anger, fright, agitation). Signs of lack of control include extreme agitation, wide eyes, and rambling thoughts or speech. The subject clutching themselves or other objects to maintain control, begging to be left alone, or offering frantic assurances that he is all right may also suggest that the individual is close to losing control.

C-39. Law enforcement personnel dealing with emotionally disturbed persons must be aware of the surrounding environment. A chaotic and volatile environment can trigger dangerous responses by emotionally disturbed persons. Agitators who may affect the person, large crowds, or loud noisy environments may incite violence. Law enforcement personnel must always be aware of any weapons or items that can be used as weapons that are within a potentially disturbed person's area. Any weapons (or items that can be used as weapons) should be moved or the emotionally disturbed person should be moved to a location where potential weapons are not readily available.

C-40. Emotionally disturbed persons may harm themselves (through direct physical harm or through irrational actions that place them in danger) or be a threat to others in the area. Emotionally disturbed persons or persons suffering from excessive alcohol or drug use may be taken into custody to prevent harm to the individual, other persons, or both. If an individual is identified by law enforcement personnel as emotionally disturbed, police intervention may be required to reduce any potential threat that the individual poses. Considerations for dealing with emotionally disturbed persons include—

- **Requesting backup.** An emotionally disturbed person should not be dealt with alone. A backup law enforcement patrol should be requested at the earliest opportunity.
- **Calming the environment.** When possible, eliminate lights and sirens, disperse crowds, and assume a quiet and nonthreatening manner when approaching or conversing with the person.
- **Taking precautions to not excite the person.** Precautions may include—
    - Moving slowly and providing reassurance that the police are there to help and that appropriate care will be provided.
    - Not threatening the person with arrest or in any other manner as this may cause additional fright, stress, and potential aggression.
    - Avoiding topics that may agitate the person and guiding the conversation toward subjects that help bring the person back to reality.
- **Communicating with the person.** Attempt to determine what is bothering the individual. Relate concern for their feelings and allow them to vent feelings. Where possible, gather information about the person from acquaintances and family members. Request professional assistance if needed.
- **Acting truthfully.** If subjects become aware of deception, they may withdraw from the contact in distrust and may become hypersensitive or retaliate in anger.

C-41. Emotionally disturbed persons taken into custody should be taken to the emergency room for evaluation by medical professionals. Medical professionals should determine what action is appropriate. Under most circumstances, emergency medical services should transport the subject. Only under exigent circumstances should law enforcement personnel transport an emotionally disturbed person. One or more law enforcement personnel may be required to accompany an individual to the emergency room. They may be required to ride in the ambulance if the subject is combative or uncooperative. The emotionally disturbed person should be searched for weapons and may require appropriate restraints. Individuals should not be left unattended at treatment facilities. Law enforcement personnel should remain with the subject until released by a physician or counselor.

C-42. Law enforcement personnel, normally law enforcement investigators, may be required to interview an emotionally disturbed person if the individual is a subject or witness in a criminal incident. Typically, basic law enforcement patrol personnel will not attempt to interview an emotionally disturbed person beyond efforts to obtain basic information at the incident scene. Law enforcement personnel conducting interviews of emotionally disturbed persons should exercise care when dealing with mentally ill persons during all interviews. Emotionally disturbed persons should never be left alone; if there is any indication of unpredictable or violent behavior, two officers should be with the person at all times.

HAZMAT

C-43. A HAZMAT incident may be a spill or release of toxic industrial materials (toxic industrial chemicals, toxic industrial radiological materials, or toxic industrial biological materials) inside a building or into the environment. The user may manage simple spills; however, major spills or emergencies require emergency assistance from emergency response elements. Many times, HAZMAT incidents may not be immediately

known until identified by first responders. HAZMAT incidents may also coincide with an attack intent on causing damage, casualties, and terror within the target population. Military police and USACIDC elements must be familiar with protocols for responding to a scene with HAZMAT present.

C-44. The decision to declare an incident controlled and stabilized is made by emergency response elements that are trained to identify and safely mitigate the effects of HAZMAT. These elements typically include fire department personnel, environmental health and safety personnel, or HAZMAT teams. Depending on the nature and magnitude of the incident, assistance and services may be required from other public support agencies or specialized contractors to identify and mitigate potential or actual HAZMAT situations. Fire control or hazardous debris and spills may require evacuations of nonessential personnel from the area.

C-45. When faced with a potential HAZMAT incident, law enforcement patrols should always proceed with caution. Public safety and the safety of first responder personnel are paramount. Initial response considerations include—

- **Approaching the scene.** Personnel must approach an incident with caution and from an upwind direction. They should also wear personal protective equipment, as appropriate, for the incident.
- **Securing the scene.** Personnel must secure the scene by isolating the spill or leak for at least 50 meters in all directions. The perimeter may require expansion based on direction from qualified HAZMAT personnel or *Emergency Response Guidebook* data.
- **Assessing the situation.** Consider the following:
  - Did a spill or leak occur? How much HAZMAT has spilled (estimate the quantity if unknown)? Has the spill reached, or does it have the potential to contact, surface water or public drainage systems?
  - What are the existing weather conditions?
  - What are the conditions of the terrain?
  - Does this situation place people, property, or the environment at risk?
  - What actions need to be taken immediately (evacuation, additional resources)?
- **Identifying the hazards.** Personnel should identify hazards (if possible) by using information contained on placards, container labels, shipping documents, safety data sheets, and railcar and road trailer identification charts. Vehicle drivers can also assist in identifying hazards. If the substance cannot be identified, personnel must maintain a secure perimeter and obtain support from qualified HAZMAT personnel.
- **Reporting and obtaining assistance.** Personnel should always obtain assistance when dealing with HAZMAT, including—
  - Notifying the military police desk. Ask the military police desk to notify the responsible agencies and call for assistance from qualified personnel.
  - Obtaining emergency response phone numbers. In the event that contact cannot be made with anyone, look for emergency response phone numbers in the shipping documents.
  - Referring to the *Emergency Response Guidebook*. It can be a useful tool for first responders to identify and appropriately react to potential HAZMAT incidents.
- **Deciding actions.** Take command of the scene or situation. Military police patrols must consider several factors, including—
  - What is the risk?
  - What conditions are competing for law enforcement patrol attention (heavy traffic areas that require traffic control, high population areas that require immediate notification or evacuation, potential explosive or fire hazards)?
  - Will rescue attempts to people, property, or the environment help or aggravate the situation?
  - What is the estimated arrival time of additional response assets? Are they better equipped and qualified to attempt rescue?
  - Is it better, all things considered, to maintain perimeter control and wait?

- **Responding appropriately.** Response operations include—
    - Establishing an incident command post.
    - Identifying and establishing a casualty triage, treatment area, and decontamination corridor if necessary.
    - Maintaining continuous communications with the military police desk.
    - Reassessing the situation continually.
- **Avoiding HAZMAT.** Avoidance includes the following—
    - Do not walk on or touch spilled material.
    - Do not inhale fumes, smoke, or vapors.
    - Do not mark the area with flares or any other material that could ignite flammable or explosive HAZMAT.
- **Reducing exposure to radiological hazards through time, distance and shielding**. (Reduce time spent in the vicinity of the hazard, maintain an appropriate distance, and shield either the substance or personnel).

HOSTAGE SITUATIONS

C-46. Hostage situations can develop without warning and for a variety of reasons. They are all unique in their characteristics and require rapid response by law enforcement patrols and follow-on personnel to increase the probability of a successful outcome. Hostage situations can be the result of—

- Terrorist operations.
- Perpetrators seeking revenge or profit (ransom).
- Domestic violence or other relationship problems.
- Mental illness or impairment.
- A thwarted crime in progress.
- Suicide-by-cop scenarios.

C-47. Initial law enforcement patrols responding to a hostage situation should immediately notify the military police desk or police operations center of their arrival and exact location. Patrol vehicles should be parked a safe distance from the building or area, typically no closer than 50 meters. This decision should be based on the terrain, the weapons the hostage taker may have available, and other environmental considerations. Law enforcement patrols should position themselves where they can best observe and control the area. Other considerations include—

- Avoiding exposure to gunfire by the hostage taker (always exit vehicles on the side away from the hostage taker).
- Taking cover behind vehicles (preferably the engine block), walls, trees, or other protective objects.
- Positioning to allow as much visual coverage of the scene as possible.
- Directing bystanders to take cover or depart the area to limit the likelihood of bystander injury.
- Securing a perimeter around the scene to seal the area.
- Ensuring that constant observation of all entrances and exits is established.
- Requesting immediate backup and informing the military police desk or operations center of how many additional patrols are required to control the scene.

C-48. The scene should be evaluated to determine as much information as possible. Bystanders or witnesses on-scene that can provide information should be quickly interviewed. Military police patrols should attempt to verify information through their own observations. Patrols should determine and immediately report—

- The number of subjects.
- Subjects who are armed and what types of weapons they have.
- The number of hostages.
- Other helpful information, including descriptions of hostage takers, vehicles driven, and behaviors and demeanors.

C-49. All patrols should remain in their assigned positions until relieved. Duties could consist of sealing avenues of escape, evacuating surrounding buildings, rerouting traffic away from the scene, keeping entrances and exits to the location of the hostage taker under constant watch, and removing bystanders after obtaining their identification and other pertinent information.

C-50. Hostage situations require extensive resources and support by specific law enforcement capabilities. These capabilities work in concert as personnel attempt to peacefully conclude incidents or, if necessary, remove the hostage taker as a threat to protect victims and bystanders. The following support elements may be required:

- USACIDC elements.
- Hostage and crisis negotiators.
- SRTs.
- Emergency medical services.
- Fire department services.
- Outside law enforcement agencies.
- EOD teams.
- MWD teams.

C-51. Any hostages that escape or are released must initially be treated as possible threats. Because law enforcement personnel do not know who the hostage taker or their friends are, handcuff all persons and move them to a safe and secure area until their identities are determined.

C-52. Hostage situations can last for several hours or several days, depending on the will of the hostage taker, the resources available to the hostage taker, and other variables. Constant surveillance of the hostage taker should be maintained, if possible. The law enforcement personnel should try to gain as much information as possible about the person or persons committing the act. Observations can include things that may seem unimportant (clothing, identified habits, threatening actions, activities that seem out of the ordinary or out of place). These pieces of information can be valuable to hostage negotiators in dealing with hostage takers.

C-53. Communication with the hostage taker should only be done by trained hostage negotiators who are authorized to communicate with hostage takers. The USACIDC is responsible for providing hostage negotiation assets, internal to USACIDC or through supporting law enforcement agencies. Hostage negotiation is an art, not a science; it is very much a learned skill. Do not attempt to negotiate with a hostage taker. If communication with the hostage taker cannot be avoided—

- Do not make threats, offers, or promises.
- Do not refuse the subject's demands; tell the hostage taker that you must check with the supervisor.
- Do not answer questions and demands until the negotiators arrive; create delays.

LAW ENFORCEMENT RAIDS

C-54. Normally, law enforcement raids are conducted to apprehend offenders, obtain evidence of illegal activity, safeguard hostages, or recover U.S. government property. In contingency operations, combined U.S., multinational, or HN law enforcement raids may be used to collect information, capture or eliminate threats (terrorists, criminals, insurgents), or confiscate weapons.

C-55. The law enforcement raids are most effective when conducted by SRTs in cooperation with specially trained law enforcement personnel (such as military police or USACIDC SAs skilled in raids, apprehensions, and evidence collection and preservation). (See AR 190-14.) At a minimum, each raid team should have at least one trained, experienced investigator who is responsible for collecting and processing evidence. Specially trained SRTs are suited for high-risk law enforcement raids in high-threat environments. The SRTs are experienced military police and trained in breaching techniques, barrier penetration, and threat and occupant control. See ATP 3-39.11.

PREPARATION

C-56. The preparation and planning of law enforcement raids must be thorough, led by reliable police and other intelligence personnel, and rehearsed until the raiding force reaches battle drill precision. The PMs,

military police commanders, staffs, and USACIDC elements plan and coordinate law enforcement raids. Planning and coordination activities include—

- Coordinating legal aspects with the supporting SJA.
  - Ensure that there is probable cause to conduct the raid.
  - Coordinate with the local SJA, military magistrate, or judge to obtain authorization for the raid. (Army law enforcement personnel must adhere to the laws governing authority, jurisdiction, responsibility, search and seizure, apprehension, and use of force.)
- Conducting a thorough reconnaissance of the target location to—
  - Observe activity at the target location.
  - Determine entrance and exit routes.
  - Identify the best route of entry to the target.
  - Identify the vantage points, movements, or behavioral patterns of the occupants of the area.
  - Identify the points offering observation and fields of fire for the raiding party and the occupants of the raid area or building.
  - Obtain blueprints of the building. When reconnoitering a specific building, blueprints will help identify the interior arrangements of the buildings, to include the placement of doors and windows, their construction, and the direction in which they open. Law enforcement personnel should determine likely points of exits and entrances, to include emergency doors and fire escapes.

Note. Law enforcement personnel must not enter a building before a raid if it will in any way jeopardize the mission.

- Obtaining videos or photographs of persons entering and leaving the target location.
- Determining the raid team composition to establish a chain of command for each raiding team and within each team. The raiding party is typically composed of the following:
  - **Entry team.** This team is normally used to make apprehensions (as needed) and to recover property. The team may have a recorder, a photographer, and an evidence custodian.
  - **Security team.** This team provides security for the entry team. It also seals off possible avenues of approach and escape.
  - **Reserve team.** This team reinforces or assists when needed. Part of the team may stay mobile for use as a pursuit unit. If it is not needed for its basic purpose, the team can augment processing procedures and help control the raid site.
  - **Prisoner team.** This team enters a secured building and takes charge of prisoners apprehended by the entry team.
  - **Medical team.** This team should include a doctor if possible. The team normally remains with the reserve team and treats injuries, as required.
- Determining equipment requirements. Selected equipment must suit the purpose of the raid and the expected degree of opposition. Too much equipment can slow the raiding party; too little equipment can hamper the effectiveness of the raid. Equipment considerations include—
  - **Weapons.** Weapons must be carefully selected. Personnel must take into consideration the armament of the subject, the terrain of the neighborhood, and the degree of resistance expected.
  - **Riot control equipment.** If riot control equipment is to be used, personnel should identify the type of equipment required and obtain clearance from the installation commander. Consider the wind direction and traffic and population density. Remember to provide the raiding party with protective masks.
  - **Communications equipment.** Consider the requirement for radios, telephones, and visual signals (hand and arm signals, sounds [such as a whistle]). Personnel must always plan for an alternate means of communication.

■ **Special equipment.** This equipment includes lighting, breaching equipment, armor, special munitions, and protective masks.

● Identifying and coordinating response and reserve force composition.

● Identifying and coordinating transportation requirements.

● Coordinating medical support.

● Identifying other resource requirements.

● Briefing the members of the raid team on—

■ The objective of the raid action.

■ Each member's position and responsibilities.

■ The number of subjects and their names, descriptions, injuries, and other available information.

■ The identity and description of covert agents who may be working within the group to be raided.

■ The offense of which the suspect is accused.

■ The reputation, background, characteristics, and mental state of the suspect.

■ The hostages or other bystanders involved and their descriptions.

■ The location of the suspects (apartment number, floor, room number, window).

■ The name and description of the subject and if the subject is armed (if so, the type of weapons and the amount of ammunition the subject has, if known).

■ The physical layout of the operation, including sewers, skylights, adjacent buildings, and type of construction (wood, brick).

■ The identity of support forces.

● Reviewing police intelligence files.

● Analyzing videos or photographs and attempting to identify visitors to the target location.

● Coordinating with law enforcement and intelligence-gathering agencies (local, multinational, HN, and joint forces).

● Debriefing the reconnaissance team and reviewing the size, activity, location, unit, time, and equipment report.

● Deciding if the operation will be a daytime or nighttime raid.

● Deciding if the operation will include a ruse or diversion.

● Determining if entry will be dynamic or covert.

● Coordinating with units and agencies that will be affected by the raid or that can assist.

● Publishing the operation order.

C-57. The following factors are common to a successful raid:

● **Surprise.** Personnel should plan to conduct a raid at a time fitting of the circumstances and when few uninvolved people are present.

● **Speed.** Personnel should plan to conduct raids with speed and precision, ensuring that participants understand their specific assignments.

CAUTION

Speed must not be gained at the expense of safety.

● **Simplicity.** Personnel must ensure that instructions are clearly stated and easy to carry out.

● **Superiority.** Personnel must know and exceed the capabilities of the suspect in manpower and firepower.

● **Safety.** Personnel must ensure that the raiding party is thorough, cautious, and safety-conscious. Trained and experienced personnel should be used to conduct the raid.

REHEARSALS

C-58. It is strongly recommended that the raid force rehearse their entry and sweep of the residence in a mock-up mission that closely resembles the target. The degree of detail and the location of the rehearsal depends on mission variables. The rehearsal should be conducted in the same light conditions as the planned raid. An analysis of the target photographs can help provide the necessary information to select a proper rehearsal location. Obtaining crucial interior information may be more difficult.

C-59. Each team member must fully understand their specific job. Cross-training missions are crucial so that all team members can continue the raid if a team member is incapacitated. Support personnel must train and rehearse their roles and attend all operational briefings. Specific tasks to train and rehearse include—

- Movement techniques.
- Breaching techniques.
- Threat and occupant control procedures.
- Outer security, building isolation, and escape blocking procedures.
- Communications procedures.
- Apprehension procedures.
- Evidence collection and preservation procedures.
- Emergency medical evacuation procedures.
- Follow-on missions.

EXECUTION

C-60. This section describes typical execution procedures for conducting a law enforcement raid to apprehend subjects, obtain evidence of illegal activity and maintain its evidentiary value, recover personal or U.S. government property, prevent the commission of a crime, and confiscate contraband.

C-61. Members of the raid team must—

- Ensure that members of the raid team comply with the limitations imposed by the search authorization. Search only those locations described in the authorization and search only in areas where it is likely that objects of the search will be found.
- Exercise plain-view doctrine regarding evidence collection.
- Ensure that items seized during the raid are clearly marked with the initials of the person making the seizure and the military date and time.
- Ensure that a DA Form 4137 is prepared for evidence and that the chain of custody is maintained.
- Ensure that female subjects are searched and attended by female members of the raiding party.
- Ensure that minimum force is used and that juveniles involved in the incident are processed separately from adult subjects. Ensure that juveniles are supervised and out of public view during detention. Keep juveniles separated from adult subjects until they are released to their parents or custodians or are transferred to juvenile facilities.

STRESS RELATED TO CRITICAL INCIDENTS

C-62. The USAMPS training division developed a Critical Incident Peer Support Course to assist military police in preparing and understanding critical incident stress, posttraumatic stress trauma, and cumulative or chronic stress before being exposed to a traumatic incident. The course is a peer-based program that prepares military police and USACIDC SAs for responses to catastrophic incidents (loss of lives, serious injuries, traffic fatalities, children's deaths, suicides). These instances may be associated with combat and contingency operations or law enforcement response activities.

C-63. The Critical Incident Peer Support Course is designed to assist military police Soldiers and leaders in identifying stress-related concerns and equipping them to provide peer support. This can lead to follow-up consultations with medical professionals to help fill a void created by the shortage of psychologists, counselors, and combat stress teams. The course is not designed to replace the functions of behavioral health personnel or a chaplain; it is designed to support the process.

C-64. Critical incident stress has the potential to create an overwhelming emotional reaction in individuals. These individuals may be unable to function during or following the incident or are unable to cope psychologically with the event.

C-65. The following primary conditions determine a Soldier's reaction to a critical incident:
- The event is sudden and unexpected.
- The event represents a significant threat.
- The event can include an element of loss.
- A Soldier's values or beliefs are challenged.

C-66. The definition of a critical incident must remain fluid; situations that have an effect on one Soldier may not have the same effect on another. Reactions are normal, healthy responses to abnormal situations. Signs and symptoms of critical incident stress may be experienced in a cognitive, behavioral, emotional, spiritual, or physical manner.

C-67. The following are examples of critical incident stress symptoms:
- **Cognitive**—includes diminished concentration, loss of the meaning of life, preoccupation with trauma, apathy, hypoalertness, hyperalertness, and self-doubt.
- **Behavioral**—includes sleep disturbances, appetite disturbances, crying, decreased ability to speak, increased smoking, and increased drinking and aggressiveness.
- **Emotional**—includes oversensitive and overemotional behavior, mood swings, worry, loss of self-confidence, and increased cynicism and negativism.
- **Spiritual**—includes doubts in value systems or religious beliefs, declined investments in others, disillusionment, loss of purpose or hope, loss of trust, or placing blame on God.
- **Physical**—includes exhibiting changes in sleep patterns and nightmares; becoming easily startled; and suffering from headaches, migraines, muscle tics, trembles or twitches, restlessness, hyperactivity, or increased perspiration.

C-68. Understanding the dynamics of critical incident stress, posttraumatic stress trauma, and cumulative or chronic stress and how the disorders occur can aid military police and USACIDC Soldiers in seeking immediate help for themselves, their peers, and their subordinates. This help begins with talking to their peers.

C-69. Following mission incidents, unit leaders should ensure that exposed individuals or elements receive one-on-one intervention or critical incident debriefings within the first 8 to 24 hours. These debriefings should be included in SOPs and enforced by unit leadership. Critical incident stress, posttraumatic stress trauma, and cumulative or chronic stress can affect anyone, regardless of age or position. All personnel, including unit leaders who are involved in a critical incident, should be required to participate.

LAW ENFORCMENT RESPONSE TO UNMANNED AERIAL SYSTEMS

C-70. The following are law enforcement responses to drones:
- Direct attention outward and upward to attempt to locate individuals who are holding a controller or device that appears to be operating an unmanned aerial system.
- Report the incident immediately to the appropriate authorities.
- Observe the unmanned aerial system and maintain visibility of the device; look for damages or injured individuals—battery life is typically 20 to 30 minutes. In the event the unmanned aerial system contained a chemical agent or device that could detonate, the area should be searched for signs of injury or a device dropped remotely from the unmanned aerial system.
- Notice features such as the type of device, size, shape, color, payload, video-camera equipment, and activity.
- Execute appropriate police action. At a minimum, stop, identify, and interview the operator. If needed, request or take photos. If the device is deemed suspicious, follow suspicious activity reporting procedures. Based on the facts and circumstances of the incident, an apprehension can be made if appropriate. If the operator is apprehended, confiscate the device as evidence.

Appendix D

Law Enforcement Patrol and Manpower Requirements

When conducting police operations, military police and PM staffs must analyze their AO, considering many factors to determine requirements for conducting police operations. In some environments, staffs may have a large amount of historical data that can be used to determine law enforcement patrol and manpower requirements. Some environments may be such that little to no historical data relevant to crime and police operations is available for staff planning. Staff planning for crime and police operations must consider this factor if establishing in a new AO The relative amount of data available is a primary factor in determining what methods are used to determine law enforcement patrol and manpower requirements. This appendix provides methods for calculating law enforcement patrol and manpower requirements. The methods provided can be accomplished manually or by incorporating the formulas into most spreadsheet or database programs.

PATROL ALLOCATION PLANNING

D-1. There are numerous computer-based software applications that can be used to aid law enforcement agencies in determining the appropriate allocation of law enforcement assets within a given AO or jurisdiction. GIS software can be extremely useful to the military police or PM staff to overlay crime or incident data on a digital map of the AO. The software can also allow a wide range of other applicable data to be overlaid, including demographic data, industrial hazard areas, sensitive assets, key traffic routes and congestion points, and existing patrol and police station operational boundaries. Commercial software applications can be purchased that employ algorithms to historical police data, resulting in statistical outputs that include peak activity times, law enforcement patrol workload and activity, response times, and response delay factors. These programs can also provide recommendations regarding law enforcement asset allocation.

> *Note.* The information contained in this appendix does not relieve planners of the requirement to perform detailed mission analysis to identify the law enforcement patrol and manpower requirements required for military police to accomplish the mission.

HISTORICAL REQUIREMENTS

D-2. The following method for determining patrol and manpower requirements was developed by the staff at USAMPS. It is a simplified method for determining law enforcement patrol allocation requirements that can be done by hand or input into basic spreadsheet or database software. It can also be used in coordination with other database and GIS applications used by PM or military police staffs. It is relatively straightforward and can be manipulated by the staff to fit the specific operational environment. This method requires at least a year of historical data for the AO considered.

D-3. The following planning factors and variables typically affect law enforcement patrol requirements unique to each law enforcement organization and the AO. Planners should consider—

- The AO covered by law enforcement elements.
- The patrol employment related to time (shift configuration).
- The number of hours that patrol is required.
- The base patrol requirements, using variables that are specific to the AO and the organization and that are based on historical data.
- The number of hours that personnel are available for patrol duties.
- The configurations of individual law enforcement patrols.
- The AO crime rates.
- The average number of calls for service by AO, day of the week, and time of day.
- Known criminal threats/activity in the AO.
- Threat and vulnerability assessments.

D-4. Before patrol and manpower requirements can be calculated, the AO in which police operations will be conducted must be identified. In many cases, the AO is defined as the base, base camp, or forward-deployed base of operation where police operations are required. In some cases (such as support of civil control efforts or support to HN police), the AO may be a subset of a larger area (such as the area covered by a single police station within a larger police jurisdiction). Chapter 2 outlined staff considerations for determining patrol areas that are relevant to identifying boundaries for AO as subsets of larger coverage areas.

EMPLOYMENT CONFIGURATION AND PATROL HOURS

D-5. Once the AO is identified, the staff and military police commander or PM must determine what shift configuration will be employed. Police operations are, by nature, required to be conducted 24 hours per day, 7 days per week. The law enforcement organization must determine what shift configuration is to be implemented (per 24-hour period) and what times during the day that each shift will be on duty. There are many options for shift configurations, including—

- Two 12-hour shifts.
- Three 8-hour shifts.
- Three 8-hour shifts, plus one overlap shift (four total shifts per 24 hours).

D-6. When the shift configuration is established, the military police or PM staff can calculate the total number of hours for each shift per year. This can be calculated by multiplying the number of hours per shift times the number of days per year. For example, for an 8-hour shift—

$$365 \times 8 = 2,920 \ total \ hours \ per \ year$$

where—

365 = days per year
8   = hours per shift

Base Patrol Requirement

D-7. The military police or PM staff must calculate the base patrol requirement based on historical data. The base patrol requirement is the number of law enforcement patrol elements required per shift. The patrol is a singular law enforcement element that can respond or react to an incident; this does not necessarily equate directly to personnel. The base patrol requirement can be calculated by using workload related variables, to include the—

- **Number of incidents in the target area.** This refers to the number of calls for service or other incidents requiring a law enforcement patrol to be dispatched to the scene. This variable is based on the historical average for the shift being analyzed. Care must be taken to ensure that data is only counted for locations within the designated AO for the shift in question. The data should depict the type of incident or offense, the time and day of the incident or offense (or time of report), and the exact location of the incident or offense. This allows staff and police intelligence analysts to accurately map the data within the target area. Data for at least 1 year should be used; a longer period will provide greater statistical validity.
- **Average time required per call.** The average duration from the time of dispatch to the time the law enforcement patrol departs the scene should be computed. Data for at least 1 year should be used; a longer period will provide greater statistical validity.
- **Buffer time factor.** The buffer time refers to the average time spent on activities per shift, making patrols unavailable for dispatch to incoming calls for service or incidents. These activities can include officer-initiated contacts (a traffic stop or response to an observed suspicious activity, inspection, public service or police engagement activity). For example, if the average law enforcement patrol spends an equal amount of duty time on buffer time activities compared to responses to calls or incidents, the buffer time factor would be 2. If law enforcement patrols spend half the amount of duty time on buffer time activities compared to responses to calls or incidents, the buffer time factor would be 1.5. The buffer time will typically be larger for law enforcement elements that are conducting community policing or other patrol strategies that require a higher degree of direct police engagement by law enforcement patrol elements and the community.

D-8. The base patrol requirement for a shift can be calculated by multiplying the number of incidents in the target area times the average time required per call for a service or incident, multiplying the result times the buffer time factor, and then dividing that result by the number of hours required per year to obtain the base patrol requirement per shift. For example—

$$9{,}125 \times 0.75 \times 2 = 13{,}687.5, rounded\ up\ to\ 13{,}688\ patrol\ hours\ (base\ requirement)$$

where—
9,125 =average number of incidents or patrol requirements per year for a given shift
0.75=average time (hours) required per call
2=buffer time factor (hours)

$$13{,}688 \div 2{,}920 = 4.69\ rounded\ up\ to\ 5\ patrols$$

where—
13,688=patrol hours
2,920=hours per shift

D-9. Five patrols (according to the equation above) is the minimum number of base patrols required per shift. The requirements for different shifts will be different based on call volume, traffic patterns, and other factors. For example, shifts spanning the evening and early morning hours historically have a much higher call volume than other shifts. In these cases, the requirements for each shift should be calculated separately.

D-10. These calculations do not include supervisory patrol requirements. To calculate supervisory patrol requirements, multiply the span of control ratio times the minimum base patrol requirement for each shift. See the following examples:

Example 1

If the desired span of control is one supervisory patrol for every (1:5)–

$$5 \div 5 = 1 \text{ (minimum) supervisory patrol per shift}$$

where–

5 = base patrol requirements

5 = desired span of control for one supervisory patrol

Example 2

If the base patrol requirement is eight and the desired span of control is one supervisory patrol for every three base patrols—

$$8 \div 3 = 2.7 \text{ rounded up to 3 (minimum) supervisory patrols}$$

where—
8   = base control requirements
3   = desired span of control for one supervisory patrol

Personnel Availability

D-11. The staff must also determine an estimate of available time for law enforcement personnel by identifying variables that reduce personnel availability. (See table D-1.) Variables may be added or removed from the list based on the characteristics of the individual organization and mission. Variables may include—
- Vacation or leave.
- Days off.
- Time off for medical reasons.
- Training.
- Case or report preparation.
- Court appearance.
- Counseling time.

Table D-1. Planning factors to determine time unavailable for patrol duties

Planning Variable	Planning Factor	Constant	Hours
Vacation or leave	14 days (average days of vacation or leave per Army law enforcement personnel)	8 hours per day	112
Days off	104 days (based on 5 days on, 2 days off) (52 weeks per year x 2 days off per week)	8 hours per day	832
Time off for medical reasons	7 days (average days off per person for medical reasons)	8 hours per day	56
Training	5 days (average required annual or recertification training)	8 hours per day	40
Case or report preparation	9 days (average cumulative time for case and report preparation)	8 hours per day	72
Court appearance	2 days (average cumulative time required for court appearances)	8 hours per day	16
Counseling time	2.25 days (1.5 hours per month)	12 months	18
Total hours unavailable for patrol duties per year.			**1,146**

D-12. By adding the results of these variable calculations, an estimate of the total hours unavailable (1,146 hours per year) can be determined for each individual law enforcement officer. With this factor and the total number of hours per year for the identified shift, the following calculations can be made:

- **Hours available for patrol duties.** The following formula is used to calculate the hours available for patrol duties:

$$hours\ required\ per\ shift\ per\ year - hours\ unavailable\ per\ year = hours\ available\ for\ patrol\ duty$$

Example

$$2,920 - 1,146 = 1,774\ hours\ available\ for\ patrol\ duty$$

where—
2,920   = hours required per shift per year
1,146   = hours unavailable per year

- **Relief factor.** The relief factor is the number of personnel required to meet 1 man-year requirement. The relief factor is used to determine the number of law enforcement personnel required to meet base patrol requirements factoring in variables for personnel unavailability. The following formula is used to calculate the relief factor:

$$number\ of\ hours\ required\ per\ year \div number\ of\ hours\ available\ per\ year = the\ relief\ factor$$

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">

Example

$$2{,}920 \div 1{,}774 = 1.7 \text{ personnel}$$

where—
2,920   *= hours per year*
1,774   *= hours available per year*
</td></tr>
</table>

D-13. The preceding calculations are applied to each shift, using historical data for the specific time periods associated with each respective shift. The shift requirements are then compiled to determine the daily patrol requirements.

Individual Law Enforcement Patrols

D-14. The staff and military police commander or PM must determine the configuration of individual patrol elements to facilitate the calculation of manpower requirements. The law enforcement patrol may be configured as a single- or multiple-person patrol. The determination is made based on the operational environment, existing and potential threat, and relative experience of the individual law enforcement personnel. In support of bases and base camps, more experienced law enforcement personnel may be assigned to single-person patrols. Single-person patrols may also be employed for less experienced law enforcement personnel in relatively benign environments, especially when sufficient supervisory leadership is available to assist and mentor less experienced personnel. During shifts where the probability of calls that are volatile in nature are high or in areas where the threat may be higher, two-person patrols may be appropriate. In expeditionary environments supporting stability operations, the threat level may be such that full, three-person military police teams and military police squads may be required to serve as a patrol element.

D-15. The military police or PM staff determines the optimum configuration for all shifts based on the considerations discussed. This allows the staff to determine the overall daily manpower requirement. Table D-2 shows an example of a law enforcement patrol configuration plan.

Table D-2. LE patrol configurations and associated personnel requirements

Shift	Configuration	Base LE Patrol Personnel Per Day	Supervisory LE Patrol Personnel Per Day
A (0800–1600) Base LE patrol	Five patrols; one person per patrol element	5	NA
A (0800–1600) Supervisory LE patrol	One supervisory patrol; one person per patrol element	NA	1
B (1600–2400) Base LE patrol	Five patrols; two personnel per patrol element	10	NA
B (1600–2400) Supervisory LE patrol	One supervisory patrol; one person per patrol element	NA	1
C (2400–0800) Base LE patrol	Five patrols; one person per patrol element	5	NA
C (2400–0800) Supervisory LE patrol	One supervisory patrol; one person per patrol element	NA	1
D (2000–0300) Base LE patrol	Three patrols; two personnel per patrol element	6	NA
D (2000–0300) Supervisory LE patrol	One supervisory patrol; one person per patrol element	NA	1
Subtotals		**26**	**4**
Total daily personnel requirement for LE patrols		**30 personnel**	
Legend: LE law enforcement NA not applicable			

D-16. As discussed earlier, there are many variables that may make personnel unavailable for law enforcement patrol duties. The relief factor calculated in paragraph D-12 is applied to the daily personnel requirement for base law enforcement patrols to determine the number of personnel required for sustained operations. Multiply the required base patrol personnel times the relief factor of 1.6 to get the base patrol personnel requirement necessary for sustained operations. The same relief factor must be applied to the requirement for supervisory law enforcement patrols. See table D-3.

Table D-3. Relief factor to determine personnel requirements
for sustained operations

Element	Daily Personnel Requirement	Relief Factor	Total Requirement Per Day by Patrol Type
Base LE patrol personnel	26	26 x 1.6	41.6, rounded up to 42 personnel
Supervisory LE patrol personnel	4	4 x 1.6	6.4, rounded up to 7 personnel
Total daily personnel requirement necessary for sustained operations			**49 personnel**
Legend: LE law enforcement			

COMPARATIVE DATA

D-17. Running estimates for police requirements based on comparative data between the target AO (AO requiring police support) and similar AO where law enforcement operations are established can be useful when historical data is inadequate or unavailable. A lack of crime statistics, historical police activity data, and other factors make the use of many allocation metrics impossible. Expeditionary environments where police infrastructure and records are nonexistent or have been destroyed are examples of when comparative data analysis may be necessary. In these cases, initial running estimates based on comparisons between the target AO and similar AO may be the only realistic method available to produce planning estimates for law enforcement patrol and manpower requirements.

D-18. For planning purposes, a target police-to-population ratio can be calculated based on analyses of similar policing systems. Population ratios should be based on individual urban areas within the larger AO. Each of these urban centers may require different police officer densities based on the overall population, population density, and other factors (including threat and area geography). Typically, the more dense the population, the greater the police-to-population ratio requirement. Table D-4 provides examples of police densities for five major U.S. cities.

Table D-4. Population and police densities for major U.S. cities

City	Population	Population Density	Total Police Officers	Ratio of Police Officers to Square Miles of Patrol Area	Ratio of Police Officers to Population
New York City	8,008,278	25,925 persons per square mile	39,110	127 officers per square mile	1 officer per 205 residents
Chicago	2,896,016	12,746 persons per square mile	13,423	59 officers per square mile	1 officer per 218 residents
Philadelphia	1,517,510	11,232 persons per square mile	6,728	50 officers per square mile	1 officer per 218 residents
Boston	589,141	12,172 persons per square mile	2,044	42 officers per square mile	1 officer per 297 residents
Los Angeles	3,600,000	7,915 persons per square mile	9,195	20 officers per square mile	1 officer per 431 residents
Boots on the Ground: Troop Density in Contingency Operations, Global War on Terrorism Occasional Paper 16, Combat Studies Institute Press, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.					

D-19. After major urban areas are calculated and requirements are established, rural areas can be determined. Typically, police density in rural areas is more closely tied to communication capabilities and response times. Once individual police-to-population densities are calculated, actual police requirements can be determined and overall averages for the AO can be determined.

D-20. The police-to-population ratio template enables the staff to determine the total number of required police officers for each policing area (city, county, or other jurisdiction) based on the estimated population. For example, if the target police-to-population ratio is 5 police officers per 1,000 people, a policing area with 700,000 residents would require approximately 3,500 policing personnel. The 3,500 personnel police force can then be divided into individual police stations. The span of control must be considered when dividing individual police station areas and manpower allocations. For planning purposes, 200 police officers per station represent a medium-size police force.

D-21. The number of required police stations will determine the police hierarchy required to exercise command and control over the individual stations and police elements. Police organizations will typically be organized with an overall headquarters element. The size of the organization will determine if interim management levels are required or if individual police station commanders report directly to the headquarters element. In extremely large organizations, the district headquarters may be assigned a share of the police stations and act as a midlevel management element. These midlevel elements provide command and control for their assigned police stations and report to the police headquarters element, thus establishing the organizational span of control at a more manageable level. Extremely small organizations (such as those organized to provide law enforcement and policing support to rural or small towns) may integrate the headquarters element into a single police station that supports the entire AO.

MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS FOR SPECIFIC MISSIONS

D-22. A formula can be used to calculate the number of personnel required to fulfill a given mission requirement, while allowing for a specific work schedule. This manpower requirement calculation allows military police staffs, commanders, and PMs to identify the required amount of personnel needed to meet a specific mission requirement. This formula is best used for very specific missions; it is not a good application for determining long-term sustained mission requirements. The formula can be used as a stand-alone calculation or, when properly input into most standard computer spreadsheet applications, calculated automatically. This formula is used when—

- A daily manpower or mission requirement is known.
- The desired work schedule is known (for example, 5 days on and 2 days off).
- The total number of personnel required to meet the given mission is unknown.

Note. In the case of a fractional number, the results are always rounded up. This provides the minimum number of personnel required for the stated commitment.

D-23. The formula is—

$$daily\ commitment\ \times number\ of\ days\ scheduled \div actual\ number\ of\ days\ worked$$
$$= personnel\ requirement$$

Example 1

5 days on, 2 days off

$$100 \times 7 \div 5 = 140 \; personnel \; requirement$$

where—
100   = positions (for 140 personnel)
7   = total number of days on the schedule
5   = actual days worked

Example 2

6 days on, 3 days off

$$100 \times 9 \div 6 = 150 \; personnel \; requirement$$

where—
100   = positions (for 140 personnel)
9   = total number of days on the schedule
6   = actual days worked

D-24. For long-term planning and to account for emergencies, training, leave, injury, unexpected illness, or other personnel absences, a 10 percent increase is typically added to the personnel requirement.

Example

$$150 \times 0.1 = 15$$

$$150 + 15 = 165 \; personnel \; requirement$$

where—
150   = initial personnel requirement

MANPOWER CAPABILITY AND CONSTRAINTS

D-25. Many times, the mission must be accomplished with the personnel available. In these instances, the capability of the unit must be calculated to provide leaders and staffs with the actual manpower capability of the unit. This provides the staff with available personnel resources to accomplish the stated mission and enables informed planning, recommendations, and decision making regarding the prioritization of tasks for the available force. The manpower capability calculation allows military police staffs, commanders, and PMs to identify the specific mission capabilities (or constraints) given a specified number of available personnel. The manpower capability calculation is best applied to very specific missions; it is not a good application for determining long-term sustained mission requirements or constraints.

D-26. Like the manpower requirements formula, the manpower capability formula can be used as a stand-alone calculation or as input into a computer spreadsheet application to perform calculations automatically. This formula is used when—

- The total number of available personnel is known.
- The desired work schedule is known (for example, 5 days on and 2 days off).
- A daily manpower capability is unknown.

D-27. When calculating manpower capability, use the following formula:

$$available\ personnel \times days\ worked \div total\ days\ on\ the\ schedule = total\ daily\ manpower\ capability$$

Note. For manpower capability calculations, the results must be rounded down.

Example 1

6 days on, 3 days off

$$100 \times 6 \div 9 = 66.67\ rounded\ down\ to\ 66\ personnel\ available\ for\ a\ 24-hour\ period$$

where—
100   = available personnel strength
6   = days on
9   = days in schedule

Example 2

5 days on, 2 days off

$$100 \times 5 \div 7 = 71.43\ rounded\ down\ to\ 71\ personnel\ avaliable\ for\ a\ 24-hour\ period$$

where—
100   = available personnel strength
5   = days on
7   = days in schedule

D-28. The formulas above do not account for emergencies, training, leave, injury, unexpected illness, or other personnel absences. A reduction of 10 percent must typically be applied for long-term planning.

Example

$$71 \times 0.10 = 7.1$$

$$71 - 7.1 = 63.9\ rounded\ down\ to\ 63\ personnel\ available\ for\ a\ 24-hour\ period$$

where—
71   = initial number of personnel available

Appendix E

Equipment Requirements

Law enforcement activities have equipment requirements specific to the unique tasks conducted by Army law enforcement personnel. This appendix provides a list of general equipment requirements for use in planning and resourcing law enforcement personnel by military police staffs, PMs, and military police commanders.

BASIC LAW ENFORCEMENT PATROL EQUIPMENT REQUIREMENTS

E-1.   Law enforcement activities require specific minimum equipment requirements to ensure that individual law enforcement personnel and the community are safe. This equipment provides personal protection for the individual conducting law enforcement activities, keeps the equipment stable on the person, and ensures that the tools necessary for graduated response to threats are readily available. Law enforcement patrol personnel conducting police operations under relatively stable conditions are typically equipped with the following individual equipment:

- **Handgun.** Army law enforcement personnel carry their issued 9-millimeter sidearm.
- **Weapon holster.** The holster should be rated at a minimum retention or security Level II. This is important for safety and weapon retention. The holster should be fabricated of a durable material (typically, nylon or leather), especially at the points where the holster is connected to the belt.

Note. Holsters are typically categorized as Level I, Level II, or Level III based on the number of weapon retention devices designed into the holster. A Level I holster has one retention device, Level II has two, and Level III has three.

- **Ammunition carrier or pouch.** The ammunition carrier or pouch should be fabricated of a durable material (typically, nylon or leather).
- **Concealed body armor.** The minimum level of body armor recommended for use by police is Level IIA (this level will defeat 85 percent of all handgun ammunition); Level IIIA is optimum. Body armor provides protection against many ballistic threats from standard firearms; it may not provide protection against puncture threats from pointed weapons (knives, arrows, ice picks). Body armor considerations include—
    - **Fit.** The body armor should fit the individual according to the manufacturer recommendation.
    - **Hygiene.** Body armor should be cleaned regularly according to the manufacturer recommendations. In hot environments, sweat from law enforcement personnel can cause the body armor carrier to become unsanitary and create a health hazard.
    - **Physical limitations.** Physical capacity may be reduced due to aerobic limitations associated with the additional weight of the body armor and the constriction of the rib cage while wearing the body armor. Personnel should train while wearing body armor to increase strength and stamina.

Note. The National Institute of Justice established certification standards for rating body armor based on armor performance against various ballistic threats. Body armor is rated across six levels, from Level I through IV, including Levels I, II, IIA, III, IIIA, and IV.

- **Equipment duty belt.** The belt should be made of durable material (nylon, leather) that is fairly rigid. It should be at least 2 1/4 inches wide to provide support for the equipment needed and to distribute the weight along the waist. The belt should have a safety mechanism that prevents it from being easily unbuckled from the front.

- **Handcuffs and case.** There are generally two types of handcuffs available: chained and hinged. Chained handcuffs have a link of chain between the two locking devices. Hinged handcuffs have a pivoting hinge between the two devices. Hinged cuffs allow for less maneuverability for the subject.

- **Flashlight and carrier.** A durable, reliable flashlight is essential. Rechargeable flashlights can be cost-effective over time by reducing battery replacement costs. The flashlight should produce at least 65 lumens of light. The carrier should be made to fit the flashlight to prevent it from falling out of the carrier during movement under routine and extraordinary conditions.

- **Radio case.** The radio case should be made of durable material (nylon, leather). The radio should fit the case correctly to prevent it from falling out during law enforcement activities.

- **Belt keepers.** Belt keepers on the duty belt are important to prevent slippage along the torso and to keep items worn on the belt in position.

- **Wet-weather gear.** Police operations must be sustained in extreme conditions. Durable, highly visible, wet-weather gear should be on hand for law enforcement personnel at all times. The wet-weather gear should provide protection from the elements and not interfere with the law enforcement officer's movement and ability to access weapons and equipment. It should also provide a high level of visibility during conditions where visibility is reduced due to weather conditions.

- **Personal first aid kit.** The kit should include—
  - Nitrile gloves.
  - Cardiopulmonary resuscitation face shield.
  - Decontamination or disinfectant wipes.
  - Trauma bandages.

E-2.   At least one of the following pieces of equipment should be provided to law enforcement personnel as an additional less-than-lethal force option when the application of force is required:

- **Impact weapon and keeper.** Impact weapons, typically batons designed for law enforcement use, are a useful tool for law enforcement. The type of baton depends on local policy and training. Batons come in different sizes ranging from 18 to 36 inches. Military police staffs, PMs, and commanders should understand that there are training and certification requirements specific to each type of baton. Baton types include—
  - Straight, expandable baton.
  - PR-24®, side handle baton (expandable and rigid versions).
  - Straight (rigid) baton.

- **OC spray and case.** OC spray should be rated at least 5.5 percent. There are several sizes of OC canisters and several types of spray nozzles. The specific size and type of spray should be uniform within the organization. Training and certification is required for law enforcement personnel to carry OC spray for law enforcement duties. The use of OC spray in some operational environments may be prohibited. Ensure that the use of OC spray outside the United States is staffed through the supporting SJA before employment.

- **Electronic control device.** An electroshock weapon designed for law enforcement use comes in multiple configurations. Training and certification are required for law enforcement personnel to carry electroshock weapons for law enforcement duties. Applicable DOD, Army, and local policies must be considered when resourcing law enforcement personnel with electroshock weapons.

E-3.   Law enforcement patrols should also have the following items readily available, typically carried within or on their patrol vehicle or other mode of transportation:

- Forms.
    - DA Form 2823 (*Sworn Statement*).
    - DA Form 3946.
    - DA Form 4002.
    - DA Form 4137.
    - DD Form 1408 (*Armed Forces Traffic Ticket*).
    - Field interview cards (locally produced).
    - CVB Form *(United States District Court Violation Notice)*.
- Basic evidence collection materials (paper bags, plastic or glass containers).
- Digital cameras.
- Flex cuffs.
- Portable warning and traffic control equipment.
    - Flashlights with cones.
    - Reflective vests.
    - Traffic warning flares.
    - Warning triangles.
    - Police whistles.
- Basic first-aid kits with nitrile gloves.
- Water (5-gallon container is preferable), clean rags, and mild liquid soap.
- Personal protective equipment, consistent with standards established by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration, to include (at a minimum)—
    - Full-face or half-mask, air-purifying respirators (National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health-approved).
    - Hooded, chemical-resistant clothing (overalls; two-piece, chemical-splash suits; and disposable, chemical-resistant overalls).
    - Chemical-resistant gloves.
- *Emergency Response Guidebook* (for HAZMAT response).
- Chemical lights. Colors may be designated for use for specified applications or signals.

SPECIAL-RESPONSE SCENARIOS

E-4.   Some items of equipment may not be necessary for routine law enforcement patrol activities. However some incidents occur that are beyond the normal law enforcement patrols capabilities. These incidents may require special equipment that needs to be accessed in a timely manner when the incident occurs. (See ATP 3-39.11 and ATP 3-39.35 for equipment specific to SRTs or protective service missions.) These incidents can range from major accidents to active-shooter or other volatile situations. The use of the equipment within this section may require specific training or qualification for use. Authorization for use may likewise be elevated to levels well above the law enforcement patrol, patrol supervisor, or military police operations staff. Local policy will dictate authorization levels for the use of specific weapons and equipment.

E-5.   Special-response equipment should be readily available to law enforcement personnel (maintained at the military police station or within select law enforcement patrol vehicles) where it can be distributed to authorized personnel in a timely manner. The type of equipment, regulations, and local policy dictate exact storage requirements. Up-to-date training and qualification rosters must be maintained at the police desk to ensure that equipment is only issued to authorized personnel.

E-6. Special-response equipment may include—
- Additional weapons and ammunition.
  - M4 rifles with close combat optic, sling, and light.
  - Shotguns.
  - Ammunition for M4 rifle, shotgun, and additional 9-millimeter ammunition.
- Communication headsets or helmets.
- Knee and elbow pads.
- Extra radios and batteries.
- Tactical mirrors.
- Search mirrors.
- Plate carrier vests.
- Ballistic shield or blanket.
- Breaching tools and bracing tools.
  - Battering ram.
  - Heavy crowbar.
  - Bolt cutters.
  - Edged multitool.
  - Hooligan tool.
  - Ten-pound sledgehammer.

Note. A small battering ram, a pry tool, and a sledgehammer in a portable kit may be useful if the equipment must be carried long distances or over rough terrain. Full-size tools are not suitable for transport in this type of terrain.

Glossary

The glossary lists acronyms and terms with Army or joint definitions. Terms for which ATP 3-39.10 is the proponent are marked with an asterisk (*).

SECTION I – ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADP	Army doctrinal publication
ALERTS	Army Law Enforcement Reporting and Tracking System
ASCOPE	areas, structures, capabilities, organizations, people, and events
AO	area of operations
AR	Army regulation
AT	antiterrorism
attn	attention
ATP	Army techniques publication
BOLO	be on the lookout
CBRN	chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear
CVB	Central Violations Bureau
CLEP	Conservation Law Enforcement Program
DA	Department of the Army
DC	District of Columbia
DD form	Department of Defense
DFSC	Defense Forensic Science Center
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DOD	Department of Defense
DODD	Department of Defense directive
DODI	Department of Defense instruction
DSCA	defense support of civil authorities
DTR	Defense Transportation Regulation
EOD	explosive ordnance disposal
FM	field manual
FPCON	force protection condition
GIS	geographic information system
HAZMAT	hazardous material
HN	host nation
HSPD	Homeland Security Presidential Directive
JP	joint publication
MDMP	military decision making process
MSCoE	Maneuver Support Center of Excellence

MWD	military working dog
No.	number
OC	oleoresin capsicum
OPFOR	opposing force
PDTT	police development and transition team
PM	provost marshal
PMO	provost marshal's office
POLICE	police and prison structures, organized criminal elements, legal systems, investigations and interviews, crime-conducive conditions, and enforcement gaps and mechanisms
PSRB	Physical Security Review Board
S-3	battalion or brigade operations staff officer
SA	special agent
SARA	scanning, analysis, response, and assessment
SJA	Staff Judge Advocate
SOP	standard operating procedure
SRT	special-reaction team
ST	special text
TC	training circular
TCP	traffic control post
TMCI	traffic management and collision investigator
UCMJ	Uniform Code of Military Justice
UFC	Unified Facilities Criteria
U.S.	United States
USACIDC	United States Army Criminal Investigation Command
USAMPS	United States Army Military Police School
USC	United States Code

SECTION II – TERMS

*crime prevention

A crime control method that applies to efforts to reduce criminal opportunity, protect potential human victims, and prevent property loss by anticipating, recognizing, and appraising crime risk and initiating actions to remove or reduce it.

*law enforcement interrogation

The systematic effort by law enforcement investigators to prove, disprove, or corroborate information relevant to a criminal investigation using direct questioning in a controlled environment.

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