

G U R P S[®]

COPS



By LISA J. STEELE

STEVE JACKSON GAMES

G U R P S


COPS




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STEVE JACKSON GAMES

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About GURPS

Steve Jackson Games is committed to full support of the **GURPS** system. Our address is SJ Games, Box 18957, Austin, TX 78760. Please include a self-addressed, stamped envelope (SASE) any time you write us! Resources include:

Pyramid (www.sjgames.com/pyramid/). Our online magazine includes new **GURPS** rules and articles. It also covers *Dungeons and Dragons*, *Traveller*, *World of Darkness*, *Call of Cthulhu*, and many more top games – and other Steve Jackson Games releases like *In Nomine*, *INWO*, *Car Wars*, *Toon*, *Ogre Miniatures*, and more. *Pyramid* subscribers also have access to playtest files online!

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Errata. Everyone makes mistakes, including us – but we do our best to fix our errors. Up-to-date errata sheets for all **GURPS** releases, including this book, are available from SJ Games; be sure to include an SASE. Or download them from the Web – see below.

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Internet. Visit us on the World Wide Web at www.sjgames.com for an online catalog, errata, updates, Q&A, and much more. **GURPS** has its own Usenet group, too: rec.games.frp.gurps.

GURPSnet. This e-mail list hosts much of the online discussion of **GURPS**. To join, e-mail majordomo@io.com with “subscribe GURPSnet-L” in the body, or point your web browser to gurpsnet.sjgames.com.

The **GURPS Cops** web page can be found at www.sjgames.com/gurps/books/cops/.

Page References

Rules and statistics in this book are specifically for the **GURPS Basic Set, Third Edition**. Any page reference that begins with a B refers to the **GURPS Basic Set, Third Edition Revised**, e.g., p. B144 refers to page 144 of the **GURPS Basic Set**. Page references that begin with BIO refer to *BioTech*, CI to *Compendium I*, CII to *Compendium II*, OW to *Old West, Second Edition*, SO to *Special Ops, Second Edition*, STM to *Steampunk*, SU to *Supers, Second Edition*, T:FT to *Traveller: Far Trader*, and VE to *Vehicles, Second Edition*. The abbreviation for this book is “CP.” See *GURPS Compendium I*, p. 181, for a full list of abbreviations, or visit www.sjgames.com/gurps/abbrevs.html for an up-to-date list.



Introduction



It's midnight on the streets of River City. A youth sidles nervously past you on the sidewalk, going in the opposite direction. Looks like a gang-banger, with leather jacket and all, but he doesn't seem to be up to anything. You step around the corner. An elderly woman with a cane leans against the dirty brick wall of the next building. Her face is pale, her breath coming in gasps. Clutching at her chest, she starts yelling about her stolen purse. The kid that went past – you spin around.

"Stop! Police officer!"

There he goes, jackrabbiting into the night . . .

What do you do?

Welcome to **GURPS Cops**, rookie. Let's see if you can make it in the station house. It's not the movies. It's not television. It isn't like the television news, either. It's still *the Job*, whether you're in London in 1829, Paris in 1943, Chicago in 1968, or up on Marsopolis in 2050. Uniform changes, equipment changes, the laws change. But here at the dirty end of the muzzle, it all comes down to a cop, a crook, and a dark, unlighted alley.

Cop movies and television programs stress excitement, ignoring the dirty reality of police work. Officers flout the law themselves, illegally searching and seizing contraband, threatening and beating suspects, hiding and manipulating evidence – all to fit an interesting story into two hours of action-packed drama.

That's one way to play **Cops**. The formula is familiar enough: Take two mismatched partners. Stir with a horrendous crime. Mix in a charismatic villain, diabolical henchmen, and corrupt politicians. Top off with bumbling rules-bound superiors. Don't forget to add the love interest! Stir. A few gunfights, chases, and explosions later . . . you've got an adventure.

But **Cops** adventures don't have to play to the cinematic beat. They can be very realistic. A cop discovers a crime scene

and radios in. The scene soon becomes a chaotic swirl of officers, evidence technicians, victims, witnesses, curious bystanders, and nosy reporters. Detectives question the victim and witnesses, decide what information is reliable, and broadcast a description of the suspects. The adventure is in the chase. It becomes a poker game between cop and informant, a ballet of hope and fear in the interrogation room, a quest for reliable witnesses willing to testify in court. In the background is the demanding press of other cases piling up, paperwork to be filed, bills to pay, and a family waiting at home. If the investigators move quickly, they may catch the perpetrators with vital evidence in hand. If not, the case winds up as another cold, unsolved file.

GURPS Cops is a genre book: a collection of history, settings, skills, equipment, characters, and campaign suggestions. It concentrates on modern American police, laws, and equipment because, thanks to Hollywood, 20th-century American police procedure is the best known all over the world. American and foreign suspects in Europe, Asia, Africa, and elsewhere often demand their *Miranda* rights – and are surprised to find that laws are *different* outside the United States.

Be careful out there, rookie. It's a dangerous world.

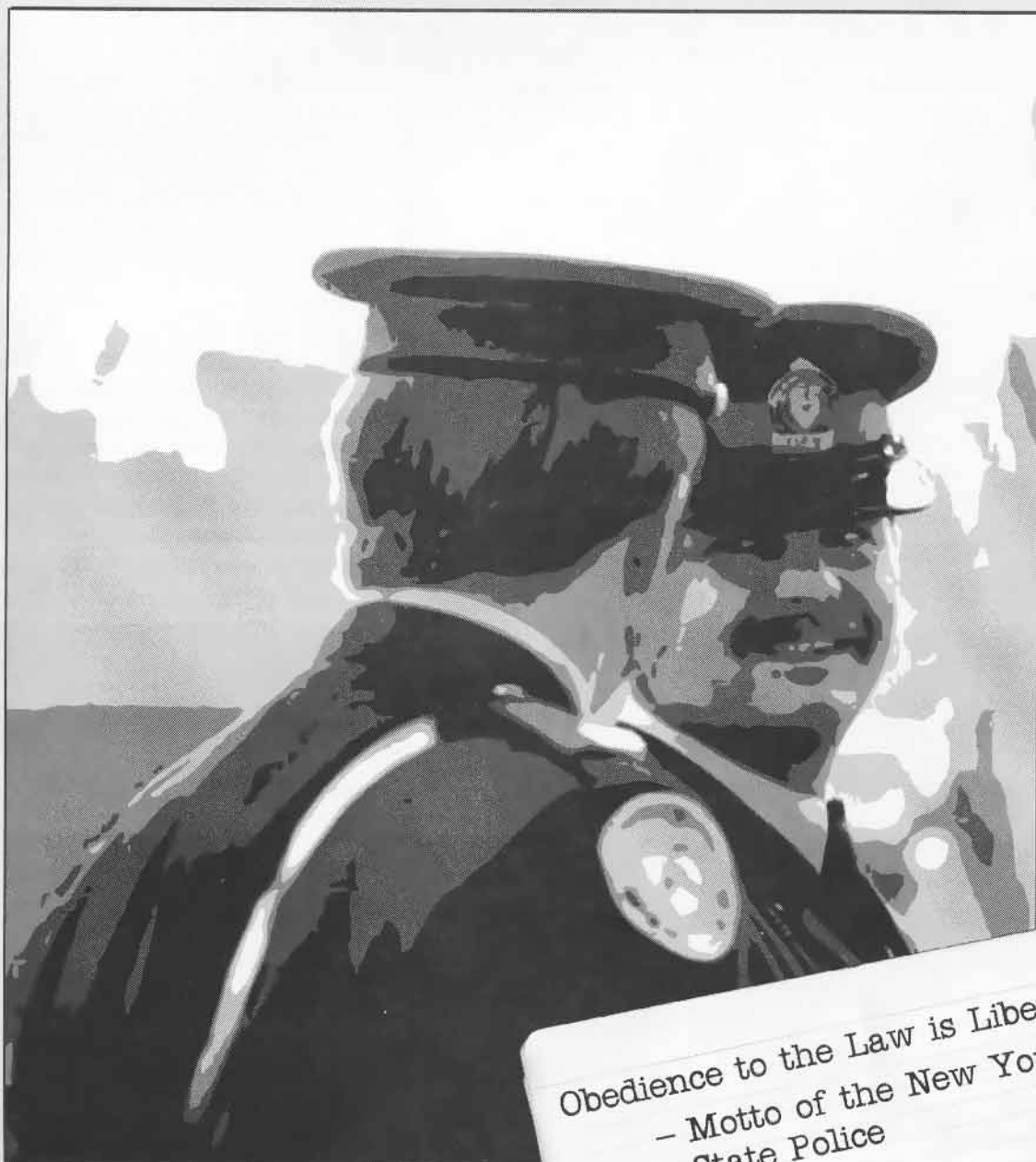
About the Author

Lisa J. Steele is a criminal defense attorney and author based in Massachusetts. She represents clients accused of crimes ranging from minor traffic offenses to capital murder. Ms. Steele is the author of several legal articles about criminal defense, and two White Rose Publishing sourcebooks: *Fief* and *Medieval France*. Her personal interests range from science fiction to economics to medieval history to firearms.



Chapter 1:

Welcome to the Job



Obedience to the Law is Liberty
- Motto of the New York
State Police

Police Duties

What do police do? You've seen the images on the news. A police cruiser speeds down the road, lights flashing and siren wailing; a group of officers huddles in a stairway with weapons drawn, preparing to break down a door; officers struggle to get a drunken suspect into the back of the paddy wagon. These are only a few visible bits of a huge responsibility – to enforce order. Sir Robert Peel (p. 8), the father of policing, maintained that the test of good police work is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with it.

Patrol

A car bolts through a red light in front of your cruiser, tears the front end off a school bus, and speeds off down the highway. You put on the blues and chase him down. You can't let that maniac go. When you step out of the cruiser, you'd best have called the license plate into dispatch and have a hand on your pistol. The driver could be a harried lawyer late for court, who panicked and ran. He could be a pistol-toting felon fleeing a convenience store robbery. One way to find out – go up to the driver's window and look.

Police patrol has been the cop's basic job ever since watchmen walked through medieval cities to deter burglars. Modern patrol officers wear uniforms to deter criminals, reassure the public, and identify themselves to those in need. Patrol officers are frequently armed, because you never know what you're going to meet on the street. Officers patrol on foot, bicycles, horses, and motorcycles. They can use automobiles or 30' mechas. It depends on the budget, the tech level, how much area they need to cover, and how nimble their transport needs to be. In the modern United States, police officers start as uniformed cops on a beat; many officers spend their entire careers there.

Crime Detection

It's early morning and you're on your beat. You notice a parked car sitting in a usually vacant lot. The driver looks asleep, but the window's shattered around a small hole. Another dark hole gapes where the driver's temple *used* to be. A shiny brass cartridge casing sits in plain sight on the pavement below the car window. No one else is in sight. You call dispatch for backup. Here come more officers, crime scene technicians, and detectives to take over the case. You ask around the neighborhood, learn about a little beef the victim was having, and get a name. The detectives invite the suspect down to the station.

Now you're the detective. Sitting in a tiny gray room across from the suspect, you glance through your folder. The victim's wallet was in his pocket. You have his name and rap sheet in the folder, and your suspect's name and rap sheet, too. The lab reports and autopsy reports will take a while. Right now, the only thing you've got on this guy is the word of a 10-year-old boy who says he saw your suspect shoot the victim after a loud argument. And his mother doesn't want him to testify.

Can you convince this guy to talk? Can you keep him from demanding a lawyer? Can you bluff and intimidate him into

confessing? Can you get a signed statement? Interview him right, and a murderer goes to prison. Do it wrong, and he walks.

Crime detection is an integral part of police work at all levels. Most crimes are easy to solve. The victim and assailant know each other, or the assailant is already well known to police from previous encounters. In many cases, victim and suspect are both right there when the police arrive. Patrol cops have to run from call to call. They don't have the luxury of time to work on a case. When they can't handle it, they give it to the specialists.

Detectives work on those tough crimes that take time, persistence, and experience to solve. They gather evidence, take statements, and interrogate suspects. They interview witnesses and search for corroborating evidence. They investigate continuing crimes and crime organizations: gangs, drug rings, contraband smuggling, and gambling operations. They conduct surveillance and undercover operations.



Public Order

It's a hot summer day and your hair is soaked with sweat under your helmet. An angry crowd stands a few feet away from the police line, chanting slogans and waving protest signs. Some call you names, and others shout threats at that building behind you. Maybe you agree with the protesters. Maybe you don't. It doesn't matter. Your job is to stand still, not react to provocative acts, and keep the peace . . . until and unless violence breaks out or you get the order to disperse the crowd. You have your baton, your riot shield, and your OC spray. Somewhere back behind you are the water cannon and the SWAT team with tear gas.

Police keep the peace. Uniformed officers prevent legal demonstrations from turning into riots, and suppress riots when they happen. Police officers provide traffic control and crowd control for public events, parades, demonstrations, and festivals.

Police deal with terrorist incidents, mass disasters, and hostage takers. Bomb squads and SWAT teams search buildings before dignitaries visit or after a bomb threat. They also handle incidents like barking dogs, loud music, cars blocking driveways, and other frictions within families and neighborhoods. Officers are increasingly involved in family problems like abuse, neglect, and runaway children.

Public Safety

Snowflakes find their way between your hat and collar as you crunch through the brush. Your search and rescue dog strains at his harness, and pulls you deeper into the woods. An elderly man wandered away from his home this afternoon. Now the temperature is dropping fast, and snow is obscuring what faint traces he might have left behind. Your job is to find him before he dies of exposure.

Police protect the public. When children or elderly people go missing, the police help find them. Police are the first responders when someone on the street has a seizure, starts acting strangely, or becomes drunk and disorderly. They handle addicts, alcoholics, the mentally ill, and the homeless. Uniformed officers respond to dozens of public welfare calls like these every week. Most are routine. But the cop never knows what's behind a silent door.



Police and the People

Sir Robert Peel held that police work depends on the public's willingness to cooperate and obey laws without an officer at the citizen's elbow. Police require the public's acceptance, respect, and favor. They win public trust by working hard at being fair, impartial, and incorruptible. To Sir Robert, police are the public, and the public is the police.

In totalitarian nations, police use a different method: they depend on fear and force. Police ally with the strongest political groups and use force to coerce subservience, if not obedience. Such police may be part of the military, or unofficial paramilitary groups that intimidate or kill inquisitive reporters, political rivals, union organizers, and other potential threats to the regime.

A Short History of Policing

Modern police forces were created in the 19th century, but police, or at least watchmen, have been around since the first cities and the first rulers. Monarchs appointed men to keep order and protect the crown's property. Cities created town watches to patrol, look for fires, and try to deter burglars and muggers. Cities, guilds, and village councils appointed officials to enforce boundaries, check weights and measures, monitor ingredients in foods and other goods, and collect taxes.

These early police served their patrons; they did not investigate crimes. If someone robbed or attacked a citizen, the victim or his family brought charges in the ruler's court. If someone attacked the ruler, his family, or his property, his guard or officers would pursue the criminal and punish him, or bring him before the ruler or the ruler's proxy for punishment.

Detectives were unknown. If a criminal was caught in the act, in possession of poached venison or stolen goods, or simply *known* to be a thief, he was punished. Rulers used spies and informers to prevent public uprisings and coups, not to solve crimes.

Peelers – The First Modern Police

Uniformed police forces appeared nearly simultaneously in London and Paris in 1829. The old guard and watch system was not adequate to keep the peace in large cities created by the Industrial Revolution. A mobile and anonymous urban population, combined with cheap distilled liquor and portable wealth, resulted in waves of thefts, riots, and murder that terrified the British and French aristocracy. Existing guards and patrols were combined into municipal police forces. The public nicknamed the new U.K. officers *Bobbies* or *peelers*, after Sir Robert Peel, the creator of the force.

U.K. police strove for an impersonal image of a force controlled by regulation and procedure. The new police were paid regular salaries; their predecessors had relied on fees and rewards. The new police were given distinctive uniforms. They wore the uniform at all times, at first, so that the public would not feel spied upon. The new police had a formal command structure based on that of the military. Each officer was armed with a wooden truncheon hidden in the tail of his coat. He carried a wooden rattle or whistle to summon other officers to his aid.

The tools of a 19th-century patrol officer were patience and persistence. He walked his beat on foot and lived in a barracks or section house. If he were attacked, no one would notice his disappearance until his replacement arrived at the beat hours later. Sixty years after the *Bobbies* first started to patrol, a call-box system was created to let officers signal their stations and vice-versa. Later in the century, police stations were linked by telegraph, which let officers post descriptions of a criminal or crime to a wide area. Rural officers patrolled by horse and were isolated from aid.

Not long after the first uniformed police were created, the first plainclothes detectives joined them. Paris and London again led the way. Detectives searched for criminals in taverns and pubs. They infiltrated labor unions and nationalist groups to ferret out anarchists and bombers. In France, detectives were the crown's secret police and provided him information about everyone from disgruntled workers to nobles. Louis XIV's Lieutenant General once wrote, "When three people are chatting in the street, at least one of them belongs to me."

The tools of a 19th-century detective improved yearly with the progress of science. At first, police could only identify a suspect if an officer recognized him or if he had a distinctive tattoo or disfigurement. However, by 1860, police began photographing suspects and collecting their pictures in "mug books." In 1883, police measured key parts of a suspect's body for identification using a French system called *Bertillonage* (see p. STM62 for details). And by 1894, police were using fingerprints to conclusively identify arrestees. Fingerprints, unlike the prior systems, could be used to identify criminals who had fled a crime scene with no witnesses. Detective then began to classify hair samples and blood types, creating the science of forensics.

19th-century police also included many private police and private detectives. American railroads hired the Pinkerton Agency, based in Chicago, to protect their shipments. Livestock associations in the American West hired private detectives to watch their stock. Bounties were offered for catching certain criminals, but payment was too uncertain for a man to make a living chasing criminals. Sheriffs and private citizens simply dabbled in bounty hunting whenever the opportunity arose.

Constable Wensley, London, 1888

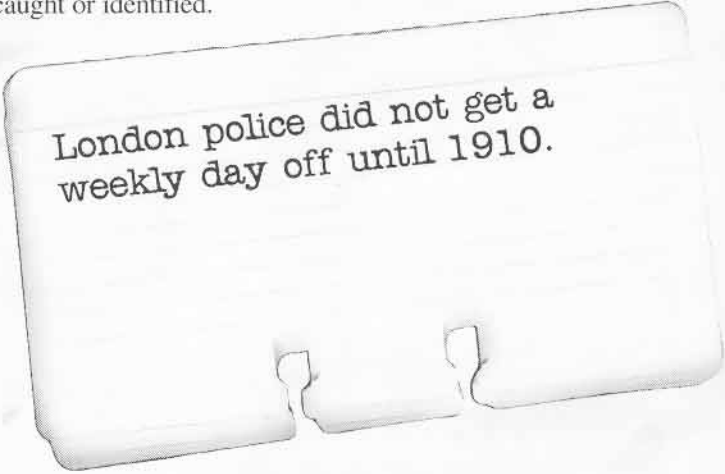
Constable Frederick Porter Wensley became a London Metropolitan police officer in 1888. He was given a few weeks training and sent into the streets. He was paid 24 shillings a week. His uniform consisted of a blue greatcoat, a blue breast coat with yellow metal buttons, blue trousers, a tall black hat, and a truncheon. He was required to wear his uniform both on and off-duty and was subject to strict discipline for the slightest infraction of the department's detailed rules.

Wensley, like most officers, lived in the station house barracks. In the overcrowded barracks, officers slept in beds still warm from the former occupant, who had just left to start his own shift. Married officers lived in their own homes, but those homes were subject to inspection by their superiors. Wensley worked seven days a week and could expect only a few days off each year. London police did not get a weekly day off until 1910.

London police had been allowed to vote in parliamentary elections since 1887, but were kept out of municipal elections until 1893. This disenfranchisement was intended to keep police apolitical.

In his autobiography, Wensley explained his concerns about patrolling alone with no backup, or anyone to realize he was in danger until he failed to report to station at the end of his shift. He worried about criminals who would pretend to be drunk and assault officers who checked on them, so they

could freely commit crimes in the officer's area. He complained about groups of immigrants that "infested the streets," drinking, assaulting police, and forming criminal gangs to blackmail shopkeepers. Others immigrants made a living robbing passers-by in the maze of narrow alleys of Whitechapel. He told of being drafted, like hundreds of other officers, into the search for Jack the Ripper, who was never caught or identified.



London police did not get a
weekly day off until 1910.

Wensley wrote about London trials. The only way to tell if a defendant had a record was if an officer recognized him or was willing to search through the "Rogues' Gallery," a huge stack of photograph albums at Scotland Yard. Prosecutions were a matter of the officer's, witnesses', and victim's testimony against the defendant. There were no fingerprints, ballistics, or DNA tests. Juries rendered verdicts within hours. The punishment for serious crimes was death; for less serious crimes it might be transportation to Australia, confinement in worn-out prison ships called "hulks," or a large fine.

Wensley later was appointed the Chief Constable of the Criminal Investigation Division of Scotland Yard.

Sheriff Garrett, New Mexico, 1881

Patrick Floyd Jarvis Garrett was Sheriff of Lincoln County, New Mexico, on July 14, 1881, the day he killed Billy the Kid.

Garrett, a former Texas Ranger captain, was elected by the citizens of his county for a two-year term as sheriff. He had to post two bonds to get the job – promises by leading citizens to reimburse the county if Garrett stole or mishandled county money. As sheriff, Garrett was responsible for policing an area of 20,000 acres with 2,513 settlers and several thousand Indians. He received no special training for the job.

He was paid a small salary, supplemented by occasional fees for administrative work and reimbursement for travel expenses. He could collect rewards for capturing outlaws. Garrett paid for his own clothes, horse, and weapons. The county paid for his badge.

Garrett lived in his own home. He had a small office that included a jail. His job included not only law enforcement, but also tax collection and administrative duties. To help him do the job he had a chief deputy, an office deputy, field deputies, a jailer, and a clerk or cashier. He did everything else himself.



The work involved a great deal of travel. He had to investigate murders, cattle rustling, theft, and rape. He was involved in land disputes between ranchers, farmers, and railroad companies. He served court papers in civil lawsuits, and summoned jurors for court sessions. When he needed extra help to capture a criminal, he called for adult male volunteers to form a posse. (The posse was paid a fixed daily rate by the county.)

He twice tracked down Billy the Kid, a notorious murderer who escaped from jail after Garrett arrested him the first time. On July 14, 1881, Garrett shot the Kid in an unexpected late-night confrontation. Garrett was finally given the governor's \$500 reward in February 1882, after repeatedly lobbying the territorial legislature for payment. New Mexicans were so displeased with the delay that Garrett received \$1,150 in individual contributions.

Trials in Garrett's county were much like those in Constable Wensley's London. The sheriff, deputies, and witnesses testified against the defendant. A jury rendered its verdict quickly, based on testimony alone. All serious crimes were punished by hanging. Western territories could not afford to staff large prisons and relied on the extremes of death or large fines as deterrents.

Garrett was murdered February 29, 1908 at the age of 57 near Las Cruces, New Mexico. A local cowboy who had been leasing Garrett's farm for a goat-raising venture was arrested. Jessie Wayne Brazel confessed to the murder, but claimed he shot Garrett in self-defense. A jury acquitted Brazel, but many believe he was part of a conspiracy to kill Garrett.

19th-Century Campaigns

Steampunk and *Old West* are classic genres for 19th-century policing. Criminal investigation methods and the Bertillon system are explicitly discussed in *GURPS Steampunk*. Police investigators in a *Steampunk* universe may also try other techniques, like mesmerism, phrenology, spiritualism, or viewing the last image recorded by a corpse's eye. *GURPS Old West* discusses lawmen and Indian Police (see p. OW26). Lawmen on these frontiers would not be aware of

modern scientific advances. Police officers were experienced local men appointed or elected to keep the peace, not college graduates trained in the latest sciences.

The biggest concern in playing these genres is mindset. The methods and tactics in this book were barely invented in the last years of the 19th century. Players and GMs may find it hard not to apply modern tools and ideas to earlier times. If they do, they must face skeptical superiors, judges, and juries who can't believe that all this science is better than a good solid eyewitness. Characters in a cinematic setting like *Brisco County Jr.* or *The Wild, Wild West* may be able to justify anachronistic ideas and technology.

Bulls – Policing in the Early 20th Century

With the turn of the century came rapid changes in the economy, social unrest, and violence caused by anarchists, communists, immigrants, and trade unionists. Muckraking American journalists allied with the Progressive social movement to change how society treated the poor and criminals. The Great Depression created massive unemployment and made folk heroes out of bank robbers.

The turn of the century brought the automobile. Criminals became highly mobile, creating a need for statewide police forces. Soon came the first federal police force, the predecessor of the FBI, to pursue criminals across state lines. Traffic laws brought police into frequent contact with the middle class. Automobiles freed officers from walking beats. The quicker response times let police departments abolish the reserve system, where patrol officers were required to spend one shift on patrol and another 6 to 8 hours in the section room (dormitory) as a reserve for emergencies.

Women were increasing in numbers on both sides of the law. Single women working in growing cities began to visit dance halls, arcades, and cinemas without escort by male relatives, causing concerns for their morals and safety. "White slavery," the transport of women across state lines for prostitution, became a major social concern. Women began to demonstrate, sometimes violently, in favor of temperance and women's suffrage (voting rights).

Police of the day did not know how to respond. It was against the social norms for a man to *touch* a woman of the middle or upper classes who was not his spouse or a member of his immediate family. A new force of policewomen was developed to take care of female prisoners, arrest suffragette protesters, and counsel female prostitutes and delinquents. These early policewomen did not wrestle with alcoholics or chase burglars; their job has been accurately described as "social worker with a gun."

The "Keystone Cops" became the popular public image of police: bumbling, inept, and venal.

The biggest single change in American police work was caused by Prohibition (1920-1933). On October 10, 1919, Congress passed the Volstead Act, outlawing the manufacture, sale, barter, transport, import, export, delivery, and possession of almost all intoxicating liquors. Liquor advertising was banned, as was anything used in its manufacture. Vehicles used to transport illegal liquor were seized and destroyed. The act was ratified as the 18th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution and came into effect at midnight, January 17, 1920.

Prohibition failed. By 1927 there were an estimated 30,000 speakeasies in America – twice the number of all the legal bars, restaurants, and taverns open before Prohibition. Criminals built vast fortunes making and smuggling alcohol to thirsty Americans. Corruption became rampant in city police departments. The “Keystone Cops” became the popular public image of police: bumbling, inept, and venal. Federal agencies tried valiantly to enforce the law and failed. On December 5, 1933, Prohibition was repealed, but not before it had transformed organized crime from small city gangs into powerful international organizations.

The Reformers – Vollmer and Hoover

August Vollmer and J. Edgar Hoover were two of the most influential men in 20th-century law enforcement. Vollmer was a police reformer who was the head of a six-person police department in Berkeley, California and later (briefly) head of the LAPD. Vollmer believed that the erosion of the authority of the family, church, schools, and neighborhoods led to a decrease in morals and increases in crime and corruption. His solution was to focus on juvenile crime. He suggested police should avoid arresting youths and instead send them to special juvenile bureaus and social agencies. Vollmer wanted the police to be involved in the community, trying to strengthen middle-class social norms.

This was not friendly social work. It was heavy-handed intimidation of the forces that Vollmer believed threatened society: union organizers, communists, pornography sellers, abortionists, providers of birth control information, and vagrants. It was a time of Red Squads and Purity Squads. Lawyers for the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) in Vollmer’s turf risked being handcuffed, beaten, and left miles outside the city limits.

J. Edgar Hoover became the director of the Bureau of Investigation (later the FBI) in 1924. He would remain director until he died 48 years later. Even before he became the director, Hoover maintained an index listing every radical leader, organization, and publication in the United States. By 1921, his index included nearly 4,000 names. Hoover also kept meticulous files on his employees, prominent politicians, celebrities, reformers, and radicals. At his death, he had collected 167 secret folders containing 17,750 pages of material on various celebrities, politicians, and adversaries.

Hoover took control of the Bureau in the wake of several corruption scandals and was given complete control of the Bureau’s personnel, responsible only to the Attorney General. He cut the Bureau’s staff and budget dramatically, getting rid of agents who did not fit his ideals. Hiring standards were

raised, and existing agents retrained to meet them. Hoover abolished seniority-based promotions, introduced uniform performance appraisals, and established regular inspections of field offices. Each FBI office was tightly regulated from Washington. Hoover was not a reformer in the same sense as Vollmer, but he is still admired for transforming the FBI into a modern, professional agency. He is considered to have been a progressive, honest, efficient manager. (For more on the FBI today, see pp. 27-28.)

Agent Ness, Chicago, 1931

Eliot Ness joined the Treasury Department in 1927 and immediately transferred into the Prohibition Bureau. His older brother-in-law, a Treasury agent himself, was his sponsor and patron. Patrons and family connections were important to young police officers and federal agents in the early 1900s, when police unions were weak and civil service protections nonexistent.

Ness was born and raised in Chicago. He had college degrees in law, business, and criminology. He received training as a Treasury agent, but most of his training was obtained on the job. His salary was only \$2,300 a year, barely a living wage for a young married man.

Assistant United States Attorney General William Froelich was assigned to prosecute Al Capone, the most notorious gangster in Chicago. Froelich picked Ness to head a team to shut down Capone’s breweries and distilleries. Froelich and Ness handpicked eight men out of the entire Prohibition Bureau. (As leader of this elite team, his salary increased to \$3,000 per year.) Another team investigated Capone for income tax evasion and violation of the Volstead Act.

Ness relied greatly on informants and wiretaps. Officers in the Chicago police department, the Prohibition Bureau and even officers on his own team were informants for Capone. Ness knew this. Of his eight men, two were later asked to leave the bureau because they sold information to Capone or offered protection to bootleggers. One more fled the country after attempting to kill another agent for a \$10,000 payoff. Ness found that, at times, his own office telephones were tapped. Payoffs to local police, judges, and juries were common. Ness himself survived several assassination attempts; one of his men was brutally gunned down by gangsters.

Despite these threats, Ness and his team shut down 18 stills and arrested 52 men for liquor violations in their first night raid. Ness purchased a heavy truck with ram plate to breach armored doors and ladders to reach roofs. Within six months, Ness’ team had closed down 19 distilleries and key breweries, worth an estimated \$1,000,000. Capone offered Ness and his agents \$2,000 per week to stop. Ness refused the offer and called a press conference to denounce the attempt. One newspaperman dubbed his team “the Untouchables.”

On March 13, 1931, a federal grand jury began handing down indictments against Capone. On October 17, 1931, the trial jury completed its deliberation and found Capone guilty of tax evasion. He was sentenced to 11 years in jail, \$50,000 in fines and \$30,000 in court costs. Eliot Ness was promoted to Chief Investigator of Prohibition Forces for the entire Chicago division.

Early 20th-Century Campaigns

Adventures taking place in America from 1920 to 1933 are likely to focus on Prohibition enforcement and the ongoing battle between corruption and reform. Other campaigns might involve struggles between social reformers and conservative governments in the United States and Europe. Forensic tools were improving; the New York City Medical Examiner's Office was opened in 1918. In the 1920s, police departments began installing two-way radios in patrol and response cars.

Fuzz – Policing in Wartime and Between

Mid-century American policing covers the period from World War II to the end of Vietnam. During war periods, American and U.K. police forces were understaffed – many of the best prospective candidates were drafted or volunteered for the military. Those who remained on duty were busy handling ordinary crimes and the enforcement of wartime laws.

During WWII, the black market became a fact of life for British and American civilians, creating many opportunities for police corruption. Sugar, gasoline, and tires became luxuries, which were hoarded and illegally sold in unapproved markets.

Police officers in Axis-occupied Europe had to decide whether to collaborate, resign, just do their job, or join resistance activities. It was not an easy choice. During WWII, the Germans executed 154 Parisian police officers and 338 French gendarmes for formal and informal resistance. The Vichy government punished police officers who refused to cooperate with the Germans. It created its own secret police force, the *Milice*. After liberation, police in occupied countries were often accused, fairly or not, of collaborating with the Axis forces. After the war, some were prosecuted for treason, and others were fired.

There was a dramatic rise in crime rates from 1945 to 1949. Police departments, led by Vollmer's protégé O. W. Wilson, turned from strengthening communities to concentrate on fighting serious street crimes. In order to fight corruption, administrators intentionally broke the traditional links between officers and local neighborhoods. Civil service rules for hiring and promotion replaced political influence. Departments were centralized and individual discretion severely restricted. Rather than patrolling a beat, police officers used response cars, with the goal of arriving at the scene of a crime within three minutes of its first being reported. One effect of detaching police from their neighborhood beats was a rise in tensions with minority communities; some believe this caused the riots and demonstrations of the 1960s and 1970s.



Even in the United States, the FBI expanded its jurisdiction without authority, engaging in wiretaps and surveillance to investigate suspected mobsters, Communist agitators, and leaders of the civil rights movement.

The mid-20th century saw the rise of secret police in Imperial Japan, Nazi Germany, the Soviet Union, and postwar East Germany. Paramilitary death squads began to appear in nations where police were unwilling to prosecute vigilantes killing and intimidating minority groups. Even in the United States, the FBI expanded its jurisdiction without authority, engaging in wiretaps and surveillance to investigate suspected mobsters, Communist agitators, and leaders of the civil rights movement.

The 1960s and 1970s were the heyday of the anti-Vietnam war movement, hippies, and civil rights marches. It was a time of corruption scandals in the NYPD and charges of abuse of power by the FBI. American police were busy arresting deserters and draft dodgers, investigating anti-Vietnam and pro-civil rights groups, and at the same time protecting civil rights protesters and enforcing desegregation orders. Those deep in the American South were exceptions; there, police disrupted civil rights marches with fire hoses, baton charges, and police dogs.

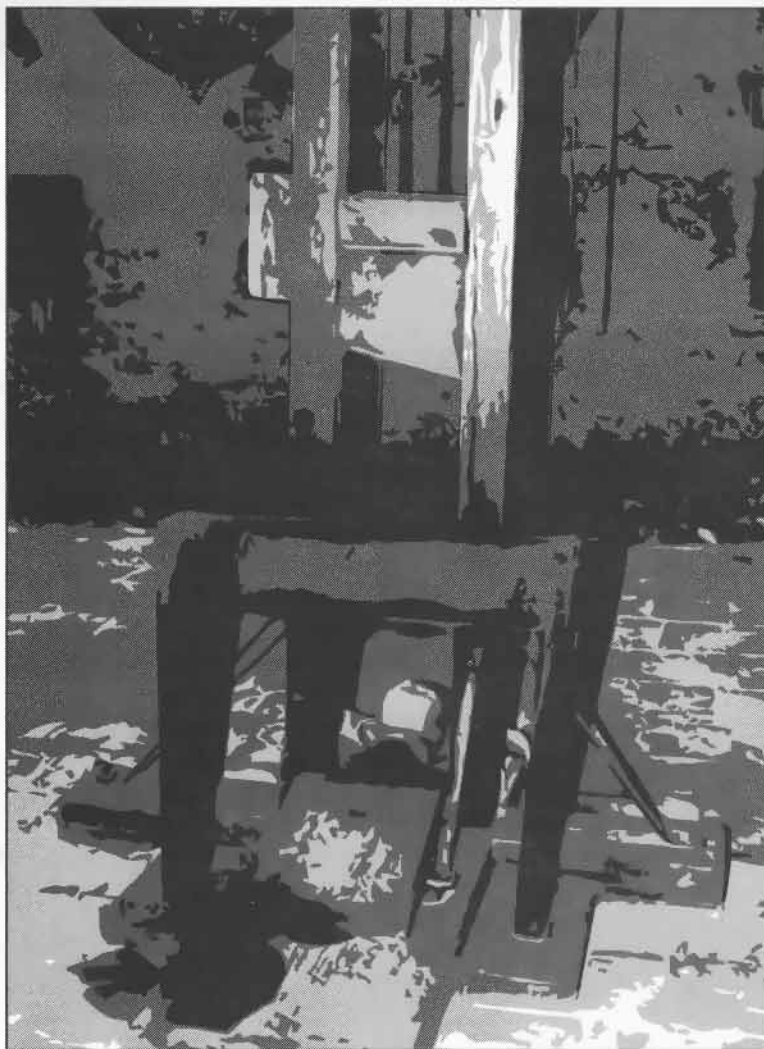
European police were not immune to these troubling times. U.K. police faced corruption scandals, Vietnam protests against the American embassy and demonstrations by hippies. French police faced terrorist attacks from both the right and left, divided over the fate of France's Algerian colony in the late 1950s and 1960s. There was dramatic police reorganization in 1966, finished just in time to face the massive countrywide strikes and riots in May and June of 1968.

Police everywhere confronted the same changes as the rest of Western society. In the 1970s, new statutes and court decisions forced American police departments to open their ranks to female and minority officers, despite strong resistance and resentment. European police soon faced similar struggles over the role of minority and female officers.

Inspector Borniche, Paris, 1950

Roger Borniche started out as a singer. His fledgling musical career was interrupted by the German invasion of France in 1940. To make a living, he took a job as a store detective. In 1943, Borniche joined the Sûreté Nationale as an Inspector to avoid being shipped to a forced labor detail in Germany. Assigned to hunt the Resistance, he instead helped partisans escape from occupied France. He deserted in 1944, only days before the D-Day invasion. Upon the liberation of France in August, he was reinstated in the Sûreté and assigned to enforce France's abortion laws. The next year, he was transferred to a homicide unit. In 1947, he was making 11,000 francs a month and 2,000 francs in expenses. It was a reasonable wage for a single man, but insufficient for a family. Borniche was single; he did support a mistress.

On September 4, 1947, Borniche was assigned to capture an escaped murderer, Émile Buisson. The Sûreté was one of several police forces responsible for finding Buisson and his accomplice; the Prefecture of Police and the Gendarmerie were also looking for them. Borniche kept critical investigative files



in his office, forcing the other investigators to bargain with him for their contents; the other investigators did the same. He also competed with the other agencies for informants, who tried to play the investigators against each other for more rewards. He was sometimes shadowed by other investigators and would have to lose his "tail" to meet with an informant.

Borniche's investigations depended on informers and on French records that required anyone staying at a hotel or renting a room to give his name and identity card number. These records were forwarded to police. French police of the time kept records on anyone who might interest them, even those never convicted of a crime. Borniche never admitted to striking his prisoners, but his writing shows him not surprised to find a prisoner already badly beaten when Borniche asked to interview him. He was able to bargain with informers by offering them a signed permit to remain in Paris (despite being banned from the city by other police forces) and by being able to delay distribution of official warrants by keeping the notices locked in his desk.

Borniche caught his target by forcing an informant to lead the escaped murderer into a trap. Borniche and the Sûreté captured Buisson eating lunch at a restaurant on June 10, 1950. Buisson was executed by guillotine on February 28, 1956. Borniche was rewarded with a promotion to chief inspector and a 30,000-franc bonus. He retired in 1956 and formed his own detective agency in Paris.

Detective Connolly, Boston, 1955

Edward Francis Connolly joined the Boston Police Department in 1947 at the age of 27. Connolly and his class of 127 studied traffic control and law in the mornings, trained in marksmanship before lunch, and then spent the afternoons on assignment in the city. Connolly was issued a large brass key for the police call-box system, a used pair of uniform pants and a jacket, a nightstick, revolver with six bullets, and a notebook. He had to buy his own handcuffs.

Various people tried to bribe Connolly, including one enterprising bookie who sent him a sandwich with \$250 hidden under the bread.

Connolly's duties as a patrol officer included arresting people involved in brawls and disturbing the peace, dealing with those drunk in public, responding to accidents and sick calls, and telling families when a spouse or child had been killed. He was sometimes assigned to the police van (the *Black Maria*), which picked up prisoners from the street and brought them to the station. The van also doubled as an ambulance. Connolly often complained about late-night medical calls to the top floor of apartment houses.

Connolly was eventually assigned to plainclothes duty, first with the Boston Elevated Railway Police and then the Vice Squad. Corruption in Vice was pervasive. Various people tried to bribe Connolly, including one enterprising bookie who sent him a sandwich with \$250 hidden under the bread. (Connolly sent it back to the kitchen saying he didn't like lettuce.) Connolly noticed that the Vice Squad was only allowed to investigate certain sections of Boston. Bookmaking took place freely in the taboo areas.

When he saw his partner (and superior) taking a bribe from a bookie, Connolly knew there was nothing he could do. He watched helplessly as bookies easily defeated charges with the full cooperation of police sergeants, defense counsel, and judges. He disgustingly quit the force in 1955 when a bookie told him about an \$800 bribe his sergeant had taken on his behalf. The sergeant had kept the bribe and fixed the case without ever telling Connolly what happened.

Unable to find other employment because of the taint of having worked in Vice, Connolly returned to the department as a patrol officer a few months later. He was not re-posted

to the Vice Squad until 1958, when a newly placed police commissioner backed Connolly in rooting out corruption.

Connolly made sergeant-detective in 1965 and was a lieutenant in the Drug Control Squad from 1967 to 1975. His unit assisted other Boston Police Department units in carrying out federal school desegregation orders in 1974-76. In 1975, he was promoted to district commander in Jamaica Plain. He was later head of the Bureau of Field Services in 1979. In 1981, he became Chief of the Bureau of Administrative Services. When he reached the mandatory retirement age of 65, the city of Boston filed a special bill to allow him to serve until age 70. He finally retired from the force in 1990 at age 70. He died on November 13, 1997 at age 77.

Patrolman Serpico, New York City, 1971

Frank Serpico graduated from the police academy and joined the NYPD in 1960. He served as a patrol officer in the 81st Precinct in Brooklyn, the Bureau of Criminal Identification (BCI) and the 70th Precinct in Brooklyn, where his captain recommended him for plainclothes duty.

On January 24, 1966, Serpico began Plainclothes School. On graduation, he served in the 90th Precinct in Brooklyn and the 7th Division in the Bronx. He discovered systemic corruption and bribery in two plainclothes divisions, but was unable to interest the department in an investigation. Serpico refused to accept payoffs and was soon ostracized by his squad mates. His biography describes him as a loner within the department.

Serpico testified before a grand jury about bribery and corruption in 1968. Following this testimony, he worked in Manhattan North and in the prostitution detail of the 18th Precinct. On February 12, 1970, he and three other officers took their story of corruption to the *New York Times*. When the pending story leaked to the mayor's office, the mayor formed a five-member committee to investigate police corruption. The *Times* ran its story starting on April 25, 1970. Followup stories ran in all the major New York papers and on television and radio news. In response, the mayor announced a new commission to be chaired by Whitman Knapp, a Wall Street lawyer.

Serpico testified against another officer in a corruption and perjury case on June 18, 1970. The officer was sentenced to one-to-three years. Serpico was regarded by police within the department as a traitor and a "psycho." He received several death threats.

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On February 3, 1971, Serpico was reassigned to Narcotics in Brooklyn South. He was shot in the face during a routine narcotics arrest a few days later; rumors persist that his partners failed to cover him, or even that they set him up. He spent six weeks in the hospital. Bullet fragments half a centimeter from his carotid artery could not be removed, and he was to remain permanently deaf in one ear from his wounds. In May 1971, he was promoted to detective and received his gold shield, although he remained on sick leave until he resigned from the department on June 15, 1972. He was afterward awarded a Medal of Honor for conspicuous bravery in action.

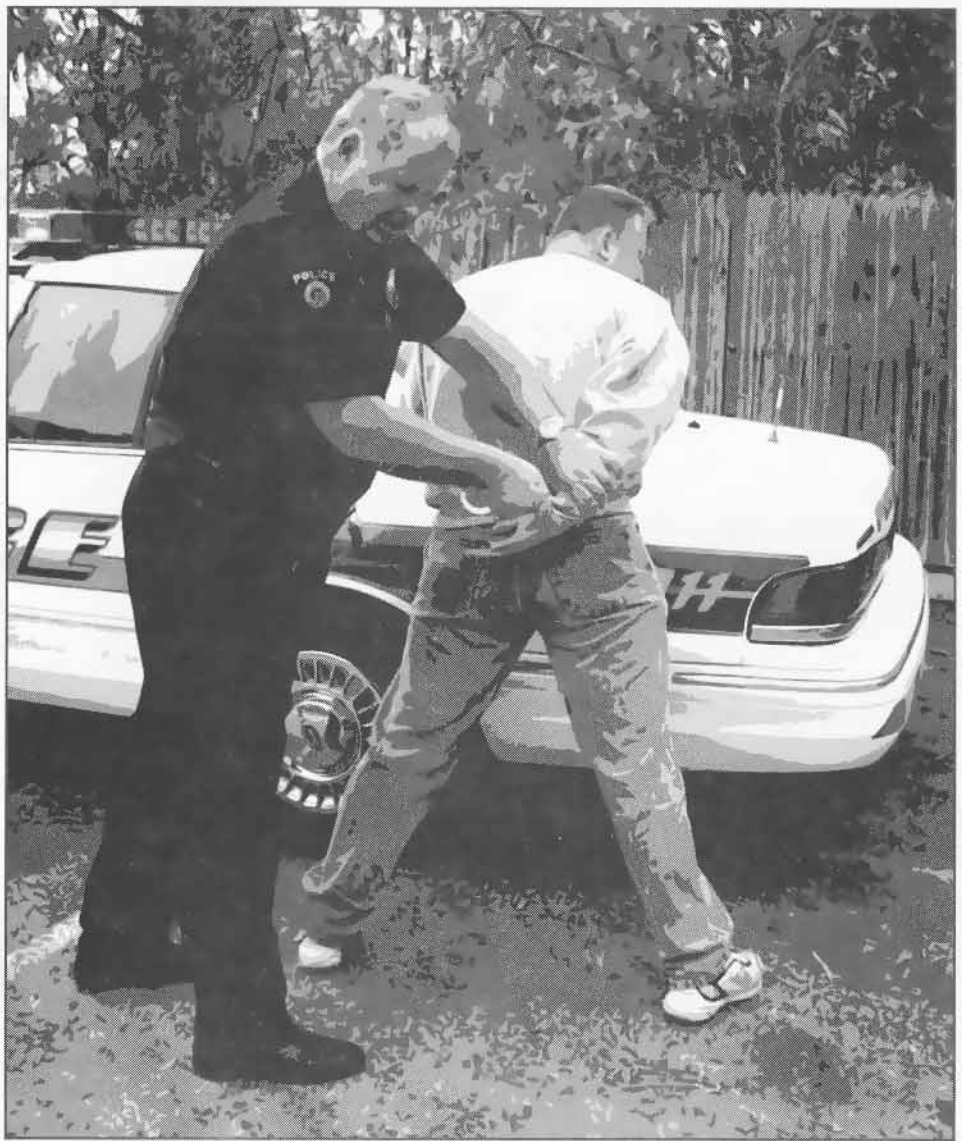
He went on to collaborate on his biography published in 1973 and was played by Al Pacino in the 1973 movie *Serpico*. He left the force and traveled abroad for years. He came back in 1999 to testify at a New York City Council hearing on police brutality and corruption. A columnist reported that when Serpico went into the room, he passed two young cops on duty. Although these officers were children when Serpico testified before the Knapp Commission in 1971, they still looked at Serpico with icy hatred.

Mid-Century Campaigns

The flavor of adventures varies widely in mid-century. Police during World War II may be busy searching for spies, uncovering collaborators, and fighting smugglers. In the 1950s, they have to contend with “red scares” and the McCarthy hearings. *GURPS Atomic Horror* contains good ideas for cinematic 1950s adventures. In the 1960s and 1970s, police deal with daily social unrest and frequent riots. Such unrest will affect both their departments and their families. These are the beginning years of what will become known as the “War on Drugs.” They are a good time for detective campaigns against European Mafia and Asian smugglers.

Police and detectives have modern forensic tools, except for DNA analysis. Blood and body fluids can be tested for blood types only. Psychological profiling is in its infancy. Criticism of eyewitness testimony, first raised in the late 19th century, resurfaces in the 1970s, but the courts are skeptical about allowing experts to testify about memory and recall.

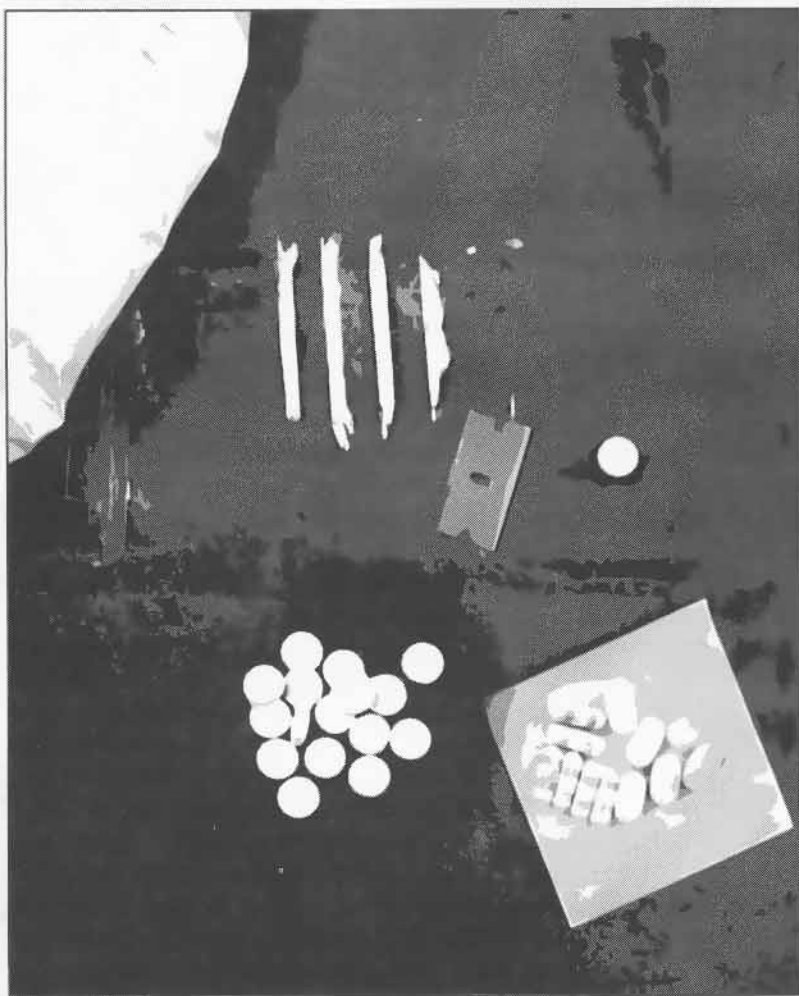
Criminal justice changes dramatically in the 1960s with the introduction of the *Miranda* warning (see p. 103) and the *Gideon* decision mandating public defenders for indigent criminal defendants. Police in these turbulent times may find themselves implementing unpopular federal decisions such as desegregation and school busing.



Narcs – Policing in the Late 20th Century

Policing in the late 20th century is dominated by the War on Drugs, first declared by President Nixon in 1971 and reaffirmed by President Ronald Reagan in 1982. The enemies are overseas heroin and cocaine traffickers allied with American organized crime. The war became very public in 1979. That spring, a Columbian hit team attacked two men buying liquor in a suburban Miami-area mall. The Columbian attackers fired automatic weapons indiscriminately into the store and shoppers, killing both their targets and several others. Within a year, Miami had the highest murder rate (70 homicides per thousand residents) in the United States.

Unfortunately, the large amounts of cash and narcotics in Miami, combined with various political problems, resulted in massive corruption in the Miami police force, leading to numerous federal investigations. Despite the declaration of “war,” however, the CIA and other American intelligence agencies are believed to have aided and encouraged anti-Communist narcotics traffickers in Afghanistan, Nicaragua, Laos, and other countries.



Large amounts of cheap cocaine arrived in the United States in the 1980s. The number of addicts exploded. Crack cocaine, speedballs (mixed heroin and cocaine), PCP, and other drugs filled a huge and growing market. Gunfights and drive-by shootings between narcotics gangs became commonplace in large cities. Despite massive efforts by law enforcement, record seizures of narcotics, and record numbers of prosecutions, the price of cocaine on the street fell from \$60,000 per kilo (12% pure) in 1982 to \$9,000 per kilo (33% pure) in 1987. A decade later, in 1996, the street price of cocaine ranged from \$10,500 to \$36,000 per kilo (82% pure). The war on drugs was lost, but few were willing to admit it in public.

The 1980s were the culmination of decades of investigation by the FBI into organized crime. The leaders of major Mafia families in New York City were prosecuted and jailed, and the Mafia in other parts of the country reduced in number and strength. Other organized criminal groups soon filled the vacuum, including Chinese, Russian, and Columbian ethnic gangs.

England faced similar troubles, and some of its own. In the mid-1980s, U.K. police faced a series of riots by striking coal miners and racial minorities. Parliament passed the Equal Opportunities Act (1985) and the Sexual Discrimination Act (1986), forcing the police to dissolve the separated women's units and integrate female police officers into the force. Because of the racial riots, Parliament also encouraged police to aggressively recruit minority officers.

Agent Pistone, New York City, 1981

Joseph Pistone joined the FBI in 1969. The FBI required a college degree and three years prior experience in law enforcement. He had worked previously as a part-time police officer during college and as an investigator in the Office of Naval Intelligence.

Pistone spent 14 weeks at the FBI Academy in Quantico, Virginia. For the first year, an FBI officer is on probation and can be fired at any time without cause. Pistone preferred criminal investigations to intelligence work and turned out to be good at developing informants. Soon he was working undercover operations. At that time, FBI undercover operations only lasted a day or two, enough time to buy contraband and bust the sellers.

In 1976, Pistone went undercover for six months as "Donnie Brasco" to infiltrate a Miami vehicle theft ring. Pistone wore a tape recorder (which frequently malfunctioned) and phoned in reports to his contact agent. He worked alone without surveillance and did not carry FBI identification. If confronted by police, he talked his way out of trouble, or went quietly and let his superiors deal with the problem. He did not carry a gun, to avoid escalating an arrest.

He received an expense allowance for meals and incidentals, but only if he kept the receipts. To avoid questions, he found himself paying for meals for informants and targets with his own money. He also had to pay for collect calls to his wife and family.

When the operation was over, he received a commendation and a \$250 bonus for his dedication.

Pistone was transferred to the FBI's Manhattan office, where he and his supervisors decided to try another long-term undercover operation. Planned to last six months, it turned into a six-year infiltration of the Bonanno crime family in New York City. Four other agents were involved: Pistone's supervisor, his case agent, his contact agent, and the Special Agent in Charge of the office. His actions were approved and supervised by various agents from FBI Headquarters and the New York office. Pistone's desk was cleaned out; his paycheck was mailed outside of the normal payroll schedules. As far as anyone outside the operation was concerned, he did not and never had worked for the FBI.

When he began the operation, Pistone had to give up his personal life, rarely seeing his family and friends. His cover was an orphan bachelor jewel thief and burglar. (FBI researchers had located an orphanage in Philadelphia that had burned down, destroying its records.) He socialized with gangsters, eventually gaining their trust. Pistone took copious notes of meetings and often wore a tape recorder or transmitter. He had to be careful not to use drugs or get involved in anything that could be used to impeach his credibility in a later trial. Once Pistone's cover was established, he was able to act as a reference for other undercover agents. A few times, his cover was nearly blown when an undercover agent he'd vouched for was discovered, or revealed himself by making arrests.

During the first three months of the operation, Pistone carefully made contacts and established himself in New York. He moved slowly, careful not to seem too eager or too curious. Eventually he made contact with a fence from the Colombo family. From there, he contacted a hit man from the Bonanno family. By the end of six months, he had still not located the fences that were the target of the operation, but his growing number of Mafia contacts were deemed worth extending the operation indefinitely.

When Pistone was asked to kill a member of a rival branch of the family in 1981, his superiors called off the operation as too dangerous. After Pistone was pulled out, a series of legal cases were filed against the Bonanno family, resulting in lengthy jail terms for the senior members. Pistone began testifying against his targets in 1982. The Mafia leaders killed many of his former associates for allowing him to discover their secrets.

The Mafia placed a \$500,000 reward on Pistone's head. He, his wife, and his three daughters were given new identities by the FBI to hide them from Mafia retribution. This remains the most successful undercover FBI operative to date.

Late 20th-Century Campaigns

Adventures in the late 20th century center around drugs and the increasingly violent activities of drug dealers and gangs. Patrol adventures involve domestic abuse, child abuse scandals, hate crimes, and the exploitation of illegal immigrants. DNA testing becomes reliable during this period. Quality and training standards for crime labs improve. Computers provide new investigative tools, like easily searched criminal databases, but also create new crimes like hacking and Internet distribution of pornography. Police face increasing public scrutiny and distrust after events such as the Rodney King trial, the O.J. Simpson trial, the incidents at Ruby Ridge and Waco, Texas, and the Diallo shooting in NYC.



When the operation was over, he received a commendation and a \$250 bonus for his dedication. After the next operation, the Mafia placed a \$500,000 reward on Pistone's head.

Entering the Third Millennium

The job of a modern police officer is similar in many ways to that of a London constable in 1829. He, and nowadays she, still patrols a beat, keeps the peace, enforces the law, protects life and property, and solves crimes. Modern police forces are diverse; men and women of every race and nationality have joined the white male officers of Sir Robert Peel's British force. Training is more thorough and prepares the rookie for the realities of the street. Pepper spray and other less-than-lethal weapons provide tools for subduing suspects without killing. Technology gives the modern detective access to a sophisticated crime laboratory and global databases of photographs, fingerprints, and DNA markers. There are more kinds of crimes and less tolerance for the street justice employed in earlier times.

Other Times, Other Places

Cops adventures don't have to be confined to the real world, or real history. The *GURPS Bio-Tech* "Gene Cop" (see p. BIO127-128) is one possible outgrowth of current fears about nerve gas attacks, biological terror, genetically modified foods, and attacks on food supplies.

Alien Nation featured a realistic near-future LAPD dealing with refugees from a crashed starship. Larry Niven's *The Long ARM of Gil Hamilton* deals with police work in a time of psionic powers and interplanetary space flight. The Psi-Cops of *Babylon 5* enforce laws on a psionic minority and are the direct heirs of the "Negro Stations" and "Women's Precincts" once used in the United States (and still in existence in other countries) to segregate minority groups from mainstream police work. However, given American courts' skepticism about polygraphs and hypnosis, the introduction of telepathic evidence in court (see p. SU107) is unlikely for many decades even after telepathy is proven reliable.

Timeline

1285: Statutes of Winchester, England create a night watch, with every householder bound to serve one night in turn.

1577: London builds workhouse for debtors and the unemployed.

1598: U.K. Parliament passes act allowing transport of convicts to overseas colonies.

1634: Boston creates its first city watch.

1667: Louis XIV selects Gabriel-Nicolas de La Reynie as first *lieutenant general de police de Paris*. He is responsible for the safety of the city, preventing illicit bearing of arms, assuring an adequate supply of food at reasonable prices, inspecting markets and fairs, and checking weights and measures.

1692: Highwayman Act makes buying and selling stolen property a crime, and creates rewards for those who capture thieves or give evidence leading to their conviction.

1725: Jonathan Wild, self-proclaimed *Thief-Taker General of Great Britain and Ireland*, is hung for aiding highwaymen, burglars, and thieves.

1748: Henry Felding, a justice of the peace at Bow Street Court, persuades a half-dozen men to be "thief-takers" under his control.

1764: Cesaré Beccaria publishes *Dei Delitti e delle Pene* (*On Crimes and Punishments*) calling for an organized police force.

1776: England begins using "hulks" (old ships docked just offshore) as temporary prisons.

1782: London creates the Foot Patrol. They walk the streets of London and the countryside for 3 to 4 miles around it from dusk to midnight.

1788: First British prisoners take transport to Australia.

1789: U.S. Marshals Service established; last Lieutenant General of Paris resigns; French Revolution; Declaration of Human and Civil Rights in France.

1790: Walnut Street Jail built in Philadelphia. It is the first true penitentiary. Inmates are encouraged to reform through silent meditation and prayer. They remain locked in solitary confinement in individual cells and have no contact with guards or visitors.

1799: U.S. Customs Service established.

1800: Louis-Nicholas DuBois appointed first Prefect of the Police of Paris.

1804: Francis J.L. D'Orgenay appointed first Western U.S. Marshal.

1805: London creates the Horse Patrol, a mounted force patrolling the roads leading to London for a radius of 4 to 20 miles; the Horse Patrol's blue greatcoat with yellow metal buttons sets the standard for police uniforms.

1808: Enactment of French criminal procedure code under Napoleon.

1810: Enactment of French criminal code under Napoleon.

1814: National centralized police force directly responsible to U.K. Parliament established in Ireland.

1815: New York prisoners given striped uniforms.

1817: Eugène-François Vidocq creates the *Sûreté* in Paris; New York becomes first state to create "good time" sentencing law, reducing prison terms in return for a convicts' good behavior in prison.

1819: Auburn prison opens in New York state.

1829: U.K. Parliament creates the Metropolitan Police of London (the "New Police") under Sir Robert Peel; Paris creates the *Sergeants de Ville*, a uniformed patrol of 100 police officers.

1835: Texas Rangers established.

1842: London Metropolitan Police create detective division (Scotland Yard).

1844: New York City Police Department established.

1847: Paris detectives use hair as evidence in a criminal case.

1850: Pinkerton Agency founded in Chicago (the first "private eyes").

1856: British Country and Borough Police Act extends London police model to the entire country; Telegraphs link British police stations; Pinkerton Agency hires Kate Warne as its first female detective.

1857: NYPD officers armed with revolvers; NYPD officers given disability pensions.

1858: England stops using hulks as prisons.

1863: Draft Riots in NYC last five days, killing roughly 100 civilians and police; New York forbids concealed carry of slungshots (a weight on a cord used like a sap) and other blunt weapons, but knives and firearms remain unregulated; London police openly carry truncheons (officers in rural areas carry single-shot pistols and cutlasses).

1868: U.K. Parliament ends transportation as punishment.

1871: Japan adopts Western-style police based on French model.

1872: Royal North-West Mounted Police (predecessor of the RCMP) organized in Canada; Metropolitan Police of London go on strike; Bertillon creates his anthropometric identification system.





1876: First reformatory built in Elmira, New York.

1877: Striking railroad workers across America cause numerous riots and fires.

1878: Congress passes Posse Comitatus Act forbidding the military to be used in federal posses or to enforce civilian laws; scandal prompts reorganization of London Metropolitan Police detective division into Criminal Investigation Division (CID); NYPD grants full-service pensions to officers who serve 20-25 years and are age 50 to 55; Massachusetts passes first probation law; Police matron appointed in Portland, Maine.

1880: Faulds and Herschel both claim to have discovered fingerprint identification methods; Chicago installs first call-box system to contact officers on the beat; cocaine isolated from coca leaves.

1881: London Metropolitan Police issue portrait of a wanted man to the press.

1883: Paris police test and adopt Bertillon anthropometric system; London Metropolitan Police set up the Irish Branch and the Secret Branch (predecessors of the Special Branch) to deal with a wave of bombings, including one which damages Scotland Yard itself.

1888-9: Jack the Ripper kills several women in Whitechapel.

1890: William Kemmler is executed by electrocution at Auburn Prison in New York.

1891: Congress authorizes construction of federal penitentiaries.

1892: First conviction based on fingerprint evidence made in Argentina.

1893: U.S. police chiefs form the National Police Chiefs' Union (later the International Association of Chiefs of Police); Yuma County, Arizona, sheriff deputizes his wife to care for female prisoners (first known female deputy in the West).

1894: London Metropolitan Police adopt Bertillon anthropometric system; Vuetich fingerprint classification system developed.

1895: Lambroso begins measuring pulse rate and blood pressure of crime suspects.

1897: Galton/Henry fingerprint classification system developed.

1900: Landsteiner discovers blood types.

1901: Scotland Yard opens fingerprint branch; Connecticut enacts speed limits for cars and trucks.

1902: Dr. von Litz stages mock crime in his Berlin classroom to demonstrate the unreliability of eyewitness testimony.

1903: New York City publishes first printed traffic rules in America; Massachusetts is first to require driver's licenses; Suffragist movement begins in England.

1905: Pennsylvania State Constabulary becomes first state police force.

1908: Congress creates Bureau of Investigation (FBI's predecessor); Hugo Munsterburg publishes *On the Witness Stand*, the first published critique of eyewitness testimony.

1910: Alice Stebbins Wells is hired by LAPD as its first policewoman; six convicts escape federal prison at Leavenworth, Kansas. One makes it to Canada, the only prisoner to ever escape from Leavenworth and not be recaptured.

1911: Japan creates the Special Higher Police (Tokkou) after assassination plot against Meiji emperor.

1912: Marsh test for arsenic poisoning is used in criminal prosecution; chief promotes Isabella Goodwin, a NYC police matron, to first-grade detective as reward for undercover work.

1914: U.K. Parliament creates Women's Police Service in London; International Congress of Criminal Police convenes in Monaco; NYPD creates its bomb squad.

1916: LAPD is first large urban department to hire a black policewoman.

1917: Connecticut establishes its public defender system, the oldest in America.

1918: New York establishes Medical Examiner's Office.

1919: Prohibition begins; Boston police strike causes riots and mass robberies; London Metropolitan Police create the Mobile Patrol Experiment (predecessor of the Flying Squad).

1920: Attorney General Palmer orders simultaneous anti-Communist raids in 23 American cities. Over 10,000 people are arrested; most are released a few days later for insufficient proof of Communist activity. A bomb explodes on Wall Street, killing 39 and wounding nearly 400; anarchists claim credit but the crime is never solved.

1921: NYPD creates a women's precinct in Hell's Kitchen.

1922: London equips "Flying Squad" with radios.



1923: U.S. Supreme Court holds polygraph evidence inadmissible; International Police Conference opens in Vienna.

1924: J. Edgar Hoover appointed Director of the United States Bureau of Investigation.

1929: London Metropolitan Police begin experiments with police box system; Two-way radios appear in police cruisers; St. Valentine's Day Massacre in Chicago.

1930: Bureau of Investigation begins to collect and compile uniform crime statistics for U.S.

1931: Nevada legalizes gambling.

1932: Bureau of Investigation's crime laboratory is founded; Charles Lindberg's infant son kidnapped, incident deemed "crime of the century"; U.S. Supreme Court outlaws use of physical force to obtain confessions; Prohibition ends.

1933: Germans create Gestapo.

1934: Bureau of Investigation given authority to investigate bank robberies; federal agents kill John Dillinger in Chicago; Bonnie and Clyde are killed in an ambush; Alcatraz prison opens.

1935: Bureau of Investigation becomes the FBI; London Metropolitan Police create forensic laboratory.

1936: Congress gives FBI authority to investigate "subversive activities"; Kentucky holds last public execution in America.

1937: London adopts 999 as its emergency telephone number.

1939: French police form Directorate of Counter Espionage (DST).

1946: Riot by prisoners in Alcatraz.

1948: Hell's Angels motorcycle gang forms.

1949: *Dragnet* airs as radio show.

1950: FBI initiates Ten Most Wanted Fugitives program; Stone of Scone is stolen from Westminster Abbey and recovered four months later.

1951: *Dragnet* airs on television.

1957: Dr. Brussell, a psychiatrist, creates a psychiatric profile to help catch an NYC bomber.

1958: French modernize their 1808 criminal procedure code.

1961: Kitty Genovese murder in New York City; 38 neighbors watch victim being killed from their own apartments without intervening or calling police.

1962: French Connection case closes in NYC. Police seize 112 pounds of high-quality heroin, largest seizure to date.

1963: Alcatraz prison closes.

1964: British National Police Act reorganizes police into one national force with uniform governance, financing, and jurisdiction.

1965: President Johnson signs executive order forbidding federal agents to use electronic listening devices without a warrant; Riot in Watts, NY lasts for 6 days – 34 people killed, 1,000 injured, over 3,000 rioters arrested; *The FBI* airs on television.

1966: Texas Tower sniper incident in Austin, Texas; French reorganize national police systems – the Sûreté merges with the Prefecture of Police to become the National Police.

1967: National Crime Information Center (NCIC) begins operations.

1968: Riots follow Martin Luther King's assassination; 911 services begin in U.S.

1970: Cleveland names Benjamin Davis, Jr. first black police chief in a major American city; Congress passes Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations (RICO) act.

1971: President Nixon declares "war on drugs"; FBI Witness Protection Program begins; Attica prison revolt; Dan "D.B." Cooper's hijacking incident spawns dozens of copycat hijackings; London Metropolitan Police forms a bomb squad to deal with IRA attacks; France abolishes the death penalty.

1972: J. Edgar Hoover dies; Equal Employment Opportunity Act requires police to end race and gender discrimination in hiring and promotion; FBI appoints first female agents; Secret Service and Pennsylvania State Police appoint female officers to routine duties; U.S. Supreme Court outlaws the death penalty.

1973: Congress creates the Drug Enforcement Agency (DEA).

1974: Baltimore police strike (first police strike in major American city since 1919); Battered women's shelter opens in St. Paul, MN (first in the nation).

1975: "Yorkshire Ripper" murders begin in the north of England. He becomes Britain's most prolific serial killer.

1976: U.S. Supreme Court restores the death penalty; New Jersey legalizes gambling in Atlantic City.

1977: Clash between rival Chinese gangs in San Francisco leads to worst public murder by underworld figures since the St. Valentine's Day Massacre.

1978: Juan David Ochoa forms the first Columbian cocaine cartel.





1979: Guardian Angels civilian patrol group forms in NYC.

1980: Riots in Miami follow acquittal of police officers accused in beating death of a young black motorcyclist. Eighteen people are killed, 1,100 arrested.

1981: Brixton and Toxteth riots in England: 180 civilians and 429 officers injured; "Yorkshire Ripper" murders end with suspect's arrest; LAPD lowers its minimum height requirement from 5'8" to 5'0."

1982: Congress authorizes FBI to aid DEA in narcotics investigations; President Reagan re-declares "War on Drugs"; U.S. government begins RICO (racketeering) case against the Bonanno Mafia family in NYC (Donnie Brasco case).

1983: LAPD installs mobile computer terminals in police cars; Kary Mullis invents DNA testing method (PCR) for tiny amounts of bodily material; Georgia introduces "boot camps" for probationers; victim stabbed 13 times in officers' presence during a domestic assault in Connecticut, leading to dramatic national changes in domestic violence laws.

1984: U.K. Parliament enacts Police and Criminal Evidence Act (PACE); Six convicted murderers escape from Virginia "escape-proof" prison in mass death row escape. The last is recaptured only 19 days later.

1984-5: Miners' Strikes in England.

1985: LAPD uses armored vehicle with battering ram for high-risk narcotics raids on fortified crack houses; Dan Mitrione, Jr. is first FBI agent to plead guilty to corruption charges; Brixton and Tottenham riots in England, three killed, 48 civilians and 256 police injured; Parliament passes Equal Opportunities Act.

1986: DNA evidence used to clear a murder suspect; Parliament passes Sexual Discrimination Act in U.K.

1988: DNA evidence clears a wrongly convicted man; Department of Defense creates Computer Emergency Response Team (CERT) in aftermath of Internet "worm" incident.

1989: Lt. Kathleen Brennan of Pima County Sheriff's Department (Arizona) appointed first female head of a police SWAT team.

1990: Houston appoints Elizabeth Watson as first woman chief of police to head a major urban department.

1991: LAPD officers stop and beat suspect Rodney King; riots in L.A. follow acquittal of officers: 54 killed, 2,383 injured, 13,212 people arrested; England creates National Criminal Intelligence Service (NCIS); U.S. Department of Justice creates Computer Crime Unit; Boston creates "Cold Case Squad" to re-investigate unsolved homicides.

1993: Federal jury convicts Sergeant Koon and Officer Powell of violating Rodney King's civil rights; *Golden Venture* runs aground off Queens, NY, 300 Chinese illegal immigrants arrested by INS, 10 are killed; World Trade Center bombing, 6 persons killed, over 1,000 injured; off-duty Brazilian officers murder eight street children in downtown Rio de Janeiro (Candelaria massacre).

1994: Nicole Brown Simpson and Ronald Goldman are killed, O.J. Simpson runs from police; California's "three-strikes" law goes into effect; FBI creates Russian organized crime unit.

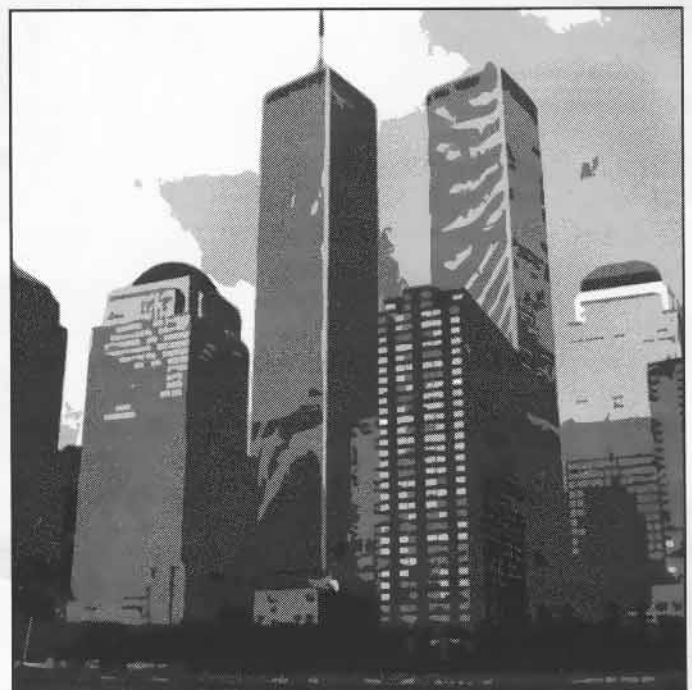
1995: O.J. Simpson acquittal; Oklahoma City bombing, kills 168 and wounds hundreds; Sarin gas attack in Tokyo subway kills 12 and injures 5,500.

1997: Department of Justice Inspector General issues report criticizing FBI laboratory; police arrest Russian mobster in Miami trying to sell a Russian diesel-powered submarine to the Colombian drug cartels.

1999: Britain abolishes capital punishment; NYPD officers shoot at suspect Amadou Diallo 41 times, hitting him 19 times.

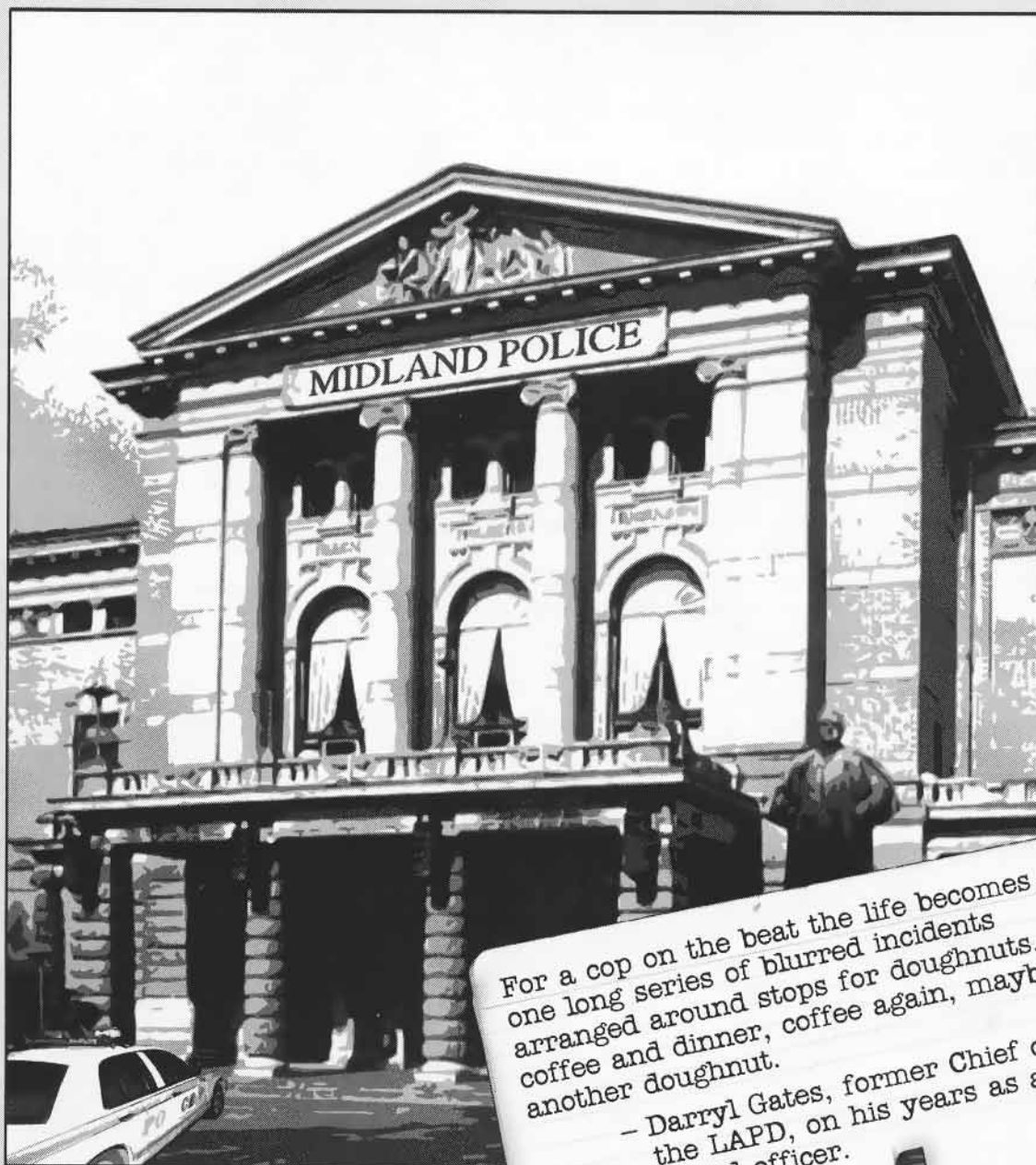
2000: Diallo officers acquitted; Rampart scandal in LAPD.

2001: Timothy Thomas, a young black man, shot by a police officer in Cincinnati; officer is charged with negligent homicide and obstructing official business (both only misdemeanors), 3 days of riots follow in Cincinnati; worldwide protests against globalization include damaging riots in Seattle; terrorists crash commercial airliners into the Pentagon and World Trade Center, President Bush declares war on terrorists and the nations that support them.



Chapter 2:

The Station House



For a cop on the beat the life becomes one long series of blurred incidents arranged around stops for doughnuts, coffee and dinner, coffee again, maybe another doughnut.

- Darryl Gates, former Chief of the LAPD, on his years as a patrol officer.

The essence of police work is not car chases, fancy equipment, or big guns. It's solving problems, keeping the peace, maintaining order, and arresting the bad guys – even when the bad guys are 30-foot cosmic ray powered robots from another dimension. There's more to being a good cop than being a crack shot and an ace driver.

The setting depends on whether the adventure involves patrol officers, detectives, federal agents, a SWAT team, or the bomb squad. *Cops* is not a game about wandering adventurers. Cops have a jurisdiction, a city, a precinct, and a beat and are expected to enforce the law there. The structure of the department and the organization of the headquarters building itself are important. The station house is the adventure's home base. It sets the tone for the entire adventure. Where is it – an isolated rural town, an outwardly calm suburb, or a troubled inner-city neighborhood? Who are the officers – part-time beat cops in a seaside tourist town or members of an elite federal task force? What are the formal and informal rules of their department? Is corruption blatant, quietly tolerated, or isolated, or condemned? Is brutality accepted, ignored, or vigorously investigated? What is the level of tension between the officers and between the force and the community? The answers to these questions breathe life into your adventure. The criminal and the crime are important too. But those come later, after the adventuring world has been given its basic structure.

From Dragnet to Lethal Weapon

Realistic games take dramatic license to avoid the boredom of police work (who wants to roleplay a 16-hour stake-out?), but they're based on the stories in the daily newspaper or on the evening news. Cinematic games are Hollywood action flicks: lots of gunplay, vehicle chases, and explosions. These categories don't have to stay rigid, even within a single gaming session. *The French Connection* is based on a real investigation, and starts off believably. Then it turns cinematic, as "Popeye" Doyle commandeers a car to chase a French hit man who has taken over a subway train, weaving through traffic, pedestrians, and barriers under the elevated train rails. It is important for the participants to agree on the basic concept before they start. If the police start shooting wildly at the bad guys in what the GM thinks is a realistic game, they are likely to end up in court or worse.

Realistic Campaigns

Today's newspaper gives plenty of fodder for creating realistic *Cops* adventures. Players are familiar with realistic police dramas from long-running television series like *Dragnet*, *Adam-12*, *NYPD Blue*, *Homicide*, the BBC's *Prime Suspect* and police novels. When the cops arrive at a crime scene, the players should have a good idea what their characters need to do. TV has introduced them to the basic settings and procedures.

Realistic games require that the police restrain their actions. Dramatic car chases through downtown at midday are grounds for suspension, not medals, even if the cops catch the bad guys. Careless use of firearms and explosives will result in career-destroying criminal charges, not a promotion and extra vacation time. Providing a little "street justice" will mean brutality charges, lawsuits, and internal investigations.

The tension in a realistic game should be subtle and pervasive. Dangers are omnipresent and unexpected. When a police officer stops a car for a routine traffic infraction, he has no idea whether the driver is an average citizen who will calmly accept the ticket, or an escaped inmate fleeing the country. When he answers a telephone call at the station, he has no idea whether it is a legitimate request for aid or bait for an ambush.

There are temptations from suspects who will agree to anything to avoid arrest, and from cash, drugs, and jewelry that may be lying around a crime scene not yet inventoried. There's the temptation to rough up a belligerent teen, an unruly drunk, or an obnoxious repeat offender. These sort of daily mental struggles are at the heart of a realistic game. They demonstrate the everyday difficulties of the police officer.

Soldiers Aren't Cops

There's more law in the end of a policeman's nightstick than a Supreme Court decision.

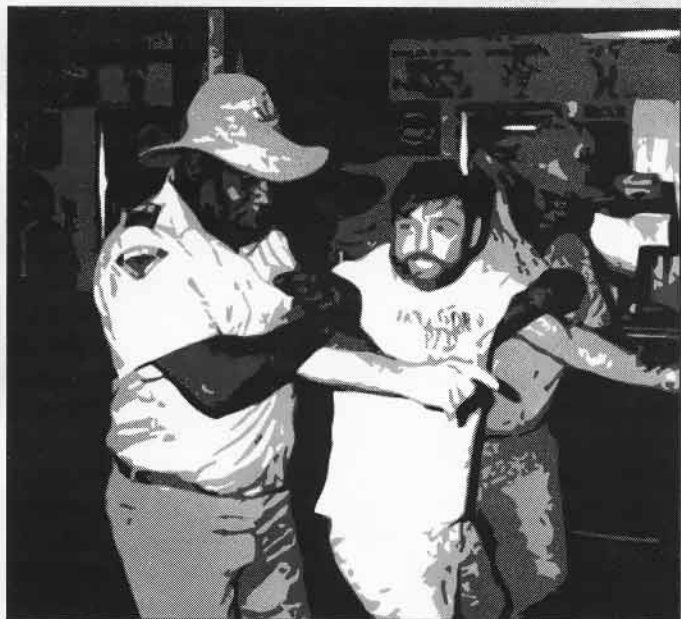
– Captain Alexander "Clubber" Williams,
NYPD, 1872

Combat in a realistic setting is very different from the fervent gunplay of a cinematic game. Police officers use force, including deadly force, to protect life and property, but an officer's actions are subject to review, and the area in which police can use their own discretion has been narrowing year by year. Misuse can trigger complaints, riots, investigations, and criminal charges. But all applications of force are not the same.

Soldiers operating in the United States are as subject to investigations and prosecution as civilian police. American military officers in the mid-20th century volunteered their special forces to assist in civilian "incidents." They were stunned and horrified to find that their men could be called into court; their manuals and equipment could be made available to defense attorneys; civilian experts could seize their equipment for examination. The soldiers involved could be called to testify in hearings for years afterward.

Civilian law enforcement was likewise horrified by the idea of military operations inside the United States. Once the enforcement operation was over, the area would be considered a crime scene, and soldiers were not trained to identify and protect the evidence needed to prosecute surviving suspects. They weren't even trained to avoid civilian casualties. The military is trained to win, with minimal losses *on its own side*. Soldiers don't carry handcuffs; it isn't their job to arrest people. The Posse Comitatus Act was passed by Congress to put an end to such considerations. Recently the United States has seen increased use of National Guard forces (considered civil, not military-controlled), to assist in the "war on drugs." There has also been a steady increase in the use of military tactics and equipment by SWAT teams.





Levels of Force

An officer's tools start with his physical presence and verbal commands. Merely by his appearance and official demeanor, he can obtain cooperation from some subjects. A patrol officer learns when and how to use Diplomacy, Intimidation, and Leadership to get compliance from cooperative suspects.

If a suspect insists on resisting, but isn't using weapons or being violent, police are trained to use unarmed techniques (Judo, Wrestling, Brawling, or Martial Arts maneuvers as appropriate) to force compliance. Pain compliance methods especially can be quite persuasive and, used properly, have very little potential for injury.

If the suspect is trying to physically assault the officer (or someone else), or has a non-lethal weapon, the officer may use intermediate weapons like OC spray, tasers, or batons. Only when a suspect uses potentially lethal methods (e.g. knife, gun, steel pipe, or Martial Arts at a high level) may the officer respond with a firearm as needed. How the officer uses his tools and how rapidly he escalates his use of force depends on the situation and department policy. Generally, officers may use only one "level of force" greater than the suspect's resistance.

The acceptable level of force varies by place and time. Constable Wensley patrolling in 1888 had different options from a modern British Armed Firearms Officer. History and culture are important. The U.K. is one of the few industrialized countries where police do not regularly carry firearms. A regular bobby has a truncheon and perhaps OC spray. His American counterpart is a walking armory, carrying a truncheon, OC spray, and a semi-automatic pistol with extra clips. He even wears ballistic body armor.

Cops have to deal with firearms, legal and illegal, in the public's hands. Criminals worldwide carry guns. What difference does breaking one more law make? Even Japanese officers carry revolvers, though handguns are strictly illegal in Japan and hunting weapons are tightly restricted.

The hardest decision a police officer will ever make is whether to use lethal force against a suspect. If an officer

shoots and the target is unarmed, or he hits an innocent bystander, the cop could lose his job or be brought up on charges. Riots have started because a police officer shot a minority suspect without proper cause. After any shooting, the officer faces harrowing weeks of intense scrutiny by Internal Affairs and the press, and a lifetime of second-guessing himself over a split-second decision. Weapons training for police always includes intensive instruction on when *not* to shoot.

Officers may be required to make Vision rolls to identify people during a shootout and skill rolls to ascertain an opponent's intent. Law Enforcement, Body Language or Tactics rolls can help distinguish foes from innocent bystanders or determine if a foe is surrendering or feinting with hostile intent.

Roll at a penalty if the cop fails a Fright Check or if the subject matches a known profile of an armed suspect. Roll at a bonus if the subject is not a threat. Be wary of misinformation: If another officer shouts, "He's got a gun!" (Or just, "Gun!"), give +2 to rolls to make the correct choice if the subject is armed, or -2 to rolls if the other cop is *wrong*. If a subject looks like the sort of person who might carry a gun (for instance, he's dressed like a thug or gang member) roll at another +1 if the target is armed, or -1 if he's unarmed. On a critical failure, the officer makes a terrible error — he shoots at an innocent, or holds fire and allows an armed suspect to shoot at him first.

Chaotic gunfights result when you use the Buck Fever rules (p. CII65). Both cops and crooks may suffer from Buck Fever; even the most realistic training can't prepare shooters for real life (or death) combat. FBI statistics confirm that police gun battles take place at very short range but produce very few hits for the number of shots fired. This may be the result of the shooters suffering from Buck Fever.

Cinematic Campaigns

The summer blockbuster action flick is the perfect model for cinematic adventures. The villains are stylish and witty. The crime is breathtaking in its ruthlessness, depravity, and scope. The heroes are calm, collected, and confident; they destroy whole city blocks and fleets of police cars, and never face more than a loud dressing-down and a brief demotion before redeeming themselves with a juicy arrest. Two mismatched partners are alone against the bad guys, with the brass and Internal Affairs agents in hot pursuit. The *Lethal Weapon* series, the *Beverly Hills Cop* series, the *Last Action Hero*, and *Rush Hour (I & II)* are all examples of this genre.

Cops in cinematic campaigns openly flout the law, the Constitution, and other realistic concerns. Ignore infractions unless they interfere with the spirit of the setting. A cinematic cop is allowed to shoot the bad guy — but not in the back when he's fleeing. Let the loud voice of the media and the heavy hand of the law discipline police who abuse the conventions of cinematic police adventures to indulge in pointless destruction.

Cinematic cops fight cinematic villains. This is not the place for moral dilemmas and gray areas. The bad guys are *evil*. Somebody on the good guys' side is corrupt and will betray them. Politicians are either corrupt or shameless vote-panderers. The cops' superiors are hidebound, narrow-minded obstacles.



If the players are federal agents, the local cops are corrupt, inept, or both. If the players are local cops, federal agents always horn in on their good busts, and try to steal the glory. Then they let the bad guys escape through bureaucratic bungling so the locals have to do it again . . .

Violence at the Cinema

Use of force in cinematic settings is a lot freer. Police rough up suspects and informants, and threaten perps with drawn guns. They fire hundreds of rounds of ammunition during running (and driving) firefights down busy streets. For the most part, no one seems to mind, and only the bad guys' bullets hit bystanders.

Cinematic cops have to be careful not to go overboard with use of force, or they can earn a negative reputation. Inspector Callahan in *Dirty Harry* was framed by his quarry; the crook hired someone to beat him, and then said Harry did it. Harry's reputation made the charge plausible and forced Harry's superiors to pull him off a vital case. In *Lethal Weapon 3*, the protagonists are demoted to patrol when they try to disarm a bomb themselves (and fail) rather than waiting for the bomb squad. A cinematic police officer needs to be careful to confine his use of force to the crooks. He still has to keep property damage and press exposure to a tolerable level.

The Department

Police officers don't exist in a vacuum. They have a home department and a station house or office. Sergeant Joe Friday (*Dragnet*), Detective George Francisco (*Alien Nation*), and Detective Riggs (*Lethal Weapon*) are all detectives, but each is part of a distinctly different LAPD. An FBI detective has different powers and goals from a member of the Islamic religious police in Iran, a French gendarme, or a U.S. Marshal in charge of a mining colony near Jupiter.

The organizational structure of the department or agency is important and so is the physical layout of the office. Both are used in *Beverly Hills Cop* to contrast Axel Foley's Detroit home department with the Beverly Hills department. When he's arrested after confronting the villain, Foley mentions that the Beverly Hills cruiser is the nicest and cleanest police cruiser he's ever been in. The writer and director starkly contrast how Foley relates to his superiors in Detroit with the way his California counterparts relate to their superiors.

Officers from different agencies and countries work together, but close cooperation is neither common nor easy. Interagency and intergovernmental task forces do exist. Police officers may take part in rebuilding or reforming police forces in places like Bosnia or Haiti. Police officers may assist countries trying to reform corrupt systems or trying to build modernized police systems. A common crossover is an officer traveling to help track down a dangerous felon he is familiar with, now causing trouble elsewhere. The clash of the visitor's culture, customs, and procedures makes for good comedy and drama. (The *Rush Hour* movies starring Jackie Chan are outstanding examples of this genre.)

Deadly Force

When a police officer uses deadly force, departments require an investigation of the incident, even if nobody was hurt. At the scene, a supervisor asks him to surrender his gun and remaining ammunition to evidence technicians for ballistics tests immediately after the incident. He is tested for gunpowder residue on his hands even if it is known he was the shooter. If injured, he is taken to the hospital. The audiotapes of radio communications during the incident are saved for review. Press reporters and upper-level department supervisors instantly descend on any shooting scene in droves.

The officer will be debriefed by his superiors immediately, before he goes off duty. A few departments simply isolate him from the official investigation and other involved officers. They give him a day or two to compose his thoughts and make a formal, written statement. Many require officers to participate in post-incident psychological counseling. Even when an officer is exonerated (cleared of any wrongdoing) in a shooting, he may have nightmares, flashbacks, and difficulty in making decisions. The resultant stress can lead to disintegration in his family life, alcoholism, and abandoning his police career.

The shooter is placed on desk duty or suspended with pay until a review board can investigate the affair. This takes anywhere from a few days to months. Internal Affairs review boards are made up of senior police officials and officers from Internal Affairs. A union representative or a privately hired attorney may act as a "defense lawyer" for the officer under review. The review board hears evidence and reads reports from all the officers on the scene, including the officer under review. They receive reports from the forensics lab and, if available, eyewitness statements.

Some departments have civilian review boards that include prominent members of the community in addition to representatives of the police department. Such review boards are similar to internal review boards, but are politically motivated and often less sympathetic to the police.

If the cop was justified in using force, a review board is usually a mere formality; the officer is exonerated, and might even be praised for his performance. If he acted improperly, he is suspended from duty (with or without pay), reassigned to a less-prestigious branch, or fired, based on the severity of his offense. To roleplay a review board, use the rules for trials (pp. 109-114), with the review board acting the part of inquisitorial judges.

If there is evidence that the officer acted in violation of the law, the internal review board refers the case to the local prosecutor for review. Given sufficient evidence, this results in criminal prosecution of the officer. Even if the jury acquits in such a case, or if there is no criminal proceeding at all, the victim's family may bring a civil suit against the department. The federal government can prosecute separately for civil rights violations, as happened in the Rodney King case.



Police in the United States

American police organizations are many and diverse. There are nearly 50 federal agencies with national jurisdiction. The two largest forces, the FBI and the U.S. Customs Service, each have over 10,000 agents. About 10% of all American police are federal agents.

Each state has its own state police force with statewide authority over certain crimes. State police forces deal with large, complex, or widespread crimes – such as burglary rings, drug networks, and fencing operations – as well as routine traffic patrols on major highways. The largest state force is the California Highway Patrol with 6,000 officers. About 10% of all American police belong to state police forces.

States are organized into counties, which often have their own sheriffs and deputies. Sheriffs are responsible for maintaining local jails and providing courthouse security. The largest of these forces is the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department with 8,000 officers. About 5% of all American police belong to county sheriffs' departments.

Then there are city and town police forces. There are about 1,000 urban police forces; 20% of American police are officers in the 25 largest cities. The remaining city cops belong to city and town forces ranging in size from a single part-time officer in a lonely rural town to hundreds of full-time officers in a small-city force.

The rest of the police in America belong to a variety of specialized forces with limited jurisdictions, such as university campus police, military base police, game wardens, or park police. These forces are small, sometimes part-time, and they have only limited authority outside their primary area of responsibility.

These thousands of law enforcement groups each have their own training methods, standard procedures, operating methods, and official jurisdiction. The offices and agencies compete for budgets, personnel, informants, and favorable press, at least as often as they cooperate on major cases.

For example, federal agents must advise local police when they are executing a warrant and may request local assistance with serving it. However, when state or local police ask for federal help in executing a warrant, federal agents remain outside the area of the action until after the local police

secure the scene. The official story says this is to assure the agents' safety. In reality, state and local police distrust federal agents. To local cops, federal agents don't seem to take the same risks or have to deal with the routine drudgery and sordidness of local enforcement.

A state or local officer has no idea what to expect when responding to a call, and little time to plan serving a warrant. Federal agents plan the time, place, and circumstances of their arrests in detail, assembling overwhelming force and blocking all escape routes. Federal agents also try to take credit for cases where local police started the case or did much of the work. The locals also resent the fact that federal agents have bigger budgets, better pay, and public prestige.

New York City Police Department (NYPD)

The NYPD is the largest single police force in America, with more than 38,000 officers. It is the best-known police department in the world, having been depicted in many movies, television shows, and radio dramas. More than ever, in the wake of the Twin Towers attack and the heroism shown there by New York cops, the NYPD is the force that others look up to.

The mayor of New York appoints the police commissioner to a 5-year term, but the mayor may ask for the commissioner's resignation at any time. (This system of having a police commissioner directly appointed by the city mayor is common in East Coast cities.) The commissioner has little insulation from political pressures and may have only limited freedom to undertake major reorganizations or policy initiatives without the mayor's approval.

The commissioner and his assistant, the first deputy commissioner, are civilians. The chief of department, who also assists the commissioner, is the highest-ranking police officer. The commissioner appoints "super-chiefs" for each of the five major bureaus: Detectives, Organized Crime Control, Patrol Services, Inspectional Services, and Personnel. Included in the organizational structure of the NYPD are four lesser bureaus: Transportation, Criminal Justice, Internal Affairs, and Support.

Within the Patrol Services Bureau, New York City's five boroughs are divided into eight Patrol Borough Commands, and then subdivided into 76 precincts. Inspectors command each borough and captains run each precinct. Officers of the 12 Transit Districts and nine Housing Police Service Areas patrol subways and large housing complexes.

Like many municipal forces, the NYPD requires its officers to live in their city or the adjoining counties. NYPD officers are armed at all times, on and off duty.

NYPD officers are armed at all times, on and off duty.

Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD)

The LAPD is perhaps the next most famous police department in the world. Convenient to Hollywood, its officers have been portrayed in countless movies, television shows, and dramas. The Department has 9,600 officers, divided into nine bureaus and 50 divisions, groups, units or sections. Its Air Support Division has 17 helicopters, one airplane, and 75 officers. Helicopters patrol in the sky over Los Angeles 18 hours a day, seven days a week.

The Board of Police Commissioners oversees all operations of the LAPD. The Board's five members are volunteers who meet once a week. The LAPD's Board of Commissioners is typical of West Coast police structures, intended to insulate the chief from partisan politics and political influence. Strict civil service rules protect the chief from being fired without cause.

The mayor appoints the Chief of Police, subject to the approval of the Board. The chief cannot serve more than two five-year terms. A chief of staff and a special assistant deputy chief assist him in his duties. The chief appoints the deputy chiefs who head the major bureaus: Fiscal and Support; Information; Communications and Services; Human Resources; Operations-Headquarters; Operations-South Bureau; Operations-Central Bureau; Operations-West Bureau; and Operations-Valley Bureau.

There are 20 commanders: the deputy commander in charge of the department during off-hours, a commander assisting each regional deputy chief and commanders heading Internal Affairs, the Detective Services Group and several other groups within the department. There are 18 community police stations, each headed by a captain, within the four regional bureaus. Each regional bureau has its own traffic division. The Detective Services Division is divided into specialized units: burglary-auto theft, financial crimes division, detective headquarters, detective support (which includes the bomb squad), and robbery-homicide.

Successful candidates attend the police academy for seven months, and then are assigned to a geographic area as a patrol officer. A training officer is assigned to new officers for their first year. A new officer's first two or three years are spent in patrol assignments. Officers are eligible to compete in the Police Sergeant or Police Detective examinations after four years of service. Patrol officers can be promoted either to sergeant or detective, which are parallel ranks. A detective can take the sergeant's exam and vice-versa. Both detectives and sergeants can be promoted to Police Lieutenant and then into the upper ranks.

Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)

The FBI is the primary investigator for the United States Department of Justice (DOJ). It is responsible for investigating over 200 federal crimes, including kidnapping, bank robbery, interstate theft, and foreign espionage. It has been investigating organized crime since 1957 and assisting in narcotics investigations since 1982.

A highly professional and scientific organization, the FBI still struggles with a long reputation of valuing appearance even at the cost of effectiveness. Under its first director, J. Edgar Hoover, agents were forbidden to engage in undercover operations. They were forbidden to drink coffee during working hours, whether at their desks or outside the office. Agents were also not allowed to do paperwork at their desks, being required to instead be out in the field. Many took their files to public library reading rooms to catch up on their reports. Many of these rules were rescinded after Hoover's death, but the reputation lingers.

Too Black; Not Black Enough

There were only a few black police officers in late 19th-century America. White men, especially in the South, thought it humiliating and degrading for a white man to be arrested by a "colored" policeman. Even by 1910, there were only 576 black police officers in the entire United States, mostly serving in the north. Black officers were often forbidden to wear uniforms, restricted to assignments in black neighborhoods, or not allowed to arrest whites. They faced ostracism and hazing, and often were not allowed to share certain areas with white officers. Black officers could not join police fraternal and benevolent associations, or were offered a limited, non-voting membership. Black officers sometimes formed their own associations.

Conditions began to improve in the 1960s, when police in America began to integrate their departments. Miami closed its "Negro Police Station" in 1963. Detroit began to assign officers as partners without reference to race as early as 1959. The civil rights movement ended legal segregation, which forced an end to police department segregation as well. Unofficial segregation continued for some time. In the 1970s, several police departments were forced by court order to integrate their departments. The courts mandated the hiring and promotion of minority officers, regardless of civil service seniority or scores on tests. White officers resented these orders and resisted integration. Chiefs resented having their departments managed by federal judges. Such court orders began to be phased out in the 1990s as affirmative action fell out of favor. Individual discrimination and harassment cases continue to be brought against police departments and federal agencies. Minority officers may be assigned to beats covering people of their race, or (less often now) segregated into all-minority station houses like Atlanta's old "Negro Precinct."

Even now, black or other minority officers face challenges from others of their race who claim they have sold out to the white majority. The percentage of minority police officers is usually disproportionately small. This places enormous pressure on those few. Minority group members often expect special favors or assistance from officers of their own race, and resent it if they don't receive favorable treatment.

The Director of the FBI is appointed by the U.S. President, with the advice and consent of the U.S. Senate. Hoover served as director for 48 years; now an FBI Director cannot serve longer than 10 years.

There are 11,400 FBI Special Agents and over 16,000 civilian employees. The FBI headquarters in Washington, D.C. has 11 divisions and four offices. These offices support 56 field offices, approximately 400 resident agencies, and 35 foreign liaison posts. Resident agencies are home to one to 12 agents and located in rural areas wherever the FBI needs a local agent. They both respond to crimes and develop relations with local law enforcement officials. Foreign liaison offices work abroad with American and foreign countries' authorities on criminal matters within FBI jurisdiction. Every two years or so, each field office and headquarters division is inspected by the FBI's Inspection Division.

The operational divisions of the FBI are the Criminal Investigation Division (CID) and Foreign Counterintelligence Division (FCI). The other nine divisions provide support, directly and indirectly, for operations.

Each FBI field office is supervised by a Special Agent in Charge or SAC (pronounced "ess-ay-see," not "sack"). The large offices in Los Angeles, New York City and Washington, D. C., are managed by an Assistant Director in Charge or ADIC (pronounced "A-dik"), assisted by SACs responsible for specific programs. The SACs are aided by managers called Assistant Special Agents in Charge or ASAC (pronounced "A-sack"), by Squad Supervisors in charge of investigative work and by Administrative Officers in charge of support operations. Each of the larger resident agencies is managed by a Supervisory Senior Resident Agent, who then reports to the field office that covers his area.

FBI agents are *not* protected by federal civil service rules. The Director may take personnel actions related to hiring, promotion, qualifications, discipline, and other matters at his discretion. Under Hoover, agents were all white men. Not until the 1990s did minority groups force the FBI, through repeated lawsuits, to open its ranks to women, racial minorities, and homosexuals.

Prospective agents take a written test and undergo a rigorous background investigation, including drug testing. They may even be required to take a polygraph examination, if security concerns arise. Polygraphs are often used for internal investigations. An agent may refuse to take the polygraph, but refusal is itself seen as a "negative inference" of guilt. Newly appointed Special Agents spend 16 weeks at the FBI Academy in Quantico, Virginia. After graduation from the FBI Academy, new Special Agents are assigned to FBI field offices.

The FBI school at Quantico also provides training and support for police officers, especially those involved in counter-terrorism, bomb disposal, and SWAT tactics. (Under J. Edgar Hoover, local police chiefs suspected that these programs were designed to encourage promising young officers to be loyal to Hoover and the FBI rather than to their own departments.)

The FBI has a reputation of being very conservative and concerned with its own image. Many expect agents to conform to the stereotypical image of a well-groomed white man in a suit and tie. Local cops worry that the FBI will claim

credit for a case after providing only minor assistance, or use its greater resources to "steal" informants and ruin local investigations.

The FBI crime lab is probably the best in the world in terms of both technology and personnel. It has not gone without controversy; in previous decades, there have been serious questions about procedures and evidence contamination. Nevertheless, a cinematic campaign's FBI lab should be able to work miracles, and even in a realistic campaign, the FBI's technicians are very, very skilled.

International Police Organizations

The policeman's job may seem, on the surface, to be the same all over the world, but practices and procedures are very different from nation to nation. A police officer traveling abroad is as likely as anyone else to be taken by surprise when the rules are different.

United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has a bewildering assortment of police services for its size. England and Wales alone have 44 distinct police forces, primarily county-based. The U.K. and Welsh forces are controlled by the Home Office (the counterpart to the U.S. Department of the Interior). This includes the seven Regional Crime Squads, which use undercover officers to investigate organized crime. The National Criminal Intelligence Service (NCIS) coordinates national forces and is the U.K.'s liaison to Interpol and to the European Drug Unit (Europol). Three forces operate in areas throughout the United Kingdom; the British Transport Police patrols the railway system, the Ministry of Defense polices defense sites, and the UKAEA (United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority) Constabulary protects nuclear materials on site or in transit. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own forces, which operate independently of the others.



Ordinary U.K. police officers have all their powers and privileges anywhere in England or Wales, although they stay in their own jurisdiction unless reassigned. "Special constables" have police powers and privileges only in their own forces' area. Officers can apply for transfer between jurisdictions.

The chief administrator of each of the 42 provincial forces is its Chief Constable. He is aided in his duties by an assistant chief constable and several superintendents. The chief administrator of the Metropolitan Police and the City of London police is called a commissioner. The provincial police are administered by 17-member committees composed of nine politicians, three magistrates and five civilian members chosen from a list prepared by the Home Secretary.

Metropolitan Police (Scotland Yard)

The Metropolitan Police (the "Met"), headquartered at New Scotland Yard, has 26,300 officers, 11,100 civil staff, and 890 traffic wardens. They are responsible for policing the Greater London area and adjoining counties. The Met does not cover the City of London (the downtown financial district), which has its own police force.

The head of the Met is the Metropolitan Police Authority (until July 2000, it was the Home Secretary). This 23-member committee consists of 12 politicians, four magistrates, and seven independent members. The Met also has a Management Board that includes the Commissioner, the Deputy Commissioner, the Receiver, the Assistant Commissioners, the head of the Personnel Department, and the heads of the Departments of Technology and Property Services.

The Met's territory is split into 32 Borough Operational Command Units (OCU), each headed by an OCU commander of superintendent rank. Several other OCUs support the borough units. These include a Crime OCU, an Operations OCU, an Inspection and Review OCU, and Area Support OCUs. There are also several specialist units including SO11 (surveillance unit), SO13 (anti-terrorist squad), and SO19 (tactical firearms unit).

New Met officers train for 18 weeks at Hendon Training College. Applicants must pass an interview, written examination, physical examination, and background check. After training, patrol officers work an eight-hour shift six days a week. Most such officers in Great Britain are not armed with firearms. Specially trained Authorized Firearms Officers (AFOs) are available as backup and for making arrests of suspects known to be armed. Until the creation of the Crown Prosecutor's Office in 1985, police officers themselves prosecuted defendants in court.

Unmarried officers live in one of 23 Section Houses. Married officers can apply for one of 5,000 government-owned flats in London if they don't own their own house. Many young officers continue to live with their parents. In fact, until the late 1940s, single officers had to apply for permission to marry within their first four years of service, and those officers who did not take advantage of the section houses or flats had to have their residences approved.

The U.K. forces live with what many American police would consider excessive restrictions on their activities. To avoid potential conflicts of interest, officers cannot have outside jobs, and their spouses are not permitted jobs in the liquor industry or other regulated businesses. There are rules against excessive debt and the use of liquor, and a midnight curfew is imposed on officers living in the section houses.

A number of U.K. officers are members of the Freemasons. This sometimes causes bursts of controversy and suspicions of favoritism and corruption. One commissioner of the Met even suggested making Freemason membership a disciplinary offense, but decided only to recommend against membership. In response to this slight, the Masons opened a new lodge directly across the street from New Scotland Yard.

The World's Biggest Boy's Club

Even in a modern police force, most cops are male. The first female police officers were prison matrons or counseled prostitutes and juveniles. A few became useful as undercover agents or decoys for undercover operations. For many years, New York had a separate "Women's Precinct" that handled cases involving juveniles, prostitutes, and female factory workers. Male officers didn't think female officers could handle themselves in rough situations, or would use lethal force when needed. During World War I and World War II, women were given regular duties because of wartime labor shortages. They received less pay and were not considered for membership in elite units. Women were expected to dress like ladies, despite the obvious problems of patrolling a beat in a skirt and 3-inch heels, with the pistol out of reach in a purse. In America, civil rights laws finally gave female officers access to jobs and promotions. European forces were initially more hostile to female officers, but many modern forces now hire and promote female officers without overt discrimination. Women officers are still controversial. Male officers worry that women will not back them up in dangerous situations, or that they will report corrupt officers or those having extramarital affairs. Officers' wives fear female officers will seduce their husbands during long hours together in a patrol cruiser. Advocates for women officers contend that they act as a socializing agent and bring a gentler, more humane attitude to social problems. They claim support from studies that show there are only half as many brutality complaints against female officers as against male officers. This gives female officers a difficult standard to live up to. They make up 13% of the police officers in America, but 64% of civilian police employees. Women hold only 6.5% of top command positions and 9.2% of supervisory positions. In other countries, female officers are only 2% to 6% of the total police force. In some places, violent harassment, and even death threats, are still reported. Male officers are generally neutral or supportive of female officers, but the same wall of silence that protects racist and corrupt cops also protects the jerk that makes female officers' careers miserable.

France

France has two national police forces: the National Police, administered by the Interior Ministry, and the Gendarmerie, administered by the Ministry of Defense. Rivalries between the two forces and their ministries provide rough checks and balances of the French police system. Officers of any police force can be either *la police administrative* or *la police judiciaire*. The administrative police are officers charged with crime prevention. The judicial police are charged with investigating crimes after they are committed (see below).

The Police Nationale has jurisdiction over larger towns and cities. The Gendarmerie has jurisdiction over the remainder of France and all overseas territories. There are municipal forces in some cities; there are rural officers who act as game wardens (*garde champêtre*) and also report to the local mayor. All French forces have similar uniforms, training, and selection requirements – even French citizens are easily confused about the distinctions.

Unlike American and U.K. police, French police officers don't all start as uniformed patrol officers. Candidates apply directly to be a patrol officer, investigator, supervisor (equivalent to lieutenant or inspector), detective, or the *commissaire of police* (command rank). Candidates must be French citizens, have fulfilled their national service obligation, and pass a competitive examination, background check, and physical examination appropriate to the position for which they applied. A candidate may attempt the difficult examination up to three times.

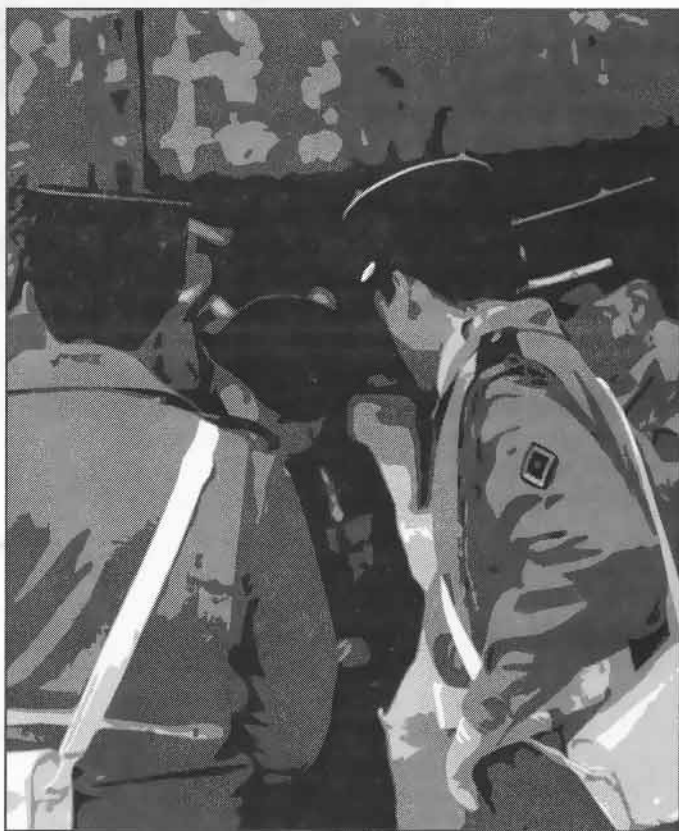
French police powers vary widely. Officers of different branches with the same title may not have the same ability to order a suspect held in custody, or to sign certain documents used by the courts. However, all officers can arrest suspects and submit routine reports to their superiors. The complexities are not critical to having a good adventure.

Trade unions are very important in French society. About 30 unions represent national police officers. Membership is based on rank and on the officer's political leanings. Union representatives always sit on the numerous committees that deal with police policy and discipline.

Police Nationale

The *Police Nationale* is the larger of the two national forces, having 125,000 personnel. It is responsible for policing every urban area with a population over 10,000, including Paris.

The Minister of the Interior appoints a director general to command the *Police Nationale*, which is divided into nine directorates. Public Security has the normal patrol officers and plainclothes inspectors. The Judicial Police are the detectives. The Republican Security Companies contain the riot police, search and rescue, and disaster relief groups. The Inspectorate General handles internal affairs. General Intelligence examines economic, social, and political trends, and infiltrates extremist groups. Territorial Surveillance is in charge of counterespionage and antiterrorism activities. Immigration and Illegal Employment runs both customs and border control. Personnel handles all police employee matters. And finally, Training and Equipment supports the rest.



Gendarmerie Nationale

The Gendarmerie, the older of the two national forces, was created in 1791 when the Marquis de Lafayette united the former archers and constables who patrolled Paris' streets into a National Guard. The 104,000 Gendarmes are responsible for enforcing the law everywhere but in the largest towns and cities; they are also the military police. The Minister of Defense appoints a director general to oversee the force.

The Gendarmerie is divided into 10 regional commands, which are subdivided into *legions*, *groupements*, companies, and brigades. The *Gendarmerie Mobile* is a special public-order unit with armored vehicles, light tanks, and helicopters. They are called out for riots and to provide disaster relief.

The gendarmes recruit many of their officers from the armed forces. France has a compulsory national military service requirement for young men. Some choose to serve their 12- to 16-month term as auxiliary members of the gendarmes.

The Intervention and Security Battalion handles terrorist incidents, prison riots, and hostage situations. The Republican Guard is a ceremonial unit, responsible for the safety of government officials and official guests. A separate security detachment protects the President of the Republic.

Polices Municipales

These are small forces under the command of a mayor. These forces provide patrol services. They do not have general investigative powers. Each mayor has considerable discretion in what the force can do, how it is structured, and how it is equipped. When these officers encounter serious crimes, they are expected to call in the Gendarmerie or the Police Nationale as appropriate.

Japan

Japan has one of the lowest crime rates of any industrialized country. American police researchers have extensively studied their police system. It has an unusual command structure, combining centralized and decentralized systems.

During the Meiji restoration (1868-1912), Japan adopted a police system based on both French and Prussian models. The Home Ministry controlled both prefecture governments and the Police Bureau. A network of police offices was established across Japan. By the end of the Meiji period, there were a total of 15,000 rural posts (*chuzaisho*) and urban posts (*kouban*). The large number of posts allowed the police to integrate well and become part of daily life in most neighborhoods. Prisoners were detained in prisons (*kangoku*) run by the Ministry of Justice or in small substitute prisons adjacent to the police stations themselves. The "Thought Police" (*Tokkou*) of the 1930s and WWII years were a domestic counterintelligence force aimed first at communists and later at radicals of both political wings.

America reorganized the Japanese police during the occupation of Japan (1945-52). The occupation government decentralized the prefecture forces into independent forces along the American model. Soon each of the 47 prefectures had an internal police force. The National Police Agency was established as a central administrative and oversight body. Seven regional police bureaus coordinate actions of the prefecture police. Each prefecture is divided into districts with their own police stations. Daily policing is handled through the *kouban* and the *chuzaisho*, which contain 40% of all Japan's officers. The remaining officers are found in administrative services or special duty squads. Japanese police disciplinary records reveal few incidents of corruption or brutality. They also have more limited powers than American police. Japanese police do not conduct undercover sting operations, rarely use wiretaps, and are required to arrest criminals immediately upon discovering that a crime has been committed.



Candidates may apply to enter the police either as a patrol officer or as an assistant inspector. The background check includes checks on a candidate (and his family's) association with left-wing political groups, extreme religious groups, or outcast classes. Recruits receive excellent training. They are first schooled in theory and application for six months to a year at the National Police Agency (NPA) academy. Then they spend a year working under strict supervision in the field. The recruit then returns to school for more months of training after his initial fieldwork is successfully completed. Female officers are traditionally restricted to traffic enforcement, juvenile law, and communications.

Kouban and Chuzaisho

Urban *kouban* are two-story buildings with barracks for officers upstairs, and an always-open office below. These station houses have as few as 16 to as many as 500 officers. Here the officers report for duty, store their equipment, train with weapons and arrest tactics, interview suspects, and review intelligence information. The *kouban* are divided into sections specializing in traffic, crime prevention, criminal investigations, security, and administration. Rural *chuzaisho* have as few as two officers. They often live with their families in ordinary houses directly behind the small police office. These officers handle all the duties urban officers do, and get the administrative work, besides.

Police officers give directions to lost people on Japan's unnamed streets and oddly-numbered residences; they help drunken business people (*sararimen*) board the last train home; they counsel citizens in disputes and troubles. The police often provide community newspapers and run classes in martial arts and sports for children. They make regular calls on households and businesses to get to know the people who live and work in their neighborhoods.

Tokyo Metropolitan Police Department (MPD)

The MPD is the second-largest police organization in Japan, after the National Police Agency. Legally, the MPD is only a prefecture police force, but in size and composition, it is more similar to the NPA. The MPD has a huge job: Central Tokyo covers 930 square miles (twice the size of Los Angeles) and houses over 12 million citizens (three times the population of Los Angeles).

MPD patrol officers are armed with nightsticks and .38 caliber revolvers. They carry handcuffs and 15' of light rope, which is used to fashion knots, restraining lines, tourniquets, rescue hoists, and additional restraints if necessary. On patrol, officers are inconspicuous and low-key. They do not wear badges or numbers that make an officer individually identifiable.

Training for the MPD lasts 18 months, or 12 months for college graduates. Students are sent into the field for three months after completing two-thirds of their training; then they return to school. Upon promotion, new sergeants spend three months in additional training; new assistant inspectors get two months and new inspectors six months. Junior officers are given monthly homework assignments to refresh their skills.

Barracks housing for single officers, and apartments for married officers, are a common fringe benefit and necessary considering the high cost of renting in Japan and the limited income of police officers.

Detectives conduct investigation of all but the most trivial crimes. *Kouban* patrol officers preserve the scene and gather witnesses. Detectives do their work using the local *kouban* as their base of operation.

The Soviet Model

The Soviet Union model was followed in the Warsaw Pact countries and has since been adopted in Cuba and parts of Africa, the Middle East, and Asia. During the heyday of the Soviet Union, the Ministry of the Interior Academy in Moscow trained many officers from Communist nations.

The Soviet militia, in cooperation with the KGB and the Army, was responsible for both traditional law enforcement and upholding the social and economic order. The Communist Party closely controlled it. The Soviet Union had little of the separation between politics and policing seen in other nations. The collapse of the former Soviet Union left Russia and other nations with the legacy of an authoritarian police force that largely relied on informers, secrecy, and fear to enforce political and economic controls on the populace.

The Ministry of State Security – East Germany

A number of countries in the past and present have established “secret police” forces. The most infamous examples are the Gestapo, the KGB, and the *Stasi*, all creations of 20th-century politics. Secret police are charged primarily with seeking out disloyalty and treason. They work closely with a country’s espionage and counterespionage agencies.

The Ministry of State Security (MfS, or more commonly *Stasi*) was formed in 1950 by the Soviet Union as part of its administration of East Germany after World War II. The *Stasi* was created separate from the People’s Police (*Volkspolizei* or *Vopo*), because the Soviet KGB was separate from the Soviet militia. It included several other units: the German Economic Commission, a body charged with protecting the economy from sabotage and pursuing East Germans attempting to flee into West Germany; the *Hauptverwaltung Aufklärung* (HVA), a unit added in 1959 to conduct foreign espionage; and the Minister’s Action Group 5, a separate, secret SWAT team.



The *Stasi* had about 100,000 officers and noncommissioned personnel on its rolls. It had roughly 500,000 regular informers (*inoffizielle Mitarbeiter* or IM), and a number of especially trusted informers (*inoffizieller Mitarbeiter mit Feinderührung* or IMB) and many more occasional informers. In fact, *Stasi* officers had to meet regular quotas for recruiting informers.

It had its own honor guard of 16,000 officers equipped with armored cars, heavy infantry weapons, and even heavy anti-aircraft weapons. They controlled a population of only 17 million East Germans. By comparison, the Gestapo employed only 40,000 officers to monitor a population of 80 million and the KGB 480,000 agents to oversee the Soviet Union’s population of 280 million.

Stasi officers signed a lifetime pledge of loyalty and secrecy. They and their immediate family were forbidden to visit Western countries and had to report any Western mail or visitors received. Violators were expelled from the service and barred from holding any other meaningful job. Two hundred officers were executed for treason during the *Stasi*’s reign.

The Soviet KGB worked closely with the *Stasi*. It placed a full colonel in each of the *Stasi*’s eight main directorates to act as a liaison officer, and had lower-ranking officers in each of the 15 *Stasi* district headquarters. KGB officers assigned to East Germany had the same authority as at home in the Soviet Union, excepting only the power to arrest East German citizens without assistance. The *Stasi* had offices in both Moscow and Leningrad to maintain surveillance on suspect East Germans who traveled into Russia.

The *Stasi* reached into every aspect of civilian life. One tenant in every apartment building was an official reporter, charged with notifying the *Vopo* of any guest staying in the building overnight. Clerical offices and confessionals were bugged, as were apartments, hotel rooms, and public bathrooms. East German law made the failure to denounce fellow citizens for anti-state offenses a crime punishable by up to five years’ imprisonment.

East German law made the failure to denounce fellow citizens for anti-state offenses a crime punishable by up to five years’ imprisonment.

All foreigners visiting East Germany, including West Germans, were kept under surveillance. When visitors stayed in private homes, their presence had to be registered in a *Hausbuch*, a neighborhood ledger kept by a trusted tenant and inspected daily. All telephone calls from hotels, public facilities, and even service stations along major highways were recorded and monitored. *Stasi* officers were assigned to every post office in East Germany. Mail was routinely opened, and incoming parcels X-rayed. Hard currency sent from relatives in the West was intercepted and confiscated.

Stasi officers called suspected dissidents into their offices and ordered them to hold a specially treated cloth in their armpits (men) or crotches (women) during the interview. The cloths were put in sealed canning jars to preserve the dissident's smell in case bloodhounds were ever needed to track them.

In short, the *Stasi* did its best to make certain that nothing happened in East Germany without its knowledge and consent, and that everyone *knew* that they were being watched.

The *Stasi* were disbanded between December 1988 and January 1989. Within a few months after the Berlin Wall was torn down, East Germans began storming *Stasi* offices in the provinces. The officers barricaded themselves in records rooms and shredded incriminating documents. Captured officers were beaten, but amazingly, none were killed.

The *Stasi* was quickly renamed the *Amt für Nationale Sicherheit* (AfNS or Office for National Security), and all its high-ranking bureaucrats were fired. It was a futile attempt at self-preservation. Only eight days later, the East German government officially dissolved the branch. The notorious *Hörschönhausen* prison in the northeastern suburbs of Berlin remains as a memorial to those unjustly imprisoned by the *Stasi*.

Interpol

Interpol is not an intergovernmental police force. It is not a working police force at all, having no agents. Its employees do not have arrest or search and seizure powers. Yet, its activities provide a most effective way to reduce international crime.

It is a private organization headquartered in France, whose sole purpose is to combat international crime by facilitating, coordinating, and encouraging police cooperation among its 178 member countries. It is a place where senior police officers from many countries meet to discuss common problems and explore possible solutions. Member agencies transmit fugitive descriptions and other information to each other over an encrypted telecommunications network. This allows law enforcement officials to ask investigators in a specific country or region for assistance, or to broadcast information to the entire membership.

American contact with Interpol is currently handled through the United States National Central Bureau (USNCB). At various times, contact with Interpol has been done through the FBI, the Treasury Department, or the Justice Department, due to constant bureaucratic infighting between those agencies. At present, there is a network of Interpol state liaison offices in each U.S. state and territory, as well as New York City and the District of Columbia. There are also Interpol liaisons inside all major U.S. federal law enforcement agencies.

The Thin Blue Line

Cops stick together. They feel the public misunderstands and distrusts them. It's not hard to understand why. Police have little contact with the ordinary citizen. As one officer said, "We deal daily with the scum of humanity." A patrol officer's irregular and unpredictable shift schedule makes it hard for him to keep in regular contact with friends and family. Even supervisors with nominal nine-to-five workdays are on-call for emergencies and subject to overtime. It is impossible for officers to have a normal social life.

Academies and training officers sometimes inculcate new officers with the view that it is the cops against an unfriendly world. An officer's friends are soon all cops. His relatives may be cops. His gossip becomes cop gossip about death, dysfunction, and crime, things he is likely to be unable to share with others. Cops hang out in cop bars, where outsiders are unwelcome; they go to cop parties, cop weddings, and cop funerals.

Isolation like this sometimes creates intense loyalty among officers and a lack of concern for the outside world. This can result in officers hiding corrupt or illegal behaviors of department members, or active sabotage of investigations by Internal Affairs and outside agencies. This phenomenon is called the "Blue Wall" or "The Thin Blue Line." The police seem to stand between the truth and investigators in the same way they would stand between demonstrators and the target of their hate.

It is easy for a policeman to extend mistaken loyalty to a corrupt colleague. Police officers rely on each other for their lives. They learn that nobody but another cop can understand their situation. They don't always realize when a fellow officer has gone over the line between getting the job done and breaking the law.

Police officers, like other professionals, resent outsiders meddling in their affairs. Officers would rather deal with even the most serious internal problems on an informal basis. Cops are trained to take control of a situation and solve problems on their own; getting management or an outside agency involved means giving up control, and unpleasant scrutiny for all involved.



Creating the Department

Although the department is a vital part of the game background, it is a waste of time to draw up a detailed organizational chart with names and biographies for every senior officer. Some GMs enjoy this sort of background work; others prefer to decide on names and details of policy only when it matters to the game. The basic chain of command should be clear — who outranks whom, who reports to whom, and who is chewed out by whom. GMs *should* decide, early on, how much political power and discretion the chief/commissioner has and how likely the department is to bow to political or media pressure.

PCs should not be expected to memorize a list of their superiors, or know all their department policies, before the first game session! Instead, the GM should be generous with cautions if they announce actions against department policy, when their characters would know better. Don't make the officers learn the hard way; they've been through a training course, even if the players have not!

However, once a fact about the department has been established, reminder notes can help the department policies stay consistent with the PC officers' experience and expectations.



Hours

Police departments provide services 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Police are assigned widely varying hours. A simple patrol or detective pattern would be three shifts per day: 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., 4 p.m. to 12 a.m., and 12 a.m. to 8 a.m. Shifts are often divided so that half of the shift comes on duty on the hour, and the rest a half-hour later; thus, there are always officers on the street.

A uniformed officer works one shift one week, the late shift the next week, and the night shift the third week. He works six days on and two days off, if he's lucky. A department may have an even more complicated pattern that takes into account when most crimes occur and varies the number of officers accordingly. Detectives work in shifts, but their schedule is more flexible to allow them to follow up leads. Supervisors and staff mostly work during the day; only a few are assigned to the night hours.

An officer's hours govern what sorts of crime he sees. They affect whether he has to work overtime to go to court, meet with a witness or informant off the clock, or talk with an evidence technician on his way to lunch. The GM controls when things happen. He can start an adventure at the close of a late-night shift if he wants officers to be tired or impatient. If a cop has dependents, forcing him to work overtime and miss family events is both realistic and a good way to enforce the disadvantage.

Patrol

The vast majority of police officers work in patrol, roaming the streets on foot, in a car, or on bicycles, horses, and motorcycles. *Adam-12*, *CHiPS*, and *Hill Street Blues* are examples of patrol-based TV series. *Robocop* was a patrol-based movie.

Patrol officers perform a wide variety of services to the public. They help people locked out of their homes. They check for unlocked entrances by rattling the doors and windows after hours in business districts. Of course, they respond to burglar alarms and 911 calls for everything from bar fights to domestic disputes. They also issue vehicle speeding and parking tickets, and respond to traffic accidents.

Patrol officers usually work alone; they meet only at roll call, in the locker room, or in the bar off duty. The two-person car of *Adam-12* is uncommon in the United States. This makes planning adventures for a patrol campaign more difficult. Realistically, most of the players sit idly by while the GM deals with the active ones individually or in pairs.

The Beat

Police need to know about their beat. A patrol officer is assigned to a neighborhood, and will be called to assist officers in nearby neighborhoods. (If the campaign is in a modern city, consider marking a street map into patrol sectors for the players.) On the other hand, a detective may respond to events in several neighborhoods, or to his specific kind of call anywhere in the city.

The neighborhood determines the sorts of crimes that are committed there and the kinds of informants and civilians to be found. If an officer leaves his beat without permission (e.g., to meet an important informant or witness), he will have to explain why he was delayed or didn't respond when something happens on his beat. If he meddles in someone else's beat, he will have to deal with department politics.

Police in different eras have different methods for keeping in touch with the station or other officers. In historical settings, an officer may be limited to a whistle or a telephone call

box. Modern officers have reliable radios, cell phones, beepers, and wireless data terminals. Know how quickly backup may respond when called. *Robocop* builds tension by having the dispatcher give ever-more-pessimistic estimates of when backup might arrive.

Detectives

This makes detectives the default protagonists for most police movies and series, for good reason. A detective is an experienced officer who specializes in investigating crimes. His job is to support patrol officers by conducting investigations in complex cases where the criminal was not arrested at the scene. *Alien Nation*, *Dragnet*, *Due South*, *Homicide*, and *NYPD Blue* are all examples of detective-based series.

Detectives investigate homicide, major robberies, organized crime, and other big cases. A homicide detective in a large city may investigate between six and 30 homicides a year as a primary investigator and another six to 30 as the secondary detective. There is continuity to their investigations; there are genuine mysteries to solve. Detectives work together in pairs or squads, which gives Hollywood screenwriters the opportunity to write mismatched-partner stories.

A detective campaign has cops working in pairs on all but the largest cases. One idea would be to rotate which pair of detectives has the most involved case for an adventure; other pairs investigate routine cases. The other players could portray witnesses, suspects, and victims in the main case, based on cue cards supplied by the GM. Another option is to make the detectives members of a specialized unit like Vice, Narcotics, or Organized Crime, which concentrates on large investigations. This would allow the entire group to work cooperatively on large stakeouts, sting operations, or undercover work.

Intelligence Operations and Detective Work

Detectives aren't spies, and a *Cops* campaign is not an *Espionage* campaign. Spies don't need warrants, and don't have to disclose their identities in court.

Some detectives borrow equipment and personnel from American intelligence agencies as part of crucial operations against organized crime, but information gained from a classified source cannot be used as evidence in court, or even to obtain a search warrant. Real investigative work must backtrack these leads to a legal starting point.

Whether an undercover agent makes a narcotics purchase or infiltrates a Mafia family and witnesses crimes, if his evidence is used in court, he will have to testify using his real name and unmasked face. Similarly, if an informant's testimony is critical to a case, he must appear and testify in open court. The only concession to a witness' safety is that his and his family's location may be kept secret. After testifying, important witnesses may be given a new identity and placed in a state or federal witness protection program.

Informants

Cops need informants; no one knows as much about a criminal as his friends, associates, and family members. Thus, informants themselves are usually criminals, and they are, by definition, betraying people who trust them.

Informants help cops because it is profitable; being an informant may help them avoid prison. Their police contacts may help them get reduced sentences, parole, or probation for friends and relatives. They can get revenge on rivals. They are paid cash by police departments and by insurance companies if they help recover stolen goods. (An insurance company may give a reward of 5% of insured value in return for recovering valuable property.)

Developing a new informant takes hard work and skill. The officer picks a target and starts working on him. He first asks for information about old cases or old associates – to learn the organization of a certain gang or find out why a closed case happened. He gains the informant's confidence and starts asking for more important and current information. He checks everything he is told, to make sure the informant is trustworthy. When the informant provides valuable, verified information, he is rewarded with cash, minor favors, or protection from prosecution for minor crimes. Use the standard reaction roll rules (p. B204-205). Charisma, expert Streetwise, and expert Diplomacy give their usual bonus to this roll. Apply the officer's personal reputation (if known to the potential informant), and the officer's department reputation. Apply a base -6 reaction roll on an initial encounter – (-3 because the information is none of the cop's business and -3 because being an informant is dangerous).

As the relationship progresses, the GM modifies the informer's reaction appropriately. The cop must protect his informants from being accidentally revealed and constantly verify his informer's tips. This means keeping an informant's name and information strictly confidential, even from members of his own unit. It means watching out for police (and criminal) surveillance, and picking meeting places where the cop and informant can talk without being recognized or being conspicuous.

Informants are used to obtain background information, tips, warnings, and street prices of drugs. They find out about gang organizations, membership, and nicknames (monikers). They sketch floor plans of crack houses and other targets for search warrants, find the locations of fugitives, and provide introductions for undercover agents. There are many, many uses for a good informant. Informers usually have long criminal histories and close ties to suspect groups – that's what makes them so valuable. On the other hand, they usually become involved in ongoing crimes and schemes, often with the contact officer's express knowledge and implicit approval. This gives the informant some advantage over the officer, and may eventually give the informant the feeling he has a "license to steal."

Officers look the other way at illegal gambling, prostitution, or loan-sharking, but will rarely protect an informer who commits a violent crime or gets involved in illegal activities without reporting them. Especially if the crime was serious, the cop may insist the prosecutor treat the wayward informer like a corrupt officer. He has abused the cop's trust and the relationship with the officer's agency.

Federal Guidelines

There are specific, detailed guidelines for federal agents (revised in January, 2001) which deal with registering, maintaining, and using an informant. State and local forces may have written guidelines, unwritten policies, or just leave a cop to his own instincts. Federal agents who want to use federal prisoners, parolees, probationers, or current/past participants in the Witness Protection Program as registered informants must get specific permission from the Justice Department. If using the informant would require him to violate the terms of his parole or probation, the agent must obtain written authorization from the informant's parole or probation officer. Federal agents are not allowed to have contacts with fugitives (those with pending arrest warrants) without specific permission to do so, and they must immediately notify the state or federal agency that issued the warrant.

Federal agents who obtain confidential informants must read them, verbatim, the following instructions:

You must provide truthful information to the [DEA, FBI, INS, U.S. Marshals, or DOJ Inspector General's Office] at all times.

Your assistance and the statements you make to the [agency] are entirely voluntary.

The United States Government will strive to protect your identity, but cannot promise or guarantee either that your identity will not be divulged as a result of legal or other compelling considerations, or that you will not be called to testify in a proceeding as a witness.

The [agency] on its own cannot promise or agree to any consideration by a Federal Prosecutor's Office or a Court in exchange for your cooperation, since the decision to confer any such benefit lies within the exclusive discretion of the Federal Prosecutor's Office and the Court. However, the [agency] will consider (but not necessarily act upon) a request by you to advise the appropriate Federal Prosecutor's Office or Court of the nature and extent of your assistance to the [agency].

You have no immunity or protection from investigation, arrest or prosecution for anything you say or do, and the [agency] cannot promise or agree to such immunity or protection, unless and until you have been granted such immunity or protection in writing by a United States Attorney or his or her designee.

You have not been authorized to engage in any criminal activity and could be prosecuted for any unauthorized criminal activity in which you have engaged or engage in the future.

The recruiting agent must tell the potential informant that he must abide by the agency's instructions and cannot take actions independently on behalf of the U.S. government. The informant is not considered an employee of the U.S. government and may not claim to be one. The informant cannot make contracts or deals unless specifically authorized by the agency to do so. The agency cannot guarantee any payments or rewards; any payments that are made are subject to taxes. Only the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) can make commitments or promises regarding anyone's alien status, or their right to enter or remain in the U.S.

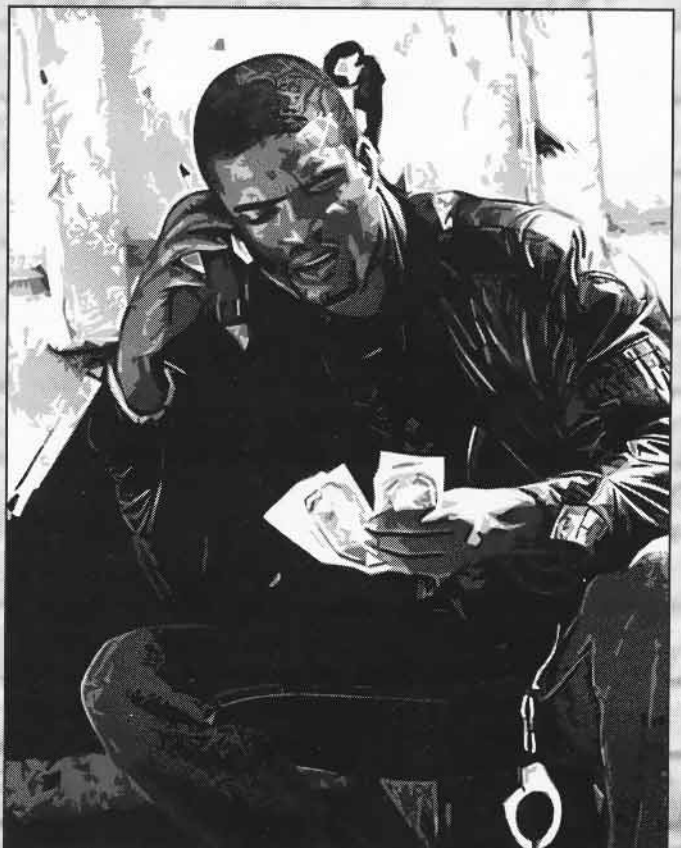
The agent then asks the informant to sign a form showing he understands and accepts these rules, or files a memo swearing that he read the rules to the informant verbatim, and that the informant agreed he understood and accepted the rules. This procedure must be repeated every 12 months.

Federal agents are allowed to ignore some illegal activity on the part of their informants. This can be done only if the witnessed activity does not involve:

- The commission of a violent crime.
- The corruption of a public official.
- The manufacture, import, possession, or sales of narcotics.
- Significant financial loss to others.
- Supplying narcotics to others.
- Supplying the means for crimes that are not otherwise obtainable.
- The instigation of any federal, state, or local crime.

Federal informants cannot engage in the obstruction of justice or gather information for the agent using means the agent cannot (e.g., wiretaps, breaking and entering).

Federal guidelines require an annual review of each informant's performance each year, and an in-depth review of informants who remain active for over six years. Federal agents cannot give informants gifts, do side business with informants, or meet with them socially except as necessary to their job. Federal informants have to sign a receipt for any payment, and all payments are made in the presence of two agents.



Federal Agents

A federal agent campaign is similar to a detective campaign. Most federal agents do not patrol; they investigate crimes within their jurisdiction based on information from other agencies, their own investigations, or citizen tips. Like detectives, federal agents work in pairs or squads, which is useful for roleplaying. However, federal agents are better paid, trained, and equipped than the average city detective.

Federal agencies are bureaucratic and more statistic-driven than state and local forces. They get all the press attention, and their bureaucrats do not like to be embarrassed. Agents Scully and Mulder of *The X-Files* fame would not last long in the real FBI.

Federal agents are more common protagonists in movies than TV series. *The FBI* and *The Untouchables* are two of the few series examples. *The Silence of the Lambs* centers around an FBI investigation; the novel gives much more information than the film.

Specialized Squads

Another style of campaign could be built around a specialized squad, like a SWAT team or bomb squad. *SWAT* was a TV series in the mid-1970s.

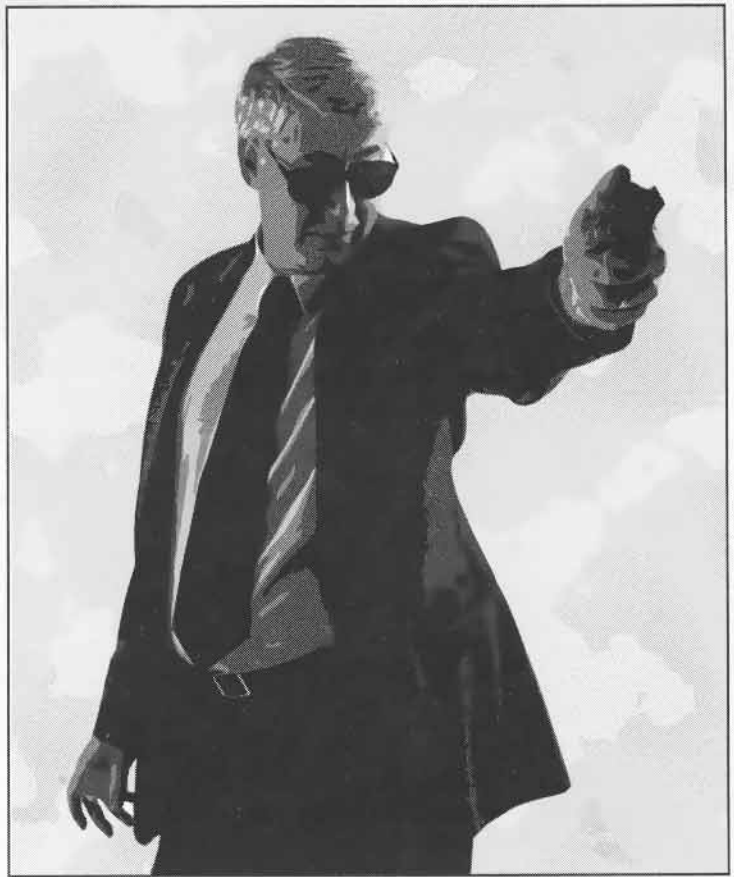
Special Weapons and Tactics (SWAT) teams were formed in late 1960s America in response to a number of hostage and sniper incidents in which patrol officers had neither the equipment nor training to safely contain the situation and arrest the suspect. SWAT teams respond to hostage situations, hijackings, cases where a person has barricaded himself into his house or office, and sniper attacks on civilians.

A SWAT team has 20 to 30 officers organized into two-person sniper units and five-to-seven person "entry teams." (An entry team is a reasonable size for a roleplaying group.) Since even the most dangerous cities call out their SWAT teams only on rare occasions, teams spend much of their time executing high-risk search and arrest warrants on heavily-armed narcotics dealers and gangs. Here, the team's goal is to execute the warrant without gunfire.

A bomb squad has two to 10 team members trained by the FBI and ATF in investigating bomb threats and safely disabling suspected bombs. Bomb squads work in pairs: one person in heavy armor to approach and investigate the bomb and one person at a safe distance to advise the armored officer and double-check his work. Working with a bomb is stressful and tiring; having a second officer to talk with (and think with) makes mistakes less likely. And mistakes can be lethal.

Bomb squads search areas where visiting dignitaries are to meet. If a bomb explodes somewhere, bomb squads are sent to gather evidence from the debris, in order to track down the maker of the device. A bomb squad may be responsible for investigating volatile (fire-starting or explosive) evidence and illegal fireworks sales. Since bombings are rare, they may also be assigned to monitor firearms sales and keep an eye on local gunsmiths and firing ranges.

The advantage to this sort of campaign is that the officers are expected to work together as a team. The disadvantage is



that SWAT teams and bomb squads must meticulously plan operations before executing them. They must follow the plan to the letter to avoid injuring bystanders and other officers. Team members should not be prone to impulsive actions.

For many cities, a full-time SWAT team or bomb squad would be a luxury. Instead, the team members work full-time at other duties and are called together only when the appropriate situation arises. They train together periodically and cross-train with other teams to maintain their skills. A campaign could mix a SWAT and Detective campaign or SWAT and Patrol campaign, alternating investigation adventures with action adventures.

Internal Affairs

Internal Affairs investigates police officers for corruption. Its officers are despised and feared by the rest of the department – even those who aren't guilty of a thing. The work ranges from numerous and tedious investigations of public complaints to a few risky undercover sting operations against entire squads "on the take." Internal Affairs officers pressure corrupt officers into testifying against their squad mates, or into wearing a wire to catch them in the act. In fiction, an officer is usually revealed to be an Internal Affairs undercover agent in a surprise twist, as in *The Corruptor*.

Since an Internal Affairs investigation can be triggered by anything from a public complaint to an officer's official report, an Internal Affairs adventure could touch on any facet of a department's activities. Even an item as small as a detective's unpaid traffic tickets can catch the attention of the muckraking press and result in an investigation.

Internal Affairs officers may find themselves battling to save an officer's career from press frenzy, or be forced to disclose that a beloved senior officer nearing retirement was taking bribes from organized crime. The battles between a corrupt but popular officer, his union, the press agents, and Internal Affairs officers can form the basis of many adventures.

The Station House

The station house, or federal agent's office, is the officers' home away from home. They may spend more time here than in their own homes. The GM should think about its design and atmosphere as a set designer would: try to project a mood that matches the campaign theme. In a small town, the police station is a few rooms in the basement of the town hall. In a large city, it can be a gleaming multistory glass-and-metal building. Offices might be quaintly crumbling, dangerously dilapidated, or pleasantly modern in construction.

A modern police station is always distinctively marked and usually physically separated from other buildings. It has a public entrance leading to a desk where a desk sergeant or dispatcher talks to the public. There is a separate entrance for police officers; it is protected by access cards, video cameras, intercoms, or remotely operated locks. Windows are small and bulletproof.

The station house is the adventure's center. During the course of an adventure, officers go out from the station house to get information, back to file reports and pick up contact information, and then back into the field to interview witnesses and suspects. The station house is where people meet to share information. Here, patrolmen can chat with the sergeant, overhear rumors from coworkers, and get hints from superiors or colleagues when they may have hit a dead end.

The station house has garage space for vehicles, offices for higher-ranking officers and the administrative staff, a communications area (radio room), property and evidence storage, booking and processing areas, holding cells, interrogation rooms, cop lockers and showers.

Officers feel safe in the station house, and they usually are. An attack on a station house would be shocking to the police – like having the door of their own home kicked down by thugs. The scene in *The Terminator* where the robot demolishes the police station would have been followed by an unparalleled manhunt. In the 1960s, black radicals did toss pipe bombs at several police stations. Books from the time show officers feeling very much under siege and uncertain; their sense of security has been violated.

The Booking Area

Suspects are processed in a booking area. There is a chair or bench for suspects and a long counter separating suspects from officers. Suspects are photographed or fingerprinted at the counter. A Breathalyzer, used to test drivers for intoxication, is often placed at the counter. Many departments have a video camera in the booking area to record a suspect's demeanor during processing. Interview rooms and an area for displaying lineups are adjacent to the booking area.

Routine booking questions are not considered interrogation; an officer does not need to give *Miranda* warnings. These questions include name, date of birth, address, telephone number, height, weight, and gender (if not obvious).

During booking, a suspect's belongings are removed, listed on an inventory sheet, and placed in an envelope for storage. Police remove a suspect's shoelaces, belt, and tie if they think he is a risk to suicide.

Police are not armed in the booking area. Officers check their firearms in a safe mounted on the wall outside the booking area or leave them with another officer before entering. This prevents suspects from overpowering an officer and obtaining a loaded firearm.

A booking area reinforces or foreshadows the general atmosphere. Is it busy or quiet, chaotic or organized? An informant calls out to an officer for help while being booked. An officer may see a suspect in one of his cases being booked on unrelated minor charges. Arresting officers come through with their prisoners. Civilians show up to ask about family members who were recently arrested. Fights break out when a suspect suddenly decides to resist arrest. An officer may twist an arm "accidentally" a little too hard, in an effort to give a scumbag a little street justice.

It can also be a place for comedy – a group of prostitutes flirts with passing officers in the aftermath of a Vice raid, or a group of three demonstrators chants slogans to each other in the booking area, long after their protest rally was broken up.



The Lockup

Every police station has one or more holding cells for prisoners. A lockup area may have private or semi-private rooms where suspects can talk with an attorney. In the United States, a suspect can only be held for 24 hours before he is offered bail or brought before a court officer. (In some countries, he can wait weeks.) If the suspect is not released on a promise to appear or cannot make his bail, he is transported to a jail or prison to await trial.

Lockups are rows of individual cells or large group cells. Each cell contains bunks, a steel sink and a steel toilet, all fixed firmly to the wall or floor. Officers check on suspects regularly to make certain they are not injured, ill, or attempting to commit suicide. As with the booking area, officers check their firearms before entering. In large cities, prisoners are transported from the station house cells to a central lockup as soon as possible for booking and processing.

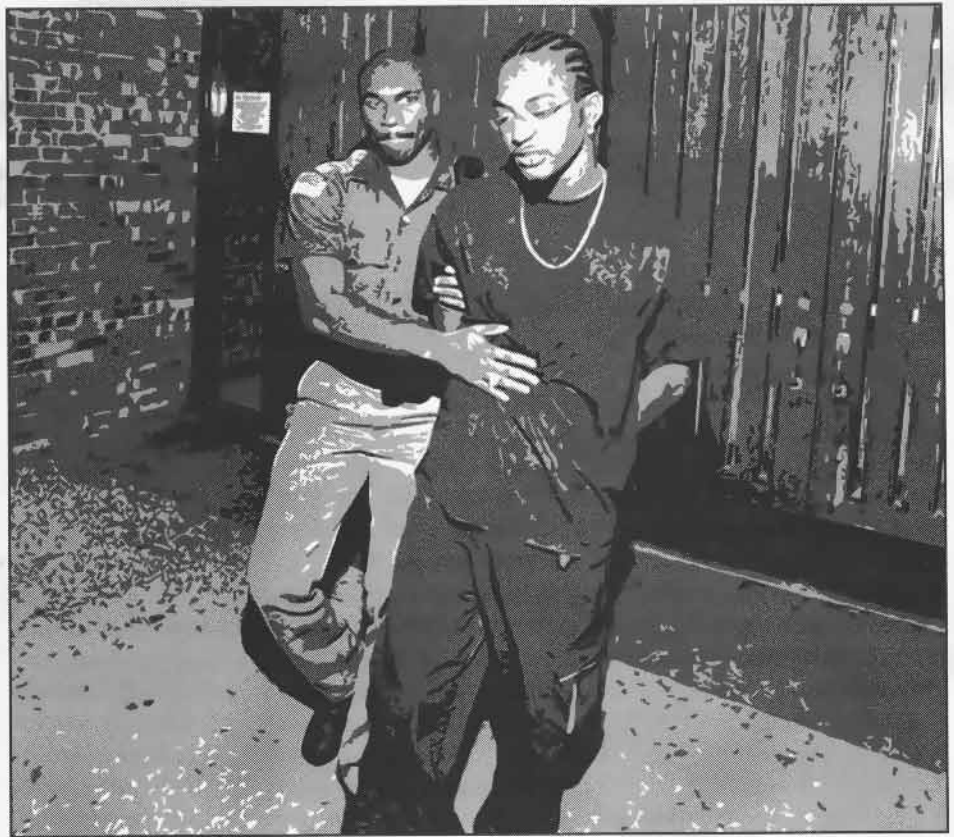
Like the booking area, the lockup can be used to fore-shadow or set the atmosphere. An officer may pressure a suspect by locking him in a cell with a dangerous prisoner, a member of a rival gang, or the jailhouse snitch. A rookie or detective might disguise himself as a prisoner in the lockup to see if he can overhear incriminating statements.

The Property Room

Every police station has a property room where important evidence and the prisoners' belongings are stored. Large departments have a central storage building; small ones have a room or locker for temporary storage. Everything that goes into or out of a property room is marked, logged, and sealed in a tamper-proof container. The property room clerks are responsible for making certain that nothing gets lost, stolen, or tampered with.

The property room of a large urban department resembles a cross between a flea market and the attic of a kleptomaniac. Shelves, boxes, lockers, and bags hold everything from firearms and narcotics, to recovered stolen goods, to victims' clothing. Next to the gold storage depot at Fort Knox, the NYPD Property Clerk's office likely contains more wealth per square foot than any other building in America.

The property room is the place police may go to examine evidence from investigative cases. The clerks insist on proper paperwork and refuse to comply with informal requests. Evidence can be lost, stolen, or tampered with. Cinematic heroes may break into the property room to check evidence held from a politically sensitive case. Prop clerks can provide useful information in a roundabout way – for instance, clerk might mention that the detective's evidence bag resembles something from "the old Night Owl shooting."



The Crime Lab

Like the property room, the crime lab is a place to go to get information. Police officers do not perform their own forensic tests. A department may have its own crime laboratory, or it may rely on a statewide laboratory. Testing is done by trained civilian experts.

Crime laboratories handle autopsies, toxicology, narcotics analysis, latent fingerprint identification, trace evidence (fibers, paint chips, soil samples, gunshot residue), questioned document analysis, firearm and tool mark identification, serology (blood analysis), DNA analysis and many other specialties.

The crime lab has a variety of equipment: simple microscopes, ultraviolet spectrometers, gas and gas-liquid chromatographs, Fourier transform infrared spectrophotometers, mass spectrometers, and DNA processing equipment. It may have its own darkroom for developing crime scene photos, and even a firing range for testing suspect firearms.

A lab handles evidence with great care to avoid contamination. It has written protocols and standards for testing evidence and confirming results, standards for writing reports and keeping test results. To avoid subconscious bias in interpreting results, technicians do not learn much about the case for which they are examining evidence.

The lab must meet federal and state safety rules for the hazardous materials it stores, tests, and disposes of. It should also have vent systems to prevent one piece of evidence from accidentally contaminating another! Before the mid-1990s, many labs – including the FBI laboratory – were lax about these safeguards, creating a risk of false results incriminating innocent suspects.

Police Unions

Police unions were created to help officers bargain for better wages, hours, and regulations. Like other unions, they negotiate contracts, represent member in disputes with "management," lobby the legislature, and endorse political candidates. Some unions offer insurance, credit unions, retirement planning, and confidential counseling. Some offer equipment discounts, training, and college scholarships. Others even own and operate campgrounds for members, although most of those camps have been privatized.

A union may represent all state law enforcement officers, or only be open to patrol officers and sergeants, or to detectives, or to corrections officers. Often, senior officers can only be honorary members of unions, to prevent the union from being dominated by "management."

Police unions have a great deal of power. Most politicians like to appear pro-law-and-order. They are inclined to listen to police lobbyists and seek union endorsements. Business and community leaders also like to appear pro-law-enforcement and are favorably inclined to police lobbyists and fundraisers. The active opposition of a police union is never helpful to a political campaign, particularly state and local campaigns.

Police unions can be powerful forces within the department, and can enter a campaign when an officer is in trouble. Union representatives have the right under an officer's contracts to advise an officer if he is the target of an internal or criminal investigation. The union often advises officers faced with community complaints and may recommend lawyers for officers facing civil or criminal charges. It may have an unofficial voice in promotions, staffing, hours, and benefits.

Unions are not the only political voices for police. There are national, state, and local associations for officers of nearly every ethnicity or race, such as the Emerald Society (Irish), the Pulaski Police Association (Polish), the National Black Police Association, and the Hispanic Police Officers Association. There are associations for female officers (International Association of Women Police) and for homosexual officers (Gay Officers Action League). These associations also offer training and may support political candidates or legislation.

French police are highly unionized; see p. 30.

U.K. police officers are not permitted to join trade unions, or to go on strike. However, they do have staff associations that perform a similar (albeit more limited) function:

- The Police Federation of England & Wales
- The Scottish Police Federation
- The Police Federation of Northern Ireland
- The Police Superintendents' Association of England & Wales
- The Association of Scottish Police Superintendents
- The Superintendents' Association of Northern Ireland
- The Association of Chief Police Officers of England, Wales & Northern Ireland
- The Association of Chief Police Officers in Scotland



Cop Bars

Almost every large town or small city will have a "cop bar" – a hangout that the local police have claimed as their own. In a big city, there will be several, each with its own clientele . . . maybe officers from the local precincts, or maybe there's one particular bar where the detectives and SWAT officers hang out, while regular patrol officers go elsewhere.

Officers generally stop in on their way home, dressed in civilian clothes. This is their haven, a place to relax with other cops. They come here to talk about their best, worst, and weirdest calls; to blow off steam about supervisors, dispatchers, civilians, and lawyers; to get advice; to relax and have a few drinks; to play pool; and, in general, to unwind after a stressful day. Cops who are retired or on disability are likely to hang out here as well, to keep in touch with their "community."

A cop bar is usually run by a retired cop. It looks like any other drinking spot – perhaps a bit *less* inviting. It's not trying to attract outside clientele; in fact, "civilians" are unwelcome. They may be ignored, or the room may fall silent when strangers enter. A cop who brings his wife, girlfriend, or contacts to the bar will be taken aside by someone who will explain the faux pas. (Law enforcement officers from elsewhere will be welcomed if they are brought by a local friend, and the bar may be temporarily open to family and friends of officers on the occasion of retirement and birthday parties, bachelor parties, wakes, or other events.)

On-shift cops won't be seen here – drinking on duty is a *bad* idea – unless, of course, they are dropping by for a business or semi-business talk with an off-shift officer. The cop bar is a good place for officers to meet if they are on different shifts or different assignments. PCs and NPCs may reveal otherwise-hidden bits of their histories or personalities after having a bit to drink. It is another place where the GM can impart extra information about the adventure, and build atmosphere through gossip, rumors, and "chance" encounters.

If evidence requires specialized tests the lab cannot perform, the evidence can be sent to another local laboratory, to the FBI laboratory, or to outside testing agencies. There are several regional and national databases for DNA, ballistic and fingerprint evidence where recovered evidence can be compared with data from many crime scenes.

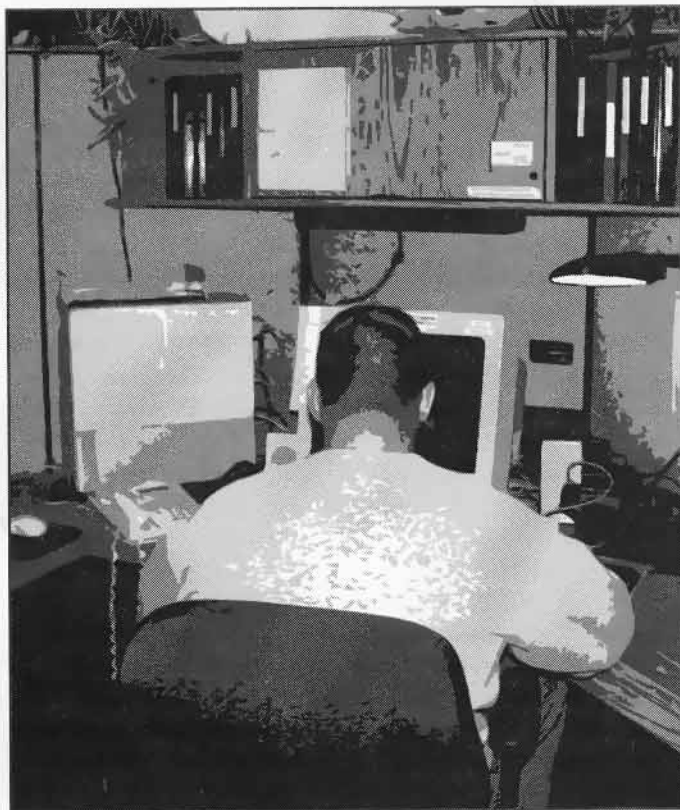
The evidence technicians tell investigators about things found at the crime scene. They can also give hints about seemingly unrelated cases and suspects.

Squad Rooms/ Muster Rooms

Patrol officers gather in the muster room at the start of each shift for roll call and to be given their daily orders by the sergeant in charge. Assignments are called off for each beat and patrol car. Important information about wanted suspects is announced. A brief lecture might be given on a training topic, a change in department policy, overtime opportunities, or new legal decisions. Roll call lasts between 15 and 45 minutes. (The scene that opened each episode of *Hill Street Blues* was typical, though roll call procedures vary widely.)

Plainclothes units have squad rooms. This is an open room crowded with desks for each officer. The lieutenant has an enclosed office with large windows overlooking the squad room. Officers meet in the squad room at the start of their shifts and return to it periodically to file paperwork, take statements, and question suspects.

The Muster Room and Squad Room are a good place for cops to meet if they are on different shifts or different assignments. It is another place where the GM can impart extra information about the adventure, and build atmosphere through rumors and chance encounters.



Other Locations

Other common meeting locations for a *Cops* campaign might include the all-night coffee shop, the favorite cop bar, the emergency room, the local homeless shelter, the psychiatric ward, halfway houses and any other places the cops routinely hang out or meet with suspects. These locations can create campaign flavor, provide tension-breaking comedy or foreboding mood scenes, or be used as settings for cop contacts: the maternal waitress, the bleeding-heart social worker, or the addict who never stays clean.

What's the Story? – Creating Adventures

To create a *Cops* adventure, you need a crime. It has to be interesting enough to keep the players' attention through the adventure. It has to be important, at least to the cops. It should be personal, urgent, and hard to solve. The solution to the problem has to be logical and follow from the decisions the players make, not by a *deus ex machina* SWAT raid.

The big difference between a real-life investigation and a *Cops* adventure – even a realistic one – is that the real thing is not suspenseful. Everyday police procedure is boring; it deals with everyday crimes. A drug user shot near an open-air drug market would barely rate a line in the local paper. It is a hard crime to solve because any witnesses are afraid to talk to police. Even if witnesses are persuaded to talk, they often have long criminal records that make it difficult for a jury to believe them. A roleplaying adventure needs something added to give the air of suspense: perhaps the victim was famous, had something important in his car, or simply was not a drug user and had no obvious reason for being in the area where he was killed.

Traditional detective stories and movies use a puzzle-piece plot. A crime occurs. Various pieces of the puzzle are lying around. Our hero (usually only one, perhaps with a sidekick) collects the pieces, discards the red herrings, and arranges the pieces into a brilliant deduction in the traditional drawing-room exposition in front of all the suspects. It doesn't really matter in what order the hero finds the pieces. Some lead to other pieces; others are stand-alone clues. This is a hard adventure both to plot and to run, because the investigators must get enough of the clues to solve the crime, but not enough to solve the crime too quickly and easily.

A realistic cop movie follows a different plot – the ball of twine. Our heroes arrive at the scene of a crime. The crime scene clues are one end of a thread of plot; they follow it through various locations until they finally confront the villain. The villain may commit other crimes to cover his tracks. He may be a serial criminal and commit crimes of increasing seriousness until caught. This is an easy adventure to run, but difficult to plan; the thread needs to be logical and compelling without giving the players the feeling they are being railroaded.

The Hollywood action movie differs in that its focus is not the process of following the thread, but the mental and physical challenge between hero and villain. It starts with a crime that is later revealed to be a small part of a much larger scheme. Our heroes meet the villain quickly (or at least a colorful major henchman). Unbelieving superiors, venal politicians, curious media, and claim-jumping rival agencies interfere with the investigation. Our heroes realize that the villains are up to something big and race to stop it. They reach the final confrontation in time to thwart the grand scheme, or perhaps just too late, but with the clues to catch the villain before he escapes.

Pacing the Game

Cops campaigns can be very “talky.” Investigators arrive at the scene of a crime. The introduction, or flavor text, is read aloud and the cops are given a sketch of the scene. The investigators talk with witnesses and victims. They talk with forensics experts. They go to autopsies. They spend time talking with each other about what they found.

This can lead to a slow, boring adventure. Inserting action – chasing a fleeing witness, breaking down a door to arrest a suspect, helping another officer with a struggling suspect at booking – breaks up the talking scenes and gives the cops something more exciting to do.

Real detectives spend a great deal of time doing paperwork and supervising evidence-taking. They stay at the crime scene from the beginning until it is fully processed; they go to the autopsy; they interview minor witnesses; they fill out piles of paperwork. (Even in a realistic game, the GM should let these duties pass to other behind-the-scenes detectives while players follow up on the exciting leads.) Routine forms and paperwork – forensics reports, autopsy reports, witness statements, incident reports – can be used as reminders of important clues if an adventure extends over several sessions.

It takes time for information to come to an officer from a forensics lab or medical examiner. In movies and television shows, test results are instantaneous and error-free. In reality, the case is merely one of many demanding an expert’s attention. An autopsy occurs a day or two after the homicide and takes hours to yield conclusive results. Analyzing fingerprints can take hours. DNA tests take days to weeks. In a campaign setting, cops can have multiple cases to keep them busy while waiting for results. In a cinematic adventure, speed up the lab reports as necessary to keep the plot moving.

Playing Fair with the Fantastic

If magic, ultra-tech, psionics, or the occult are added to a *Cops* campaign, it gets harder to create believable mysteries. Detective stories are puzzles; the players have to be given enough information to figure out the answer.

How can the detective figure out a mystery when the rules are strange – if a voodoo curse, or an X-ray laser, or a spell could have killed the victim? What about time travel, invisible killers, mad scientists, and mind control?

Once fantastic elements are added, it becomes harder to give a sense that the game is fair. If an alien’s motives are important to the story, for example, they must be explained early on.

This doesn’t mean there should be a chunk of expository dialog: “As you know, Bob, the Tesianti become homicidally enraged if they eat green apples . . .” There are more elegant ways to sneak clues into a story. Early in the adventure, the detectives might be in a holding area talking to a suspect. They are interrupted by a fight; they help put a tiny, but berserk, alien into a cell. He throws up bits of semi-digested apple on the nearest person. Moments later, the alien calms down and apologizes. Who knew that a convenience store apple pie actually had apples in it?

On the surface, this is a throwaway gag scene. If the “apples = berserk” clue is important to the later plot, the scene is vital.

Corruption

Corruption can be a hard thing to define. Is the cabbie that folds \$20 into his license renewal, to get it processed faster, trying to bribe the clerk? What about the bar owner who gives an officer drinks so he’ll hang around and help keep things quiet, or the pizza man who gives officers free food and then asks them to keep an eye out when he makes night deposits? How about the pimp who offers information about a robber in return for ignoring his girls?

Some things are obviously wrong. When an officer pockets a few hundred dollars before logging in money he found in a drug bust, that’s theft. When an officer takes a bribe to ignore a bookie’s operation, that’s obviously a crime. The free cup of coffee or slice of pizza? It may be against regulations, but many cops accept the gift, seeing no real harm in it.

The dangerous gray areas are when a cop is tempted to allow a criminal to operate without harassment in return for information, money, or favors. In a dishonest city, corruption can grow into an entire system involving patrol officers, their superiors, district attorneys, and judges. All are paid to ignore certain crimes and keep the peace so that the criminals can operate profitably. A “squealer” who threatens this cozy system is harassed by other officers and could be killed to protect the secret. Officers are sometimes tempted by the vast amounts of money available in narcotics and begin dealing for themselves. In the 1970s the NYPD caught several narcotics detectives holding back narcotics from arrests and giving it to informants or selling it themselves, either for personal profit or to generate “buy money” to reward informants. Eighty-one pounds of heroin worth \$10 million on the street was found missing during the French Connection case. A few years later, the NYPD discovered that 88 pounds of heroin and 31 pounds of cocaine in its property room had been replaced with powdered sugar. When corruption reaches this obvious a level, police administrators are forced to acknowledge it and clean house.

Radio Codes

Patrol officers use radio codes for speed and confidentiality. Below is a part of the official list of the Association of Public Safety Communications Officials (APCO) "10 codes." The "10" is a signal to the listener that the next number is part of this code. Not every department uses 10 codes, and some use nonstandard codes. (For a complete list and examples of local variations, see www.policescanner.com.)

10-4	Affirmative (OK)
10-7	Out of Service (Used to request a meal break)
10-13	Existing Conditions ("Officer in Trouble" in the NYPD)
10-17	Enroute
10-18	Urgent
10-20	Location
10-22	Disregard
10-23	Arrived at Scene
10-24	Assignment Completed
10-27	License/Permit Information
10-28	Ownership Information (Vehicle)
10-29	Records Check
10-30	Danger/Caution
10-32	[number/type] Units Needed Help Me Quickly

Call Numbers

Each police unit is assigned its own call number. For patrol units, this is tied to the unit's car or beat. "1-Adam-12" means that this LAPD patrol car is a two-person car (designated "A" or "Adam") assigned to the Central Division ("1"), on beat number 12. Officers claim that hearing their number can rouse them out of a deep sleep; this is a handy skill for officers working a late shift who try to "crib," or sleep in their car.

The LAPD uses a different code system:

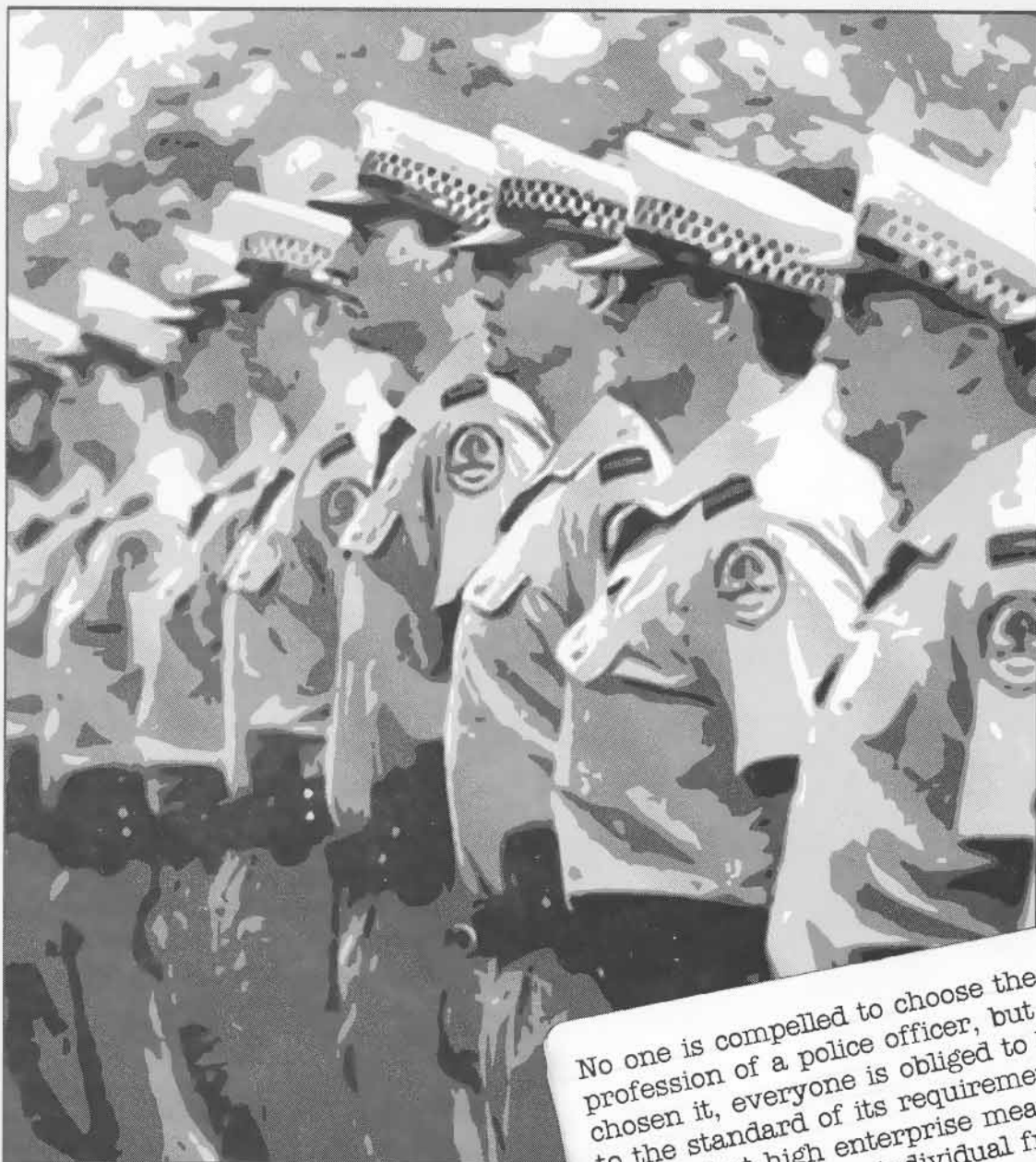
Code 1	Acknowledge Call/Respond Over Radio
Code 2	Routine Call, No Lights or Siren
Code 2-HIGH	Priority Call, No Lights or Siren
Code 3	Emergency Call, Lights and Siren
Code 5	Stakeout - Stay Away
Code 6	Out of Car on Investigation
Code 6A	Out of Car on Investigation, Requires Assistance
Code 6C	Out of Car on Investigation, Suspect is Wanted
Code 7	Meal Break
Code 37	Vehicle is Reported Stolen
Code 77	Caution, Possible Ambush
Code 99	Emergency

The LAPD and other forces sometimes use the section numbers of their penal codes as radio shorthand. Some California examples:

187	Homicide
211	Armed Robbery
211 SILENT	Silent Holdup Alarm
240	Assault
242	Battery
245	Assault With Deadly Weapon
246	Shooting in Dwelling
261	Rape
390	Intoxicated Person
415	Disturbance
417	Person With a Gun
480	Hit and Run
502	Driving Under the Influence (DUI)

Chapter 3:

Characters



No one is compelled to choose the profession of a police officer, but having chosen it, everyone is obliged to live up to the standard of its requirements. To join in that high enterprise means the surrender of much individual freedom.

— Calvin Coolidge

Cops live and work in a closed world. They deal with other officers, civilian experts, lawyers, informants and, of course, criminals. If police interact with standard adventurer-types, the adventurers are likely to be suspects.

Everyman characters with a 50-to -75 point base are used for a highly realistic campaign, with ordinary people confronting the sorts of crimes one sees on the daily news. A 75-to -125 point base suits a realistic-yet-dramatic style, with veteran officers facing tougher foes. Lightly cinematic campaigns, or those focused on special forces like SWAT, work best at 150 to 175 points. Highly cinematic campaigns in the style of a blockbuster action flick may need 200 points as a base.

Character Concepts

The following templates will serve as guidelines for making characters for a realistic *Cops* setting, and aid in their quick creation. Attributes, advantages, disadvantages, and skills are specified as appropriate for each type. Typical equipment is given. Customization notes for each template suggest ways to adapt it to various campaign settings.

Skills are divided into three categories: primary skills, which are necessary; secondary skills, which are useful but need not be fully mastered; and background skills, which are related but optional. Note that the templates are not examples of ordinary people, who typically have lower attributes.

Templates are a convenience, not a requirement. GMs may choose not to use templates in their campaigns; if they use templates, characters created both with and without templates should be allowable. Using a template does not give any discount on point cost or have any in-play effects that might unbalance the game. A template is simply a list of choices that work well together, designed to save work in coming up with well-balanced characters, while leaving room for customization. GMs are free to add new templates to the list, as dictated by their specific campaign.

Templates that have a variable rank show only the base cost; a veteran cop with a high police rank should be more expensive. Other templates have a range of values for disadvantages that may exceed the suggested limit. If one very large disadvantage is taken that exceeds the template guidelines, usually a Secret, then adjust the cost accordingly.

Beat Officer 45 points

You are the backbone of the force, the uniformed patrol officer walking (or driving) his beat every day. You may be a rookie fresh out of the Academy, or a cynical veteran well schooled in the streets. You know the avenues and the alleys, where you can get coffee, and where you can catch a nap. You certainly know the troubled people on your beat, the ones who call 911 all the time (or whose neighbors call 911). You remember the troubled marriages, the addicts and alcoholics, the loud teens. You don't meet the ordinary citizens unless you make the effort, because you aren't called to deal with them.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 11 [10]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: Code of Honor (Police) [0]; Legal Enforcement Powers [5]; Police Rank 0 to 2 [5/level]; and 15 additional points from Alertness [5/level], Contacts (Street, Skill-12, 9 or less, somewhat reliable) [1/contact], Fit [5], Patron (Individual, 6 or less) [5], or Strong Will [4/level].

Disadvantages: Duty (15 or less) [-15]; and a total of -10 points from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5], Bad Temper [-10], Bully [-10], Cannot Harm Innocents [-10], Intolerance [-5 to -10], Overconfidence [-10], Secret (Corrupt) [Varies], Sense of Duty [-5 to -10], or Stubbornness [-5].

Primary Skills: Area Knowledge (beat) (M/E) IQ+3 [4]-13; Area Knowledge (city) (M/E) IQ+1 [1]-11; Brawling (P/E) DX+1 [2]-11; Criminology (M/A) IQ-1 [1/2]-10; First Aid (M/E) IQ-1 [1/2]-10; Guns (Pistol) (P/E) DX+3 [4]-13; Guns (Shotgun) (P/E) DX+1 [1]-11; Law (Criminal law/procedure) (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-8/14; Law Enforcement (see p. 58) (M/A) IQ+1 [1]-12; Tonfa (P/H) DX-1 [2]-9 (or Shortsword/Club (P/A) DX [2]-10); Wrestling (P/A) DX [2]-10; and Writing (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-10. Also 2 points in whatever form of transportation is appropriate to his beat – Bicycle (P/E)-11; Driving (Automobile) (P/A)-10; Motorcycle (P/E)-11; or Riding (P/A)-10.

Secondary Skills: Climbing (P/A) DX-1 [1]-9; Diplomacy (M/H) IQ-1 [1]-8; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ [1]-10; Holdout (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-10; Intimidation (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-10; Running (P/H; HT) HT-1 [2]-9; Streetwise (M/A) IQ -1 [1]-10.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Administration (M/A); Animal Handling (for officers in mounted or K-9 units) (M/H); Computer Operation (M/E), Guns (Taser) (P/E) (see pp. HT100-101); Handcuffing (see p. 59); Psychology (M/H); Shield (P/E); or Spray (see p. 60).

Equipment: *American:* Uniform, badge, Type IIA body armor, handgun, OC spray, spare ammunition (two magazines), handcuffs, latex gloves, flashlight, baton, portable radio. *U.K.:* Uniform, warrant card, Bobby's helmet, baton, CS spray, handcuffs, latex gloves, flashlight, portable radio. Optional taser. *French:* Uniform, baton, handgun, handcuffs, weighted cape, portable radio. *Japanese:* Uniform, baton, handgun, handcuffs, and 15' of light rope. Officers in any department may have use of a marked police cruiser containing first aid and rescue equipment, basic traffic control and crime scene equipment, binoculars, a traffic radar or laser device and a radio. American police cruisers have a shotgun in a locked rack or in a case in the trunk.

Customization Notes: Typical NPC patrol officers have similar skill levels, but only an average IQ. Experienced urban officers have the Handcuffing (see p. 59) and Spray (see p. 60) maneuvers. Cinematic officers have Combat Reflexes, High Pain Threshold, significant skill in martial arts, and Guns skill of 22 or better in their primary firearm. Officers who belong to an *outsider* class in a department – women, racial minorities, religious minorities, homosexuals – may take a negative reputation or social stigma as appropriate to their society and the prevailing stereotypes about their class.

Defense Attorney

50 points

You specialize in defending accused suspects in court. You may be a public defender working for a state agency to defend poor suspects, or a highly paid private attorney who represents famous defendants. You might have once been a prosecutor or a cop, but being a defense lawyer pays better (although real estate or corporate law pays better than criminal defense). You may passionately believe in protecting defendant's rights, or you may believe your clients are scum . . . or both. You could also be fresh from law school, without the grades, experience, and contacts needed to get a more prestigious job.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 13 [30]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: A total of 15 points from Appearance [5]; Charisma [5/level]; Contacts (Street, skill-12, 9 or less, somewhat reliable) [1/contact]; Favors [Varies]; Status 1 [5]; or Wealth [10 to 20 points].

Disadvantages: Duty (Legal ethics; 9 or less) [0]; and a total of -15 points from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5], Alcoholism [-10], Bad Sight [-10], Greed [-15], Overconfidence [-10], Secret (Corrupt) [-5 to -20], Sense of Duty (Clients) [-10], or Wealth [-10].

Primary Skills: Bard (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-14; Diplomacy (M/H) IQ-1 [1]-12; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ [2]-13; Law (Criminal law/procedure) (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11/16; Research (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Writing (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12.

Secondary Skills: Detect Lies (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11; Psychology (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Computer Operation (M/E); Criminology (M/A); Forensics (M/H); or Streetwise (M/A).

Equipment: Briefcase, pager, and cell phone.



Customization Notes: Attorneys gain reputations with experience. The attorney for the Mafia or cocaine cartels (the "hired gun") will be well known to the local police department, prosecutors, and judges. Private attorneys who work in large law firms get the benefit of their firm's reputation even if they are new to law practice.

Detective

55 points

You're the relentless investigator of major crimes, the one who never gives up the chase. You and your partner catch the big crimes and stake out the bad guys. You do your best work in the interrogation room, not the squad car.

You could be assigned to a large-city unit like Vice (gambling, prostitution and drugs), Robbery, or Homicide. If you work in a smaller department, you may be the only detective in town. As an American detective, you have four or more years' experience as a patrol officer. If you're French, you were probably hired right out of college and have no prior experience on the streets.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 12 [20]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: Code of Honor (Police) [0]; Legal Enforcement Powers [5]; Police Rank 2 [10]; and 10 additional points in Alertness [5/level], Charisma [5/level], Contacts (Street; skill-12, 9 or less, somewhat reliable) [1/contact], Patron (Individual, 6 or less) [5], or Strong Will (4/level).

Disadvantages: Duty (15 or less) [-15]; and -15 additional points from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5], Bad Temper [-10], Bully [-10], Cannot Harm Innocents [-10], Insomnia [-10 to -15], Intolerance [-5 to -10], Overconfidence [-10], Secret (Corrupt) [-5 to -20], Sense of Duty [-5 to -10], or Stubbornness [-5].

Primary Skills: Area Knowledge (City) (M/E) IQ [1]-12; Area Knowledge (Precinct) (M/E) IQ [1]-12; Criminology (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-13; Detect Lies (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-10; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-13; Forensics (M/H) IQ-2 [2]-11; Guns (Pistol) (P/E) DX+1 [2]-12; Interrogation (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-13; Law (Criminal law/procedure) (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-7/13; Law Enforcement (see p. 58) (M/A) IQ+1 [1]-13; and Writing (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11.



Secondary Skills: Acting (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11; Driving (P/A) DX-1 [1]-9; Holdout (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Intimidation (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Psychology (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-10; Savoir-Faire (M/E) IQ [1]-12; Shadowing (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Stealth (P/A) DX [2]-10; and Streetwise (M/A) IQ [2]-12.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Administration (M/A); Bard (M/A); Brawling (P/E); Computer Operation (M/E); Diplomacy (M/H); Disguise (M/A); First Aid (M/E); Guns (Shotgun) (P/E); Running (P/H; HT); Short-sword/Club (P/A); or Wrestling (P/A).

Equipment: *American:* Badge, handgun, handcuffs, Type II body armor, latex gloves, portable radio, and possibly a cell phone or pager. Detectives have access to basic crime scene equipment either carried or in their official cars. Cinematic detectives carry lockpicks and have the skill to use them.

Customization Notes: Typical NPC detectives have similar skill levels and an IQ of 11. Officers may have retained skills from their patrol days; the template reflects typical skills and assumes that beat cop skills have atrophied from disuse. Vice officers have a high Fast-Talk skill and the Handcuffing (see p. 59) and Spray (see p. 60) maneuvers instead of Forensics. A cinematic detective has Combat Reflexes, High Pain Threshold, significant skill in martial arts, and Guns skill of 22 or more in his primary firearm. Officers who belong to an *outsider* class in a department – women, racial minorities, religious minorities, homosexuals – may take a negative reputation or social stigma as appropriate to their society and the prevailing stereotypes about their class.

Federal Agent

55 points

You work for a national police agency with authority to investigate crimes nationwide. You are better paid, better equipped, and better trained than the local police you may encounter. If you joined the agency directly from college or graduate school, you are impatient with the “hick” local cops. If you have experience as a local cop, you chafe a bit at the strict standards of conduct and appearance expected of federal agents.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 13 [30]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: Code of Honor (Police) [0]; Legal Enforcement Powers [10]; Police Rank 2 [10]; and an additional 10 points in Alertness [5/level], Charisma [5/level], Contacts (Street; skill-12, 9 or less, somewhat reliable) [1/contact], Patron (Individual, 6 or less) [5], Security Clearance [Varies], or Strong Will (4/level).

Disadvantages: Duty (15 or less) [-15]; and an additional-15 points from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5], Bad Temper [-10], Bully [-10], Cannot Harm Innocents [-10], Insomnia [-10 to -15], Intolerance [-5 to -10], Overconfidence [-10], Sense of Duty [-5 to -10], or Stubbornness [-5].

Primary Skills: Area Knowledge (District) (M/E) IQ [1]-13; Criminology (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Detect Lies (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Forensics (M/H)

IQ-1 [2]-12; Guns (Pistol) (P/E) DX+1 [2]-12; Interrogation (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Judo (P/H) DX-1 [2]-9; Law (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11; Law Enforcement (see p. 58) (M/A) IQ+1 [1]-14; Writing (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11.

Secondary Skills: Acting (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Administration (M/A) IQ-2 [1/2]-11; Bard (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Holdout (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Intimidation (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Psychology (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11; Savoir-Faire (M/E) IQ-1 [1/2]-12; Shadowing (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Stealth (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Streetwise (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Accounting (M/A); Brawling (P/E); Computer Operation (M/E); Disguise (M/A); Diplomacy (M/H); Driving (P/E); Electronics Operation (Communications) (M/E); Electronics Operation (Security Systems) (M/A); First Aid (M/E); Guns (Rifle) (P/E); Guns (Shotgun) (P/E); Language (M/A); Lockpicking (M/A); or Research (M/A).

Equipment: *American:* Credentials (ID), handgun, handcuffs, Type II body armor, latex gloves, vehicle radio, and possibly a cell phone or pager. Federal agents have a shotgun and heavier body armor in their vehicle’s trunk. Cinematic federal agents carry lockpicks and have the skill to use them.

Customization Notes: Federal agents assigned to an organized crime task force need different skills and equipment than those assigned to securities fraud. Uniformed federal agents like the U.S. Border Patrol or Customs should take some patrol officer skills from the Beat Cop template.

Forensic Technician

35 points

You gather physical evidence at crime scenes. You take pictures of bodies, make casts of tire tracks, and measure skid distances. You take samples of blood and fluids, collect maggots, and look for fingerprints, hair, and fibers. You may be a police officer, or a civilian scientist who works for the police. You may be a member of a national professional organization.



In a city, you are part of a team of 8 to 10 specialists with a van full of equipment. In a small town, you are their lone part-time specialist and carry a box of gear in the trunk of your car.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 11 [10]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: Up to 5 points of Alertness [5/level] or Acute Senses [2/level per sense].

Disadvantages: A total of -10 points from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5]; Alcoholism [-10]; Bad Sight [-10]; Odious Personal Habit [-5 to -15]; or Secret (Corrupt) [-5 to -20]. Necrophobia and Squeamishness are, of course, precluded.

Primary Skills: Forensics (M/H) IQ+2 [8]-13; Photography (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-12; Writing (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-12; and any one of Armoury (Hand Weapons or Rifles and Handguns) (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-12; Chemistry, Diagnosis, Metallurgy, or Poisons, all (M/H) IQ [4]-11; or Biochemistry (M/VH) IQ-1 [4]-10.

Secondary Skills: Criminology (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-10; Physiology (M/VH) IQ-2 [2]-9; and Research (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Administration (M/A); Botany (M/H); Computer Operation (M/E); First Aid (M/E); Teaching (M/A); or other scientific or Armoury specialties.

Equipment: Latex gloves, camera, measuring tape, and any sort of the crime scene equipment (see p. 71) adjusted for department needs and budget.

Customization Notes: Coroners who are not doctors are a type of forensic technician. In the past, and even now in rural areas, funeral home directors or other people experienced in handling dead bodies are responsible for determining cause of death. Coroners may have the Mortician skill (see p. UN109) and Pathology (see pp. 59, UN109).



Informant

5 points

You are the rat, the squealer, the traitor. You sell information, real or false, to the police, whether to save your own neck, for money, or for favors. You tell police what the street price and quality of drugs is, who's buying and selling, what's the street gossip, where to find a suspect, what the inside of a certain hideout or drug house looks like. You vouch for undercover cops and introduce them to your contacts. You might even wear a "wire" for the cops, but that will get you killed if you are caught. If you give good information, you get a phone number to use that bypasses the police switchboard. You may get a code name or number of your own. If you give good, high-quality information, then the police treat you pretty well, protect you, and pay you.

Use police for your needs. Play different officers or agencies off against each other to get a better deal, or get good dirt on an officer for security in case things go bad. Lie to the cops if it helps you, and you think you won't be caught.

The police may call you into court to testify. You'll get immunity for crimes you confess to the police, as long as you don't perjure yourself (lie) in court. When the trial's done, you'll have to run. If you've been working for the feds, and you're important enough, you'll be put into the Witness Protection Program run by the U.S. Marshals. If you've been working for the state or local cops, they might or might not have similar programs. If you lie under oath, the cops will prosecute you for your crimes, or they might just leave you out on the street where your former "friends" will take good care of you.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 10 [0]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: A total of 10 points from Contacts (Street; skill-12, 12 or less, somewhat reliable) [2/contact]; Contacts (Street; skill-15, 12 or less, somewhat reliable) [4/contact]; Favors [Varies]; Reputation (Street, occasionally) [5 points per +1, $\times 2/3$]; plus 5 points in Attractive [5], Charisma [5/level], or Patron (Contact officer; 6 or less) [5].

Disadvantages: A total of -40 points from Addiction (Narcotics) [Varies]; Addiction (Tobacco) [-5]; Alcoholism [-15]; Bad Sight [-10]; Greed [-15]; Jealousy [-15]; Laziness [-10]; Odious Personal Habit [-5 to -15]; Secret (Informant) [-20 to -30]; Status [-5 or -10]; Unluckiness [-10]; Wealth [-10 to -25]; or Weak Will [-8/level].

Primary Skills: Area Knowledge (City) IQ [1]-10; Area Knowledge (Neighborhood) (M/E) IQ+3 [6]-13; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-11; Streetwise (M/A) IQ+3 (8)-13.

Secondary Skills: Acting (M/A) IQ [2]-10; Brawling (P/E) DX [1]-10; Carousing (P/A; HT) HT-1 [1]-9; Scrounging (M/E) IQ [1]-10.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Knife (P/E); Forgery (M/H); Guns (Pistol) (P/E); Holdout (M/A); Lockpicking (M/A); Merchant (M/A); Pickpocket (M/A); Poisons (M/H); Sleight of Hand (P/H); Stealth (P/A); or Survival (Urban) (M/A).

Equipment: A cheap firearm or other weapon; narcotics, alcohol, and cigarettes.

Customization Notes: Average street criminals use the same template, without the Secret (Informant). Informants may have Reputation (Informant) [-10 or more] instead of Secret (Informant), but these are not likely to be very useful to police or survive very long on the streets. Some informants have neither Reputation nor Secret, which means that they do not know or have not yet given any valuable information to the police.

Medical Examiner 60 points

You are a doctor specializing in forensic medicine. You autopsy the bodies of crime victims and anyone else who died unexpectedly, to determine the cause of death. In criminal cases, you look for clues on the body that might help investigators determine who killed the victim. Often, you go to court to testify about how a person died.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 13 [30]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: Up to 15 points from Contacts (Police or professional; skill-12, 9 or less, somewhat reliable) [1/contact for beat cops, 2/contact for detectives and federal agents, 3/contact for lieutenants, managers, other doctors, or scientific experts, 4/contact for the chief, senior officers, and well-known experts]; Composed [5]; Cool [1]; Status 1 [5]; Strong Will [4/level]; Unfazeable [15]; or Wealth (Comfortable) [10].

Disadvantages: Code of Honor (Hippocratic Oath) [-5]; and a total of -15 points from any physical disadvantage; Addiction (Tobacco) [-5]; Addiction (Prescription stimulants or painkillers) [-10]; Alcoholism [-10]; Bad Sight [-10]; Callous [-6]; Low Empathy [-15]; Nightmares [-5]; Odious Personal Habit [-5 to -15]; Secret (Corrupt) [-5 to -20]; or Shyness [-5 to -10]. Necrophobia and Squeamishness are, of course, precluded.

Primary Skills: Diagnosis (M/H) IQ-1 [2]-12; Electronics Operation (Medicine) (M/A) IQ-1 [2]-12; Forensics (M/H) IQ [4]-13; Pathology (M/H) IQ-1 [12]; Physician (M/H) IQ [4]-13; Physiology (M/VH) IQ-1 [4]-12; Writing (M/A) IQ-1 [2]-12.

Secondary Skills: Biochemistry (M/VH) IQ-2 [2]-11; Chemistry (M/H) IQ-1 [2]-12; Criminology (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-9; Poisons (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-12; Research (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Surgery (M/VH) IQ-3 [1]-10.

Having a policeman dig up a skeleton is like having a chimpanzee do a heart transplant.

— Clyde Stow,
forensic pathologist



Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Administration (M/A); Bard (M/A); Botany (M/H); Computer Operation (M/E); First Aid (M/E); Genetics (M/VH); or Teaching (M/A).

Equipment: If a medical examiner examines the body at the crime scene, then he has basic crime scene equipment. Otherwise, all of his equipment remains at the morgue.

Customization Notes: In Los Angeles, coroners are trained physicians and use this template. In other areas, coroners may not be doctors. They use the Forensic Technician template instead.

Prosecutor 45 points

You are the voice of the People, the State, the Commonwealth, or the United States at trial. The rules say your job is not to win, but to achieve a just result. You are overworked, underpaid and underappreciated. You might be fresh out of law school and looking for excitement and experience; maybe this job is a stepping-stone to your real career in politics. Or you might be the courthouse veteran, who's seen the worst that people can do to each other.

In a major city, you might be one of hundreds of prosecutors. In a very small town, you might be alone. Your boss, the head prosecutor might be appointed or elected. Regardless, keep an eye on the press and on the police, and try keep the politicians who control your budget happy.

Usually you are called when the cops have a suspect in their sights. You meet with cops and discuss their investigations. You prepare the papers for search and arrest warrants. You coach cops about how to testify on the stand.

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 13 [30]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: A total of 10 points from Attractive [5]; Charisma [5/level]; Contacts (Street; skill-12, 9 or less, somewhat reliable) [1/contact]; Favors [Varies]; or Status 1 [5].

Disadvantages: Duty (Legal ethics; 9 or less) [0]; and -15 points from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5]; Alcoholism [-10]; Bad Sight [-10]; Fanaticism [-15]; Overconfidence [-10]; Secret (Corrupt) [-5 to -20]; or Sense of Duty (Justice) [-10].

Primary Skills: Bard (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-14; Diplomacy (M/H) IQ [2]-13; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ [2]-13; Law (Criminal law/procedure) (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11/17, Research (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-12; Writing (M/A) IQ [2]-13.

Secondary Skills: Detect Lies (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11; Psychology (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-11.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Computer Operation (M/E); Criminology (M/A); Forensics (M/H); Politics (M/A); or Streetwise (M/A).

Equipment: Briefcase, pager, and cell phone.

Customization Notes: Attorneys gain reputations as they gain experience. District attorneys have reputations about what sort of plea agreements they offer and how good they are as negotiators.



SWAT Officer

110 Points

You made the grade for an elite SWAT team. You are intelligent, adaptable, cool-headed, and work well with a group. You are physically fit and good with firearms. You know the basics of all the jobs on the team, but you have one special slot that you fill perfectly. You may have received training from the FBI, ATF, or other federal agencies.

You will become closer to your squad mates than anyone else in your life, even your spouse. You probably know all the details about their life and family, as they know yours. From working together so tightly in hazardous situations, a SWAT team member learns to trust the other team members with his life, and how to return that trust by backing his team members under enemy fire.

SWAT teams are the closest thing to military forces found in civilian law enforcement. Your special weapons and skills enable your team to survive and prevail against dangerous, heavily armed criminals.

Attributes: ST 11 [10]; DX 12 [20]; IQ 12 [20]; HT 11 [10].

Advantages: Fit [5]; Legal Enforcement Powers [5]; Police Rank 1 [5/level]; plus a total of 20 points chosen from Alertness [5/level], Contacts [Varies], Strong Will [4/level], or additional ST, DX, or HT.

Disadvantages: Extremely Hazardous Duty [-20]; and a total of -15 points chosen from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5], Bad Temper [-10], Bully [-10], Callous [-6], Intolerance [-5 to -10], Obsession (Promotion, staying on team) [-5], Overconfidence [-10], Sense of Duty [-5 to -10], or Stubbornness [-5].

Primary Skills: Armoury (Small arms) (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11; Brawling (P/E) DX+1 [2]-13; Camouflage (M/E) IQ [1]-12; Climbing (P/A) DX [2]-12; Criminology (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11; Demolitions (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11; First Aid (M/E) IQ-1 [1/2]-11; Guns (Light auto) (P/E) DX+2 [2]-15; Guns (Pistol) (P/E) DX+2 [2]-15; Guns (Rifle) DX+1 [1]-14; Guns (Shotgun) (P/E) DX+1 [1]-14; Jumping (P/E) DX-1 [1/2]-11; Law (M/H) (Criminal law and procedure) IQ-1 [1]-7/13; Law Enforcement (see p. 58) (M/A) IQ+1 [1]-13; Stealth (P/A) DX+1 [4]-13; Tactics (M/H) IQ [4]-12; Throwing (P/H) DX+1 [8]-13; Writing (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11.

Secondary Skills: Area Knowledge (City) (M/E) IQ [1]-12; Electronics Operation (Communications) (MA) IQ-1 [1]-11; Psychology (M/H) IQ-1 [2]-11; Running (P/A; HT) HT [2]-10; Wrestling (P/A) DX [2]-12.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Driving (Automobile); Fast-Draw (Pistol); Fast-Draw (Magazine); or Speed-Load (Removable magazine).

Specialization Skills: SWAT team members specialize in one or two areas. Sample specializations (8 points each):

Element Leader: Leadership (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-13; Tactics (M/H) IQ+1 [+4]-13.

Forced Entry: Architecture (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11; Demolitions (M/A) IQ+1 [+3]-13; Explosives Ordnance Disposal (M/H) IQ [4]-12.

Hostage Negotiator: Diplomacy (M/H) IQ [4]-12; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Languages (any) (M/A) IQ [2]-12.

Rear Guard: Alertness +1 [5]; Guns (Shotgun) (P/E) DX+2 [+1]-14; Shield (P/E) DX [1]-12; Speed-Load (Light automatic) (P/E) DX [1]-12.

Scout: Lockpicking (M/A) IQ+2 [4]-14; Stealth (P/A) DX+2 [+2]-14; Traps (M/A) IQ [2]-12.

Sniper: Camouflage (M/E) IQ+2 [+3]-14; Guns (Rifle) DX+3 [+5]-15.

Equipment: Body suits, Type III body armor, combat vest, helmet, radio headset, handgun, shotgun/rifle/SMG, smoke grenades, flash/bangs, IR goggles and other paramilitary gear as appropriate to specialization.

Customization Notes: Elite full-time SWAT team members are comparable to Special Ops soldiers and created using similar point levels (up to 140 points).

Undercover Agent

45 or 50 points

You're the best friend of wiseguys, smugglers, fences, and drug dealers. They share their pads, their stories, and their plans with you. They'd kill you in an instant if they knew you were a cop. You operate on your own, with only a single contact as your backup. Your department doesn't know you exist; it's safer that way. Your family barely sees you when you can sneak away from your cover. Sometimes you are shadowed, harassed, and arrested by your own department or other agencies that mistake you for a bad guy. If you fool them, you can fool the bad guys, too. You may become involved in a series of stings and stakeouts, or spend years trying to get into an organized crime family.

Eventually, you're going to have to take the stand and the bad guys are going to learn your real name. They may come looking for you and your family. Are you ready to go on the run? Is your family?

Attributes: ST 10 [0]; DX 10 [0]; IQ 12 [10]; HT 10 [0].

Advantages: Legal Enforcement Powers [5] ([10] for federal agents); Police Rank 2 [10], and an additional 10 points from Alertness [5/level], Charisma [5/level], Contacts (Street; skill-12, 9 or less, somewhat reliable) [1/contact], or Strong Will (4/level).

Disadvantages: Duty (15 or less) [-15]; Secret (Undercover officer) [-20 to -30]; and an additional -15 points from Addiction (Tobacco) [-5], Bad Temper [-10], Bully [-10], Insomnia [-10 to -15], Intolerance [-5 to -10], Overconfidence [-10], On the Edge [-15], Paranoia [-10], Sense of Duty [-5 to -10], or Stubbornness [-5].

Primary Skills: Acting (M/A) IQ+2 [6]-14; Brawling (P/E) DX+1 [2]-11; Criminology (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Detect Lies (M/H) IQ-1 [2]-11; Fast-Talk (M/A) IQ+2 [6]-14; Guns (Pistol) (P/E) DX+1 [2]-12; Holdout (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Intimidation (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Law Enforcement (see p. 58) (M/A) IQ+1 [1]-13; Streetwise (M/A) IQ+1 [4]-13; Writing (M/A) IQ-1 [1]-11.

Secondary Skills: Area Knowledge (City) IQ [1]-12; Bard (M/A) IQ [2]-12; Disguise (M/A) IQ+1 [2]-11; Law (Criminal law/procedure) (M/H) IQ-2 [1]-8/14; Savoir-Faire (M/E) IQ [1]-12; Shadowing (P/A) DX [2]-12; Stealth (P/A) DX [2]-9; Wrestling (P/A) DX-1 [1]-9.

Background Skills: A total of 5 points in Computer Operation (M/E); Diplomacy (M/H); First Aid (M/E); Guns (Shotgun) (P/E); Interrogation (M/A); Language (Italian, Spanish, Russian, etc.) (M/A); or Psychology (M/H).

Equipment: Tape recorder or transmitter.

Customization Notes: This template is cheaper than the corresponding Detective and Federal Agent templates because of the extreme risk the undercover cop faces. Detectives or federal agents who find themselves drafted into undercover work should be based on those templates, using this one for skill ideas.



So, You Want To Be a Cop?

Being a cop isn't a job for just anyone. You are entrusted with a great deal of power. You can follow people, search and seize contraband, make arrests and use deadly force if you need to. If you say one thing in court and the suspect says something else, you usually win. You'll have to put up with long hours; disagreeable, disgruntled, hostile people; people calling you names because of the uniform you wear. You are going to see ugly stuff, kid. Car accidents, dead bodies, people beaten and women raped, kids neglected and molested. Are you ready for that? Are you ready to deal with the addicts, alcoholics, and the mentally ill? We'll see if you feel the same way after some skel pukes on you while you're hustling him into the cruiser for the fifth time this month.

So why did I take the job, kid? You take me for a bleeding heart do-gooder? Some guys on the force are looking for adventure, justice, or patriotism. I'm here to do my job. Stay on board awhile and listen to the long timers like me. It's a pretty good job for a young kid like you, high school diploma, and no college. The money's not bad. Union will protect you from layoffs unless you really screw up. And, you get a decent pension if you can last the 20 years. Yeah, you'd make more money and not get poked on in an office, but then you'd miss all the fun.

To be a cop, kid, first take the civil service exam. If you pass, then the brass interviews you. You take a few tests – both physical and mental – and the department checks your background. You need to be a citizen, and the brass likes it if you live where you are going to work. In the old days, they had tighter standards for height, weight, and chin-ups. They got easier in the 1970s because a lot of departments got sued for discrimination.



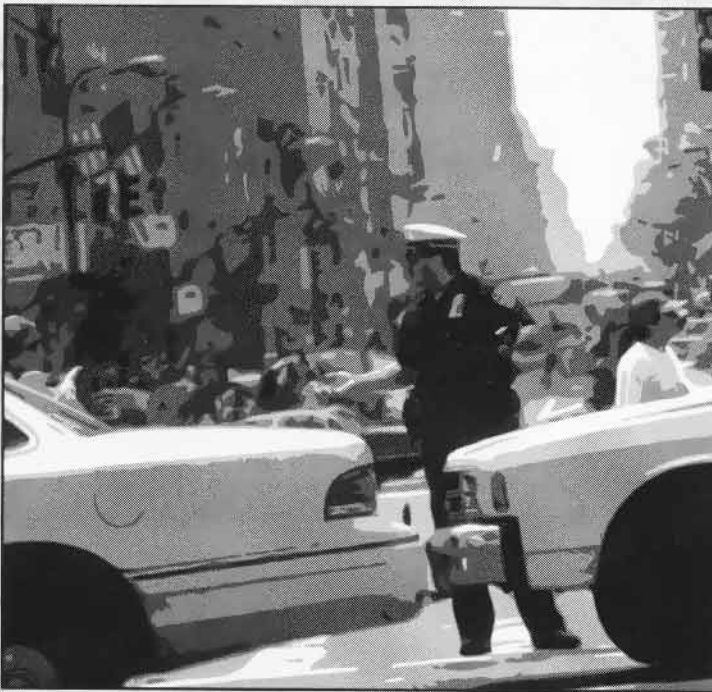
After you take the test, you wait. Maybe a long time. The Academy only runs once or twice a year and only so many get picked to go. I met a guy once, worked as a cop for years part-time in the summer. Worked on a local force at the beach. Long as he was seasonal, said he never even had to take their academy.

You'll be in our Academy for 4 to 7 months. The guys who've been in the service say it's a lot like basic training. You live in the barracks. You do lots of physical training. You take classes in police procedure and law. If you pass, you'll be probationary for a while. You'll get a training officer to try and keep you out of trouble. If you do okay, or at least don't screw up too badly, you get to be a patrol officer.

Patrol's the heart of the force, kid. It isn't all busting heads and kicking down doors. You're part social worker, part priest, and part marriage counselor. You try to keep the peace and prevent crime. Listen to the folks on your beat; help them settle their problems. Don't arrest people unless you have to.

Patrol work can be boring. You'll be out there in rain, snow, or heat wave. Some guys find a crib, a place they can hide to sleep where the sergeant isn't going to catch them. A few guys catch naps right in their cars. Sergeants used to be beat cops – they know the tricks – so if you want to rest you're going to have to be clever.

Most guys spend their entire career in patrol. If you're ambitious, you can take the sergeant or detective's exam in three or four years. If you pass, you become a sergeant in patrol and can work your way up to lieutenant, captain, even chief. Forces didn't used to let women and minorities take the sergeant's and detective's exams. Even the good ones only were put in charge of units that were mostly women or their own minority group.



If you are promoted to detective, you'll get a partner. Instead of driving around looking for trouble, you get calls from the beat cops when they need you. Partners are special. You're going to spend eight hours or more a day with this guy for weeks or years. You'll interrogate suspects together. You'll kick down doors together. You'll chase perps down alleys together. A good partner is closer than your brother, even closer than your wife. The stuff you don't tell your wife, you tell your partner.

When you're a detective, you have to clear cases. That means you have to find and arrest a suspect and get the prosecutor to file charges. Until then, each case belongs to you and you have to file reports telling the brass why you haven't solved the case yet and what you're doing to solve it. Get used to writing, kid.



To sit behind a desk, you'll have to work your way up to sergeant or lieutenant. Then your job is keeping your command out of trouble and making good numbers of arrests. Making your community happy is a good theory, but it can be hard to tell what will keep them happy. You can assign quotas for arrests, but that may encourage the beat cops to work out a deal with the bookies and the prostitutes and the dealers for who-gets-arrested-this-week to spread out the inconvenience. You'll have to fight for a budget and for grants by arguing with the brass and the politicians. You'll have to make a name for yourself by coming up with ideas and getting them to work. Most of all, you need to keep your boys happy.

A few tough guys decide they want to be on the SWAT team or the bomb squad. You'll need a good record in patrol to meet their standards. If you cause trouble or you won't work with a team, they toss you back out. Nobody stays on the teams for more than a few years. That kind of work is hard on the body and the nerves. When you're done, you go back to your old unit, or use your experience to go for somewhere a bit more prestigious.

Partners are special. A good partner is closer than your brother, even closer than your wife. The stuff you don't tell your wife, you tell your partner.

A lot of guys here come on the force young and retire, with a pension, in their 40s. Then you can start a second part-time career and make good money that way. But you might be one of the unlucky ones, the guys who catch a bullet, get in a car crash, or their heart starts giving out. You retire on disability at half or two-thirds salary. Some guys can't take the stress and they get a disability pension for psychological reasons, but the brass is more skeptical of stress than a gunshot wound.

You could die. A few of us do every year. The department will give your family the benefits package. All the boys put a black band on their badges for a few days. We pass the hat and stand around with the brass at your funeral. If a perp killed you, though, we'll hunt him down. Nothing gets good cops angrier than a cop-killer on the loose. Even if we bring him in alive, the prosecutor won't make a deal. He'll go to jail for the rest of his days, or be sentenced to death if he can swing it. Not that you'll care much, one way or the other.

So, do you still want to be a cop, kid? That's what I thought.



Advantages, Disadvantages, and Skills

Some of the basic advantages, disadvantages, and skills are especially important—or mean something a little different—to a police officer.

Advantages

Allies

see pp. B23-24

Being a detective means working with a partner. An NPC partner is an Ally, with a lower point value than the PC's, and a Frequency of Appearance of Almost All the Time. NPC partners are often found in one-player adventures.

Contacts

see p. B234

An experienced police officer has a wide variety of contacts and informants. Colorful contacts provide comic relief. A contact often provides useful information about a given case. Darker contacts may try to tempt or trick police into corruption. Contacts may also be fellow professionals in other agencies, willing to provide unofficial cooperation.

Legal Enforcement Powers

see p. B21

All police officers have law enforcement powers with a defined jurisdiction. Your jurisdiction is both the kinds of laws you enforce and where you can and do enforce them. An American state or local police officer, for example, does not enforce federal laws and may only make arrests in his state (state police) or municipality (town police). Police in many countries have nationwide jurisdiction, but would be expected only to enforce the law in their home area.

Attributes

Departments have minimum requirements for strength, intelligence, and fitness. One doesn't have to be Mr. Universe, but fair strength is helpful when wrestling drunks; clumsy individuals are far too dangerous around loaded weapons; and a foolish officer may soon be a dead officer. A police officer or federal agent should have a minimum of 10 in all attributes.

Some departments don't hire applicants who score too high on intelligence tests, fearing that they will be bored with police work. An applicant in New London, Connecticut was rejected when he proved to have an IQ of 125. The department there routinely rejects anyone with an IQ of less than 100 or greater than about 120. The average IQ for police officers is 104, about the same as that for bank tellers and office workers. Cop with an IQ attribute of 14 or higher will be rare among patrol officers, more common among detectives.



Most police officers have 5-point Legal Enforcement Powers. A federal agent with national jurisdiction, or a police officer in a jurisdiction with limited civil rights or public oversight, would have 10-point Legal Enforcement Powers.

Members of a secret police force, like the Gestapo, KGB, or *Stasi*, and all cops operating in a jurisdiction with effectively no civil rights and no public oversight, have 15-point Legal Enforcement Powers.

Police Rank

see p. B22

Police rank is similar to Military Rank (see p. B22) or Administrative Rank (see p. CI19, CI29). Each rank has authority over other ranks, but only within the defined chain of command. Rank also has persuasive effects if an officer is trying to gain cooperation from the public or from members of another force.

Titles of ranks vary between organizations. Typical examples:

Rank 8: Director of FBI or other national police force
Rank 7: Commissioner of NYPD, Chief of LAPD, or other prominent metropolitan force

Rank 6: Super chief of NYPD, Special Agent in Charge (SAC) of FBI office

Rank 5: Division Captain, Chief of Police for medium town/city

Rank 4: Captain

Rank 3: Lieutenant, Inspector

Rank 2: Sergeant, Detective, Federal Agent

Rank 1: Experienced patrol officer

Rank 0: Patrol Officer, probationer, or trainee

Pay full cost for the primary, active rank. This reflects the duties, pay, and privileges of the rank. In addition, those who have retired or moved to another agency may have a courtesy rank at 1 point per level. This courtesy rank is for use in social situations, but it may entitle them to minor favors from active duty officers.

Rank cost may be reduced if it is effective only in a limited area. The captain of a small, isolated police department has less ability to get cooperation and outside agency help than a captain in the LAPD or NYPD.

Patron

see p. B24

Police departments and federal agencies do not count as Patrons to their officers and employees. The department or agency provides equipment and support to officers as part of their job. Police Patrons can be family members, friends, old friends from the academy or another precinct, or former partners. These crucial sources of advice, gossip, leverage, and promotions are sometimes called an officer's "rabbi" or "hook." Most patrons intervene rarely (5 points). An officer only has one or two Patrons.

State and local officers who attend the FBI National Academy may take the FBI itself as a rarely appearing patron. The FBI will expect the officer to give information and support to FBI agents; during the Hoover era, this may divide his loyalty. 11 points (Very powerful, 6 or less, linked to Duty (FBI), occasionally appearing).

Reputation

see p. B17

Experienced officers gain reputations inside and outside their departments. An officer's reputation, especially a patrol officer's, can be more important than the contents of his official personnel file. Reputation can help or hinder investigations to an amazing degree. A separate unit within a department, such as Internal Affairs, may have a reputation of its own separate from the individual reputations of its officers, though the Internal Affairs reputation is likely to be a disadvantage (see p. 57).

Security Clearance

see p. CI29

Federal agents may have security clearances for a variety of secret information, ranging from pending prosecutions and confidential sources to actual military secrets. Officers receiving special training (such as SWAT) from the feds may require a clearance to use classified tools or information.

Wealth

see p. B16

Police officers and federal agents are rarely more than Comfortable. Appearing too wealthy is likely to quickly attract the attention of Internal Affairs investigators. This could prove a problem unless the officer can show a documented source for the income, such as an inheritance.



Disadvantages

Modern candidate police officers go through a series of background checks, physical examinations, and psychological testing. Departments frequently conduct drug tests before hiring an officer and randomly throughout his career. Federal agents are required to take routine polygraph tests if they will have access to extremely sensitive information.

Physical disadvantages are not often appropriate for a police officer on active duty. For example, Bad Sight (see p. B27), even correctable, disqualifies applicants in many departments; however, a senior officer who develops bad sight as he ages will only be moved to a desk job.

Many psychological disadvantages would also disqualify an officer, although he may take a Secret and attempt to hide the disadvantage.

Alcoholism

see p. B30

Police work is stressful. Police officers have one of the nation's highest rates of suicide. Some officers turn to alcohol to help them forget gruesome crime scenes or the loneliness of the job. Others simply spend too much time after work in the bar with their partners and squad. This disadvantage is hazardous to a police officer's career. Compulsive Behavior (Heavy Drinker) is appropriate for officers who drink more than is healthy, but have not yet become alcoholics.

Code of Honor (Police)

see p. B31

Serve your country and your jurisdiction. Wear the uniform with pride. Defend the honor of your department and your country. Protect and assist your fellow officers. Don't complain. Don't embarrass your department or your buddies. Don't fully trust anyone who isn't an experienced cop.

The basic code of honor for a cop does not require dangerous or reckless behavior; it is worth zero points.

If an officer interprets it to justify ignoring another officer's misconduct or corruption, verbally or physically abusing citizens and suspects who commit "contempt of cop," actively engaging in cover-ups, lying in court, or collecting blackmail material on foes of the department, then it is worth 5 points or more.



If an officer doesn't subscribe to the basic code, give him a negative Reputation within the department (Serpico was a good example of this). A department is a team; anything that threatens that team is seen as a threat to each individual officer. Officers who violate the code are ostracized and driven out. Other cops respond slowly to his calls for backup, or don't respond at all. They might block or interrupt his radio calls ("keying"). Sometimes they even sabotage or vandalize his locker, car, or equipment.

Dependents

see p. B38

Police officers can have spouses and children; they will not directly become involved in an adventure. Supervisors will not allow officers to investigate crimes involving their own family. Dependents may affect the officer through a family crisis, an ill child, or a long-planned vacation or romantic meal that forces the officer to weigh his family against his job. Cops have a 75% divorce rate; the stress and the time demands of the job are major factors.

A family man may be more willing to take a bribe if it lets him send his children to a better college or buy a nicer house. He might be less willing to risk reporting corruption or brutality, or to become involved in a dangerous investigation.

Instead of Dependents, an officer could take Sense of Duty (Family) (-5 points). In the event of a conflict between the officer's duty to his department and sense of duty to his family, the player will have to choose who to disappoint.

Duty (Legal Ethics)

see p. B39

Attorneys are required to abide by a legal code of ethics. The details of the code vary by country and in the United States, state by state. If an attorney violates the code, he may be fired, fined, suspended, and even disbarred (forbidden to practice law, even as a paralegal under the supervision of another lawyer) by a disciplinary board.

The ethical duties of prosecutors and criminal defense attorneys differ. A prosecutor is required to "do justice." A defense attorney, like all attorneys, must zealously represent his client within the bounds of the law. Once he appears in court with a client, he cannot leave the case without the judge's permission. Attorneys are officers of the court. No attorney is allowed to knowingly present false evidence, fail to call the court's attention to adverse laws and court decisions, or allow a client to lie under oath. Attorneys can be disbarred if they are convicted of a serious crime themselves, or misuse a client's money.

When the duty comes up, the attorney has to immediately act on behalf of a client. (Attorneys represent multiple clients at the same time, which can cause conflicting obligations.) Examples of this duty include arrested clients who call in the middle of the night, sudden legal maneuvers by opposing counsel that require an immediate response, or additional work or social complications caused by sensitive investigations or high-profile cases. The higher the duty level, the more interruptions occur. A lawyer's duty is rarely life-threatening, but frequent overtime and sudden emergencies take a toll on family and friends.

This duty may reflect a conflict between the attorney's ethical duty and personal morality. It can be supplemented by a Code of Honor or Vow holding the attorney to higher personal standards than those imposed by law.



Duty (Parole or Probation)

see p. B39

A convicted defendant can be sentenced to probation or given parole (see p. 119) on his sentence. Neither of these programs is dangerous per se, but there are enough restrictions placed on a convict's actions to make them worth the point cost. How significantly the restrictions affect his conduct and how closely he is supervised by his parole or probation officer determines the cost. When the duty comes up, the convict has to act immediately to avoid violating his probation or parole and being sent back to jail. He may have to give a urine or blood sample for drug/alcohol testing, report to his supervisor, attend an Alcoholics Anonymous or Narcotics Anonymous meeting, go to a court hearing, or prove he has a paying job. His court-appointed supervisor might be looking for him at the time of the adventure, which could significantly interfere with his plans.

Parole and probation come with conditions. The most frequent are that the probationer may not violate any state or federal law while on probation; may not leave the state, change residence, or change jobs without his probation officer's permission; and may not associate with known criminals. Probationers with drug and alcohol problems can be required to pass random drug tests and participate in treatment programs. If the probationer is given intensive probation, he has several unannounced visits a week from his probation officer, is subject to random drug tests, must get and keep a good job and perform community service in addition. He may have a nightly curfew time.

A probationer can be sentenced to house arrest, where he must wear an electronic monitoring bracelet or anklet and cannot leave home except with his probation officer's permission or for specific reasons such as work. If he was convicted of a computer crime, he may be forbidden to own or even use a computer during parole or probation. If he was convicted of a sex offense, he will have to register with the police and is probably forbidden to work with or around children. A convict on probation or parole is not allowed to own weapons.

If a convict is caught violating his conditions, he is sent back to jail. When he completes his term, he must buy off the disadvantage or replace it with Reputation (Ex-Con).

Enemies

see pp. B39-40

Experienced police officers acquire a variety of enemies in their work. An officer in a medium-sized town makes an average 200 felony arrests per year. Some criminals, or their families, may hold a grudge. Most criminals are smart enough not to risk retaliation by harming an officer or his family, but a few are too angry, stubborn, or crazy to care. Officers also have enemies within their departments, created by internal politics, and conflicts with agents from outside agencies may escalate into hatred.

Extremely Hazardous Duty

see p. C178

A police officer's job is hazardous, no matter where he serves. That basic risk is included in his Duty. The Extremely Hazardous Duty disadvantage is only appropriate for officers serving in specialized units performing particularly dangerous jobs: SWAT teams, bomb squads, and similar units.

Reputation

see p. B17

Experienced officers gain reputations both within and outside their departments. The worst reputation an officer can get is for being corrupt or lazy. Other officers get reputations for being whistle-blowers, mavericks, or incompetents. Police departments or units within departments have reputations separate from the reputations of the individual officers. Female, minority and openly homosexual officers may take a negative reputation to reflect the prejudices that superiors, other officers and the public hold about them. This can also be reflected by a Social Stigma, in appropriate settings.

Criminals have reputations as ex-convicts, based on their crimes. They also have reputations when they are especially trustworthy to their gang, good at lying, good with weapons, or just plain dangerous to be around. These reputations are negative to society, but positive within their own peer group. Examples: Reputation-4 (Has criminal record; anyone who checks up on you, all the time) [-6]; or Reputation-2 (Well-known criminal; everyone, 10 or less) [-5] (for those convicted of high profile crimes, or sex offenders in areas where police disclose their identity and offenses to neighbors and employers.)



Secret

see pp. B238-239

Despite extensive background checks and psychological testing, some officers enter a department with secrets or gain them during their career. Secrets include being corrupt, having close relatives as members of organized crime, suffering drug addictions, having a gambling problem, or anything else that, if revealed, might cut an officer's career short or lead to his arrest.

Most templates have the option Secret (Corrupt). Police work and the criminal justice system offer a constant temptation to take bribes: to look the other way, warn criminals about upcoming raids, or to "fix" cases. Nearly any cop might be corrupt. The cost depends on how corrupt the cop is and what the department (and public!) response would be if it is revealed. A corrupt police officer in Prohibition Chicago is at less risk if his secret is revealed than is an FBI agent in modern Miami.

Social Stigma

see p. B27

The routine discrimination faced by officers who are female, of racial minorities, or openly homosexual is best shown by a negative Reputation based on stereotypes about their group or a -5 to -10 point Social Stigma. Base costs on whether senior department officers discourage, ignore, or covertly encourage harassment and discrimination.

In other countries and in earlier decades, discrimination against female and minority officers is obvious and worth -10 to -15 points, depending on how restricted an officer's career is by the Stigma.

Until recently, an officer who was discovered to be homosexual was fired immediately. Homosexuality has long been used as grounds for denying a security clearance.

Skills

Bard

see p. B47

The ability to speak well extemporaneously. A very useful skill for police officers and agents. It can be used to quell riots, calm victims and bystanders, make friends with potential informants, and testify persuasively in court.

Brawling

see p. B50

Police officers are trained in street fighting at the academy. Handle this as Brawling and Wrestling with a few special maneuvers. For those wanting more detailed rules, *GURPS Martial Arts* offers a Police Hand-to-Hand (p. MA97) and Streetfighting (p. MA102) styles. Choke holds (p. MA45-46) are no longer taught in the United States because 19 suspects died from police choke holds during the years 1975 to 1982.

Criminology

see p. B60

Criminology is the skill of interpreting crime scenes and forensic evidence to predict how the criminals involved will behave. Police officers get only basic academic training in criminology at the academy, but they learn much more on the streets.

Explosive Ordnance Disposal *see p. CII50*

This is the skill of rendering explosive devices safe (disarming bombs). It is resolved as a Quick Contest of Skills between the EOD skill of the disarmer and the Demolitions skill of the bomber. Real bomb squad techs rarely cut wires as seen in the movies. Their equipment (see p. 72) is made to destroy or disable a bomb remotely.



Forensics

see p. B61

Forensics is the laboratory counterpart of the field science criminology. It is the skill of finding, preserving and comparing fingerprints on objects and of analyzing blood spatters, bullet paths, chemicals, and ballistics. Specialties are possible; a forensic entomologist, for instance, deals with the interactions of insects and crime scenes . . . most usually, the effects of insects on a corpse. A specialist can learn a great deal from an insect infestation that would merely turn the average officer's stomach.

Guns/TL7

see p. B51

Police officers are seldom exceptionally skilled with guns. They are required to be familiar with firearms as part of their basic training and they are subject to periodic recertification. But except for SWAT team members, most police officers never gain more than basic proficiency with their weapon. Cinematic action heroes, of course, may have a Guns skill of 22 or more in their primary weapon.

Police officers are trained to avoid flinching (see p. CII64), but are susceptible to Buck Fever and Bullet Shyness (see p. CII65-66). Cinematic heroes are, of course, never bothered by such things unless dramatically appropriate.

Guns (Taser) is used for tasers.

Interrogation

see p. B66

Interrogation is used to coerce information from a reluctant suspect or witness. The GM rolls a Quick Contest of Interrogation vs. the subject's Will in secret. If the interrogator wins, he gets a truthful answer. If he loses, he is lied to. The interrogator must rely on the consistency of the answers to decide whether to accept the response, but Detect Lies skill may help him weed out untruths.

Law

see p. B58

Police officers are taught basic criminal law, criminal procedure, and traffic law at the academy. They pick up a working knowledge of personal injury law, landlord/tenant law, divorce, child custody, and other laws as part of their work. Anyone with a specialized law skill rolls at +5 within his specialty and -1 outside it.

Professional Skill (Law Enforcement)

see p. B58

This skill includes all basic police procedures. Officers use it to issue a traffic citation, to use radio protocol and codes, to serve a warrant, to properly make arrests, and to protect a crime scene. They use it for crowd control, directing traffic, remembering and following departmental regulations and procedures, and understanding when to use force to subdue a suspect and how much to use.

This skill requires specialization by department or agency (see sidebar, p. B43). It defaults to other agencies at -1 to -5 or more. A successful default roll, for example, would enable an officer whose department uses the standard "10 codes" (see p. 43) and is listening to the NYPD's radio, to realize that a 10-39 is not a request for the time, but a report that an assault is in progress.

This skill should be used in situations that are part of a police officer's normal job but that are not covered by more specialized skills like Criminology, Interrogation and Photography. It also covers routine use of common skills such as Electronics Operations (Communications), to use a radio properly.

Shortsword

see p. B52

Before the 1980s, police officers were trained to use a billy club or nightstick – a 12" to 22" wooden club used to subdue suspects and protect the officer. Billy clubs and nightsticks do basic baton damage, adjusted for the weapon's weight and length.

Speed-Load

see p. B52

Local police officers other than SWAT team members do not receive specialized training in how to quickly reload their weapons. Instead, officers are trained to fire a few shots, then change automatic magazines or reload their revolver ("tactical reload"). This makes it less likely the officer will unexpectedly run out of ammunition during a gunfight. However, because of their increased level of training, federal agents are likely to have this skill.

Tonfa

see p. C1136

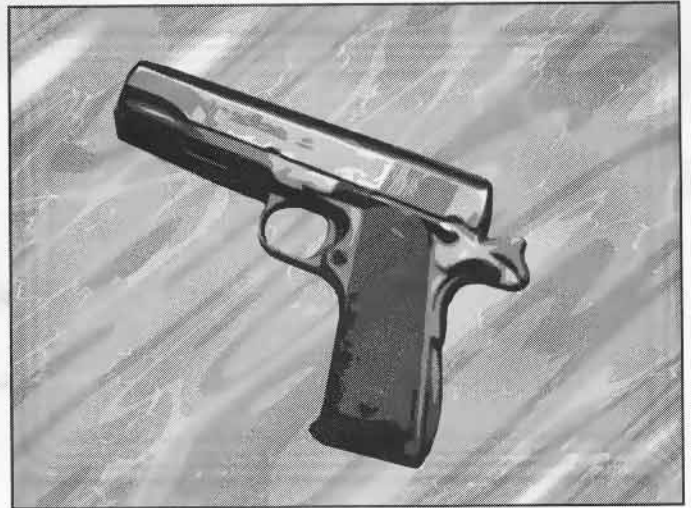
In the 1980s, police began to use a 24" baton with a side handle, functionally the same as a tonfa (originally a rice-beating flail). Modern batons are made of a high-impact plastic. Lighter, cheaper models are made of aluminum. A tonfa parries at 2/3 of skill and can be used with Karate skill. It can also be held by one end and used as a regular club.

New Advantages

Independent Income

see p. STM44

Retired officers and families of officers killed in the line of duty receive benefits. This is equivalent to a source of income that does not require any work. Income per month is 5% of the starting wealth of your wealth level. You may need to spend 10 hours a month looking after financial matters. This advantage only applies to those who *would* work for a living, i.e., from Poor to Wealthy. Those Very Wealthy or better already have it. Those Dead Broke have no income. An officer who retires at half-pay is Average with Independent Income.



New Skills

Pathology/TL (M/H)

see p. UN109

Defaults to IQ-7, Physician -5, or Surgery-5;

Prerequisites: Physiology-12 and Chemistry-12 (TL6-) or Electronics Operation (Medical)-12 (TL7+)

This branch of medicine deals with the structural and functional changes to the human body brought about by illness and death. It differs from diagnosis in that it bases its conclusions not on symptoms, but on laboratory tests and exploratory surgery. A successful Pathology roll will determine the presence and progress of a disease in a living person or indicate a successful autopsy to determine the cause and time of death of a corpse.

Modifiers:-5 if the disease or cause of death is rare or unusual;-5 without proper lab (for diagnosis) or surgical tools (for autopsy).

New Maneuvers

See pp. C1162-164 for a description of how to purchase and use maneuvers.

Handcuffing (Average)

Defaults to DX-2, Judo-1, or Wrestling-2

A policeman with the handcuffing maneuver knows how to quickly place handcuffs on a struggling suspect. This maneuver is a limited version of Binding (see p. MA 57).

The Handcuffing maneuver can only be attempted in Close Combat. After a successful Parry or Grapple, the attacker must win a Quick Contest (Handcuffing vs. DX) to handcuff the targeted limb. The process is repeated for each arm or leg, or one side of the handcuff can be attached to a solid object like a pole or bar. An officer automatically handcuffs a pinned (see p. B112) suspect in 2d seconds, or 2 seconds with a successful Handcuffing roll (1 second on a critical success). Handcuffs must be readied unless the cop also has the skill Fast-Draw (Handcuffs). A limb placed in a lock is automatically cuffed, but use Handcuffing to cuff the other limbs. Breaking or escaping from handcuffs is discussed on p. 67.

Retain Weapon (Pistol) (Hard) see p. MA53 Defaults to DX

A person with the Retain Weapon maneuver is trained to keep his gun from being wrestled away from him when drawn, or from being drawn from the holster by someone else (see p. CII71). This maneuver replaces DX when a suspect is attempting to grab a weapon (as per p. B111). In addition, an officer protecting a semi-automatic pistol may make a Guns (Pistols) roll to release the magazine. Modern semi-automatic pistols will not fire if the magazine is not firmly in place, even if there is a round loaded in the chamber (Glock pistols do not have this feature).

Spray (Average)

Defaults to DX Prerequisite: None

This represents the skill of discharging a one-handed aerosol can at a target's face. It is normally used with devices that spray a non-lethal irritant chemical (pepper spray, tear gas, etc.). The same skill applies to improvised weapons (such as hair spray in the face). Secret agents use this maneuver to deliver exotic toxins or mind-control drugs.

To hit, roll versus Spray maneuver with the usual modifiers for a ranged attack. Note that aerosol weapons must hit the face to be effective (-5 to hit). The victim may block or dodge, but not parry; only the PD of shields and force screens affects this defense roll. The actual effect of a successful hit depends on the chemical being sprayed.

This maneuver is taught to officers as part of the Police Hand-to-Hand style (see p. MA97); experienced cops in violent areas may have it at levels as high as DX+5 (for 6 points). It may be taught as part of the Self-Defense Hand-to-Hand style (see p. MA100), but only rarely above the DX+2 level (1 point). (For further discussion and examples of common police sprays, see p. 69. If no statistics are given for a particular aerosol, assume SS 5, Acc 1, 1/2D -, Max 1.)



Equipment

The *Cops* GM has absolute control over what equipment may be used. Every police department has an approved list of firearms, ammunition, body armor and other equipment. Federal agents get better equipment than is available to the public or even other police departments, but they will not have state-of-the-art military hardware. Police in a cinematic secret-police campaign will have few restrictions indeed, but such a game is more akin to *Espionage* than to *Cops*.

Police departments almost invariably use readily available, proven technology. Budgets are limited, and police are slow to adopt untested new gimmicks over trusted favorites.

Some police departments issue equipment; others merely give a list of accepted manufacturers and suppliers. The prices listed here reflect a range of costs according to the manufacturer and features the purchaser desires. Many companies that supply police equipment have catalogs on the Internet (see p. 123), a good source for up-to-date prices and weights.

Uniforms and Clothing

A police officer is issued his uniform by the department or given an allowance to purchase his uniform from a vendor. A uniformed officer has several sets of pants, some shoes, a few shirts, and the ubiquitous clip-on ties. He also has his badge, hat, unit patches, and rank insignia.

A patrol officer's belt has pouches and holsters for his pistol, extra magazines, latex gloves, pepper spray, radio, and handcuffs. It may have extra hangers for a flashlight, baton, and other gear.

Detectives and federal agents wear ordinary clothing – dress slacks, a collared shirt and a sports jacket and tie. They carry a case that displays their badge and credentials. Detectives usually use a shoulder holster (under-the-arm-pit carry) for their pistol, possibly with an extra magazine holder. Some detectives also use an ankle holster to carry a second, smaller weapon. Just in case.

SWAT teams on duty wear black assault clothing with load-bearing vests, hoods, and gas masks as needed. SWAT snipers may wear camouflage suits (see p. SO94-95 for details).

Patrol Uniform (badge, shoes, pants, belt, holster, four belt equipment cases, shirt, tie, and hat). \$300, weight negligible.

With jacket and gloves, \$400.

Detective Uniform (badge, badge case, handcuff holder, holster). \$100, weight negligible.

Bobby's Helmet: Standard U.K. patrol officer's helmet. Includes chin strap to steady it on the officer's head. The helmet adds 6" to the wearer's height. This adds to his total height when figuring bonuses to the Intimidation skill. PD 2, DR 4. \$75, 1.25 lbs.



Body Armor

Body armor was first marketed in 1971. An improved 1974 version was an olive green military vest with inch-thick ceramic plates; it was heavy, cumbersome, and uncomfortable. By the late 1980s, armor had become lightweight, flexible, and comfortable. Many departments now require patrol officers to wear armor on duty.

Body armor covers areas 9-10 and 17-18. It can be bought with groin panels to protect area 11. Properly fitted body armor has a 1/4" to 1" gap on the sides between the front and back panels. It is possible, but very unlikely, for a shot to go directly through that gap. (Note: if an officer gains or loses more than 5% of his weight at fitting, his body armor may no longer fit properly, making it overlap uncomfortably or causing dangerously wide gaps.) See p. B211 and HT105 for discussions of Kevlar armor.

State-of-the-art police body armor is early TL8. These versions are available starting in the late 1990s. TL8 body armor is light, flexible and can be crumpled into a ball like cloth. Since 1995, some has been made to protect against both bullets and impaling weapons. This is an update from **GURPS Basic Set** (see p. B72, B211, and HT104).

Type IIA Armor: The armor most commonly issued to law enforcement. TL7 – PD 2, DR 8 (PD 1, DR 2 vs. impaling). \$240 to \$975 (higher-priced versions are more comfortable or more stylish), 1.5 to 2.25 lbs. Expensive versions of this armor are designed to be concealed under a shirt and jacket (Holdout-1). TL8 – (puncture-resistant) (PD 1, DR 5 vs. impaling, in addition to above). \$1,100 to \$1,300, 5 lbs.

Type II Armor: Body armor issued to patrol officers facing greater risk from high-powered weapons. TL7 – PD 2, DR 10 (PD 1, DR 2 vs. impaling). \$240 to \$1,060 (higher-priced versions are more comfortable or more stylish), 1.75 to 3 lbs. Expensive versions of this armor are designed to be concealed under a shirt and jacket. (Holdout-1)

TL8 – (puncture-resistant) (PD 1, DR 5 vs. impaling, in addition to above). \$1,200 to \$1,400, 6 lbs.

SWAT Armor

Type IIIA Armor: Standard SWAT issue basic body armor. (Some patrol officers wear concealable Type IIIA armor, or keep a Type IIIA vest in their cruiser trunk for dangerous situations.) TL7 – PD 2, DR 12, 2.2 to 4 lbs; cost \$320 to \$1,295. Holdout +2. TL8 (puncture-resistant) – (PD 1, DR 5 vs. impaling, in addition to above). \$1,350 to \$1,600 (higher priced versions are more comfortable or more stylish), 7 lbs.

Type III Armor: A ceramic front and back plate can be added to a Type IIIA armored vest for additional protection. TL7 – PD 2, DR 20 (PD 2, DR 10 vs. impaling) for areas 9-10, 11-17 unless hit exactly on the side between the plates. Cost \$550 to 1,200, weight 9 lbs.

Type IV Armor: A heavier ceramic front and back plate added to a Type IIIA armored vest. TL7 – PD 4, DR 35 (full vs. impaling) for areas 9-10, 11-17 unless hit exactly on the side between the plates. \$700 to \$900, 12 lbs.

Corrections Armor: Corrections armor is only designed to protect guards working in prisons from impaling objects. TL7 – PD 1, DR 7 vs. impaling, PD 1, DR 1 vs. all other. \$350 to \$900, 3.5 lbs..

Riot Armor: To Type IIIA body armor add: Shin guards (PD 1, DR 8, areas 12-14 (from front only)). \$480, 5 lbs. Riot Helmet (PD 4, DR 5 (crushing)/DR 2 (other), includes plastic face shield (PD 1, DR 1)) \$130 to 250, 4 lbs. Riot shield (PD 4) (clear plastic shield with handle and breakaway straps). \$70, 5.5 lbs.

Baton/Nightstick

A baton or nightstick is the traditional weapon of patrol officers and comes in many sizes from 12" to 22". For billy clubs and ordinary nightsticks, use Shortsword skill. Batons with a side handle use Tonfa skill. Damage is per Baton (see p. B206). Federal agents and detectives don't carry normal batons or nightsticks, but may have concealable expanding batons.

SWAT teams use expanding batons with mirrors on the end to peer around corners and through doorways during stealthy approaches. Use expandable baton costs and weight and add \$13 for a high-impact mirror.

Billy Club: 12" hard wood truncheon with leather strap. \$3, 8 oz. Holdout -1.

Nightstick: 22" hard wood truncheon with leather strap. \$5, 1 lb. Holdout -2.



Carrying a Piece

Police officers often carry firearms both on and off duty. Many departments require a police officer to be armed at all times. State and federal firearms laws allow an officer to carry his firearm anywhere within his state or jurisdiction, as long as he also carries his badge or credentials. If an officer goes to another state on official business, that state's firearms law will allow him to bring his firearm. As a courtesy, police will usually permit vacationing or off-duty officers from other states or jurisdictions to carry their firearms — as long as that courtesy is not abused.

Holdout skill is useful when carrying a firearm in plain clothes. If a bystander notices a firearm, they may be afraid and call the police, who respond quickly and warily to a "man with a gun" call. The resulting encounter can be very stressful, especially for minority officers. Off-duty and undercover officers have been shot by patrol officers who mistook them for suspects.

It can be hard to find safe places to store a pistol while using a toilet, bathing, sleeping, or swimming. Officers have lost handguns when they placed them on a toilet tank and then forgot about them.

Many states have adopted "safe storage" laws requiring firearms and ammunition to be locked up when not actively under the permit holder's control, to prevent children or thieves from using the weapon. Police officers who share their homes with others should think about storage and training for their dependents. Household training and precautions could be a plot point if the officer is threatened at home.

If an officer travels on a commercial aircraft, a firearm complicates things. Until the mid-1990s, police officers carried loaded, concealed handguns on commercial aircraft just by showing their badge. Current airline regulations can require officers to have completed an FAA course on flying armed, present their badge and identification, and carry official orders on department letterhead stating that they are on police business and required to be armed on board the aircraft. These orders are only issued if the officer is transporting an extradited prisoner to another jurisdiction, escorting a witness facing a serious death threat, or has another serious reason to carry the weapon. Only Sky Marshals and FBI agents can automatically carry guns on commercial flights.

If an officer doesn't fit the criteria, he must check his weapons in his baggage just like any other citizen. The weapons must be unloaded and stored in a hard-sided suitcase. Ammunition must be in another suitcase, in an appropriate container and not in a magazine or speed-loader. On international flights, the airline may insist that the firearm be field-stripped. The airline can check the weapon to make certain it is unloaded and may put a bright red "Contains Firearms" tag on the suitcase.

PR-24 Baton: 24" black acetate plastic baton with side handle. The name comes from the Monadnock PR-24, the most popular version of this weapon. \$35, 1 lb. Holdout -2.

Expandable Batons: Metal batons that expand using a strong spring. These batons can be expanded while being drawn.

7 3/4" expands to 21". \$62, 1 lb. Holdout 0.

9 1/2" expands to 26". \$67, 1.25 lbs. Holdout-1.

12 1/2" expands to 31". \$70, 2 lbs. Holdout-1.

Communications Gear

A large urban police department may have 20 police frequencies, a variety of fire and ambulance emergency channels, and others set aside for coordinating with federal agencies. Most officers have radios that access the main frequency for the precinct, a secondary precinct frequency and a citywide frequency. A patrol officer will not be able to talk directly to a patrol officer in a neighboring precinct without relaying the message through his own dispatcher. Similarly, federal agents cannot talk directly to local police.

Police radio is not encrypted. If an officer needs to talk with a dispatcher privately, he uses a cell phone, a mobile computer terminal, or a pay phone. In rural areas, police cruisers may have CB radios to allow officers from neighboring areas to talk to each other outside of the recorded official frequencies.

Hand Radio: Standard police 2-way radio, 5-mile range. \$250 (plus \$35 for mike that clips to shirt), 1 lb.

Police Whistle: \$15, weight negligible.

Tactical Headset Radio: Improved 2-way radio used by SWAT teams. These radios have an earpiece and throat microphone and are encrypted. Range 1.5 miles. \$400, weight negligible.

Vehicular Radio: Standard police cruiser radios have a range of 20 miles (less in the city) and relay broadcasts from the officer's portable radio if the office is in range of the cruiser.

Firearms

Firearms are covered in detail in *GURPS Basic Set*, *GURPS High-Tech* and *GURPS Special Ops*. Police departments and federal agencies issue firearms directly, or allow officers to purchase firearms from an approved list. Departments prefer firearms from major manufacturers in .38, .357, 9mm, .40, or .45 caliber. Any firearm not on the list must be approved by senior officers or the department armorer. Departments are more likely to be sued if a bystander is hit by a non-standard bullet that blows through a target or ricochets. In addition, if each officer in a department has a nearly identical weapon, any officer can pick up a fellow officer's gun or ammunition magazines and use them without having to think about details like where to find the safety or whether the bullets will work in his gun.

Until the mid-1980s, police departments issued 6-shot .38 Special caliber revolvers with round-nosed ammunition. (Some of these were used with more powerful .357 ammunition.) At that point, semi-automatic handguns with hollow-point ammunition began to be more commonly issued. There are still departments that issue (or allow) .38 Specials.



Police agencies are exempted from federal firearms laws that prohibit civilians from buying high capacity (over 10 round) pistol magazines and certain kinds of semi-automatic rifles and carbines.

This list includes common modern pistols used by American police officers and federal agents.

Handguns

AMT Backup 9×17mm (Holdout +2): First available in 1976 (see p. HT108). A popular second gun for police officers and drug dealers alike.

Beretta Model 92F 9×19mm (Holdout-1): Introduced 1982 (see pp. HT108-109). Standard sidearm of the LAPD, as well as many other U.S. and foreign agencies. The Italian police and the French Gendarmerie and Police Nationale use minor variants. The Model 96D, chambered for the .40 S&W cartridge (Damage 2d+, Shots 11+1), is issued by the U.S. Border Patrol.

Glock 22 .40 S&W (Holdout-1): Introduced in 1990, this weapon is currently one of the most popular handguns in service with U.S. agencies and police forces (see p. HT109). Standard sidearm of FBI and DEA.

Izhmekh PM Makarov, 9×18mm (Holdout +1): This compact Russian military pistol (1951, p. SO98) was widely used by security forces in the former Warsaw Pact, including the East German Vopo and *Stasi*. Still in service in Eastern Europe.

SIG-Sauer P226 9×19mm (Holdout-1): A popular weapon first available in 1983. Formerly the issue sidearm of the FBI. Used by Arizona State Troopers and SWAT teams of the RCMP and the Washington D.C.P.D. The Texas Rangers use a version chambered for the .357 SIG; Damage 3d-2, Shots 13+1.

SIG-Sauer P228 9×19mm (Holdout 0): Dating from 1988, this weapon was widely adopted by agencies in the 1990s, including the FBI and Secret Service. Current sidearm of the ATF, Internal Revenue Service, Sky Marshals, and U.S. military police (there known as M11).

S&W Model 10 Military and Police .38 Special (Holdout-1): In 1902, Smith & Wesson introduced this revolver with a swing-out cylinder (see p. HT110). Made in a variety of models with minor changes, it was until recently a very common police firearm in North America.

S&W Model 36 Chief's Special .38 Special (Holdout +1): Available since 1950, this snub-nosed revolver is used as an easily concealable weapon by detectives and as a backup gun by others.

Springfield M1911-A1 Bureau Model .45 ACP (Holdout-1): This weapon was adopted as standard issue for all SWAT-qualified FBI agents in 1998. It is a customized variant of the Colt Government (see p. HT108). Usually used with high-powered ammunition (Damage 2d+2). Similar guns are employed by the FBI's HRT, and the LAPD's SWAT operators.

Shotguns

Benelli M1 Super 90 12g (Holdout-6): The most popular modern semi-automatic shotgun, first available in 1984. It is in service with the SWAT teams of Los Angeles, L.A. County, and Detroit, among others.

Mossberg Model 590 12g (Holdout-6): Introduced in 1987, this pump-action weapon has seen widespread service not only with the U.S. military, but also with many police departments.

Remington Model 870P 12g (Holdout-6): Possibly the most common police pump-action shotgun (see p. HT113). Introduced in this version in 1965. American police prefer pump-action shotguns because they are more reliable than semi-automatic shotguns. European police prefer the more rapid fire of semi-automatic shotguns. This weapon is standard issue for DEA, FBI, LAPD, and the London Met.



Riot Guns

Hawk MM-1 37×122mmR (Holdout-7): 12-shot revolver-style grenade launcher (1979, also see p. HT121). Fires 37×122mmR anti-riot tear gas grenades or rubber impact grenades, but is also available for 40×46mmSR combat grenades. The weapon is heavy and rarely carried except as a reserve weapon for riot duty.

H&K MZP1 37×122mmR (Holdout-3): Dating from the 1980s, a single shot, break-open grenade launcher designed to fire either 37×122mmR or 40×46mmSR grenades (police version of the HK69A1 Granatpistole, p. HT121). Adopted by the U.K., French and German police.



Rifles and Submachine Guns

Colt AR-15A2 R702 5.56x45mm (Holdout-6): In 1984, the first variants of the military M16A2 became available, which feature a number of improvements over the old M16A1 (see p. HT115). The R702 in the table is a full-auto model, in service with the LAPD SWAT and others. The R6700 is a very accurate semi-auto variant and in service with the California Highway Patrol (Acc 12, Wt 11, RoF 3~), among others. Military surplus M16A1 and M16A2s are also widely used; every supervisor in the LAPD has a M16A1 in his car's trunk, modified to allow single shots only.

Colt CAR-15A2 R723 5.56x45mm (Holdout-5): Colt produces a series of compact assault carbines similar to the military M4 (see p. SO101), first available from 1984. Both selective and semi-auto -only versions are made; the R723 in the table is used by LAPD SWAT and the U.S. Marshals. The DEA and FBI have comparable models. The R6520 used by the ATF has a slightly longer barrel and is semi-auto only; Damage 5d-1, Wt 7, RoF 3~.

H&K MP5A3 9x19mm (Holdout-4): Introduced in 1971, used by SWAT units including the LAPD and NYPD (pp. HT116, SO105-106). SWAT teams can have sound-suppressed models like the MP5SD3 available; Damage 2d-1, Wt 8.65, Hearing-6. The semi-auto -only MP5SF3 is issued by the FBI to field agents and widely employed by U.K. police. In 1994, the SWAT units of the FBI received the MP5/10A3 (1991), which is chambered for the 10x25mm Auto round; Damage 3d+, Wt 7.8, AWt 1.5, ST 11, Rcl-2.

Remington Model 700 7.62x51mm (Holdout-6): The standard sniper rifle of American SWAT teams and the U.S. military (see p. SO101). As listed, a heavy-barreled, scope-sighted weapon designed for long range shooting, similar to the M24 configuration (1988) used by the U.S. Army, NYPD, and FBI.

Ruger Mini-14 5.56x45mm (Holdout-6): A light rifle introduced in 1973. Users include the NYPD, Texas Rangers, and state police forces from Arizona to New Jersey. It is also popular with park rangers and game wardens. The Royal Ulster Constabulary in Northern Ireland and the French Police Nationale likewise issue it.

SIG SG551-SWAT 5.56x45mm (Holdout-4): This compact assault carbine became available in 1994. It fires single shots, 3-round limited bursts, or full automatic. It is used by the French Gendarmerie's GIGN unit, as well as the German GSG9 and the SWAT team in Berlin.

Ammunition

Police departments use commercially produced ammunition, purchased in bulk from major ammunition manufacturers. The standard ammunition style in American cities and federal agencies is hollow-point (see pp. B209, HT7). U.K. armed police prefer jacketed soft-point ammunition which uses the same *GURPS* rules.

Hollow-Point Bullets: Hollow-point ammunition is legal for civilian use in all states except New Jersey. Flesh and soft materials have an automatic DR 1 against hollow-point ammunition. If something has a *real* DR, it is doubled. Damage that penetrates DR is multiplied by 1.5. (Hollow-point ammunition is less likely to pass through a target or to ricochet. See p. HT7 for details).

Armor-piercing bullets: True armor-piercing ammunition (brass or steel core with a Teflon jacket) is only legally available to law enforcement agencies and to the armed forces. The infamous KTW Teflon-coated "armor-piercing" bullet that stirred up so much press attention in the late 1980s is not actually armor-piercing. The Teflon coating was designed to help the round penetrate car windshields without being deflected; it is no more able to penetrate body armor than any other round of its caliber. True armor-piercing ammunition (see pp. B209, HT7) would be rare in a realistic campaign.

"Less-Than-Lethal" Ammunition

Police are experimenting with a variety of specialized "less-than-lethal" rounds, including rubber bullets, beanbag rounds and pepper-filled rounds. These rounds are designed to be used at ranges from 7 to 25 yards.

Seven yards is the distance at which a suspect armed with a knife is considered a significant threat to officer safety. Inside this range, a lethal weapon will be used. Twenty-five yards is the maximum distance a fit person can reliably throw an improvised weapon (stones, bricks, rubble) large enough to threaten serious injury to an officer. This is the maximum range at which potentially lethal force is justified against a suspect not armed with a firearm.

Less-than-lethal weapons are limited to supervisors and officers specifically trained with the ammunition. Some departments have a dedicated shotgun or other weapon, often brightly painted, which is to be loaded with and stored with only less-than-lethal ammunition.

Firearms

Type	Malf	Damage	SS	Acc	1/2D	Max	Wt	AWt	RoF	Shots	ST	Rcl	Cost	TL
Pistols														
AMT Backup 9×17mm	Crit.	2d	10	0	125	1,500	1.3	0.2	3~	5+1	8	-2	\$320	7
Beretta Model 92F 9×19mm	Crit.	2d+2	10	3	150	1,900	2.6	0.6	3~	15+1	9	-1	\$650	7
Glock 22 .40 S&W	Crit.	2d+	10	3	150	1,900	2.1	0.7	3~	15+1	9	-1	\$640	7
Izhmekh PM Makarov 9×18mm	Crit.	2d	10	2	125	1,500	1.7	0.3	3~	8+1	8	-1	\$200	7
SIG-Sauer P226 9×19mm	Ver.	2d+2	10	3	150	1,900	2.25	0.6	3~	15+1	9	-1	\$830	7
SIG-Sauer P228 9×19mm	Ver.	2d+1	10	3	140	1,800	2.1	0.5	3~	13+1	9	-1	\$800	7
Springfield M1911-A1 Bureau Model .45 ACP	Ver.	2d+	10	4	175	1,700	3.0	0.5	3~	8+1	10	-2	\$1,350	7
Revolvers														
S&W Model 10 M&P .38 Special	Crit.	2d-1	10	2	120	1,500	2.1	0.2	3~	6	8	-1\$20/\$460	6	
S&W Model 36 Chief's .38 Special	Crit.	1d+2	10	1	120	1,250	2.4	0.17	3~	5	8	-2	\$400	7
Submachine Guns														
H&K MP5A3 9×19mm	Crit.	3d-1	10	8	160	1,900	7.5	1.2	13*	30+1	10	-1	\$1,200	7
Shotguns														
Benelli M1 Super 90 12g	Crit.	4d	12	5	25	150	8.25	1.1	3~	7+1	12	-3	\$890	7
Mossberg Model 590 12g	Crit.	4d	12	5	25	150	8.5	1.3	2~	9+1	12	-3	\$370	7
Remington Model 870P 12g	Crit.	4d	12	5	25	150	8.5	1.1	2~	7+1	12	-3	\$450	7
Grenade Launchers														
Hawk MM-1 37×122mmR	Crit.	1d+1++	14	6	-	110	18.6	6	2~	12	12	-1	\$1,000	7
H&K MZP1 37×122mmR	Crit.	1d+1++	10	6	-	110	6	0.5	1/4	1	11	-1	\$1,400	7
Rifles														
Colt AR-15A2 R702 5.56×45mm	Crit.	5d	12	11	800	3,500	9	1	13*	30+1	9	-1	\$800	7
Colt CAR-15A2 R723 5.56×45mm	Crit.	5d-2	11	8	400	2,500	6.7	1	15*	30+1	9	-1	\$700	7
Remington Model 700 7.62×51mm	Ver.	7d	15	12+3	1,200	4,200	13.4-	1/2	17	5+1	11	-2	\$5,000	7
Ruger Mini-14 5.56×45mm	Crit.	5d	12	10	500	3,000	7.3	0.9	3~	20+1	9	-1	\$600	7
SIG SG551-SWAT 5.56×45mm	Crit.	5d-1	11	9	400	2,500	8.7	1	11*	30+1	9	-1	\$1,500	7

Skip-Firing

Many less-than-lethal baton rounds are designed to be shot at the ground directly in front of the target. This "skip-firing" adds +2 to the random hit location roll, making it likely that the round hits the torso and lower body. It is not possible to aim a skip-fired round at a specific body part when using the **GURPS** advanced-combat rules.

An experienced firearms instructor at the Federal Law Enforcement Academy teaches his students how to skip-fire ordinary rounds. There are two situations when skip-firing can improve a cop's chances of connecting a round with his target.

When firing at a subject leaning out from behind the edge of a wall, student officers are directed to fire slightly *in toward the wall* from the target. As long as the rounds impact the surface at about a 30-degree angle or less, they will flatten out on impact and skim the surface remaining nearly parallel to it and about one foot away. The flattened rounds should hit anyone leaning out more than one foot from the edge of the wall.

When firing underneath an automobile against a target's feet and legs, the same technique is used. Point the muzzle at the target's feet, and then aim slightly lower. The same flattening/rebounding effect occurs, but because this is a vertical rebound, the bullets will only skim six inches to a foot above the ground. This is perfect for striking someone in the feet to forestall their flight or pin them in place while you advance.

Surprisingly, the wall or ground materials do not matter; the technique works well with any solid surface, even a grass-covered field! Just don't try skipping bullets off a glass-fronted office building.

Use normal modifiers for the targets' size, visible portion, motion, and defensive actions. If the target is hit, remove any penetrating characteristics of the bullets – the impact is made by tumbling ricochets, which are no longer hollow-points or armor-piercing ammo. Divide the basic damage of the round by 4, and do not multiply damage that makes it past the DR.

Hit locations for standing-behind-the-wall targets are rolled normally, but only the visible half of the body can be struck. If the behind-the-wall side is rolled, mirror the hit locations to the opposite side. Locations for the under-auto shot depend on the body parts of the target nearest the ground. If a target is kneeling, the thighs, lower legs, and feet are all possible targets. If standing, only the lower legs and feet could be struck.



Since less-than-lethal shotgun shells are interchangeable with any other 12-gauge shotgun shell, and there is no uniform method for identifying less-than-lethal rounds, confusion is quite possible. A shooter or target with Unluckiness could find that a standard buckshot shell was loaded instead of a less-than-lethal round. A target with Serendipity could find that a less-than-lethal shell was accidentally mixed in with regular rounds, or left in the breech of the shotgun after a training session.

Less-than-lethal rounds are divided into four categories – hard (wood, hard rubber, or PVC plastic), soft (foam, soft plastic, soft rubber, or sponge), beanbag (lead pellets in a fabric sack), and chemical (a protective coating holds an irritant liquid or powder). These are normally shotgun and grenade launcher rounds, not bullets to be fired from standard handguns and rifles. Some countries do use plastic 5.56 mm rifle rounds, including Israel. Such rounds are designed to be used only at ranges over 70 yards (1/2D range) and at that range do 2d-1.

Damage: "Hard" rounds do 1d damage. "Soft" and "beanbag" rounds do 1d-1 damage. Chemical rounds do 1 point of damage and release a chemical agent (see pp. 69-70). All less-than-lethal rounds, except chemical rounds, inflict double damage for the purposes of knockback (see p. B106), but do *half* actual damage for hard rounds and *one-quarter* actual damage for soft rounds, after subtracting DR.

Because of the slugs' low velocity and large surface area, DR protects at *double value* (or *triple* for beanbags) with a minimum DR of 1 (including ordinary flesh). Less-than-lethal rounds never get wound channel modifiers (see pp. HT7, CII56).

The 1/2D for hard rounds is 16 yards. The 1/2D for soft rounds is 10 yards. The 1/2D for beanbag rounds (which have a worse shape for flying) is 7 yards. The Max. range for all less-than-lethal rounds is 30 yards.

Accuracy: Less-than-lethal rounds are much less accurate than normal bullets or shotgun shells. Hard rounds reduce the weapon's Acc to 2. Soft and beanbag rounds reduce the weapon's Acc to 1.

Malfuction: The round fails to fire, or leaves debris in the barrel which will cause the next round to jam in the barrel and destroy the firearm. Currently available less-than-lethal rounds cause the weapon to malfunction on a 16-. If the weapon has a Malf. of 16 or less, apply an extra-1 to the Malf.

Cost: Less-than-lethal rounds cost significantly more than their standard bullet or shell counterparts. A 12-gauge shotgun shell loaded with buckshot costs about \$.70. A 12-gauge chemical round loaded with pepper dust costs \$1.60. A 12-gauge beanbag costs \$5.00. Rounds designed for a tear gas launcher cost from \$20 to \$25 each.

Types: Baton rounds have impact heads made of foam, rubber, wood, or other non-metal material. They were introduced in the late 1960s and have since become common worldwide. Although referred to as bullets, they are actually comparatively large projectiles, not fired from handguns or rifles. Baton rounds constructed from hard rubber ("rubber bullets") or PVC ("plastic bullets") are the two types most widely deployed by police forces, including those in the United States, United Kingdom, and Israel.



Chemical rounds are projectiles designed to enclose a liquid, powder, or other material within a protective coating or shell and disperse the agent on impact. They are designed to strike the target directly with enough force to release the agent, either a strong dye (for later identification of targets), a riot agent such as OC or CS powder, or both. Everyone in the same hex as the target struck is affected.

Pads (beanbags) are pouches of heavier materials, made of ballistic nylon filled with silica, lead shot, or steel shot. The pads can be round, rectangular, or square, and are folded into the shell casing. They unfold in flight and strike the target with the large, flat side. These are designed for both shotguns and grenade/tear gas launchers. Some are saturated with a colored dye or chemical agent (see pp. 69-70).

Pellet rounds contain one or more spherical projectiles that rely on extended-range impact ("sting") for their effectiveness in dispersing crowds. Single pellets are fired directly at a target. Multiple projectiles, about the size of buckshot, can be skip-fired off the ground directly in front of one or more targets. Pellet rounds are designed for both shotguns and grenade launchers.

Other Special Ammunition

Lock-Destroying Rounds: Contrary to fiction, bullets fired at a lock are more likely to mangle the lock than open it, and ricochet dangerously from the impact. Professionals blow open locks with special ammunition that fires a bound-together metal dust slug. This gives any shotgun 1/2D 2, Max 5. At 1 yard, damage is normal; at 2+ yards, halve damage, double target DR and apply each die of damage separately to DR. Double ammunition cost. Shotgun rounds are normally used, but pistol rounds do exist. These rounds are unavailable for rifles and other high-powered weapons (they would ruin the mechanism).

Subsonic Rounds: Slowing bullets to below the speed of sound makes them easier to silence, giving a further-1 to Hearing rolls when a suppressor is used. This is accomplished using a slightly heavier bullet and a lighter gunpowder charge. Reduce damage by 1 point per die for pistol calibers (e.g., a pistol that inflicts 2d+2 would do 2d). Subsonic rifle rounds halve damage, 1/2D range, and Max range. Submachine guns fire pistol rounds. Ammo cost is unchanged. Note that standard .22 Long Rifle, .32 ACP, .380 ACP, .38 Special and .45 ACP rounds are already subsonic, so their damage is unaffected.

Flashlights

Patrol officers can carry a large baton-style flashlight made from aircraft aluminum. (If used as a weapon, treat as a baton.) It provides up to 1.5 hours of continuous light and recharges in 10 hours. 13" long. \$100 + \$30 for recharger, 2 lbs. Holdout-2. A polymer version of the same light is \$80 +\$30 for the recharger, 1 lb.

Some officers, and most detectives and federal agents, carry a small 4 3/4"-long flashlight. It is made from aircraft aluminum and provides two continuous hours of light. \$20, 4 oz. Holdout +2. Can be used as a "pommel" in melee for +1 punching damage. Shotguns and larger pistols may have equipment rails which allow flashlights of this size or smaller to be mounted below the barrel, allowing the officer to use the flashlight and firearm at the same time, with both hands on the weapon.

Handcuffs

Every police officer and federal agent carries at least one pair of handcuffs. Patrol officers may carry two pairs. Handcuffs are designed as a temporary restraint, not as a means of holding prisoners indefinitely. Properly trained police *never* handcuff a person's hands in front of them.

Police handcuffs are designed to resist a force of 495 pounds exerted over at least 30 seconds. (There are stories of prisoners high on PCP who have broken out of handcuffs, shattering one or both wrists in the process.) All handcuffs use the same key. Police carry extra plastic "flex cuffs" if they expect to be dealing with demonstrations, bar fights, or other mass arrest situations.

Smith & Wesson Model 10 Nickel Plated Handcuffs: Standard police model handcuffs. PD 3, DR 5, HP 14. \$40, 10 oz. Holdout +2. Can only be cut with a hacksaw or bolt cutters.-5 to Escape skill.



Hinged Handcuffs: These were originally used in jails to restrain prisoners during transport but are becoming more popular among patrol officers in the US and the UK. The two cuffs are linked to each other with a vertical hinge rather than a chain, which makes the cuffs stronger and further limits the prisoner's mobility. PD 3, DR 5, HP 20. \$35, 10 oz. Holdout +1, Handcuff maneuver -1 as less flexible than normal handcuffs, but +1 to officer's effective ST when attempting to use Arm Lock maneuver on partially-cuffed suspect. Can only be cut with a hacksaw.-6 to Escape skill. They also separate the hands, so it is impossible to use both hands together. Improved versions are available that fold flat. They give +2 to Holdout, but cost \$40.

Handcuff Key: \$3, weight negligible. Holdout +6, +1 if X-ray or metal detector is used.

Flex Cuff: A 22" plastic strip used as handcuffs in a multiple arrest situation. Tensile strength of 370 lbs. PD 2, DR 1, HP 12. \$1.30 ea., 10 for \$9; weight negligible. +4 to Holdout. Removal requires a knife or special cutting device (\$5). +1 to Escape rolls to break free.

A person with his hands cuffed behind his back is at-1 to DX and cannot use any skills that require free use of the arms. He is at-4 to DX (-5 for hinged cuffs) for tasks that require the use of the hands, and he must work blind when manipulating an object behind his back. Tasks that require use of the arms are not possible while cuffed.

Anyone who can make a successful Acrobatics or Escape skill roll can bring his legs up and slip his arms around to the front (-2 penalty for hinged handcuffs). Someone who has his hands cuffed in front of his body suffers no penalty to DX and is only at-1 to skills that require manual dexterity. Skills and maneuvers that require free use of the arms (such as hand strikes) are impossible, but two-handed weapon skills like Guns (Pistol) and Two-Handed Sword function normally while cuffed. Assign a penalty of-1 to -4 to other weapon skills. This is why good cops never cuff in front.

Arrestees might be able to break free from handcuffs. First, the prisoner must make a Will roll, at +4 if he has High Pain Threshold or is on drugs that deaden pain (such as heroin, morphine or PCPs) or-4 if he has Low Pain Threshold, and at-1 for each point of damage he is willing to accept during the breakout attempt to a maximum of his current hit points. On a failed roll, the prisoner aborts his escape attempt due to the pain on his wrists. If he makes his roll, roll a Contest of ST minus the HP of the restraint to break free. Add +1 to effective ST per point of HP damage he was willing to take during the Will roll. Roll at-4 to Will and ST if one arm is already crippled.

On a critical success, the prisoner breaks free and takes no damage (the cuffs had a weak point). On a normal success, the prisoner breaks free but takes 1 point of damage to each arm, plus the damage he was willing to take divided evenly between the arms. On a failure, the victim takes 1d-2 damage (plus any extra damage), minimum 1 point per arm, and he doesn't break free. On a critical failure, the victim takes maximum damage per arm - both arms are crippled until the damage is healed. Repeated attempts are allowed until both arms are crippled.

Criminals' Weapons

Criminals rarely own or carry their weapons legally. Firearms laws have no effect on those breaking the law anyway. Crook weapons are concealable and cheap, often in poor repair. It is rare for a criminal to have formal training in his weapon of choice unless he used it when he served in the military. Liberally apply the malfunction rules for low firearms skill and poorly maintained weapons (see p. HT11).

When criminals use firearms, they usually use cheap ball ammunition (although hollow-point ammunition is increasingly common). In the United States, criminals use semi-automatic handguns in 9mm, .380 caliber and .25 caliber and .38 caliber revolvers. The most common, according to BATF data, is the Lorcin .380 semi-automatic pistol. Some criminals may use 12-gauge shotguns, .22 caliber rifles, variations on the SKS 7.62mm caliber semi-automatic rifle (an AK-47 look-alike) and the Colt Model AR15 .223 caliber semi-automatic rifle. Fully automatic weapons should be rarely encountered.

Police stations, court security, and prisons use belly chains and leg irons for prisoner transfers. A belly chain costs \$50; it holds the prisoner's handcuffed-in-front hands against his abdomen, preventing him from striking with his arms or elbows. Leg irons cost \$45 and keep the prisoner from running or kicking with one foot (a prisoner lying on his back can kick with both feet). A prisoner shackled with belly chains or leg irons has-3 to Escape rolls. A prisoner shackled with both is at-6 to Escape rolls. Belly chains and leg irons have PD 3, DR 5; it takes HP 20 to destroy them, HP 15 to cut the chains. No Modifier to Holdout skill.

Belly chains give-1 to overall DX, or-4 to DX for tasks that require use of the hands. Most physical tasks (including weapon skills) are impossible to perform. Prisoners in belly chains cannot use hand or elbow strikes.

Leg irons give-1 to DX, or-4 to DX for tasks that require free use of the feet. The prisoner cannot kick or use knee strikes and cannot Move at a speed greater than 1 (a slow walk or fast shuffle).

It is very difficult to break free from belly chains or leg irons. Use the same rules as breaking out of handcuffs, but at an extra-2 to ST.

If multiple prisoners are chained together with belly chains or leg irons, the prisoners are limited to the speed of the slowest. If anyone falls, the prisoners adjacent to him roll vs. DX or fall down as well. Prisoners chained together must stay within one hex of each other and cannot change positions in the file without entangling others (treat this as a successful Lasso attack). Escaped "chain gangs" face many difficulties. The GM is encouraged to be both creative and vicious.

Incapacitating Weapons

Police use a variety of chemical weapons to incapacitate suspects and disperse demonstrators. The most familiar are OC ("pepper spray"), mace, tear gas, and the "flash-bang" devices used by SWAT teams. Incapacitating weapons have three basic effects: fright, blinding, and stunning. They do little or no actual damage.

Defensive Sprays

A defensive spray is a small can of irritant liquid – Oleoresin Capsicum (OC) or Mace – intended to be sprayed in the face (-5 to hit) of a target. Many versions fire a cone of liquid (+1 to hit) which can be "walked" (see p. HT78) for +1 per round of continuous fire up to the normal maximum +3 for aiming (see p. B121).

A target hit *in the face* with a defensive spray takes 1 point of damage from skin irritation and burning, and then makes two rolls. The first is a Fright Check at +2, unless the target is familiar with the spray from police, corrections, or military training, or from multiple previous exposures. The second is a HT roll. Defensive sprays need a three-second burst to be fully effective. In *GURPS* terms, if the target is hit in the face once for only one second, the HT roll is at +2. If the target is hit again for one second before the spray can be cleaned off, that HT roll is at +0. If the target is again hit a third time before the spray can be cleaned off, the HT roll is at -2 (also use for subsequent hits). Strong Will and Weak Will have their normal effects. High Pain Threshold gives a +3 bonus to the roll; Low Pain Threshold gives a -3. Targets who are extremely intoxicated (see p. CII164) receive a +3.

Any target that fails the HT roll is instantly blinded (see p. B27) (-10 to all combat skills) for (20-HT) turns (minimum 1) and Stunned (see pp. B99, B127) for (20-HT) turns (minimum 1). Once the blindness wears off, the victim is at -4 to vision and DX rolls and can make a HT roll every 5 minutes to shake off the effects. On the first successful roll, penalties to attributes and skills are halved. The second such roll negates all effects. A successful Physician or First-Aid roll and a gallon of water to flush the eyes allows immediate recovery. Each attempt takes 1 minute.

A target hit in the torso or arm with a defensive spray is only affected if he is foolish enough to touch the affected area before washing it, and then rubs his eyes.

Defensive sprays can be Blocked or Dodged, but not Parried; PD from armor does not apply, but PD from shields does. A gas mask, sealed armor, or sealed eye protection protects completely against the effects of

OC spray or Mace. Eyeglasses are too small and open to provide protection. Defensive sprays can affect a nearby non-target, even the firer, if the spray is used in an enclosed area like a police cruiser. A person within the same hex makes HT rolls at +4 to avoid being partially blinded (-4 to vision and DX, recovery as above).

\$13 to \$16, 2.5 oz. (three 1-second doses) or 4 oz. (12 1-second doses). A typical spray has SS 10, Acc 3, Max 5. There are chemical rounds to be fired from shotguns (see p. 65), which have the same effect as a successful two-second hit of OC spray to anyone in the impact hex.

Flash-Bangs

These are diversionary devices used by SWAT teams to create a bright flash and loud noise (hence the name "flash-bang" grenades; see p. SO105). Anyone within 10 yards of the impact not wearing ear protection and heavily darkened lenses may be incapacitated for several seconds. The target must make a HT-5 roll to avoid being physically stunned. If stunned, he must attempt a HT-5 roll each turn to recover. If the target is wearing appropriate eye and ear protection, the HT rolls are at no penalty. The stun munition also produces white smoke, which gives a -2 penalty to Vision within 5 yards of the device for 10 seconds. Targets affected by a flash-bang might be required to make a Fright Check at +2, reflecting the terror of being suddenly being blinded and deafened.

Riot Gases

Riot gases include CS (ortho-chlorobenzylidenemalononitrile) (TL6, 1920s+), CN (chloroacetophenone) (TL7, 1960s+) and CR (dibenzoxazepine) (TL7, 1970s+), which are used by police for riot control situations and SWAT missions. CS gas is used for outdoor disturbances. CN is used to force suspects out of enclosed spaces and buildings. CR is a newer gas, with effects similar to CS but more pronounced. Riot gases are simply referred to as "tear gas" by the media.



Tear gas is deployed through grenades that spray the gas in a three-yard diameter circle centered on where the grenade lands. Grenades may be thrown, or fired from special weapons. Anyone within or entering a hex containing tear gas must make a Fright Check at +2 unless he is wearing a gas mask, is familiar with tear gas from police, corrections, or military training, or has considerable experience as a demonstrator. Unprotected persons may require periodic Fright Checks to remain in an affected area.

Anyone within or entering an area of tear gas without a gas mask or appropriate protection must roll vs. HT. If they fail the roll, they begin to cough convulsively (-3 to DX, -1 to IQ for CN/CS gas, double that for CR gas). Every turn that the target keeps his eyes open, make another HT check, with a-1 for CN/CS and -2 for CR to avoid partial blindness -5 to DX. Strong Will gives a bonus to HT rolls, but High Pain Threshold only gives a +1 bonus. Low Pain Threshold gives -2 to HT rolls to resist the effects of the gas. Persons holding their breath get a +1 to HT rolls. CR gas causes skin irritation (-1 DX) even to those wearing gas masks unless the skin is completely covered or they make a HT roll at +2.

Tear gas damage is handled as fatigue. After a continuous exposure equal to his HT in seconds, a person not wearing a gas mask or other appropriate protection makes a HT roll (even if not breathing), at-1 for CN, -2 for CS and -4 for CR. If the roll is failed, he takes a point of fatigue damage due to choking, sneezing, and skin irritation. Additional rolls are required after every HT turns. If the victim is reduced to zero fatigue, he begins losing HP instead. He automatically falls unconscious and rolls vs. HT every 5 minutes. Below -HP, he makes a roll vs. HT every 5 minutes or he begins to Suffocate (see p. B122). Tear gas can be lethal in enclosed areas; double or triple the effects if multiple tear gas grenades are used in a poorly ventilated area.

Once the victim gets to clean air, he may try a HT roll every 5 minutes (CN/CS gas) or 10 minutes (CR gas) to shake off the effects of the gas. After the first successful roll, penalties to attributes and skills are halved. The second roll negates all penalties. Bonuses or penalties to the roll for High or Low Pain Threshold apply normally. A successful Physician or First-Aid roll and a gallon of water to flush the eyes will allow immediate recovery. Each attempt takes 1 minute. Fatigue and injury heal at the usual rates.

Tear gas is opaque. Vision rolls are at-1 to -3 per affected yard depending on the concentration of the gas. Gas masks, vacc suits, or sealed armor protect completely against tear gas. Sealed safety or swim goggles give +2 to HT rolls to resist the effects of the gas on the eyes; improvised expedients like wet rags over the face give +1.

Taser

Tasers (also called "electronic defense modules") were common from the late 1980s to early 1990s. They fell out of favor with American police departments after the Rodney King case.

A standard taser is a hand-fired electric stunner with a range of five to seven yards. Compressed gas is used to shoot darts connected to a battery by wires. The darts penetrate up to 2" of normal clothing, but not armor. A taser has SS 14, Acc 2. Reloading takes 10 seconds unless the model has multiple shots.

A struck target must make a Will roll at-4 to avoid being Stunned. The darts do no significant damage unless the target has a bad heart (see p. HT100 for details).

They are usually legal for civilian self-defense. \$160 for a single shot model, 22 oz. Laser sights, double shots, and longer ranges are available at increased cost.

An experimental model now in testing uses ultraviolet laser beams to ionize electrical paths to the target; no darts or wires are necessary. If this is available in a high-tech scenario, treat as a normal taser that cannot penetrate clothing.



Crime Scene Equipment

Crime scene equipment includes anything from an instant camera, a basic fingerprint kit and evidence bags to a small truck full of specialized tools. Some departments don't need or can't afford as much as others. Patrol officers in areas where narcotics are common are often issued field-testing kits for identifying drugs.

In urban precincts, officers should not expect high-tech gadgets. Their equipment is likely to be at least five years out of date and in need of frequent adjustment or repair, with constant promises of a better budget next year. Police in wealthy suburbs have the most modern equipment. The TV show *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation* gives good examples of state-of-the-art crime scene equipment and techniques, but few departments have the budget to maintain such an effort in every case.

Cost and weight varies widely. Crime scene equipment is stored at the station or in a police vehicle's trunk.

Barrier Tape: Brightly colored tape used to mark crime scenes, police lines, or restricted areas. Usually yellow, 3" wide, with the words "Crime Scene Do Not Enter" or other warnings printed on it. Comes in 1,000' rolls for \$10. A plastic reusable dispenser costs \$15. Including dispenser: \$25, 2 lbs.



Crime Scene Placards: Yellow aluminum triangles marked with letters or numbers to mark the location of small pieces of evidence for crime scene photos. Set of 26 letters \$100, 15 numbers \$50, total weight 2 lbs.

Evidence Collection Kit: Case containing barrier tape, tape measure, magnifying glass, evidence tape, bags, tubes, cans, markers, 2 pair of gloves, syringe tube, scissors, tweezers and penlight. \$40, 11 lbs.

Evidence Bags: Sealable plastic bag (12" x 10") with preprinted grid to list chain of custody: 100 for \$20, 8 oz. Sealable brown paper bags (18" x 12") with preprinted grid to list chain of custody: 100 for \$25, 8 oz.

Evidence Tubes: Clear plastic tubes (12" x 3" or 8" x 1.25") for evidence. \$15 for 12 small or 8 large, 1 oz.

Latent Fingerprint Kit, pocket-sized (6" x 4" x 1.5"): Contains 4 drams of black latent powder, 4 drams of white latent powder, 4 drams of "safecracker" latent powder, two 2" x 4" transparent fingerprint lifters, two white fingerprint lifters, two black fingerprint lifters, two powder brushes and a 3x magnifying glass. \$25, 10 oz.



Latent Fingerprint Kit, large, large pocket sized (9+ x 4+ x 2+): Contains 1 oz. of black powder, 1 oz. of silver/gray powder, two fingerprint brushes, four each transparent, black and white fingerprint lifters, four each black-backed and white-backed record cards (3.5" x 5"), a form pad for elimination prints, a pad of ink and a case with zipper. \$50, 1.25 lbs.

Metal Detector: Standard 16" wand: \$150, 1.5 lbs. Small 8" wand: \$200, 8 oz.

Narcotics Testing Kit (portable): Notebook-sized narcotics testing kit designed to fit in a briefcase or patrol cruiser. The kit contains 20 tests, 2 each of various standard tests for heroin, cocaine, marijuana, PCP and other amphetamines, barbiturates and opiates. \$55, 2 lbs.

Traffic Equipment

Police cruisers on traffic duty use a variety of devices to catch speeders. X, K and Ka band radar, gun or cruiser-mounted, is the most common. It projects a broad, cone-shaped beam 200 to 400 feet wide, with an effective range of only a few hundred yards. A cruiser-mounted radar unit costs between \$1,325 and \$1,900. A hand-held radar unit costs between \$900 and \$1,220 and weighs 3 lbs.

Richer departments can afford lasers to catch speeders. A hand-held or tripod-mounted laser unit costs \$3,000 to \$5,000 and weighs 3 oz. to 3 lbs. Its beam widens to a mere three feet at a range of 1,000 feet, so individual vehicles can be isolated even in heavy traffic. Interference from fog, rain, dust, vehicle halogen headlights, and vibration makes lasers harder to use than radar. Lasers cannot be used from inside a police cruiser unless the window is down; the glass induces errors. For distances over 1,200 yards, lasers must be tripod mounted to stop beam shake and instability.



VASCAR is a vehicle-mounted combination calculator and stopwatch that estimates speed over a known distance. \$500 to \$1,000. There is a stopwatch version for use by officers on foot: \$20, 8 oz.

Alcohol Breath Tester: A hand-held unit used for field tests. One version is combined with a flashlight so that an officer can test a driver's breath covertly. Breath testers usually require the subject to blow into a tube, but this unit is held 5" to 7" from the suspect's mouth and samples exhalations from 5 to 10 seconds worth of speaking. Field units give results within 20 seconds.

Courts require a test made on a fixed, calibrated unit located at the police station for court evidence, although a field test can give an officer probable cause to arrest or reasonable suspicion to investigate further. This costs \$260 to \$570 (higher-priced versions have more features). The flashlight version looks like a baton flashlight; \$600, 2 lbs.

Boot (Denver Boot): A brightly painted hardened steel device that clamps around a car's wheel to keep it from rolling. These devices are common with municipal departments seeking to force payment of parking fines; the boot is not removed until the fine is paid. The boot may have an integral lock or be secured with a well-made padlock.

The "light" version of the boot is a caliper-style attachment that is placed on either side of a car or motorcycle tire. PD 4, DR 10. \$125, 9.5 lbs. It takes 10 seconds to properly attach a light boot. Removing the boot without the proper tools requires a roll against Lockpicking or Mechanic at-7.

The "heavy" version of the boot attaches firmly to the vehicle's tire, preventing wheel removal by covering the lug nuts. It takes a minute to properly attach a heavy boot. PD 4, DR 30. \$320, 20 lbs.

Spikes: A 10' chain with 1" metal spikes to puncture the wheels of a car. Used to flatten the tires of a fugitive vehicle and force the driver to stop. One man throws the chain across a roadway in front of the target, and then pulls it clear as pursuing police vehicles approach. \$350, 5 lbs.



Bomb Squad Equipment

In the 1970s, a bomb squad had a hook, a rope, and sandbags. Modern bomb squads are a bit better equipped. A modern bomb squad must have a bomb suit, a disrupter and a portable X-ray machine before the FBI will even accept a two-person team for training.

An urban bomb squad has two bomb suits (armor for working around bombs), two search suits (lighter armor), portable X-ray machines, portable containment vessels, bomb blankets, several kinds of search and disarming robots, a dog trained to search for explosives, several water cannons, bomb disrupters, generators, ropes, hoses, cameras, and various tool kits. They may have a computer with CD-ROMs full of information about disarming improvised explosive devices, and data about previously found devices.

Bomb Armor: The modern (TL8) PS-820 bomb suit has 14 layers of Kevlar armor and a ballistic face shield. Mobility is restricted (-3 DX). PD 3, DR 50 for torso; DR 20 for arms, legs, and head. Face is DR 10. \$10,000, 70 lbs. The Med-Eng SRS-5 lightweight version combines the same PD and DR with chemical and biological protection clothing and an SCBA breathing apparatus. \$50,000, 60 lbs.

Bomb squad officers prefer to work on a device with their bare hands; they use gauntlets only if they must move the bomb manually. Page B211 describes the TL7 version of this armor.

Deamrer: An 8" long tube fixed to a stand that holds a .50 caliber round. The bullets are electrically fired, with a variety of special slugs including cylinders, wedges, chisels, and forked tines. There are even plastic slugs filled with water or finely powdered shot. They are designed to destroy timing and firing devices. If used as an improvised weapon, treat as a shotgun firing smallshot (see p. HT18). \$1,000, 20 lbs.

Disrupter: A remotely fired gun which fires a cartridge into a bomb to destroy the timing or firing device. The disrupter is carefully set in place by a bomb squad officer or robot, then fired from a safe distance. Often it fires a pint of water at high velocity. If it is used as an improvised weapon, treat it as a shotgun firing smallshot (see p. HT18). \$2,500, 40 lbs.

Explosives Blanket: Kevlar and steel shield used to suppress bombs the bomb squad can't defuse. A typical blanket gives everyone in the area an effective DR 25 vs. the blast. Unless the explosive device is very small, the blanket is rendered useless after damping one explosion. Size is 5' x 5' including handles. Cost \$4,500, weight 40 lbs. This is a change from *Special Ops* p. SO94, which lists the cost as \$300. Prices for this item in the civilian market are much higher.

Explosives Detector ("Sniffer"): Hand-held device used to locate suspected explosives. There are a variety of models, ranging from hand-held wands which sniff for vapor to broom-style probes which emit neutron beams and search for scattering by hydrogen-bearing materials. \$2,000, 14 lbs.

Portable X-Ray Unit: X-ray camera working in real-time or using film. The transmitter is placed on one side of a device, the receiver on the other. \$5,000, 35 lbs.

Robots: A bomb squad robot is a tracked or multi-wheeled vehicle with a TV camera for eyes and microphones for ears. The operator controls it through a tether. It carries X-ray equipment and other special tools, and allows men to stay clear while the bomb is first examined. Often the robot is used to move the bomb into a containment vessel where it can be safely exploded.

Accessories found on real-life police robots include shotguns (for destroying bombs), non-lethal weapons (electric stunners and tear gas launchers), and manipulator arms (for picking up and carrying suspicious packages; ST is 10-20, DX is 8-9). Many robots carry other gadgetry like fire extinguishers, spotlights, and sirens.

Remotely operated robots use Electronics Operation (Cybernetics) skill. The operator can fire weapons, use built-in sensors, etc. Use his own skills at a-3 penalty.

A large (person-sized) unit costs \$50,000-\$110,000 and weighs 300-700 lbs. A small (child-sized) unit costs \$25,000 and weighs about 50 lbs.

Tool Kits: A bomb tech will carry an assortment of equipment he personally finds useful, including fiber optic cameras, mirrors, flashlights, basic hand tools, pliers, wire cutters, silly string (to find trip wires) and a Leatherman or similar multi-tool. Plaster of Paris (to gum up devices or block plungers) and non-magnetic tools are common. Cost and weight vary widely.

Water Cannon: A Neutrex water cannon with an infrared sight. Fires a blast of water at ultrahigh speed to shatter suspected bombs from a safe distance. Damage 5d water; range 2 hexes. \$5,000, 40 lbs.

SWAT Equipment

SWAT teams use equipment similar to that used by military special ops teams (see *GURPS Special Ops* for details). They often use military flight suits, web gear, vests (see pp. SO94-95), night vision equipment (see pp. HT94-95, 103; SO98, 101), and gas masks (see pp. HT98, SO95). They use military smoke and tear gas grenades and stun grenades ("flash-bangs") as described above.

Climbing Gear: The same climbing equipment used by mountaineers and rescue workers is used by SWAT teams. Thanks to modern materials, these devices have load tolerances in the thousands of pounds. This exceeds the strength of the rope used with them (see p. B213).

Ascender: Any of a broad class of mechanical gadgets which use cams, ratchets, springs, etc., to let the user rapidly ascend a free-hanging rope. This cancels the -2 to Climbing skill for climbing up a rope (see p. B89). \$60, 12 oz.

Descender: A small, metal device (called a "rappel rack") used when rapidly descending a rope, or rappelling. Roll vs. Climbing +3 to rappel down the side of a building, or Climbing +1 to descend a rope dangling from a helicopter. Without a descender, rappelling rolls are made at-2, or at-5 if you lack gloves as well. \$40, 1 lb.

Grappling Hook: A spark-free grapnel with a low-visibility matte-black finish. \$50, 2.5 lbs.

Harness: A light, high-quality harness with fittings for a variety of climbing gear. When used with a rope, this gives +1



to all Climbing rolls and keeps the user from falling. It also allows him to hang in midair and pivot sideways or upside down, and leaves his hands free to pick locks or plant bugs. In matte black, with a quick-release button. \$300, 2 lbs.

Explosive Door Opener: Gunpowder-driven chisel used to force a door by breaking the hinges, lock, or bars. The operator chooses the chisel and explosives charge, sets the tool against the door and fires. \$600, 6 lbs.

Go-Bar (also called a Hallagan Tool): A 30-inch pry bar (Holdout-4) optimized for forcing doors and snapping padlocks. It allows barred doors to be opened by winning a Quick Contest of ST vs. the door's hit points. A normal wooden door has 5-10 hit points; armored doors have 20+ hit points and require a ram (see below). Made of spark-free metal, with a matte-black finish. \$160, 11 lbs. A 20-inch version is more concealable (Holdout -2) but less effective (-2 to ST). \$115, 4 lbs.

Hand Rams: These handheld hydraulic rams greatly magnify and focus the user's ST, letting him (noisily!) force locked doors. They are useless as weapons (unless the target is strapped to an unyielding surface), and slow and tiring to use; each ramming attempt takes 2 seconds and costs 1 fatigue. A mini-ram is \$240, 17 lbs. and inflicts swing+(1d+2) damage; it is barely concealable (Holdout-5). Larger models are \$300 to \$360, 35 lbs., delivering swing+(3d+1), and \$435, 50 lbs., inflicting swing+(5d-1); these are not concealable and require a heavy sling.

Hydraulic Door Opener: A compact (Holdout -2), hand-pumped jack for forcing locked or barred doors, no matter which way they open. Opens ordinary doors (and car doors) silently in about 3 seconds. \$1,425, 9 lbs.

Lockpicks: The lockpicks needed to open modern locks are expensive: an ordinary set is \$140, a fine-quality set (+1 skill) is \$270. Cost \$180, weight negligible. Assess from-1 to -4 skill to those using the \$30 bargain-basement version on p. B213.

Robots: SWAT teams also use robots equipped with cameras to scout locations and carry field telephones to hostage holders.

Undercover Equipment

Nagra Tape Recorder: The standard tape recorder used by the FBI. Measures 3" x 5" by 3/4." It has a three-hour tape. The microphone is the size of a pencil eraser and attached to the recorder by a long wire. The agent can turn the recorder on or off, but once it is turned on, he must leave it on for an entire conversation. The agent can't pause it during irrelevant bits to stretch out the tape; gaps invalidate the tape for court purposes. The agent also can't play it back in the field to make certain it is working. \$100, 8 oz. Holdout +3.

T-4 transmitter: The standard transmitter used by the FBI. Measures roughly 3 1/2" by 2" by 1/4." The unit transmits continuously. Its antenna is 1" to 2" long with a small bulb on the end. A fresh battery lasts 4 hours. The transmitter's range is some four blocks and can be disrupted by steel frame buildings, passing cars, or bad atmospheric conditions. \$100, 8 oz. Holdout +4. It sometimes broadcasts on a frequency that can be picked up on a nearby television – an embarrassing and dangerous situation for the agent.

Smaller disguised recorders and transmitters are used, but are finicky and unreliable. Electronics Operations (Communications) is used to attach and use a transmitter. This skill can be substituted for IQ in determining how well a particular sound was recorded by the tape or transmitter. Holdout skill is used to hide the recorder. Tape recorders and transmitters can be taped to the body, kept in a jacket pocket, or hidden in a boot.

Near-Future Police Equipment

The National Institute of Justice's National Law Enforcement and Corrections Technology Center's website at www.nlectc.org/techproj/ describes a variety of pending projects. Among the more interesting for roleplaying are:

Micro Air Vehicles (MAVs)

The U.S. military has been experimenting with a series of remotely piloted vehicles (RPVs). The hope is to give each squad its own tiny spy plane providing real-time scouting with bugging devices, cameras, chemical sniffers, and other sensors. The smallest existing RPV is 6' long by 9' wide, weighs 8 lbs., and can fly at 2,000 feet for 2 hours at 25-50 mph. It is too large and far too expensive for a SWAT team to use.

The military's ultimate goal is a flying machine no larger than 6 inches in any dimension, weighing less than 2 oz., with a flight duration of 20 to 60 minutes, a range of 10 km, a max speed of 22 to 45 mph and a payload of 20 grams. This has been christened the Micro Air Vehicle (MAV).

If technical bugs can be worked out, a SWAT team or patrol officer could have a micro-air vehicle patrol, scout buildings, tail suspects, and even provide limited fire support.

MAVs are TL8. They will require a pilot and ground-or vehicle-based piloting station until computer programming is able to handle flight and navigation automatically.



Passive Millimeter Weapons Detection Systems

The military has also been experimenting with a variety of improved metal and weapons detectors. One of them measures the tiny amounts of millimeter radiation any living body produces. A camera using this technology, no larger than a radar gun, could scan people on the street. Bodies show up as white auras. Metal and other dense materials which block the radiation show up as dark spots. When these sensors are perfected, they should be able to easily reveal concealed weapons and packets of drugs to officers as they drive past in their cruiser.

Personal Health Status Monitor

Corrections departments have been experimenting with cigarette-package-sized units which monitor a prisoner's heartbeat and respiration. Mounted (usually) just outside the cell, the monitor is used for patients on medical or suicide watch. This device would not be useful for security or patrol, since it must be calibrated to the cell and to the prisoner.

Through the Wall Imaging Radar

A project to create portable radar units that can map interior walls and detect persons through exterior walls. An ultrasonic version is being tested to use in buildings where metal walls foil radar. One version being tested by prisons can detect a person through an 8" concrete or cinder block wall by the movement of his chest (due to breathing) and their heartbeat. One reviewer suggested the device could be used as an impromptu lie detector (see p. 103).

Police Cruisers

The standard police cruiser is a midsize four-door car equipped with a light bar, siren, spotlight, prisoner cage, and push bars on the front bumper. Less obvious are the heavy-duty suspension, the engine designed to provide more power at idle, the enhanced electrical system, the powerful battery to support all the accessories, and the calibrated speedometer marked in 2 mph increments.

Ford Crown Victorias and Ford Expedition SUVs are common American cruisers. A used, year-old Crown Victoria cruiser with less than 45,000 miles on it costs \$16,500. A new Crown Victoria cruiser costs \$23,800.

Subassemblies: body +3, four standard wheels +1, full-rotation turret [Body:L] -1.

Powertrain: 100-kW standard gas engine (burns 4 gallons per hour) and wheeled drive train with 20-gallon standard fuel tank; 2,500-kWs battery.

Occupancy: 1 RCS, 1RPS, 3CPS **Cargo:** 20 cf

Armor	F	RL	B	T	U
Body:	3/15*	3/5	3/5	3/5	3/5
Wheels:	3/5	3/5	3/5	3/5	3/5
OM:	3/5	3/5	3/5	3/5	3/5

* All but DR 5 of frontal DR is open frame (push bars).

Backs of front seats have PD 3, DR 10.

PD 3, DR 5 cage surrounds back seats.

Equipment

Body: Medium-range (30-mile) two-way radio, emergency lights and siren, brigs and restraints for the three back passenger seats, improved suspension, improved brakes, environmental control, airbags for driver station and front passenger seat. **Open Mount:** Standard searchlight (range 0.5 miles, radius 1 yard; see p. VEH49 for blinding an individual looking toward the cruiser).

Statistics

Dim.: 12'x5'x5' **Payload:** 0.7 tons **LWt.:** 2.5 tons
Volume: 215 cf **Maint.:** 155 hours **Cost:** \$17,289

HT: 12. HPs: 188 Body, 19 each Wheel, 5 Open Mount.

gSpeed: 115 **gAccel:** 5 **gDecel:** 15 **gMR:** 1 **gSR:** 5
Off-road speed 19 mph.

Design Notes

Surface areas are body 250, wheels 50, and open mount 2.

Structure is light, cheap materials. The brigs and restraints are a steel bar for locking handcuffs onto, an armor plate for the two front seats, and an armor latticework for the cage. The lattice impairs vision slightly (-2 to Vision rolls) and can be penetrated by thin objects like needles.

A U.K. police car is based on a standard European model and hence is smaller than its American counterpart. An urban patrol car is selected for economy and maneuverability; motorway (highway) patrols use larger, faster vehicles. Most forces favor British-built vehicles, such as Fords or Rovers, although Volvos, Saabs and Subarus are all possible and highway patrols may use Jaguars. A U.K. police car is white or blue, with a colored or checked band that identifies its home county and function.

French police cruisers are made by French manufacturers like Renault, Citroen and Peugeot. Some are painted in a black and white pattern; others are white with a red stripe on the sides and hood. French police cars have a light bar or a single rotating blue light.

Unmarked police cars can be any kind of vehicle bought, donated, or seized by police. They can sometimes be recognized by the extra antennas needed for radios, mobile computers, and cell phones.

Police cruisers used for traffic stops have mounted radar units, laser/radar guns and video cameras to record traffic stops. The dash-mounted camera and microphone (carried on the officer's belt or lapel), turn on automatically whenever the cruiser's flashing lights are activated. They record the activities during a stop. This has led to a marked increase in DUI convictions and decrease in charges of improper conduct by officers. Police cruisers often have a shotgun rack between the front seats or mounted on the ceiling.

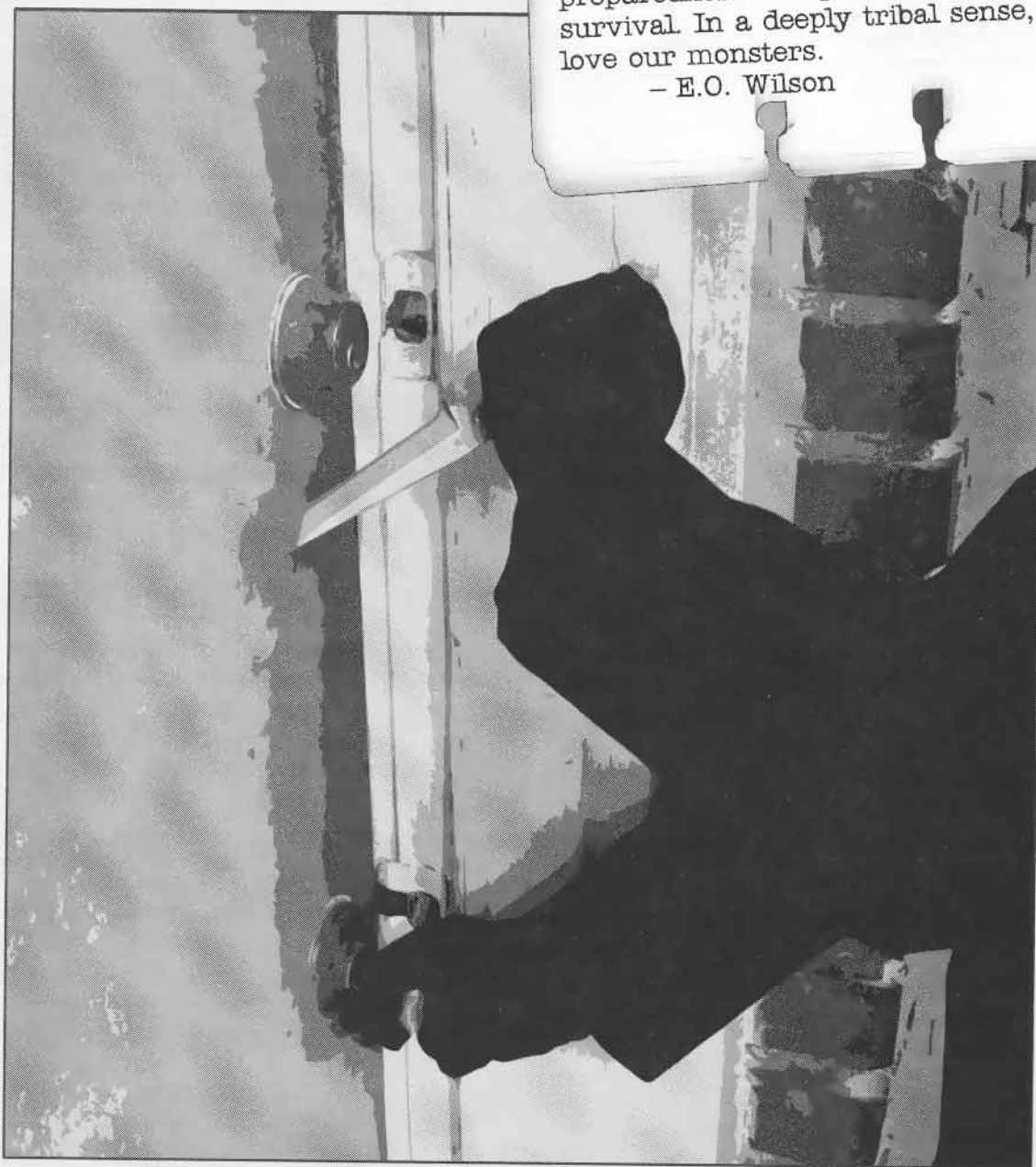


Chapter 4:

Criminals

We're not just afraid of predators, we're transfixed by them, prone to weave stories and fables and chatter endlessly about them, because fascination creates preparedness and preparedness equals survival. In a deeply tribal sense, we love our monsters.

— E.O. Wilson



Criminals in real life are more pathetic than interesting. The vast majority are young, poorly educated, addicted to drugs or alcohol, and impulsive, with short tempers. They may be street-smart, but they are rarely a match for a rookie cop. They are not likely to outwit the officers, but they may attack or run if they are desperate enough. The intelligent, resourceful criminals who stride across movie and television screens are rare.

Adversaries who have coherent alibis, who take serious steps to hide forensic evidence, who banter smoothly with detectives in the interrogation room, are formidable foes. They are most likely to be encountered during investigations of major crimes by detectives and federal agents.

True criminal masterminds, the Don Corleones of the world, are the ultimate targets of federal agents and international task forces. A large organized crime group has the resources of a federal agency or a small government. It may have deep ties to politicians, domestic and abroad. It may utilize sophisticated equipment and hire mercenary employees as well trained – or better – than the investigating agents. Taking down a criminal mastermind may ultimately involve chases and gunfights, but that will be after years of painstaking detective work, undercover investigation, stakeouts, and wiretaps, slowly drawing the noose around the leaders of the crime family.

Adversaries for Patrol Officers

Patrol officers spend their time cruising around their beat and responding to calls from the dispatcher. Their adversaries are addicts, abusers, petty thieves, street gangs, and the neighborhood troublemakers. A good patrol officer gets out of his cruiser now and then. He plays basketball with the teens on his beat, talks with the old-timers hanging out on the front stoop, and goes to community meetings to get to know not just the troublemakers in the neighborhood, but the leaders and everyday working people as well.

A patrol officer's challenges vary in tone, and may not involve crimes at all. There are situations like motor vehicle accidents and disturbance calls (loud arguments, wild parties, or stray animals). There's the occasional tense situation: a suspected intruder, a silent alarm, domestic disputes, or a mentally ill person who needs protective custody. Calls about assault, theft, threats, drug offenses, and prostitution are less common; violent crimes like homicide, rape, aggravated assault, and robbery are even more unusual.

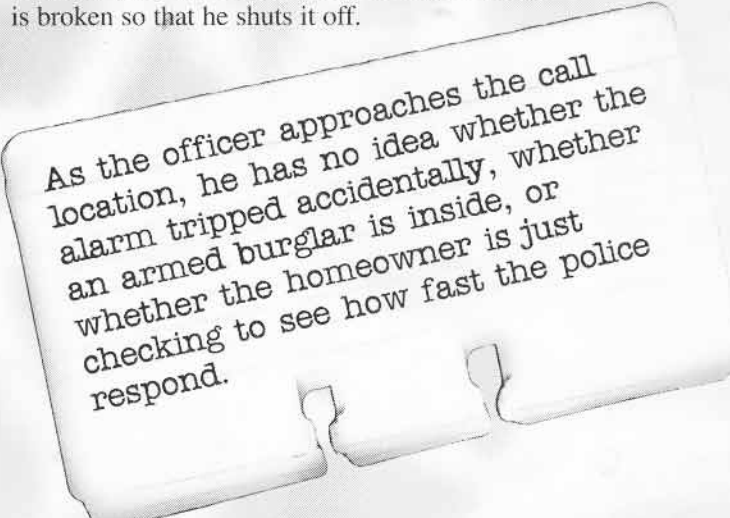
Motor vehicle accidents are chaotic situations. Angry, injured drivers yell at each other while rubberneckers back up traffic as they cruise slowly past. Officers might need First Aid, Diplomacy, and Law Enforcement to assess and treat the injured, separate the arguing parties to avoid a fight, prepare an incident report, and direct traffic around the incident . . . all at once.

Traffic accidents can be a seemingly innocuous hook to larger adventures. Why is the driver sweating so profusely? Is he a celebrity on his way back from his mistress' house?

Does he have a couple of kilos of cocaine in his trunk on his way to a buyer? Perhaps the car is stolen? If the officer is the first responder, he may heroically pull a victim out of a burning car. Or he may have to listen to an 80-year-old man complain that this idiot made him have his first accident.

Disturbance calls require patience and diplomatic skills. A neighbor calls and complains about a loud party, or there is a fight between two teen-aged girls. Someone may technically have committed a misdemeanor or violated a local ordinance, but an arrest might make the real problem worse. There may be an underlying dispute between neighbors or tenants that will continue to simmer and generate endless minor complaints unless the officers diplomatically settle the matter. Serious crimes may also come in as disturbance calls. The officers respond to a loud party only to find a teen dying of a drug overdose on the floor, or a rape in progress. The barking dog might be defending its territory against a burglar casing the house. A fight between two teens can escalate into armed assault when teenage machismo and a kitchen knife overcome common sense.

All alarm calls and suspected burglary calls make for tense response situations. As the officer approaches the call location, he has no idea whether the alarm tripped accidentally, whether an armed burglar is inside, or whether the homeowner is just checking to see how fast the police respond. Business alarms, especially from a convenience store or liquor store, may mean that a robbery is in progress. Sophisticated burglars may set off alarms repeatedly, then run and hide, both to test police response time and to see if they can trick the owner into thinking the alarm is broken so that he shuts it off.



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Domestic disputes are common and dangerous situations for police. Most departments take domestic abuse very seriously. It can happen to people in any social class, of any age or race, between either heterosexual or homosexual couples. One or both of the partners may have been drinking or using drugs. There may be injuries. There may be children present. Often, police are repeatedly summoned to the same address by neighbors or family members. No matter how angry the couple is with each other, they treat the officers as unwelcome intruders, often using fists, knives, or guns to protect their partner from police.

Patrol officers learn that battering and abuse are not momentary lapses. Battering is about control and fear. It involves intimidation, threats, psychological abuse, and isolation from friends and family. It is a matter of coercing and controlling the victim. More than half of men who abuse their partners also abuse their children. (Women also abuse their spouses, but this is less common, or at least less commonly reported.) The threat of violence is more common than actual violence, but threats escalate into the real thing.

Police are trained to encourage victims to get restraining orders and press charges against the abuser. Patrol officers learn that women who leave partners who batter them are at risk of being stalked or murdered. They refer women to special shelters whose locations are kept confidential. If a child is being abused, police contact the state child welfare office, which may remove the child from the home temporarily. Child welfare

Society Control Ratings

Control Ratings and Weapons Legality (see p. B249) are shorthand for legal systems. Reality is a great deal more complex and less logical. Look at one ordinary U.S. state, for example.

In Massachusetts, a person must have a Firearms ID card to purchase and carry pepper spray.

A Class B firearms permit is needed for hunting rifles and shotguns and to own and carry handguns for target shooting.

A Class A permit is needed to own any rifle, shotgun, or pistol with a larger than 10-round magazine or 5-round shotgun tube, or to carry a firearm concealed.

A third kind of permit is needed to possess fully automatic weapons. This license is only available to collectors, not for target shooting or self-defense purposes. (A separate federal permit is also required to own fully automatic weapons.)

There is no permit issued for any other weapon in Massachusetts. In fact, it is illegal to carry any of a long list of prohibited weapons including: "stiletos, switch blades, ballistic knives, dirk knives, any knife with a double edged-blade, slung shots, blow guns, blackjacks, metal knuckles, nunchaku, zoobow, klackers or kung fu sticks, shuriken or similar pointed star like throwing object, armbands with spikes, point or studs, cestus, manrikigusari and billys." Electronic defense weapons (Tasers) are also illegal. It is absolutely prohibited to own or carry any of these items for any reason, with no exemptions.

Weapon legality varies by place. It is very hard to legally bring a firearm onto an airplane (see p. 62). Unless one is a police officer on duty, it is illegal to carry most weapons into a federal building, even a post office. It is illegal to bring weapons into some federal parks and forests.

In Massachusetts, it is illegal to bring a weapon onto school grounds (including colleges and universities) without written permission from the administration. More school weapons laws are being passed in the wake of high school shootings such as the infamous Columbine massacre.

social workers seek court orders to place an abused or neglected child in foster care and can require the parents to take parenting classes or attend Alcoholics or Narcotics Anonymous before the child is returned to the home. In extreme cases, child welfare social workers permanently remove a child from his parents and place him for adoption. This often sparks a violent response from parents who insist that they were merely disciplining their children, protecting them from the outside environment, or following the dictates of their religion.

A relative or friend may ask police to check on an elderly person living alone who has stopped answering telephone calls. Or the police may be asked to take drunks or addicts into protective custody. These are called "welfare checks" or "people cared for" checks. Police may find that the "victim" has simply decided he doesn't want to talk to the caller, has gone on vacation, or is in the hospital. Or they find him badly injured, dead, even murdered.

Criminal calls are common. This can be anything from a citizen complaint about drug dealing or prostitutes in the neighborhood to a report of a violent robbery in progress. In urban areas, patrol officers take the initial report and arrest a suspect if he is present or can be immediately located, but then the case is turned over to a detective.

If a patrol officer comes across a major crime, his job is to secure the crime scene, give first aid to any survivors, and pursue suspects only if they are immediately visible. Detectives get the glory of investigating and solving major crimes, although patrol officers do a great deal of the leg work searching for witnesses and persuading (or intimidating) them to testify.

Crimes Encountered by Patrol Officers

Patrol officers deal with a wide variety of crimes . . . felonies, misdemeanors, and petty offenses. An officer needs a good working knowledge of the criminal laws in his jurisdiction. He needs to know enough about what is and is not a crime to decide when he has reason to stop and arrest someone. He needs to know enough to keep from being sued for wrongful actions (although many cops carry insurance against making mistakes). Technical distinctions are a matter for the prosecutor and the courts.

Felonies are serious crimes – homicide, kidnapping, rape, arson, assault, and burglary. These are punished by a year or more in prison. Capital murder is punishable by death in many U.S. states and under federal law. Even after a convicted felon completes his sentence, he may never regain important civil rights like the right to vote, to serve on a jury, or to legally own a firearm.

Misdemeanors are less serious crimes like shoplifting and petty theft. These are punished by less than a year in prison, or by fines. Petty offenses are things like disturbing the peace or traffic offenses, which result in fines or very short jail terms.

A criminal does not have to be successful, or even present at the scene of a crime, to be convicted. It is a crime to attempt to commit a crime; it is a crime to conspire to commit a crime; and one can be an accomplice before, after, or during an offense.

The lists of crimes and punishments in this chapter are simple and generic; this is *not* a legal reference book! Different states use terms in different ways, and punishments differ. To portray a specific jurisdiction, like New York City, go to a library and look up its criminal code. The GM should assume that officer or lawyer *characters* will be familiar with the important parts of their local criminal code, and will know all the details of the parts they handle daily.

Assault

Assault is causing or *threatening* bodily harm to another human being. If someone believably tells another person that they are going to harm them, or fakes an attack with intent to frighten the victim, that is assault, even if no violence takes place. In some jurisdictions, actual violence escalates the crime to “assault and battery.” In others, the severity of the contemplated or actual attack is what is important, so threatening with a gun is a worse offense than actually throwing a punch.

The criminal’s intent, the injuries caused, and whether a weapon was used affect the seriousness of the assault. A simple fist fight in a bar is a misdemeanor punishable by a fine or up to one year in jail. Shooting someone with a gun is a felony punishable by one to 20 years in jail.

Child abuse and domestic assault are separate offenses. In most states, if a teacher, doctor, nurse, counselor, or other caregiver suspects that a child has been or is being abused, he is required to report the situation to the state child welfare office, which investigates the child’s situation.

If a person dating, living with, or married to another person has been assaulted, or fears an assault, he can apply to the criminal courts for a “restraining order.” This court order prohibits the other person from harming, approaching, or contacting the complainant. Domestic restraining orders can be granted immediately for 10 days without notice to the other party. At the end of 10 days, the other party is entitled to challenge the order in court. Restraining orders must usually be renewed each year. Violation of a restraining order is a criminal offense punishable by a jail term of one to three years. These orders are taken seriously – calling to ask about a child’s grades, or sending flowers to a sick ex-spouse, has triggered prosecution.

Burglary

This is the crime of entering a private home, or a business not open to the public without permission, with the intent of committing a felony inside. The sentence ranges from one to 20 years in jail, depending on whether the burglar was armed, entered the building at night, or injured someone inside the building.

Thieves respect property. They merely wish the property to become their property that they may more perfectly respect it.
– G.K. Chesterton



Criminal Trespass

This crime occurs when someone enters or stays in a building without permission to do so or after being told to leave by the lawful owner. Criminal trespass is a misdemeanor with a maximum jail term of one year.

Theft

Theft includes any sort of unlawful taking or withholding of someone’s property. It includes fraud, extortion, embezzlement, keeping found property, receiving stolen property, unauthorized use of a car and shoplifting. The sentences can range from one to 20 years, adjusted for the amount stolen and the circumstances.

Riot

It does not require a mob, or even violence, to commit this offense. It is illegal for two or more people to engage in disorderly conduct to commit a felony, to prevent or coerce official action, or to refuse to disperse when ordered to do so by a police officer. This is a misdemeanor with a possible sentence of one year or less.

Disorderly Conduct

This is a catch-all crime. It is illegal to cause public inconvenience, annoyance, or alarm by engaging in threatening behavior, fighting, offensive speech or display, making unreasonable noise, or creating a hazardous or offensive condition. This is a misdemeanor with a maximum sentence of one year.

Public drunkenness or drug incapacitation, loitering, stalking, cruelty to animals, and open lewdness are all included under disorderly conduct.

Driving while intoxicated (DWI) or operating under the influence (OUI) is a disorderly conduct offense. For a first offense, penalties may involve fines, loss of driver’s license for several months, and mandatory alcohol or drug counseling. For subsequent offenses, one to three years of jail time or more may be imposed.

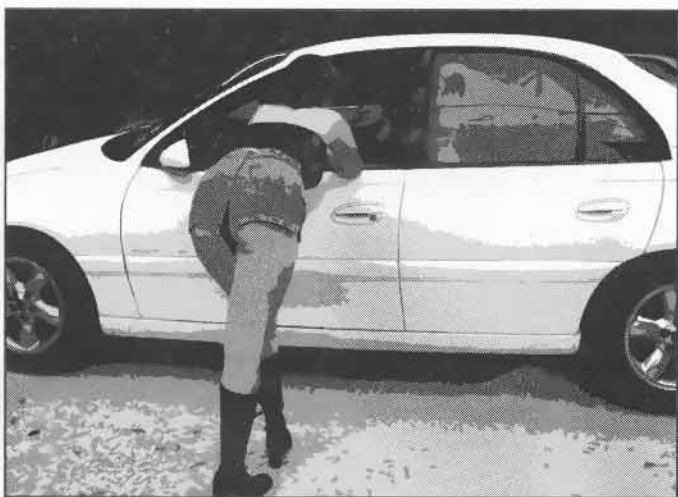
Prostitution

Prostitution is engaging in sexual activity as a business. It is illegal to loiter in any public place to be hired to engage in sexual activity or to promote prostitution, manage or own a house of prostitution, solicit or patronize a prostitute, or encourage or induce someone to become a prostitute.

Prostitution is generally a felony with a sentence of one to three years. Often prostitutes plead guilty to a lesser disorderly conduct offense and receive only a fine or short jail sentence.

Patrol officers arrest prostitutes – or ask them to move elsewhere – in response to public complaints. Detectives arrest prostitutes during undercover surveillance or sting operations.

This is effectively a morals violation, and the punishment depends strongly on local culture and, especially, religious practice. Even within the U.S., there are some locations where prostitution is legal. Other countries' governments differ widely in their handling of prostitution, ranging from implicitly encouraging it to stamping it out mercilessly.



Gambling

Gambling laws vary widely. It is illegal in many states to bet on sports events and card games, or hold private lotteries. Illegal gambling may be a misdemeanor with a maximum sentence of one year, or a felony with a one to five year sentence, depending on the amounts being gambled.

Patrol officers arrest gamblers in response to public complaints. Detectives arrest gamblers during undercover surveillance or sting operations.

Narcotics

Narcotics offenses vary from massive drug-smuggling plots to mislabeling of medications. It is illegal to possess, sell, or traffic in a wide variety of drugs, ranging from prescription drugs to heroin. Narcotics are regulated by state and federal law.

Narcotics offenses are usually felonies, with sentences from one to 25 years depending on the type of narcotic, the amount seized, whether it was for use or for sale and whether the seizure took place near (1,000 to 1,500 feet) a university, school, or day care center. First offenders get shorter sentences than repeat offenders. Persons addicted to narcotics get shorter sentences for possession and sale than those who are not addicts.

Adversaries for Detectives

Detectives deal with violent crimes and ongoing criminal enterprises like prostitution, gambling, and loan-sharking. Detectives set up surveillance, undercover buys, and sting operations; they do not patrol. Nor do they respond to incoming calls in the same way as a beat cop. When a detective catches a case, a patrol officer is already at the crime scene and has determined that an actual crime needs attention.

In large departments, detectives may be divided into several units: homicide, major crime, vice, gangs. A campaign could be focused around such a unit, or could be set in a small department where a single detective squad handles all serious crimes. Only the larger cities have enough homicides to keep a squad of four or more Homicide detectives busy.

Detectives in a realistic game are rarely involved in chases and gunfights. They arrive at a crime scene after patrol officers have already secured it. Suspects and witnesses may bolt when interviewed or arrested, but the detective has a fair amount of control over the timing and location of confrontations. Solving mysteries is complex and a common plot in many adventures; it is discussed in Chapter 5.

Murderers

Homicide detectives are common fictional heroes. Detective dramas are full of clever white-collar murderers who eliminate spouses, mistresses, business rivals, or whistleblowers – then try to outwit the homicide detectives with the perfect crime. These are not recurring adversaries, but they have the intelligence, wealth, and influence to make an investigation challenging.

Real homicides are rarely difficult to solve. Few people are clever enough to plan a murder, commit it, successfully disguise their involvement in the crime, and elude suspicion. People kill someone close to them, on impulse, under stress. Usually, the aggrieved ex-spouse is standing over the body when police arrive. A barroom brawl goes too far. A recently fired worker decides to kill his former supervisor. An abused spouse or child is killed, or kills his abuser in self-defense. A street kid pops another youth wearing rival gang colors on the wrong block.

Victim and killer often know each other. The causes of the dispute are obvious. There are often witnesses. The weapon used is whatever is available. Forensic evidence is obvious. The killer is either caught at the scene, turns himself in, or is swiftly arrested after a clumsy attempt to disguise the crime as a robbery or suicide. Some even kill themselves rather than face their deeds. When confronted, the typical killer is honestly sorry for what he did and confesses to the police.

Some homicides are accidents. A drunken driver hits a pedestrian and then flees in panic. Witnesses may be able to identify the car. If not, paint and glass chips, as well as bloodstains and damage to the car body, make it relatively easy to find the culprit.

White-collar criminals and gangsters are among the detective's less-common foes. These cases are more interesting because the murderer has intelligence and the resources to cover his tracks, lay false trails, bribe witnesses, and tamper with evidence. These criminals are smart enough to hire experienced lawyers and may have political connections or favors owed to them. Police must tread lightly. When a homeless addict with a long record complains that an officer beat a confession out of him, the courts and the officer's superiors rarely investigate. When a middle-class bank executive says that police treated him poorly, judges and the brass look much harder at his allegations. Trying to force gangsters to talk has obvious risks.

Serial Killers

Serial killers are popular cinematic villains because of the depravity of their crimes and their ability to avoid detection and capture for years. Fictional killers like Hannibal Lecter (*The Silence of the Lambs*) have given serial killers a creepy popular appeal. They are seen as cunning, charismatic sociopaths who taunt the police with clever clues. Real killers like Ted Bundy and Jeffrey Daumer are pathetic men holding low-prestige jobs. They may have a long history of failed relationships, failed careers, and failed attempts to join the police or the military.

A typical serial killer is male. He comes from a broken or dysfunctional home. He may have been physically, emotionally, or sexually abused as a child. When young, many such killers were bed-wetters until a late age, enjoyed starting fires, or were cruel to animals or other children.

Serial killers have low self-esteem; they blame the world, not themselves, for their failures. They see themselves as manipulated, controlled and dominated by others. Many have problems with authority figures. As killers (or rapists), they become the authority figure and assume the control their lives are lacking. They manipulate, control, and dominate their victims, getting retribution for all the problems in their lives. Generally, serial killers work alone; when there are double offenders, there is a dominant leader and a subservient follower. Group killers like Charles Manson's followers are, fortunately, extremely rare.

A serial killer will be a recurring adversary, at least until police discover his identity. Serial killers occasionally leave clues or write letters to newspapers to taunt investigators or justify their deeds. Some are identified only by their method, or type of victim. Once a serial killer is caught, police may have to repeatedly interview him to close cases and find bodies for the victims' families.

Real homicides are rarely difficult to solve. Few people are clever enough to plan a murder, commit it, successfully disguise their involvement in the crime, and elude suspicion.

Is Someone You Know a Serial Killer?

- Most serial killers are American.
- 87% are loners.
- 85% are male.
- 82% are Caucasian.
- Most serial killers are between 22 and 50 years old.
- Most serial killers are intelligent and able to act rationally.
- Most serial killers are unmarried; many live with their parents.
- Most serial killers are meek in personality and easily dominated by others.
- Most serial killers have jobs without power or authority; many work in entry-level jobs like gas station attendant or janitor.
- Most serial killers drive VW bugs (old version), or commercial-style vans with no windows in the rear.
- Most serial killers fantasize about being police officers. They may have tried and failed to join police departments, and try to work in related fields like security guard or watchman.

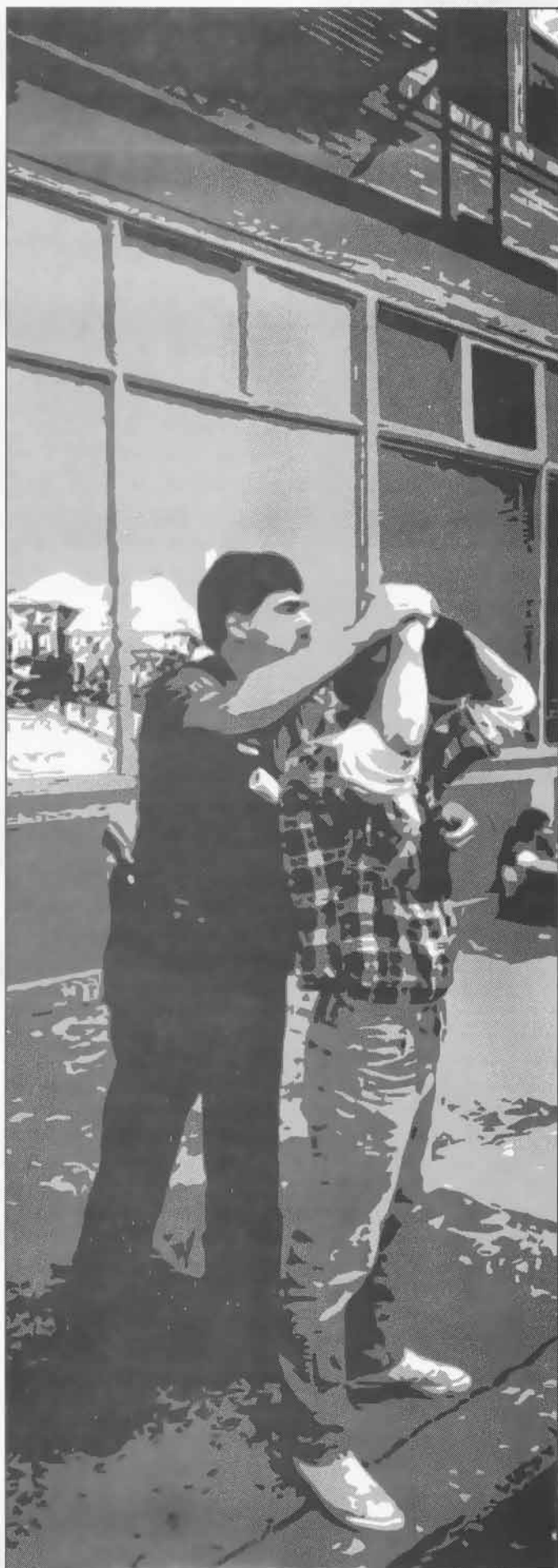
If this describes you, or someone you know, don't be surprised. This profile, compiled by the FBI, describes tens of millions of Americans and shows as much about the limitations of statistical profiling as it does about the characteristics of serial killers.

Violent Crimes

Like homicide, rape and robberies are not difficult to solve. If the victim doesn't know the assailant, he can describe him or perhaps identify him in a lineup. In sexual assault cases, there may be DNA evidence, which can be matched against a known sex offender registry to see if the assailant is a repeat offender. If a victim is robbed in a store, or near an ATM, security cameras may have videotaped the attack. As with homicide, in the majority of cases the detectives' problem will be less "Who did it?" than "How do I prove it?"

White Collar Criminals

Embezzlement, theft, selling defective products, hazardous waste dumping, and computer crime are common white collar crimes, but they should be used dramatically as the hidden motive behind another major crime rather than as the "hook" for an adventure. Police use white-collar crimes as a way to prosecute otherwise unassailable major criminals. The federal government convicted Al Capone not of violating federal alcohol laws, but for evading taxes. This tactic is currently used against major drug dealers, gangsters and other criminals who have obvious wealth with no visible (legal) source.



Street Gangs

One LAPD detective described a typical street gang member as someone who “doesn’t work and never will. They’re losers in society with no niche other than gangs to fit into. They join gangs for power and recognition, jack up people for entertainment and have no fear of going to jail. In jail they do what they would on the street – hang out with their friends, kick back, jive and tell stories about stealing from another prisoner’s chow tray or making another punk grovel. It makes them feel they have power.”

State and local detectives will find themselves investigating and prosecuting street gangs. Every large city has “native” gangs, and several have spread, over the years, to have “chapters” in large cities across the country: Crips, Bloods, People, Folks, Black Gangster Disciples, Latin Kings, to name only a few.

They commit a variety of crimes: assaults and homicides on other gangs, citizens who annoy them, and even on each other for perceived slights; vandalism; burglary and theft, especially auto theft; prostitution; and the whole spectrum of drug offenses, from street-corner use to massive conspiracies to import and distribute. When groups like the Mafia hire local gangs for muscle and delivery work, and when former street gangs become internationally organized and move arms and explosives across national borders, the line between “gang crime” and “organized crime” blurs.

City detectives will usually be dealing with more or less local gangs. They have to figure out which people are gang members, which are hangers-on, and which are merely imitating the gang gestures and dress. They may try to break up gangs by arresting leaders and encouraging hangers-on and imitators not to join gangs.

Cycle gangs such as the Hell’s Angels and Bandidos may be different in their own eyes and those of a sociologist, but cops tend to look at them the same way; they get involved in the same sort of crimes.

Prison gangs (see p. 118) may continue their operations when members are released, or street gangs may have “chapters” in prisons.

Crime Syndicates

Detectives may also run into members of organized crime syndicates like the Mafia (*La Cosa Nostra*), Colombian cartels, Chinese Triads, and various Russian gangs. Federal agencies try to lead investigations into traditional organized crime (see pp. 85-86); this can lead to turf fights with locals and state cops competing for informants and prosecutions.

Crimes Encountered by Detectives

The distinctions between different kinds of serious crimes and the levels of punishment are more important to the detective than to the patrol officer. Detectives may be able to convince a suspect to confess by offering deals. For example, they may recommend the prosecutor charge negligent homicide, rather than murder, or sexual contact rather than sexual assault.

Homicide

Homicide is the intentional, unlawful killing of a human being. Note that “intent” is a complex idea in criminal law. Legally, one can *intend* to kill someone even if one was trying to do something completely different, if that is a logical, rational consequence to one’s acts.

Homicide is divided into the different degrees depending on the criminal’s intent: Murder 1, Murder 2 (also called murder and manslaughter), and negligent homicide.

If the criminal killed intentionally or purposefully, or acted with extreme indifference to human life, then the crime is first-degree murder and the sentence is 25 years to life. Murder 1 committed under certain circumstances can result in the death penalty. These aggravating circumstances include multiple murders; murders committed during or after a robbery, sexual assault, arson, burglary, or kidnapping; by a convict serving a life sentence; while trying to avoid arrest or while escaping; for hire; or otherwise atrocious, cruel, or depraved killing.

If the criminal acted recklessly or under extreme emotional stress, then the crime is *manslaughter* and the sentence is one to 20 years.

If the criminal acted carelessly (negligently), then the crime is *negligent homicide* and the sentence is one to 10 years.

Kidnapping

A kidnapping involves unlawfully removing a person from one location and taking him a substantial distance away, taking him to an area isolated from other people, or unlawfully confining him. Both false imprisonment and interfering with a child’s custody are types of kidnapping.

The sentence can range from 10 to 20 years, depending on whether the victim was hurt during the crime and whether weapons were used as threats or to injure the victim.

Although demanding ransom is an aggravating element in kidnapping, it is *not* a necessary part of the crime. The defining element of kidnapping is the involuntary removal and/or confinement of another. Most kidnappings in the U.S. have nothing to do with ransom.

It is a federal crime punishable by life imprisonment to take a U.S. citizen hostage anywhere in the world.

Sexual Assault

Sexual assault (rape) occurs when a person has sexual intercourse with another person without their consent. The legal definition of intercourse is not the biological one. It includes any penetration of any orifice with any object, no matter how slight.

Sexual contact occurs when a person touches another person’s genitals or other intimate areas without consent. It is punished less harshly than sexual assault.

Victims under 16 years old are deemed unable to consent. Different states set different ages for ability to consent. Lack of knowledge that the victim was under the age of consent is no defense. If both partners are under the age of consent, both may have committed a crime.



The sentences range from one to 20 years depending on the victim’s age, whether the criminal abused a position of trust (a coach, teacher, doctor, nurse) to commit the crime, and whether force or weapons were used. Many states require those convicted of sexual assault and sexual contact to provide a DNA sample to a state database, and lists of convicted sex offenders may be publicly available, or be made available to the offender’s neighbors and employers.

Arson

It is a serious crime to set fire to a building (especially an occupied structure) regardless of whether you own it. The sentence can range from 10 to 20 years depending on whether the building was occupied and whether firefighters were endangered or hurt. Insurance fraud may be the motive; this is also a separate crime.

Robbery

A robbery occurs when a person commits a theft by threatening or inflicting serious bodily harm on another person. Armed robbery is dangerous – one in three victims is injured and 10% of all homicides occur during armed robberies. The sentence can range from one to 20 years depending on the amount of force employed.

Forgery

Forgery is altering documents (or items) with the intent of defrauding someone, stealing their property, or injuring them. Forgers may alter money, identity documents, bank checks, credit cards, and cash cards; they also create false antiques or collectibles with intent to defraud. The sentence can range from one to 10 years depending on what was forged. Forging money is *counterfeiting*, a federal offense.

Cinematic Chases

Start with a simple Hollywood car chase. The villains leap into their sports car. Our heroes leap into their police cruiser. To make this easier, assume that both cars have the same acceleration, handling and top speed. Remember, police cruisers have better acceleration, deceleration, and handling than stock family cars.

For a realistic chase, sketch out a map and use the detailed vehicle combat rules in *GURPS Vehicles* (see pp. VE144-165). Detailed performance data on the cars involved is needed, too.

For a quick-paced, cinematic scene, use the rules in *GURPS Basic Set* on p. B138 and the "quick and dirty" rules below. These impose a degree of abstraction, but they let the GM improvise and keep things moving. You need to know (or estimate) the cars' top speed, acceleration, and deceleration and have a rough comparative estimate of their handling.

To make things even simpler, plan the high points of the chase and abstract *everything* else. If you expect the cars to drive through a building yard, plan the hazards they will encounter. If you think they will cross railroad tracks, decide ahead of time what will happen if they do so.

Quick and Dirty Rules

Vehicles move in Move order (fastest first) on a hex map where each hex is 1 yard. In case of a tie, the driver with the highest Driving skill goes first. As long as the cars are moving in a straight line down an unoccupied street, things are simple. The pursued tries to outrun the pursuer, but since both cars have the same acceleration and top speed, that's not going to work.

To turn (*bend* if using *Vehicles*) safely up to 30° over the course of five hexes, a stock car should be traveling at 30 mph; safe speeds for 60° and 90° turns are 20 and 10 mph, respectively. (Remember that Basic hexes are 1 yard; *Vehicles* hexes are 5 yards, so turns/bends are done within a *Vehicles* hex.)

For every 10 mph of speed above 30 mph, in a 30° turn, there is a -2 penalty to the driver's skill, for a stock car. This -2 penalty kicks in for every 7 mph above safe speed for a 60° turn and for every 5 mph above safe speed for a 90° turn. If the car has improved suspension, the penalty is -1. If the roll is failed, the driver loses control (see below).

Control rolls are required for hazards, too. Decelerating more quickly than the deceleration rating is a hazard and there is a -1 penalty for every 5 mph/s of deceleration above the rating. For example, a stock car is rated for a deceleration of 10 mph/s; decelerating 20 mph/s is a -2 penalty. Taking five or more points of crushing or explosive damage per ton of vehicle weight is a hazard. Use the table on p. VE148 or assess suitable penalties. Finally, driving through debris, over low obstacles and through limited-visibility areas are hazards. For the hallowed through-the-chicken-coop feat, see the sidebar on p. VE157.

If control is lost, something terrible happens. Use the table on p. VE149, or follow these guidelines:

■ A roll failed by 4 or less results in a skid or a veer. In a skid, the vehicle keeps moving in the direction it was facing before making a bend and loses 10 mph of speed. In a veer, which may happen as a consequence of a stunt or hazard, the vehicle slips and changes facing an additional 30° in the direction of the original turn.

■ A roll failed by 5 or 6 results in a spinout. The vehicle keeps moving in the same direction (or in a random direction in case of an hazard), but changes facing, turning on itself at a rate of one facing per second. It decelerates 20 mph per turn and each tire takes 1d damage per 20 mph of initial speed. The spinout ends when speed reaches 0 mph, or if the driver makes a skill roll at -4.

■ A roll failed by more than 6 results in a roll or a vault. In both cases, the car takes substantial damage; don't work it out, just decide what happens, and keep it cinematic! (Optional: See p. VE160 for rules about whiplash and airbags.)

When the cars come into weapon range, the driver or passengers start shooting. If the driver is trying to use a personal weapon, he is at an extra -4 to hit. Shooting from vehicles is governed by the same rules as using ranged weapons from horseback (see pp. B136-37). Failed control rolls erase aiming bonuses and give weapon use a -1 penalty per point by which the control roll was failed.

If a driver wants to push or ram the other vehicle, treat this as a Quick Contest of Driving; for the damage, see pp. VE157-158, or just make up something dramatically appropriate.

A driver being pursued at long range can use Area Knowledge to try to find hiding places, shortcuts, or escape routes. The pursuer likewise can try to find shortcuts to gain ground or avoid obstacles. This is only effective if the vehicles are at least six times the pursuer's move in yards apart. If the cars are right on each other's bumpers, even intimate knowledge of the neighborhood cannot help. Roll as a contest of Area Knowledge; the winner applies the difference between the rolls as a bonus to his next movement roll. (Think of it as a moving "feint.") Ties have no effect. Critical successes or failures end the chase: one vehicle or the other is blocked (a drawbridge raises up, or the lead car drives into a blind alley).

Foot chases are handled just like car chases. The basic move rules are at p. B107-108. Pursued and pursuer start a certain distance apart. Each runs at their full Move and rolls vs. DX or special skills (such as Acrobatics) to dodge obstacles, turn quickly, or negotiate treacherous terrain. Foot chases involve climbing fences and fire escapes, jumping across rooftops and ducking bullets (see p. B117). Area Knowledge is used (see above) to evade or catch adversaries. It also helps an officer orient himself, so he can tell a dispatcher where to send reinforcements.

Remember: Police officers rarely have high driving skill. What they do have is familiarity with their beat and the ability to radio for reinforcements.



Deceptive Business Practices

This catch-all misdemeanor includes using false weights and measures, bait-and-switch sales tactics, deceptive advertising, rigging contests, and making certain kinds of illegal contracts. The sentence is usually a fine, but could include up to one year in jail.

Bribery

It is illegal to offer or give any government official a financial benefit in return for doing (or not doing) something in their official capacity. It is also illegal to threaten such officials to influence their official deeds. The sentence can range from one to five years depending on the circumstances.

Obstruction of Justice

This crime is a catch-all that includes a list of activities: intentionally making a false written statement to police, giving false information to police, or setting off a false alarm to distract officers; tampering with witnesses, evidence, or public records; or impersonating a police officer or other public official. It is illegal to interfere with a police officer, firefighter, or other public safety officer. Most such offenses are misdemeanors with a sentence of less than one year. Some, such as escape from official detention or assisting someone to escape, are felonies with a sentence of one to five years.

Outmoded Crimes

Statutes against bigamy, polygamy, incest, obscene materials, and consensual sodomy are still on the books in many states, but are rarely enforced. During the Vietnam war, the FBI and other police were busy arresting deserters and draft-dodgers; since the draft ended, police rarely encounter deserting military personnel.

Until the 1970s, states had laws against abortion and providing birth control information and supplies. (There is a continuing fight between state legislators and federal courts over abortion statutes.) It may be illegal to sell birth control to minors. A few states outlaw the possession and sale of marital aids.

Pornography involving adults, sold to adults, is no longer a crime in any but a few jurisdictions. It is legal to sell most kinds of obscene material to adults, although some states restrict pornography more than others. Recently the Internet, and especially the growth of Internet mail-order businesses, has made enforcement issues more complex. If a resident of California offers materials legal in California by mail order, and a resident of Tennessee orders them, can Tennessee apply its own stricter pornography laws and demand to extradite the Californian for trial in Tennessee?

It is illegal to make, sell, or distribute obscene material involving minors and it is illegal to sell obscene materials to minors. These statutes are vigorously investigated and enforced.

Adversaries for Federal Agents

Federal agents deal with criminals who operate on a large scale: organized crime bosses, immigrant-smuggling rings, large-scale drug smugglers, and terrorists. These are knowledgeable and experienced criminals who have financial and political resources. They have allies to help threaten witnesses and destroy evidence, or try to bribe agents. Such criminals may be citizens of foreign countries and able to flee to another country if they learn about an investigation. Targets of federal investigations hire experienced lawyers to exploit mistakes made in the investigation.

Organized Crime

Gangster crimes revolve around narcotics or, more recently, immigrant smuggling. Agents investigate large-scale narcotics trafficking, immigrant smuggling rings, extortion, money laundering, and other organized crimes on a regional, national, or international scale. Agents may need to protect a federal prosecutor's star witness from a mob hit, or escort an extradited terrorist back home from a foreign country. They may be sent to kidnap a criminal from a country without an extradition treaty.

It is illegal to interfere with a police officer, firefighter, or other public safety officer.

Organized crime groups make their money from extortion, loan-sharking, illegal gambling, money laundering, and prostitution. Often these businesses are interlinked. An honest businessman gets into debt over illegal gambling, and borrows money from his bookie or the bookie's friends. When the victim can't pay the interest ("vigorous," or "vig"), the loan shark offers to become a silent partner in the business and uses it to launder profits.

A Mafia family is led by the *capo* (boss). Each boss has an underboss and *consiglieri* (counselors). Below them are the captains ("made men") and then the soldiers. There are also connected associates, who work with a family without being members. When a soldier wants to make a large deal, he notifies his captain to make certain that he isn't encroaching on another's deal. The soldier gives half of the take to his captain, who in turn gives his boss 10%.

Some captains demand a fixed payment from their soldiers each week as well as their share of scores. Soldiers naturally understate their scores to their captains, and captains understate their scores to bosses, but a soldier or captain who is caught holding out is liable to be murdered. A family member can also be killed for violating the internal codes of respect.

Gangsters are often members of ethnically based groups such as the Mafia (Italian – *La Cosa Nostra*), Chinese triads, Japanese yakuza, Columbian cartels, or Russian mobs. The triads and yakuza have a similar structure to the Mafia. Russian and Columbian organized crime groups have a shifting hierarchy of bosses and temporary alliances between groups.

Drug Smugglers

Narcotics trafficking combine huge profit with huge risk. Drugs are grown and processed overseas, then smuggled into the United States by a variety of routes. The immense profits involved give large narcotics cartels the resources of entire national governments. They hire the best and brightest pilots, ship captains, forgers, and artisans (to create hidden compartments). They bribe customs officials, police, and military patrolmen along their smuggling routes. They have an enormous incentive to protect their lucrative trade by any means necessary. Some schemes are downright cinematic, including the submarine that a Columbian cartel was discovered building.



Immigrant Smugglers

Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) inspectors must decide if aliens applying for entry to the U.S. at official border points are admissible. Arresting and deporting illegal immigrants who try to sneak past the border (or who have succeeded) is the job of U.S. Border Patrol agents; the Border Patrol is a branch of the INS. INS investigators work closely with other federal agencies to locate aliens who are part of criminal organizations; being such a criminal is often grounds for revoking whatever permission an alien might have had to remain in the country.

All INS and Border Patrol officers are highly trained federal agents who must pass an 18-week police and immigration law course at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center (FLETC) in Glynco, Georgia.

Organized crime groups charge foreigners a great deal of money for transportation to the United States and for false documents. Chinese workers, for example, may pay "snake-heads" (smugglers) more than \$30,000 to be smuggled into the United States or Western Europe and then be forced into long work hours at illegally low pay, or into prostitution, to continue to pay off their "debt" to the smugglers.

Terrorists

The September 11, 2001 attacks in New York City and Washington D.C., changed how American law enforcement reacts to terrorism. The FBI is the primary investigator in any terrorism case. Local police are the officers on the ground dealing directly with public order and arrests. Terrorism investigations often involve many agencies and departments with different training, rules, needs, and personalities. Collecting and circulating accurate, up-to-date information to the investigators is difficult.

Terrorism does not just involve international groups. The bombing of the Oklahoma City federal building by Timothy McVeigh was a purely domestic crime. The 1995 Sarin gas attack on the Tokyo subway system was also a domestic Japanese crime. Federal agencies and local police keep an eye on known radical groups and individuals, within constitutional limits. Unfortunately, successful terrorists are adept at blending into the population and avoiding suspicion.

Police may be targeted by terrorists. Several NYPD officers were ambushed and killed by the Black Liberation Army in the early 1970s. Most terrorists prefer less well-defended targets as their primary victims, although some plant secondary bombs or traps specifically to harm police and rescue workers.

Police officers may also become victims of a terrorist incident. Twenty-three NYPD officers were killed in the September 11th disaster. Rescue efforts, patrols, and higher security levels strained police forces nationwide. The National Guard was called up in many places to patrol vulnerable potential targets. Officers in the midst of a large-scale terrorist attack or national disaster will be exhausted and trying to do their jobs in the midst of their own grief for missing and dead comrades and concerns about their families and friends.

Immigrants and Illegal Aliens in the United States

An alien is any person not a citizen of the United States. Aliens fall into three categories: immigrants, nonimmigrants, and illegal aliens. Immigrants receive a "green card" (INS form I-551) on being admitted. The green card is tangible evidence of a person's permanent residence status. It allows the alien to reside permanently in the United States, to enter and leave the United States at will, and to work or be self-employed in the United States under the same conditions that apply to U.S. citizens.

A nonimmigrant is an alien allowed to reside temporarily in the United States. A nonimmigrant must be a permanent resident of a foreign country to which he fully intends to return after his temporary stay in the United States. Nonimmigrants enter the United States with the permission of the U. S. Department of State; they may bear written evidence of this fact in their passports in the form of a visa stamp on a page in their passport. Some nonimmigrants are allowed to work with permission of the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS). Some, such as visitors for pleasure, are never allowed to work.

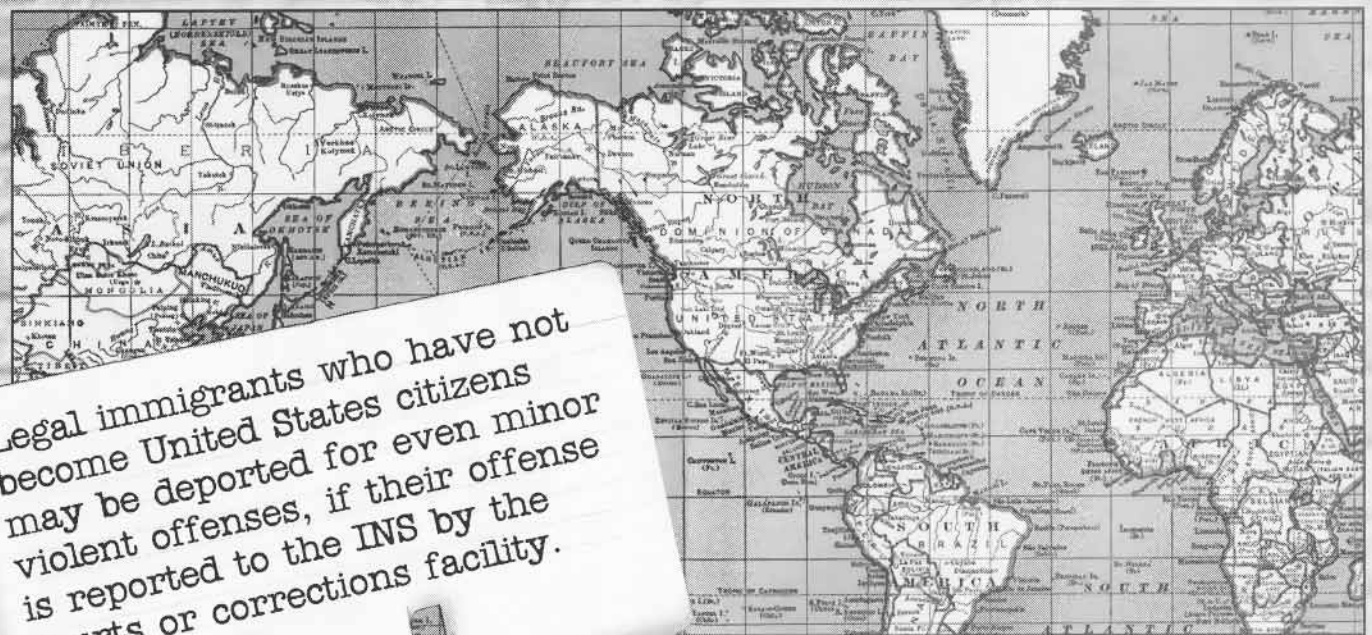
An illegal alien is an alien who entered the United States without the proper authorization, or an alien who once entered the United States legally and has violated the conditions of his temporary status (e.g. by not returning home, or working without permission).

Legal immigrants and nonimmigrants have Status -1 if they don't speak English well, don't know American customs,



or otherwise fail to blend into mainstream society. Illegal aliens with the same problems have Status -2. Such illegal aliens are in many cases terrified of police, because they had bad experiences with police in their homelands or simply because they are afraid of being deported. (However, Caucasians who fit in well with American society may work and live illegally for years without a problem.) All illegal aliens can be deported by the INS, if found.

Legal immigrants who have not become United States citizens may be deported for even minor violent offenses, if their offense is reported to the INS by the courts or corrections facility.



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Conspirators and Accomplices

A criminal is not just the person at the crime scene. American law has long wrestled with people who help plan crimes, who stand look-out and drive getaway cars, and who help criminals hide from police and sell the goods they have stolen. The laws about conspirators and accomplices were intended, when execution was the punishment for nearly every serious crime, to measure degrees of guilt and punishment. In modern American law, there is not a great deal of difference between being convicted as a principal and as an accessory.

Some state laws talk about accessories, aiders and abettors, and so on. The basic idea is the same.

Let's take a bank robbery. Jim and Tom start by sitting on their porch, talking about knocking over the local bank. As long as they just talk, they haven't committed any crime. It takes two people to commit a conspiracy – you can't conspire with yourself, and you can't conspire with only an undercover police officer.

As soon as they do something that shows they are serious (an "overt act"), then they are guilty of a conspiracy. An overt act could be watching the bank routines, mapping the cameras and alarm buttons, buying ski masks, or painting a couple of toy guns to look like real weapons.

Conspiracy is a crime, in and of itself, and can be punished even if the planned crime never takes place. The agreement combined with the overt act is enough to constitute the crime of conspiracy. But police might have a hard time proving a case at this stage, unless the overt act is obvious or unless Jim or Tom confesses.

Jim and Tom decide they need someone to drive the getaway car. If they ask Jim's girlfriend Alice to wait for them outside the bank, but don't tell her why, then she's *not* a conspirator. She hasn't agreed to the robbery.

When Jim and Tom go into the bank, pull out their guns, and demand money, they are now "principals" in the crime of bank robbery. Depending on the state, if Alice knows what they are going to do and is actively looking for police or ready to drive them away, she's a principal too, even if she isn't in the building. The prosecutor would have to show she was nearby, and intended to aid Jim and Tom.

If all Alice does is wait and drive them away after seeing them run out of the bank with their masks and pistols, she's an "accessory." She knows they've committed a crime and she's helping them. In most states, being an accessory isn't any different from being a principal. It's the same crime with the same possible punishment.

If Alice waited out of sight of the bank, didn't see any masks or weapons, and didn't have any reason to know a crime took place, she did not commit any crime by driving them away.

Police may have a hard time proving Alice's role. Figuring out who's a conspirator, who's an accomplice, and who's an innocent dupe, often depends on who confesses when arrested.

These distinctions can be very important. When the crime goes wrong, everyone is responsible for the logical consequences. If Jim secretly brought a real gun and shot a bank guard, the *conspiracy* is still limited to armed robbery. The principals and accomplices, however, have just become part of a murder case.

Getting out of being a conspirator or being an accomplice – "renunciation" – is much harder than getting in. A change of heart or running away isn't good enough. An accomplice must repudiate his prior aid and deprive that aid of effectiveness. A conspirator has to thwart the success of the planned crime.

A defendant who is charged as an accomplice or conspirator can raise his renunciation as a legal defense (see p. 112). As a practical matter, renunciation is difficult, if not impossible, unless the accomplice or conspirator betrays his comrades to the police.





Computer Crime

Computer crime laws are new and the law is constantly changing. State and federal laws deal with theft of services and information, unauthorized copying of corporate secrets, and interfering with public communications. Copyright violations are similar, and punished under federal statutes. Computers add new dimensions to traditional crimes like fraud, stalking, child pornography, and theft.

The Justice Department and the FBI have computer crime sections, which deal with federal computer crime laws. States are developing computer crime task forces incorporating experienced prosecutors, detectives, and forensic technicians. Local departments may have few resources to aid an investigation and prosecution.

Many computer crimes carry a five to 10 year sentence and fines in the \$150,000 range. Actual prosecutions have resulted in short sentences, suspended sentences, or community service and fines.

Federal agents and local police could be involved in trying to stop a terrorist incident, or seeking to catch the terrorists in the aftermath of a massacre. Police or agents encounter terrorists while investigating other crimes ranging from falsified immigration papers to bank robbery, to money laundering, to stealing toxins or weapons. The FBI is most likely to be involved in terrorism investigations. Agents of the BATF may find domestic or international terrorists involved when tracking down illegal weapons sales and smuggling. INS agents, customs agents, and the Border Patrol may encounter terrorists trying to smuggle themselves or their equipment across the border.

Crimes Encountered by Federal Agents

American criminal law is complicated because the same act can violate both federal and state laws. A young narcotics dealer caught with 10 pounds of pure cocaine and an unlicensed machine gun has violated both federal and state laws. He can be prosecuted by both the state prosecutor and the U.S. Attorney and serve separate sentences for both sets of crimes. Crimes like homicide, sexual assault, and robbery are not federally prosecuted unless the crime crossed state lines, involved federal agents, or is otherwise a matter of federal interest. Some crimes, like illegal immigration, are purely federal matters, although local cops may reluctantly assist in enforcement.

RICO (Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations)

State and federal RICO acts are used to punish members of groups organized to commit crime. RICO makes it a crime to conspire with others to commit various specific felonies like murder, kidnapping, gambling, arson, robbery, bribery, extortion, or trafficking in narcotics. The prosecutor must show that the defendant participated in two RICO crimes in 10 years. He need not even show that the defendant knew other conspirators – only that he was part of a criminal organization.

The laws are intended for use against street gangs, gangsters and drug rings, but they have been used against political protest groups. The sentence for a RICO violation is one to 20 years.

Weapons Offenses

American weapons laws are complex and frequently change. The federal government licenses firearms dealers, controls the interstate sale and transportation of weapons, monitors weapons imports from overseas, and regulates explosives. States may also pass their own laws regarding gun dealers, interstate sales, and explosives.

Things like martial arts weapons and daggers, which have no other obvious purpose than to injure a person, are usually deemed weapons illegal to own or carry. Licenses may be available, and there may be exceptions for hunting knives, martial arts weapons owned by a bona-fide student or teacher, historical re-enactors, or collectors of curios and antiques. Some states require a permit for a citizen to even carry a defensive spray or taser. Air pistols and bows seldom require licenses, but carrying them on the street is frowned upon and can be considered threatening behavior.

With the proper license, it is legal to own most types of firearms and ammunition in the United States. Fully automatic weapons (machine guns) are more strictly regulated than handguns, which in turn are more strictly regulated than long guns (rifles and shotguns). Silencers, sawed-off shotguns, and firearms that do not look like guns are regulated by similar rules to automatic weapons.

Major cities like New York City and Washington D.C. have very strict gun laws. It is virtually impossible to get a firearms permit in those cities. Under federal law, anyone subject to a domestic restraining order is not allowed to own a firearm. Otherwise, a firearms license is available to any American citizen over 18 years old who does not have a criminal record or a history of mental illness. Many states allow license holders to carry concealed firearms. The transfer of machine guns, sawed-off shotguns, and silencers is regulated by the BATF.

Possessing a firearm without the proper license is a felony with a one to five year term for pistols, rifles and shotguns and a five to 10 year term for automatic weapons. Using or threatening to use a weapon or firearm in a crime increases the perceived severity of the offense and therefore the potential sentence.

Firearms Licenses

A law-abiding citizen with a skill of 12 or higher in a weapon he possesses, who does not have a disadvantage that would disqualify him from possessing it, may be assumed to have the appropriate license if available. In realistic campaigns, licenses will be unavailable in certain settings unless a person has advantages like Contacts or Status, or an Unusual Background. See p. T:FT82-85 for examples.



Rivalries and Bad Cops

The stereotypical "bad cop" makes an excellent foil for the good guys in a *Cops* campaign. Officers may have rivals or adversaries within their department (or from other agencies) who are misguided, corrupt, or actively evil. This is an especially good place to implement local versus federal rivalries. Bad cops hidden in a department also pose a real challenge to good cops working in the same place. This approach creates well-defined, long-lasting villains.

Cops as Adversaries

In some campaigns, the cops are not the good guys. There are strong literary and historical precedents for villainous law enforcers, from the Sheriff of Nottingham to the *Stasi*. In some periods and societies, an entire police force may be corrupt or totally lacking in ethics. The entire society may have a weak moral structure, or the police force alone may have simply gone bad.

Once the citizens perceive their police force (rightly or wrongly) as corrupt, it is less likely to attract high-minded officers; recruits will be lazy, greedy, or brutal, and reform becomes more difficult. In impoverished societies, the government cannot pay a decent wage, which makes taking bribes and kickbacks necessary for survival. Robin Hood-style legends show heroic criminals confronting evil law-enforcers; cyberpunk stories involve morally dubious protagonists facing a morally bankrupt system.

And, of course, it's possible for a campaign to center around genuine criminals. Whatever the reason, a police force is a dangerous adversary.

The GM may be tempted to use bad cops as cannon fodder, as one might use orcs in a fantasy game. In a realistic game, this is a bad idea; if the characters start shooting cops, their problems just got much worse. Real modern cops treat "officer-down" situations very seriously; nothing takes priority over a cop killer. Rather than charging a dangerous group of felons, surviving officers back off, cordon off the area where the suspects are hiding and call in as much backup as they need. Off-duty cops hear about the situation and clock back in to assist. SWAT teams set up roadblocks and police helicopters monitor the felon's movements through the city. If local forces cannot deal with them, they call in better-equipped departments.

In extreme cases, the civil authorities call out local military (National Guard) forces. Eventually the sheer force of numbers brings down the strongest group of criminals. See *The Blues Brothers* for a humorous example of how much force a police department can bring to bear, or *Terminator 2* for a more realistic example.

Referees should prefer the subtle approach, using adversary police as a "force of nature." Make it clear that the police have unstoppable power. The constant threat of the police crashing through the door can create a mood of angst and paranoia, or lead to action-packed chases as wanted fugitives scramble to stay one step ahead of the cops. For extra tension, have a contact describe how the police picked over the scene where the group was only hours before; players may groan aloud as a detective points out the clear trail they left behind themselves.

The Individual Adversary

The GM can also enliven any sort of modern campaign by introducing an *individual* adversary cop, or a small group.

Adversary cops can be good men, misguided or misinformed (like the federal marshal played by Tommy Lee Jones in the movie *The Fugitive*). They may be venal thugs. Or they may be simply evil (as seen in cinematic portrayals of Nazi secret police). For an Illuminati campaign, evil (or amoral) cops are a natural tool of The Conspiracy. The "Men in Black" might truly exist as agents of an ancient conspiracy . . . or a top-secret law enforcement agency . . . and how will the players tell the difference?

Evil cops should have disadvantages such as Bully, Greed, Intolerance, No Sense of Humor, Odious Personal Habits, and Sadism. Advantages such as Connections, Danger Sense, Favors, Luck, Patrons, and Sanctity make the cop hard to oppose.

For one thing, you shouldn't shoot him . . . even if he's shooting at *you*. Someone who kills a cop in self-defense will still be seen as a cop-killer, and may not get the chance to correct the impression.

Dealing with a hostile or corrupt cop will require finesse, nerve, patience, and possibly allies from within the law enforcement community.

Martial Law and Military Law

Martial Law

Martial law is declared when civilian law enforcement has broken down or been overthrown. Civilian law is completely replaced by military law.

A U.S. state governor or the President can declare martial law, full or partial, during disorders or insurrection. The National Guard or U.S. Army creates and enforces any reasonable rules to restore public order. Soldiers and officers are given considerable discretion in enforcing these orders.

The rights to trial by jury and habeas corpus apply, but soldiers and officers have much greater powers of search and arrest than civilian police officers. During martial law, soldiers search, seize, and destroy property as necessary to restore and maintain order. Soldiers arrest and detain people as necessary to protect public order; unlike police, they are not required to have a reasonable suspicion that the person has committed a crime.

Military Law

Persons in the military are subject to military justice, not the civil justice system. Those arrested by police for committing crimes will be handed over to, and punished by, the military courts.

Through World War II, American military justice evolved directly from the 1774 British Articles of War. But by 1950, the U.S. Department of Defense realized that it needed a more modern system to deal with a large standing military.

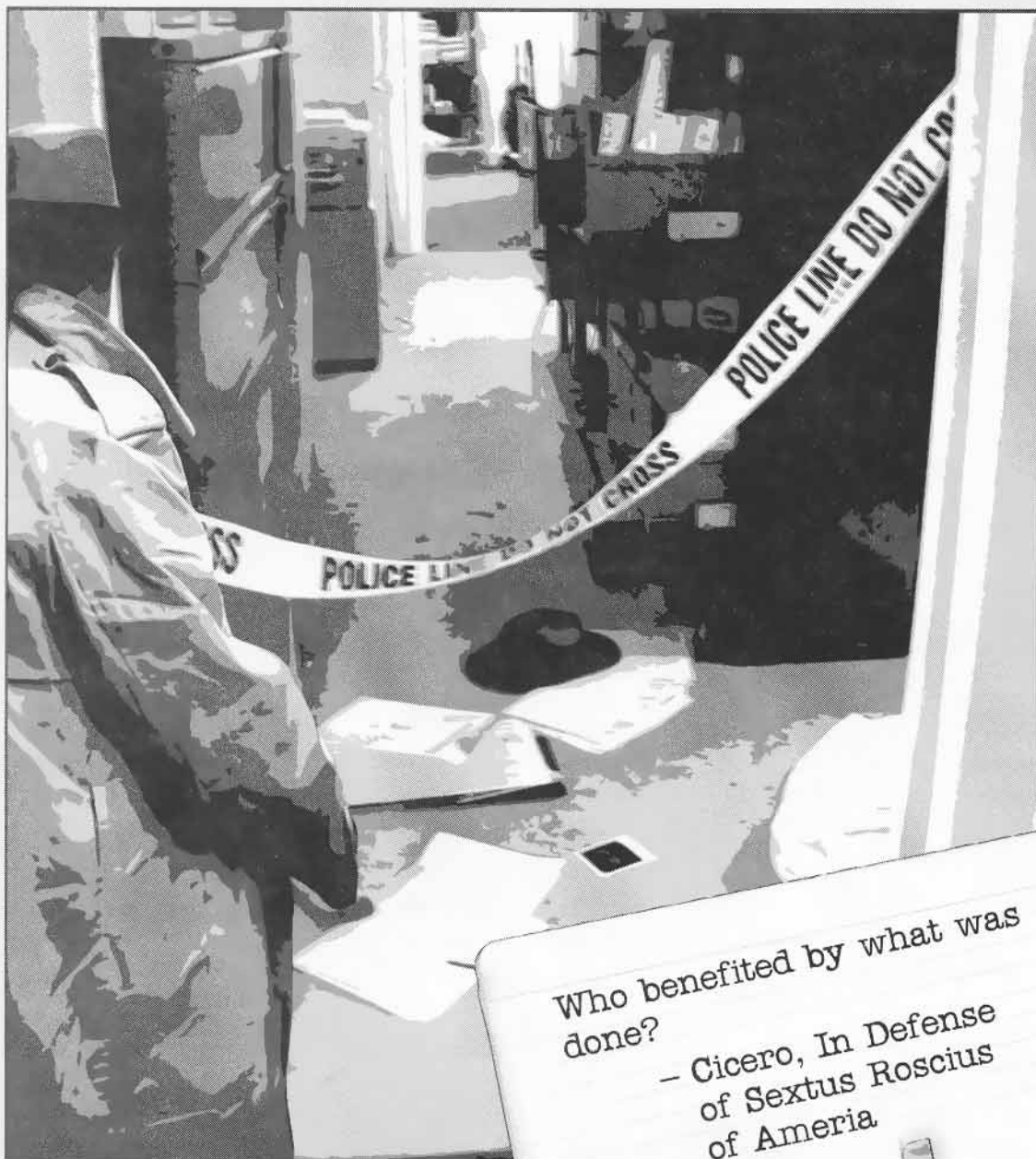
The Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) includes counterpart crimes to ordinary criminal laws such as murder, rape, robbery, and theft. It also punishes crimes unique to the military: desertion, absence without leave, failure to obey orders, dereliction of duty, malingering, conduct unbecoming an officer, misbehavior of a sentinel, misconduct as a prisoner, espionage, and treason.

The UCMJ affects military personnel (active, reserve and sometimes retired – see below), military prisoners, prisoners of war, and a few civilian employees. It does not apply to civilians accompanying the military in the field during peacetime. National Guard personnel are not subject to the UCMJ unless they are performing federal service. Even some who have left the service may be under its influence; under American law, the military can choose to reactivate the commission of a retired officer receiving a pension in order to try him under military law for offenses committed as a civilian. These prosecutions are rare.

The UCMJ does give service members a right to remain silent and a right to free legal counsel for serious offenses.

Chapter 5:

Solving Crimes



Who benefited by what was done?

– Cicero, In Defense of Sextus Roscius of Ameria

Solving crimes is less complicated in real life than in fiction. In a detective story, the criminal is the least likely suspect. He has taken great care both to erase real clues and to lay a trail of false leads and red herrings. In reality, the investigator's problems are finding witnesses willing to talk and physical evidence that provides solid leads.

Many of the things discovered in an investigation are ambiguous. The officer never knows whether a lab result or a witness' statement is completely reliable. The GM makes skill rolls for players in secret (see p. B87). On a success, he truthfully tells the investigators all (or part) of the information they seek. On a failure, he conceals the truth or gives misleading information.

A realistic campaign will force slower, more detailed investigations. Some investigators will dig willingly into the details of gathering evidence, patiently interviewing witnesses and interrogating suspects. Others can relegate these tasks to their hirelings or rely on die rolls. A fast-paced Hollywood-action-movie campaign spends its time on car chases and shootouts, not gathering forensic data. Use the crime scenes as stepping-stones to the next action scene, not as a major scene.

This chapter offers suggestions for playing out a police investigation. The GM may abstract (or skip) as much as he pleases to suit the players' tastes and the campaign style.

Criminal Investigations

An investigation begins when a crime is reported or discovered. It truly ends only when a suspect is arrested and the prosecutor files charges; a case cannot be closed ("cleared") if the suspect is at large. Between those two events, police officers search the crime scene for clues, interview victims and witnesses, and interrogate suspects. These tasks involve a variety of skills. The investigator makes Sense, Fast-Talk, Forensics, and Interrogation rolls to gather information, and Criminology rolls to interpret it. The GM will make many of these rolls in secret, as appropriate to the situation. Success or failure determines what the investigator learns. As evidence accumulates, the officer forms a theory of the case.

When detectives are ready to leave the crime scene – after a set of witness interviews are done, or at another logical break in information-gathering – the investigator asks to analyze the raw data with his Criminology skill (this must be a GM roll). Each normal success on a relevant information-gathering roll gives a +1 to this roll; each normal failure gives a -1. Critical successes give a bonus of +3 to this roll; critical failures a -3. No roll can succeed unless *some* correct data has been gathered!

An investigator can build an accurate theory of the case from partially correct data, but it is harder. If the investigator succeeds his Criminology roll, he makes more accurate deductions about the data. If he fails, his deductions are inaccurate.

Make additional Criminology rolls as he gets more information. Penalties and bonuses from each information-gathering scene do not carry past one Criminology roll, unless an investigator did particularly well (or badly) on the previous roll.

May We Look Around? (Search and Seizure)

Police need to search people, places, and things – both for evidence and for their own safety. Every country has different rules about why, when and how police can search things. Any investigator can, without restriction, notice anything that's in plain view, plain hearing, or plain smell. They can use binoculars, telescopes, flashlights, and drug-sniffing dogs. However, viewing with anything that allows knowledge beyond the normal abilities of people may require a warrant. The Supreme Court has drawn a firm protective line against using devices that can see through the walls of a home without a warrant.

Police can look around a crime scene for victims or hiding suspects. They can chase fleeing suspects and enter places without a warrant when in hot pursuit. They can also enter places if they are trying to protect someone's safety. If they see someone lying unresponsive in a parked car, they can open the door to see if the person needs help.

The U.S. Constitution protects from random searches by police. If American police reasonably suspect that a crime is in progress or has just occurred, they can stop suspects and ask them questions. An automobile driver must give police his driver's license and registration on demand; however, American pedestrians do not need to carry proof of their identity. If an officer is worried about his own safety, he can pat down the suspect for weapons. However, an officer needs more than a feeling to search for more than weapons; he needs objective facts he can explain to a judge when the case comes to trial.

U.K. police can briefly stop anyone in public to ask questions, but they must tell the suspect the reason for the stop and give the officer's name and police station. They also must keep a record of the stop. U.K. police can take anyone into custody who refuses to give his name and address to a police officer.

French police can stop anyone and require them to identify themselves. Those without adequate identification papers can be brought to the station and held for up to six hours while their identity is verified. Refusal to cooperate with this process is a crime punishable by a sentence of ten days to three months in jail and a fine. Police can also question anyone about a case. If someone refuses to voluntarily come to the station, they can be picked up by police and fined. If they refuse to cooperate, they can be jailed for 11 days to one year and fined as well.

When an American suspect is arrested, police search him and his immediate area for weapons and evidence. This includes the room he's arrested in and any place that's within an average person's lunge, reach, or grasp. There are special rules for cars. When a driver is arrested, the police get to search the entire car for evidence. Then they often tow it away and search it again. U.K. and French police have similar rules regarding searches of suspects under arrest.

For police in many countries to make a detailed search of a residence or a business area not open to the public, they need consent or a judge's warrant (a form giving formal permission to search). Police may simply ask the person using the location (who need not be the owner, merely a tenant) for permission to search. Whoever gives them permission to search is asked to sign a form so there is no dispute in court about what happened.

There are technical questions that come up when police ask to search a shared apartment where tenants have separate bedrooms or locked storage areas. Use common sense. If the person who gives consent could go into the same place without a key or asking the actual owner's permission, then his consent is good enough.

To search somewhere specific for evidence without consent, American police need a warrant from a judge. Judges are on call 24 hours a day to issue emergency warrants. They review a written form from the police telling the judge, under oath, where they want to search, what they are looking for and why they have "probable cause" (see p. 106) to look there. Warrants can include information from anonymous tips or confidential informants if the police show that they have verified parts of the tip, or that the informant has provided reliable information in prior cases.



Once a warrant is issued, police must search the location within a reasonable time – no more than 10 days after issue. Under federal law, a warrant must be served during the daylight hours unless the issuing judge specifically says that it can be exercised at night. *Police do not need to carry the warrant physically with them* – therefore, they do not have to show it to the occupants of the place being searched. Often an officer will execute the warrant after receiving a radio call from another officer telling him the judge has just signed it. Demanding to see a warrant before admitting police officers is *not* a good idea; in practical terms, if they say they have a warrant, they can come in, and if it turns out they were lying, the time to argue about it is in court.

Police may only look in places that logically could hide the evidence – they can't look in a bureau drawer for a stolen 24-inch television. If an officer finds what he's searching for, he seizes it as evidence.

If an object is plainly visible and obviously contraband, an officer can seize that, too. An officer searching for the stolen TV sees a green leafy substance that smells like marijuana on the table; he can legally seize it. But if he just sees a bunch of brand-new VCRs, and he can't tell if they are stolen without calling in and checking the serial numbers, he can't seize them. He can, however, radio in and ask another officer to get a new warrant while he finishes his search.

Police with a warrant must knock and announce themselves, giving anyone in the building a reasonable chance to respond. Police can burst in afterward if they have reason to believe that someone is fleeing, in danger, or that evidence is being destroyed. Police may use a ruse; for instance, an officer can pretend to be a utility or maintenance worker to get into the building and then tell occupants that a warrant is being served.

Police may ask the court for a "no-knock" warrant that allows the officers to force their way into the premises without warning. No-knock warrants are used if there is reason to think the officers would be in danger, or that evidence would be destroyed if the officers announce themselves.

U.K. police need a warrant or consent to enter private property that is not open to the public. The warrant must specify under what Act it is being issued and precisely what the officer is searching for. A magistrate should issue the warrant, although a superintendent, an inspector, or the officer himself can issue it.

French police may search and seize property with or without permission. Searches without consent are allowed in expedited investigations. Searches must be during the day except in cases of suspected terrorism, drug trafficking, or prostitution. Any search must be in the presence of the suspect, his representative, or two witnesses. The police write a report of their search on the spot and have it signed by the suspect, representative, or witness. If the person refuses, police note the refusal.

If the police want to search the office of a lawyer, doctor, notary, court bailiff, newspaper, or broadcaster, the search must be done in the presence of a witness designated by the French President. Evidence obtained by a search in violation of these rules is illegal and inadmissible in court.

East German police could arrest anyone without a warrant, search them, and hold them for months trying to obtain a confession. Dissidents were tried in secret trials with court-appointed lawyers and small juries. They could be sentenced to hard labor for crimes like distributing leaflets critical of the government. (The East German judiciary was the Communist Party's second-most-important instrument for political control.)

Although East German law ostensibly placed strict controls on monitoring telephone calls and opening mail, *Stasi* officers routinely did both (and were allowed to use that evidence in court) without bothering to get an order rubber-stamped by a friendly judge.

American police can place a radio transmitter or a tape recorder (a "wire") on an officer or informant without a warrant. They can arrange with the telephone company to monitor a phone number and obtain lists of telephone numbers called and received. They may also arrange with the post office to record return addresses of mail received, without a warrant.

A warrant is needed if U.S. police want to install bugs, tap telephone lines, open mail, or otherwise other communications (such as over the Internet). These sorts of warrants are sealed (not known to the public) until arrests are made. The warrant is issued for a specific person suspected of a certain crime. The bug can only be active when the subject is physically in the place where he can be bugged. It can validly record conversations the subject is party to, or other people in that place talking about the crime being investigated.

Reporting Delays

Many crime reports are from civilians calling the police (911). Victims or witnesses panic or go into in shock. They may call their spouse, parent, doctor, or friend before thinking to call the police. On average, 17 minutes passes between the time a crime is discovered and the first call to police. Three minutes more go by before a patrol car reaches the scene. During this delay, vital evidence is at risk. For example, robbery victims and relatives of homicide victims begin to straighten up the area after discovering the crime, as a way of coping with a tragedy.

Finally, the patrol officer writes a report detailing everything he saw and did at the scene. This report is the basis for his testimony at trial, if any. Some players will enjoy writing a report in between game sessions; others will not. The GM may assume a patrol officer writes a decent report, or have him make a Writing roll at an assumed skill of 11 or 12. Give -3 to +3 depending on how much time he is given to complete the report. Failure means something was left out; the GM decides what. Critical failure means the overlooked information was vitally important to the case.

At the Scene

If the patrol officer discovers a serious crime scene with no suspect in sight, he summons a detective or detective unit to investigate. Major crimes in large towns and cities are investigated by a Major Crimes Unit (or Squad) or a detective unit. In smaller towns and villages, the patrol officer himself may be the investigator, or he may call a state police crime unit for help.

Major Crimes Units handle homicide, kidnapping, rape, and serious assault. There may be separate units specializing in Narcotics, Vice, and Gangs. If a case overlaps several specialties – a murder over drugs with gang involvement – members of multiple squads may be called, and they may compete over which squad is assigned the case. An investigator trying to talk his way into a case to which he hasn't yet been assigned can try Fast-Talk or Administration, adjusted for his Reputation, to persuade the officer in charge to let him examine the crime scene.

By the time detectives arrive, a crime scene may already be crowded. Once a dispatcher reports a homicide, other officers show up to help or gawk. Officers who are not busy will be socializing and using gallows humor to break the tension of the scene. Reporters equipped with police scanners arrive, trying to take statements and morbid photographs, if possible. Curious neighbors and bystanders crowd around. Meanwhile, crime scene technicians are busy taking pictures and logging evidence. If the victim was famous or wealthy, supervisors and other squad members may be present trying to collect a share of the case.

The First Responder

The first officer at a crime scene is always a patrol officer. Once he confirms that a crime has taken place, he has several contradictory jobs. He needs to find injured victims, provide emergency first aid, call an ambulance if needed, and search for the criminal if he is believed to be nearby. Most of all, he needs to preserve the crime scene for detectives. If he can find a suspect, he may be able to make an immediate arrest and close the case quickly. If he goes too far in search of a suspect, he leaves the crime scene unprotected; evidence and witnesses can vanish. This is a difficult, thankless moment. If the officer does well, he becomes a minor witness at a later trial. If done poorly, the officer's errors cost the prosecution the case or even convict an innocent person.

The first rule for responding officers: Don't Touch Anything. This rule seems to be poorly taught or easily forgotten in the heat of the moment. Every major case has problems with crime scene contamination. Minor mistakes might pass unnoticed at trial, especially if the evidence is otherwise overwhelming. Major mistakes can result in the defendant's acquittal.

The second rule: Isolate the Witnesses. The officer needs to find witnesses, but keep them from talking to each other. Witnesses' memories can be contaminated by what they see and hear from police, other witnesses, or on news accounts. If a witness is the criminal himself, he can get his own story straight while passing on bad information to the other witnesses.

The last rule is: Control the Scene. This means figuring out how large the crime scene really is and rigorously excluding anyone who doesn't have to be there. A scene is quickly crowded by neighbors, press, family members, and police, all of whom can contaminate the scene or obliterate vital evidence.

Assume a generic patrol officer does an adequate job at these tasks, or roll against his assumed Criminology or Law Enforcement skill of 10 or 11, with penalties if the scene is particularly grisly. Failure means the officer made a minor mistake; he touched something, left multiple witnesses together too long, or let the wrong person on the scene. Critical failure means the mistake has tainted or destroyed important clues.



Means, Motive, Opportunity

The clues are being assembled and the detective builds a theory of the case. For any crime, the officer is trying to answer three questions:

Who had the *means* – the equipment, skills, access – necessary for the crime?

Who had a *motive* – a reason – to commit the crime? Motives are simple emotions: anger, hate, fear, and greed. An officer doesn't need a motive to get a conviction, but a jury is far more likely to convict a defendant if they understand why he might have wanted to commit the crime.

Who had the *opportunity* to commit the crime? A suspect may have means and motive, but if he's not placed at the scene then he didn't have the opportunity. Unless, of course, a detective can break his "airtight" alibi.

FBI profilers work in reverse: asking what happened, why did it happen, and then who would have committed the crime in that way for that reason. They search for the elements of the crime that represent the criminal's needs (his "signature"). This is not the same as a criminal's *modus operandi* (MO). The MO is the way a person commits a crime; it changes as a criminal gets more experienced. A signature is what the criminal feels compelled to do to fulfill himself. It does not change with experience.

Taking pictures of the victims, recording the crimes, revisiting the victim's grave, and taking belongings or body parts as souvenirs are signatures. Profilers look for "stressors" – the event that triggered the crime. Common stressors are losing a job, spouse, or girlfriend.

Setting the Crime Scene

The atmosphere of a crime scene is important: How is the scene lit? How does it smell? Are there traffic or train sounds in the area? What can the players learn from the furniture and bric-a-brac? The crime scene sets the stage for the entire investigation; it should be described with care.

The best prop the GM can provide is a crime scene sketch. Make a simple sketch showing the location of the rooms, major furniture, doors, windows and the victim's location (if a murder or assault). Don't worry; you don't have to be an artist. Real detectives make such crime scene sketches to preserve the location of evidence and refresh their memory during interviews, interrogations, and trial. **Cops** detectives need a sketch to help them visualize the scene and describe their search.

The GM can supplement the sketch, if he wishes, with photographs. He may take these himself, but potential crime scene photos can be found in any news magazine or "house beautiful" magazine!

The detective's job is to collect evidence at the scene. He looks for physical evidence – fingerprints, bloodstains, and weapons – and for witnesses to interview. He may do it all himself, or with the aid of evidence technicians or a crime scene unit. How many people are involved depends on the size of the department, the seriousness of the crime and the status of the victim. A known drug user found shot in his car parked outside a notorious housing complex might warrant a single crime scene photographer and medical examiner at the scene, and they may miss important evidence because the case seems so routine. The former wife of a prominent professional athlete found murdered outside her expensive suburban home warrants teams of experts to comb every detail of the scene. A liquor store holdup logically gets less attention than a multi-million dollar bank heist.

The first 48 hours of the investigation are crucial. After that, the trail runs cold. Witnesses who have not given statements by then have their memories contaminated by reading press reports and talking with other witnesses. Blood or fluid evidence that was not located and preserved by this time has likely degraded to uselessness.

Maintaining proper, documentation of evidence found is critically important. The O.J. Simpson case first foundered because of mistakes in the chain of evidence. When an officer collects physical evidence, he marks it with a small, inconspicuous initial so that it can be later identified. If the item is too small or fragile to mark, it is placed in an envelope, vial, or bag (see p. 71) which is then sealed and marked. The evidence is logged thoroughly, both in the officer's report and in the station house evidence room, where records are kept whenever the item is sent to a laboratory or returned. These records prove the "chain of custody," and insures that no one will have an unrecorded chance to tamper with or misuse the evidence.

In the Simpson case, officers collected blood samples, then carried them for several hours before they were logged by the crime lab. Officers were later unable to account for a small quantity of the blood, leading defense counsel to successfully argue that police had used the missing vial to plant blood evidence and frame Simpson.

Looking for Physical Evidence

The detectives, or their hired experts, make Sense and Forensics rolls to gather physical evidence and Criminology rolls to interpret it. Whether they make these rolls themselves, or merely give suggestions to evidence technicians, depends on how many resources are devoted to the case and on the style of the campaign.

In a Hollywood action movie, heroes leave the hours of tedious searching for and labeling evidence to extras. At a dramatically appropriate point, the extras give the heroes a report with clues they need to confront the villain. Detectives in the real world rely on experts, but they are also involved in the grunt work of cataloging evidence and may have to do their own tests.





In a suspense or conspiracy adventure, the hero finds a vital clue and pursues a hunch on his own in the lab, finding evidence of cover-up or corruption. In reality, officers are careful to log their evidence and have it professionally tested, to avoid having the evidence challenged and excluded in court.

In the movies, forensic analysis takes as much time as is dramatically appropriate. In the real world, reports take hours, days, or weeks; it depends on the complexity of the test and the importance of the case.

The players' knowledge of (and interest in) forensic investigation determines whether they should be encouraged to describe what the investigators do, or tell the experts to do, when looking for forensic evidence. Some things are standard in any competent investigation:

- Before any evidence is moved, a detective or evidence technician photographs it in place and measures its exact location from fixed objects like walls and doorways.

- Obvious weapons are collected, marked, and checked for fingerprints and blood.

- Samples are taken from obvious blood and fluid stains for blood grouping and DNA analysis. Stains are photographed and their location triangulated from fixed locations.

- Any corpse on the scene is photographed in place, its location triangulated from fixed locations, then removed and given an autopsy.

- Injured victims or suspects are taken to the hospital for treatment. (The hospital only conducts tests relevant to treatment. If a detective wants blood drawn for more detailed tests, he needs a warrant or consent.)

If the investigators leave things in the hands of evidence technicians, assume the techs have a Sense roll of 11, and Criminology and Forensics skills of 13 to 15. Adjust for the size of the department and the (apparent) importance of the case.

The first thing a detective hopes to find is a fingerprint. Fingerprints have been used by police since 1897. Nowadays, criminals are smart enough to either wear gloves or wipe their fingerprints after a crime. A detective should think about places where the criminal might have taken off the gloves or forgotten to wipe. He might look for glove prints (fingerprints can be left through very thin gloves), or bits of material from the gloves.

Fingerprints can be recovered from metals, paper, painted surfaces, plastic, glass, human skin (with a Forensics -4 roll if preserved within 12 hours), and the inside of rubber or latex gloves. Fingerprints cannot (yet) be recovered from brick, rock, stone, unfinished wood or cloth. Assign reasonable penalties to the Forensics roll for site conditions. Many variables can affect whether a fingerprint was left or can be recovered: heat, humidity, the cleanliness of the surface, and cleanliness of the criminal's hands. Fingerprints can vanish quickly or last for years – on some materials, in some locations.

Once a fingerprint is recovered, it can be matched to a suspect, but this is not easy. Computerized databases help, but searching fingerprint libraries still takes hours or days unless the detective can narrow the search parameters by coming up with a suspect description or other information. It is not currently believed to be possible to forge a fingerprint at a crime scene; however, a corrupt evidence technician can falsify a recovered fingerprint using a photocopy of the fingerprint to be forged.

Another thing a detective hopes to find is blood and body fluids from the criminal. With DNA testing available, such fluids are as good as fingerprints. They often tell an examiner the blood type of suspects, although about 20% of people do not leave blood type information in other body fluids. Blood group analysis takes only a few hours. Blood and body fluids can be compared to a suspect using DNA analysis, which tells whether it is statistically likely that the suspect left the sample. DNA analysis takes weeks or months. Recently, states have begun establishing DNA libraries of convicted sex offenders and other convicted violent felons; these may allow police to match crime-scene DNA to a felon. Again, the search may take hours, days, or longer unless the detective can narrow the search parameters.

Violent crimes are messy. Blood spatter can tell an experienced examiner a great deal about relative positions of the persons and objects present in the room, the type of weapon, the force and direction of blows, the number of impacts, and the time between the impacts and their analysis. A detective checks sinks, sink traps and toilets for signs the criminal tried to clean blood off himself before fleeing. A criminal may step in pooled blood, or be spattered by it and leave footprints, smears, or stains on everything he touches. Even if walls and floors appear clean to the naked eye, a chemical called Luminol can later cause tiny traces of blood to be found when they fluoresce under ultraviolet light ("black light"). If the detective finds a suspect, then he can search (with a warrant!) the car, house and clothing for traces of the victim's blood.

Time of Death

Determining time of death is a matter for experts. Use this section to give color to a homicide crime scene. Fright checks from dead or badly injured bodies are certainly appropriate for rookie officers . . . and even veterans, if the crime scene is especially horrific.

The basic sequence after death is: the organs stop functioning, then postmortem lividity begins, then rigor begins, then the body starts to rot and decay. These are the general guidelines; more specific information is available in crime scene and forensics manuals and in *GURPS Undead* (see pp. UN20-22).

When death is instantaneous, the body may go into a cadaveric spasm (this is rare). The condition resembles rigor mortis. Anything the victim was holding at the time of death is clenched in his hands. The object is so strongly held it may take several strong people to pry the object out of the corpse's hands.

Lividity is what happens as gravity pulls the blood to the lowest parts of the body, where it pools, creating purplish discolorations. Lividity begins anywhere from 20 minutes to four hours after death; it is complete within 12 hours. It is a poor indicator of time of death, but indicates if the body was in one position for several hours after death and then moved.

Rigor mortis is the contraction of a body's muscles after death. It starts within two to six hours after death and is complete eight to 12 hours after death. Rigor progresses from head to toe. It then begins to diminish, in the same sequence, until 18 to 36 hours later the body is completely limp. This means that one can never accurately read a corpse's dying expression.

Putrefaction depends on temperature, but can start as early as a day after death. Flies may start to lay their eggs within minutes; maggots would appear about 24 hours later.

Body temperature is not a reliable way to determine time of death. Temperature loss depends on the amount of body fat, the ambient air temperature, the cause of death, and other factors. A very rough average is 1°F per hour. Stomach contents may suggest the time of death if the time of the last meal is known (the stomach empties in about four to six hours).



If a gun was involved, detectives look for slugs in the victim, walls, and floors, as well as ejected bullet casings from semi-automatic pistols. Police have been analyzing bullets, shell casings, and wound tracks for a long time; a good laboratory can determine the make, model, and caliber of the firearm that fired a recovered slug. If they have a gun that they suspect was used, they can fire other shots from it and tell whether *that particular* gun fired a recovered slug or ejected a recovered bullet casing. They cannot tell which shotgun fired a load of shot, but a batch of recovered shot might be compared to unfired shotshells in the suspect's possession, to see if the other shells came from the same manufacturer and batch.

A slug of any kind may contain microscopic traces of blood, bone, or fabric that can help identify a suspect. Gunpowder residue tests determine whether the chemicals typically found in bullet primers are present on a surface; this implies whether a firearm was fired nearby within the last few hours. (If the area is vigorously washed with soap and water before testing, the traces can be destroyed.) These are simple tests; automatically give the results to the officers if they locate any slugs or casings. Officers must be creative in looking for slugs. Bullets can travel as far as a mile if they don't hit an obstruction. Note that if there is a slug buried in a wall or doorframe, police should *not* dig it out. This damages the slug and makes it hard to match to a recovered weapon. Evidence technicians remove the entire wall around it and let the lab remove the slug.

Criminals often know enough to dispose of a firearm used in a crime. But panicked and afraid criminals just aren't very smart about where they get rid of things. A detective should think about places where a frightened criminal might quickly discard a firearm – nearby dumpsters, sewers, fields and river bridges – and search those.

Fibers, hair, mud, pollen, paint chips, broken glass, foot prints, vehicle tracks, tool marks from lockpicks or jimmies – all of these can be analyzed for useful clues. PC officers should describe what they are looking for and roughly where. The GM determines whether they found anything and describes the forensic results later. (Officers with Luck or Common Sense may be given information they failed to ask for.)

Detectives also look for non-physical evidence: answering machine messages, caller ID logs, phone bills, appointment books, computer records . . . anything that may tell them what happened and why. They look at security videotapes and check nearby businesses for security cameras that might have caught a glimpse of the criminals before or after a crime.

As anyone who remembers the Secret Service raid on Steve Jackson Games may recall, investigators are not always sophisticated about searching computers. However, that raid was in 1990! Many investigators are, at a minimum, able to confiscate equipment without accidentally destroying it and to successfully reassemble a confiscated system in the evidence lab. A Computer Operations roll may recover normal data from a system, but a Computer Hacking roll is needed for data that has been intentionally hidden. To find a single hidden item in an otherwise innocent system will require a roll at a great penalty and/or a Contest of Skills against the Computer Operation skill of the person who hid it.

Police have long known that memory is fragile. People try subconsciously to make their memories match information acquired later.

Be realistic. Police departments have limited personnel, laboratories and budgets. Not every case warrants a full-scale investigation. A staple of police fiction is the detective with a gut feeling about a minor case who must battle superiors for resources. In fiction, the heroic detective is proven correct. In a realistic campaign, he may wind up badly embarrassed.

Interviews

Once the detectives arrive, patrol officers start looking for witnesses and the detectives examine the crime scene. Patrol officers knock on neighbors' doors, talk with bystanders and try to find anyone who might have seen (or heard) anything about the crime. They locate and talk to the victim's family, friends, and business associates. They ask questions and take notes. Only rarely might the officer have a tape recorder with him to record the interview. Officers ask important witnesses to come to the station house and give a written statement. The witness does not actually write out the statement. He gives an oral statement to a detective, who summarizes and types it. The witness verifies the accuracy of the statement and signs it in front of the detective and another officer acting as a notary.

Witnesses must be questioned quickly, before memories fade. They also need to be questioned separately, so one witness is not distracted or misled (contaminated) by another's statements. Police have long known that memory is fragile. People try subconsciously to make their memories match information acquired later.

A neighbor questioned about one homicide verbally told officers he had heard the victim yell, "T.J., get out!" After newspapers reported that the victim had been raped and killed, the same man put in his written statement that he heard the victim yell, "T.J., put your pants on and get out of here. I'm older than you!" Was he intentionally lying? If the officers had only the second statement to go by, they would not easily believe T.J.'s story about being only a bystander, not the rapist.

Everybody lies sometimes. Everybody makes mistakes. Everybody gets confused. It would be realistic to have witnesses make some honest mistakes in their statements. However, false clues can take on a frustrating persistence, and make it hard to keep players focused on the planned adventure. When a witness' story does not match forensic evidence, players may assume that the contradiction is an important clue, rather than chalk it up to a witness error.

Fast-Talk may be needed to persuade a witness to make a statement, especially if the crime took place in a high-crime neighborhood where witnesses fear retaliation or distrust police. Alternatively, an officer may find a witness overly helpful, consciously or unconsciously making up information to get attention or settle a private grievance. If no witnesses are willing to come forward in such a place, police may pressure the community. They increase patrols, making extra arrests and otherwise harassing area drug dealers, prostitutes, and pimps until witnesses come forward. In high-class neighborhoods, this would be unthinkable.

For physical evidence, Sense and Criminology rolls are used to find clues. For interviewing, Interrogation is the closest skill, but doesn't capture the right tone; Bard or Diplomacy might be applicable. An interview is about persuading a witness to give accurate information. The witness may be embarrassed, reluctant to get involved, distrustful of police, trying to protect a friend or relative, or just not aware that what he knows is important. Witnesses may be afraid to talk to detectives, reluctant to sign statements, and terrified about testifying in court, for fear of retaliation by the suspect or his associates. A good interviewer learns how to convince a witness to cooperate.

A trained interviewer asks questions, but doesn't suggest the answer. Good questions are open-ended, and invite the witness to elaborate: "What did you see?" Bad questions are more like: "He had a scar on his cheek, didn't he?" Any question you can end with "Wasn't he?" or "Didn't he?" is a "leading question" — this question contaminates the witness by giving him new information.

Questions must be simple, so the interviewer knows what the witness is thinking about, and so the witness does not become confused. Do not ask multiple-part questions, like: "What kind of a shirt was he wearing, and what color was his hat?"



Narrow questions – “Was the door locked or unlocked?” – can be saved for the end of the interview after the interviewer has the broad picture and is merely filling in details. Good questioning techniques help keep the witness focused without making him uncomfortable.

A good interviewer is a good roleplayer. He may use a bit of Acting to look comfortable with the witness, or a bit of Bard to speak with a tone and vocabulary the witness understands and responds to. He will be courteous and try to put the subject at ease. This is not a time to browbeat the subject. Silence, embarrassment, and rudeness are sparingly used to break through a witness' reluctance to speak. Too much, and he will stop talking and leave. Interviews are a time to obtain specific information, not a time to argue about politics, the witness' feelings about police, or his prejudices. It is not the time to judge the witness or show disapproval.

An interviewer may use Psychology to figure out the best way to persuade a reluctant witness to cooperate. He may use Fast-Talk, Acting, or Intimidation to do the actual persuading. Interviewers with Detect Lies, Interrogation or Psychology skill may ask for an estimate of how reliable a witness is. Investigators with such skills can be assumed to question a suspect without creating false memories. Unethical cops with such skills can attempt to taint witnesses and bolster a weak case, or frame a suspect to shift blame away from themselves.



Stakeouts

If police don't have enough information to interrogate a suspect, they try a stakeout. Stakeouts are used to verify witness statements and informant tips; to obtain descriptions of a suspects' appearance, clothing, vehicles, residence, mannerisms, and associates; and to collect actual evidence against the suspect. Surveillance can be overt, intended to pressure the suspect and keep him from meeting with confederates or committing crimes. Or it can be covert – watching the suspect secretly from a rental apartment or car. Hollywood surveillance is a chance for the lead characters to bond before something exciting happens; real surveillance is dull. Detectives spend hours, days, or months watching a suspect, patiently accumulating evidence.

Police do not need a warrant to go anywhere a member of the public could ordinarily go or to see anything a member of the public could see with commercially available equipment. (When police want to tap telephones, read mail, install bugging devices, or use specialized equipment, they have to justify getting a warrant from a judge.)

An officer who wants to conduct a stakeout may have to convince his superiors. The time spent sitting in a car watching a suspect might be better spent on other cases. For this reason, an officer is likely to find himself working alone on a long stakeout, with his partner assigned to another shift or other cases.

Criminals, especially professionals, are not always stupid. They use telephone scramblers and pay phones to avoid bugs. They use codes, nicknames, metaphors, or obscure dialects of their native language. Some set up surveillance of an area themselves before a major deal to scout for police (or rival gangs). If such a criminal spots a middle-aged man just sitting in a car near the site, he will assume it's a cop and quickly cancel the deal.

Stakeouts use Sense rolls, Stealth, and Shadowing skill. Keep in mind fatigue (see p. B134) when the officer is conducting a late-night surveillance alone. Photography and Electronics Ops: Sensors may be needed to place and operate bugs.

Prepare for an Interview

Players: listen to what's going on. When a detective interviews a suspect or witness, nearly everything the GM is saying is being said for a reason. Characters in a roleplayed interview, unlike people in the real world, are unlikely to waste your time telling long stories about their father's World War II medals unless that has something to do with the plot. Ask open-ended questions. Don't assume anything. Make the person tell you what he knows, not what you know. Be fair to the GM: If a witness says something inconsistent with what you learned from another source, make certain that you call attention to the inconsistency and give the GM a chance to correct the error, if it was one.

GMs: prepare yourself. Have notes ready with what the interviewee knows and does not know. Know the chronology. Know the scene. Know the story. Know some war stories. That way you won't be tripped up when the players use good interviewing techniques. Keep notes. When you invent something because a detective asks something you never thought about, you want to be consistent. The players assume that everything they hear is part of the adventure. Throw in a few irrelevant bits for color or as red herrings, but don't be too caught up in it; it is too easy to be sidetracked. You can avoid major preparation for minor witnesses by having players make an Interrogation roll and giving them a summary result. Remember to vary the technique! Otherwise the players assume that anything that you are acting out must be important, because you are bothering to roleplay it.

The detective controls where the suspect sits, how he moves, and whether he can eat, drink, sleep, or go to the bathroom.

Interrogations

Once police focus on a particular suspect or suspects, they are invited to the station house for more formal questioning. If a suspect declines the invitation and police have probable cause, they can arrest him. Otherwise, they can't force anyone to come to the station house.

An American interrogation starts with reading the suspect his *Miranda* rights and getting him to sign a waiver. Amazingly, research shows that 85% of people suspected of a crime waive these rights and answer police questions. Their statements can provide damning evidence against them. U.K. suspects must receive the *Caution*, which is similar to the *Miranda* warning (see p. 103).

If a suspect clearly and unambiguously asks for a lawyer, the interrogation must stop. When the lawyer arrives, the first thing he will say is, "Shut up!" The lawyer talks to his client privately and then starts negotiating – not with the police, but with the prosecutor.

Police have found a number of ways to persuade defendants to tell them their side of the story. Only the most knowledgeable criminals are wise enough to "lawyer up" in the interrogation room. A suspect who makes a Streetwise or Law roll at -2 knows enough to immediately ask for a lawyer, regardless of guilt or innocence, although he may be overconfident enough to proceed with the interrogation anyway. A guilty suspect might be overconfident about his own ability to persuade the police of his innocence; an innocent suspect might be overconfident about the police's willingness to believe his explanations.

An interrogation is used when a detective is reasonably certain of a suspect's guilt. Tactics vary, but interrogation is about control and authority. Every police station has at least one interrogation room. Traditionally it is stark, bleak and barren, with a table and a couple of chairs. There may be a two-way mirror. There may be a video camera or a tape recorder. It is designed to make the suspect feel uncomfortable, isolated, and powerless. A few detectives have at least one interview room designed to look like a normal office; the intention is to throw experienced suspects expecting a barren room off-balance and to get them to feel that the detective will protect them.

The detective controls the suspect's access to information. He is required to tell the suspect whether his lawyer has arrived; he may not interview juvenile witnesses without a family member present. Otherwise, the detective has complete control over everything the suspect sees and hears. The detective can lie. He tells the suspect that a codefendant has confessed; that he has a witness who saw the crime; that he has blood, fingerprints or DNA evidence to connect the suspect to the crime. All of this is legal. A suspect who makes a Streetwise or Law roll at -4 knows this, but may still be tricked if the detective succeeds especially well on a Fast-Talk roll.

The detective controls where the suspect sits, how he moves, and whether he can eat, drink, sleep, or go to the bathroom. He can offer a drink or food as a reward for giving information, or withhold it as punishment. (In truth, however, the detective has to let the suspect eat, drink, go to the bathroom, or leave if he insists. Ordinary citizens don't know they can insist on ending the interview or having their lawyer present.)

The interrogator and a friend can play good cop/bad cop – a time-honored routine, because it works. He feigns friendship, sympathy, or understanding as necessary. He can appeal to the suspect's morality, family responsibility, or religious values. The interrogator is not allowed to threaten or strike the suspect, despite Hollywood notions to the contrary. He cannot make any overt promises, but he can make implicit promises to "put in a good word" or "do what he can" for the suspect.

The key to a successful interrogation is hope. The detective shows the suspect that he has all the evidence he needs to get a serious conviction. If only the suspect would tell his side of the story, just *maybe* he could find his way out of this mess. Hope is what hangs the suspect.



Memory and Confessions

Memory

Sit down with any group of gamers after a particularly good game. Have them individually write down a summary of the session, either at the time or within a day. (You can also try this when a shocking tragedy takes place in the news: the *Challenger* explosion, TWA 800, the Columbine shooting.) Take the summaries away and put them aside. Six months later, ask the players to write down another description of the same event. Compare them. The new descriptions will disagree with the old in several major places. Often the players won't be able to recreate the original memory.

Memory is a strange thing; it changes itself over time. People integrate information they gained later into the memory of the event itself. This explains how witnesses in the real world can change their stories without being untruthful or dishonest. (This also shows how gaming "war stories" evolve.)

Memory plays other tricks, too. Suggestive questioning can change a memory. Asking a witness, "How fast were the cars going when they smashed into each other?" gets a different estimate than, "How fast were the cars going when they bumped?"

"Was the robber's hat brown or black?" may cause a witness to recall a non-existent hat. Telling a witness, "That's our suspect" after he has selected someone from a lineup can make the witness believe he "was certain all along" the person he picked was the suspect, erasing any internal doubts. It has long been known that witnesses, even trained witnesses, make frequent errors in describing height, weight, clothing, hair and eye color.

Yet suspects are routinely arrested based on witness descriptions. A large percentage later confess, or are convicted based on forensic evidence. Clearly, the errors somehow average out.



False Confessions

False confessions are frighteningly easy to produce, even without physical torture or threats. A 1998 college psychology study coerced 90% of students into falsely confessing to a minor mistake; 65% of those who confessed came to believe that they had indeed made a mistake.

An ethical officer needs to be wary of creating false memories. It is all too easy for false memories to be created by leading, aggressive questioning. Children are especially susceptible when their questioner is an authority figure like a policeman (or a prosecutor).

An unethical investigator can try to create a false memory or confession. He must succeed in an Interrogation roll vs. the subject's Will, and win by at least 4 to tamper with a witness' memory, or by at least 5 to induce a false confession.

Police also get false confessions from troubled people who had nothing to do with the actual crime, but crave attention or fame. Sorting out these hoax confessions is distracting and time-consuming. Sometimes the hoax confessor was really involved in some part of the crime or did some of the things he claims.

Good questioning technique will eliminate many hoax confessions. The investigator must be very careful not to give the suspect new information, especially not information that's being kept from the press. The suspect may not even be aware that he's giving a false confession, "cold-reading" the investigator for information, or just repeating back things he's learned from the papers, or from other officers.

An investigator can make an IQ check or Criminology roll vs. the suspect's IQ, Fast-Talk, or Criminology, to realize that a suspect is just repeating back things he learned from other officers and to successfully test the suspect with false information.



Lie Detectors

The polygraph is either a very reliable investigative tool or the largest myth in law enforcement. Most courts do not consider them sufficiently reliable to use their results at trial. Some courts allow a defendant to present evidence that he passed a polygraph test.

The FBI, CIA, and many police departments routinely use them for pre-employment screenings and internal security reviews. Police may ask a suspect to agree to a polygraph. If the suspect consents and passes the test, many officers accept the suspect's protestations of innocence.

The modern polygraph is less painful and more reliable than earlier methods of truth detection. People have used duels, ordeals (e.g. hot iron on the tongue or hand), trial by water (throwing the accused into a pool or river to see if he floats (guilty) or sinks (innocent)), torture, and truth serum. The ancient Greeks speculated about the relationship between pulse and veracity, but it was not until the late 19th century that science had the tools to accurately time the pulse and measure blood pressure.

Polygraphs are designed to detect stress. The theory is that the suspect's body shows his extra stress when he is lying. Modern polygraphs measure blood pressure, heart rate, respiration rate, depth of breath, and galvanic skin response (i.e. how much the suspect sweats). The suspect is asked a series of questions both relevant and irrelevant to the case. Questions are spaced 10 to 20 seconds apart so the subject's reactions to each question can be analyzed separately. The suspect's responses are recorded and analyzed. Polygraphs must be given voluntarily; they are useless against suspects who actively resist them.

GMs must decide whether polygraphs are reliable in this campaign. If so, then he must set the Electronics Operation (Medical) skill at a difficulty level that reflects the accuracy rate. He must decide if skills like Acting, Body Control (see p. CII38), or Interrogation allow a trained subject to beat a polygraph without the examiner noticing the evasion.

In game terms, a reliable polygraph gives a modifier to Detect Lies skill. Its value depends on a Quick Contest between the operator's Electronics Operation (Medical) skill and the subject's Will. The interrogators get a bonus (or penalty) to Detect Lies skill equal to their margin of victory (or loss). The polygraph operator and questioner need not be the same person; a technician with Electronics Operation and an interrogator with Detect Lies can work as a team. The GM makes all rolls relating to a lie-detector test in secret.

People with the Compulsive Lying disadvantage appear to be telling the truth on polygraph tests. Interrogators automatically have -5 on machine-aided Detect Lies rolls. They may make two Detect Lies rolls for each question: one with the aid of the polygraph, one without. However, they have only their own intuition with which to choose the more accurate result, since the GM makes both rolls in secret.

A self-contained polygraph fits into a medium suitcase, costs \$8,000, and weighs 5 lbs. A unit that must plug into a computer to work (complete with software), is only \$1,500, 1.1 lbs.

Miranda

"You have the right to remain silent. If you give up this right, what you say may be taken down and used in evidence against you in a court of law. You have the right to have an attorney present during questioning. If you cannot afford an attorney, one will be provided for you. Do you understand these rights?"

When an officer decides that a person may have committed a crime, he becomes a suspect. The officer has to read the suspect his *Miranda* rights. Named after Ernesto Miranda, the defendant in the 1966 United States Supreme Court case, the *Miranda* rule requires police to tell a suspect his rights as a condition of admitting any statement he makes into evidence. If the *Miranda* rights are not properly given, it will be hard for the police to use his statements, or any information gleaned from those statements, against him at trial.

If the suspect is arrested in the field, the arresting officer reads him his rights from a preprinted card. If the suspect is at the station, he is read the *Miranda* rights, then is given a waiver form to read, initial and sign. If the suspect does not speak English well, a translator is called to give the warning in his language. Then questioning begins. If a suspect is questioned more than once, he is asked to sign a new waiver at each session. If the suspect does not waive his rights, questioning must stop immediately.

If the police have enough evidence to arrest and book the suspect, they can do so. Booking questions (routine questions about one's height, weight, birthplace and residence) do not violate *Miranda*.

Police seem to like *Miranda*. In principle, the rule is clear: Read the warnings, get a signed waiver and whatever happens next is admissible. There are special cases: minors, the mentally ill, people too drunk or stoned to competently waive their rights. For game purposes, as long as the officer gives the warning and is acting reasonably, don't worry about the details.

What happened to *Miranda* himself? The United States Supreme Court ordered a new trial at which *Miranda* was again convicted, based on evidence other than his confession. He served a total of 11 years in prison. After his release, he was stabbed to death in a bar fight in 1976; he was only 34 years old. A suspect was arrested but chose to exercise his right to remain silent. Since there was no corroborating evidence, and no witnesses, he was released.

The U.K. version of *Miranda*, the "Caution," must be given as soon as the officer thinks he has reasonable grounds for suspecting the person has committed an offense. A standard caution is "I am placing you under arrest on suspicion of [CRIME]. You do not have to say anything. It may harm your defense if you do not mention when questioned something which you later rely on in court. Anything you do say may be given in evidence." (Unlike the American *Miranda* warning, the exact wording can vary without causing problems for the prosecution.) The suspect has the right to a solicitor, but the officer does not have to tell him this as part of the caution. The custody sergeant advises him of this fact, along with his other rights, as part of the booking-in at the cells.



French Judicial Investigations

Possibly the biggest difference between the French system and the American and U.K. systems occurs at this stage of the case. The police investigation in France is followed by a judicial investigation. The judicial investigation builds on the police investigation to decide if the case should be tried or dismissed. Such investigations are also begun when a prosecution begins, or after the victim of a crime brings a lawsuit in criminal court.

Judicial investigations are called only in serious criminal cases, or about 10% of all criminal cases. The case is referred to an investigating judge, who must be a member of the bench and nominated to this role. Investigating judges hold their post for three years. An investigating judge works alone, but in complex cases, other judges can be assigned as aides. The investigating judge can delegate tasks to police officers whom he oversees. The investigating judge's job is to determine the objective truth of the crime – that a crime occurred – not whether the suspect is guilty. Investigating judges have a great deal of power: they visit the scene of the crime, reconstruct the offense, hear witnesses, search and seize property without the owner's consent, interrogate persons, arrest a suspect, and then release the suspect on bail, if advisable.

If a telephone tap is needed in a criminal case, it can only be done as part of the judicial, not the police investigation, although telephone taps are allowed by police against suspected terrorists and organized crime.

The judicial investigation lasts, on average, 15 months. The judge is expected to find both favorable and unfavorable evidence and to conduct his investigation without deception or brutality. Every investigative action must be documented in writing.

As one interrogation manual describes it:

"There is no doubt about the fact that an interrogator has to be an actor, and a top-notch actor at that, if he hopes to be a successful interrogator. Not only must the interrogator deliver lines spontaneously, but he must deliver them in a realistic and wholly convincing manner. To sell a suspect the idea that it is to his own best advantage to tell the truth, though it may mean imprisonment or death, is not only a high level sales job, but a performance the likes of which have never been seen on stage."

British Interrogations

U.K. police can detain suspects longer than American police. An American detective cannot hold a suspect at all without placing him under arrest, but he does not have to tell the suspect that. A U.K. detective can hold a suspect for up to 72 hours before deciding whether to arrest him.

Increasing levels of authority are required to hold a suspect: After six hours, the duty Inspector must review the case and authorize any further detention. After 15 hours, the Inspector reviews the case again. After 24 hours, a Superintendent reviews the case; more time can be authorized only for suspected serious offenses like murder or rape. After 36 hours, police must have a magistrate's approval to continue to hold the suspect. Finally, after 72 hours' incarceration, the suspect must either be charged or released.

A prisoner is guaranteed access to a lawyer if he so chooses, either for advice or to be present for interviews. For most offenses, a prisoner can ask for a lawyer immediately. In the case of "serious arrestable offenses," including terrorism, police can detain a prisoner for up to 48 hours before allowing his lawyer to see him. U.K. lawyers are divided into solicitors (general practitioners who practice in the magistrates' courts) and barristers (specialists in advocacy who practice in all courts.)

During an interview, the officer must take contemporaneous notes, every page of which must be signed by the prisoner. Certain interviews must be tape-recorded.

French Interrogations

French police may detain a suspect for up to 24 hours for interrogation. This can be extended by the public prosecutor for another 24 hours. A person can be held for up to 98 hours (rarely) if suspected of terrorism or serious drug crimes. Detained suspects have a right to have a close friend or relative informed that they are in custody. They can ask to be examined by a doctor. Police must inform a senior public prosecutor promptly, but do not have to let the suspect see his lawyer until after 20 hours of detention (36 hours in conspiracy, extortion and organized crime cases; 72 hours in terrorism and serious drug cases). Even then, the meeting with the lawyer is limited to 30 minutes. There are no time limits on questioning, rests and breaks.

French defendants have the right to remain silent, but police do not need to inform them of it. Nor must a French suspect's lawyer be present for questioning. The police inform the suspect's lawyer of the charges, but don't have to tell the suspect himself.

Japanese Interrogations

Japanese police can detain a suspect for up to 23 days before making a decision to prosecute. Officers may, on their own authority, detain a suspect for up to 48 hours. The suspect is then turned over to a prosecutor, who has 24 hours to ask the courts for a detention order. If the order is approved, the court authorizes another 20 days detention under the prosecutor's supervision before charges must be filed. Suspects held under this system are not eligible for bail, which is not available until charges are filed. The suspect has no right to counsel during the 23 days. Even once indicted, access to counsel is restricted by police; written communications can be censored.

Suspects are interrogated and pressured to confess during this time. Physical force is never used, but isolation, lack of privacy, interrupted sleep, and social pressures are common tools. Japanese courts are very strict about the techniques that can be used. Japanese law is also very strict about police entrapment of suspects.

Confession can have an effect on the ultimate charges, since Japanese prosecutors are not allowed to plea bargain after charges are filed. It can give critical corroborating evidence, but suspects cannot be convicted solely on a confession. Japanese police cannot offer immunity from prosecution for cooperation.



Sting Operations

Sting operations are a different kind of investigation, in which police officers pretend to be criminals in order to catch other criminals. Sting operations can be simple, prepared in a few hours . . . or they can be elaborate plans involving several different agencies and officers. A sting operation can be anything from a teenager working undercover to try to buy cigarettes from store owners, to fake fencing companies that purchase stolen goods from thieves. Officers involved in sting operations rely on Fast-Talk, Acting, and Streetwise to put their targets at ease.

Undercover agents can attempt to purchase narcotics, recording the transaction with a "wire" and paying with money whose serial number has been recorded (or which is marked with invisible ink). After the transaction, the drug sellers are arrested by uniformed officers. Undercover agents can also be involved in long term deep-cover operations, where they can gather inside information about organized crime or about corrupt officers.

A variation on sting operations is the "decoy," in which an undercover officer poses as a tempting target for a robber to catch the criminal. These can be very dangerous, since police have to let the robber attack them, or at least display a weapon and make a demand, before making an arrest. Police on decoy duty have a backup officer nearby to protect them and assist in the arrest.

Police officers working undercover or in sting operations use microphones and video cameras to record incriminating evidence. Police have to be careful that they do not suggest the crime to the suspect. If they do, that is entrapment (p. 112), and the suspect escapes conviction. The officer must make himself available to the suspect, but may do nothing to induce the suspect to commit the crime.



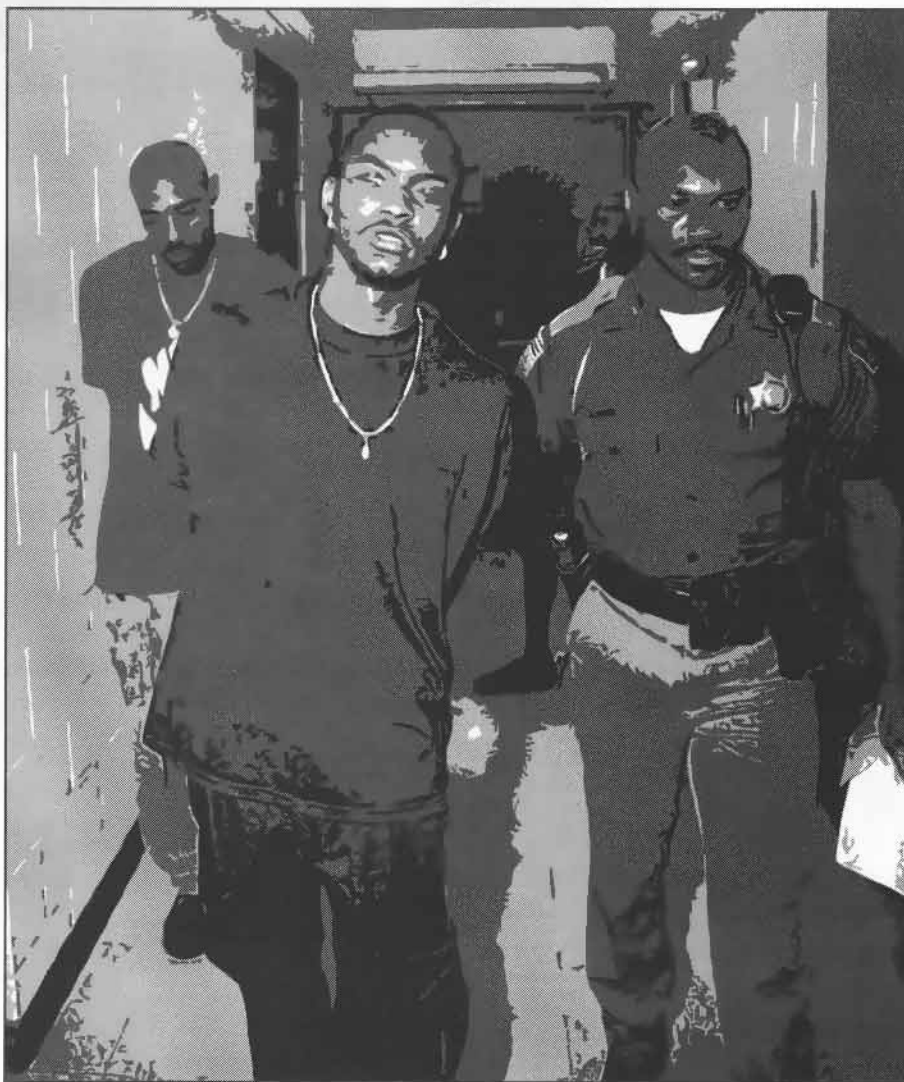
Whenever an officer is undercover, there are several risks. Criminals may challenge the officer's cover, frisk him, ask him to sample narcotics being purchased, or decide to eliminate the competition. Departments do not allow undercover officers to assist, aid, or abet any kind of major crime. If an undercover officer is particularly successful, he might be targeted for revenge by the criminals or their confederates. An officer may be mistaken by other officers for a criminal. Some departments have an identifying "color of the day" or a signal (crossing one's arms when ordered to place one's hands up) that discreetly lets other officers know who they are confronting. An officer might even be attacked by average citizens who reasonably think the officer is a criminal.

The Arrest

A case is closed when a suspect is arrested and charges filed. There are several ways police can arrest a suspect. If the police have "probable cause" (see below) to believe a suspect right in front them committed a crime, they can arrest him on the spot. There are no magic words. If a reasonable person in the suspect's shoes would not think he is free to leave if he asks, then the suspect is under arrest. (The police are allowed to briefly detain people at traffic stops or to ask questions without "arresting" them, but they have to be reasonable.) If the suspect is somewhere else, police need to go to a judge and ask for an arrest warrant. In federal cases and in some states, police can also take their evidence to a prosecutor who can go to a grand jury and ask for an indictment.

There are thousands of precedent cases across the nation debating the nature of probable cause – the minimum necessary evidence an officer needs to arrest a suspect. Don't worry about the details. Courts have wrestled with the concept for decades, creating a variety of definitions and exceptions. A good working definition is "a reasonable ground for belief, less than evidence justifying a conviction, but more than bare suspicion. Probable cause concerns circumstances in which a person of reasonable caution would believe an offense has been or is being committed." If the police reasonably think that, if they told a smart neutral person what they know, that person would think the suspect likely committed the crime, they have probable cause.

When a suspect is arrested, American police read him the *Miranda* rights. Technically, they don't have to do it unless they intend to interrogate the suspect. As discussed in *Interrogations* (p. 101), they do it anyway, often several times, to make sure that a judge doesn't decide to throw out an incriminating statement.



After arrest, the suspect may be booked at the station house or, in large cities, sent to a central booking and holding center. He is photographed, fingerprinted, searched and put in a holding cell. All of his physical possessions are inventoried, taken away and stored (see p. 39).

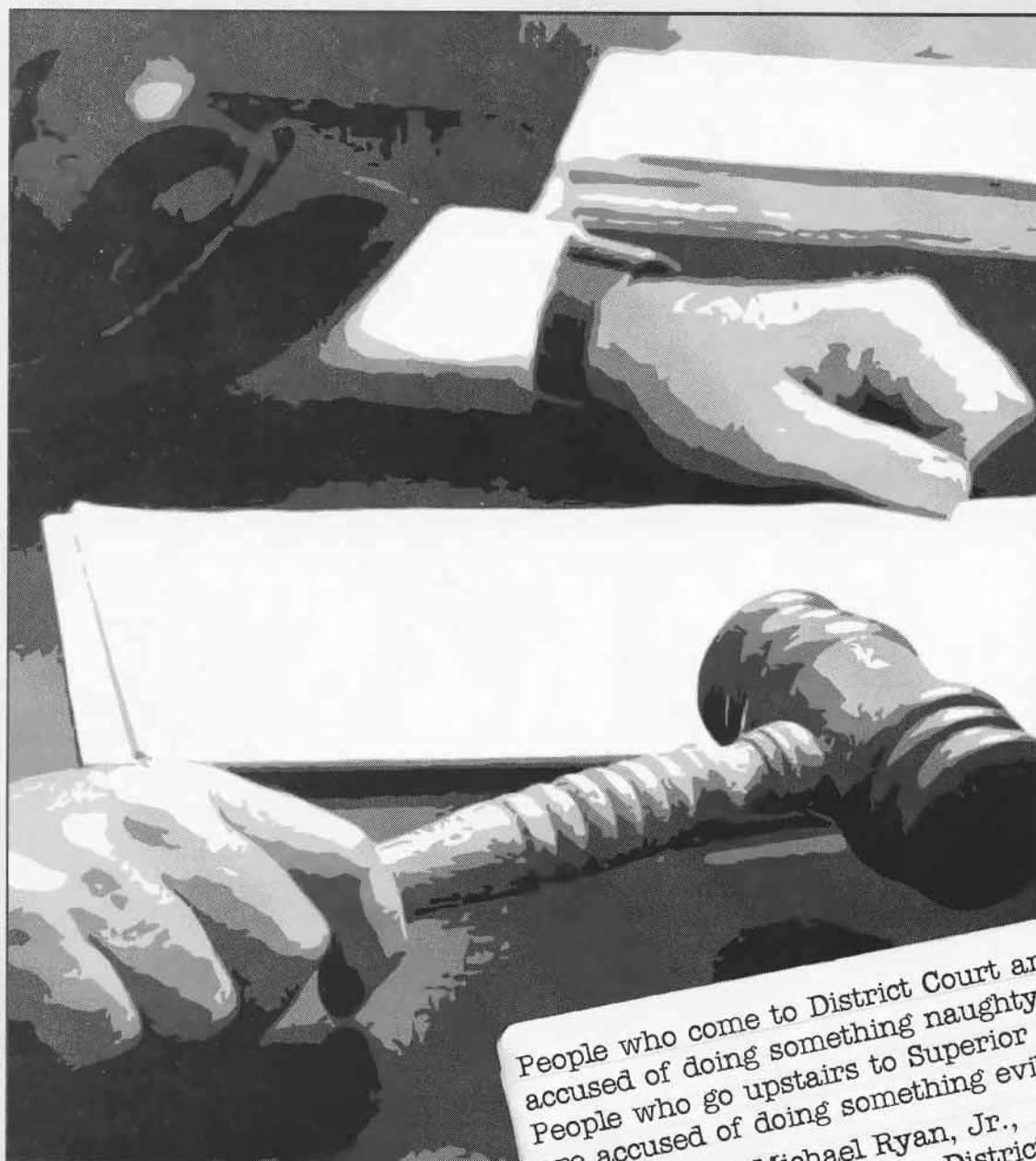
The suspect gets his telephone call, collect or by memorized credit card, since his money was taken away by the booking officer. Police don't have to give the suspect privacy in making the call unless it is to a lawyer.

In the U.S., within 24 hours after arrest the suspect must be taken to court for an arraignment (see p. 109). Once there, he will either make bail and the court's probation department will be responsible for him, or he will not make bail and the corrections department will be responsible for him.

Police have to be careful that they do not suggest the crime to the suspect. If they do, that is entrapment and the suspect escapes conviction.

Chapter 6:

Putting Them Away



People who come to District Court are
accused of doing something naughty.
People who go upstairs to Superior Court
are accused of doing something evil.
— Judge Michael Ryan, Jr.,
Hampshire County District Court
(Massachusetts)

Usually, a *Cops* adventure ends when the cell door clangs shut on the suspect. There might be a voice-over that tells you what happened to the suspect, but the court appearances and trial are ignored. Realistically, though, the officer's court appearances over the next year or more after the arrest are a vital part of putting the suspect away. A campaign could combine investigation and prosecution in a *Law & Order* style. An adventure might include the occasional courtroom scene as the suspect tries to use legal maneuvering to escape punishment for his deeds, especially if the cops stretched or broke the law to catch him. Characters in any genre may also end up as defendants or convicts.

Trials in Cinematic and Realistic Campaigns

Cinematic trials take place much more quickly than trials in the real world. In *My Cousin Vinny*, two young men are put on trial for murder within weeks of the incident. In the real world, with legal battles over evidence and crowded court dockets, it takes months to years for a murder case to come to trial.

Cinematic trials are resolved when a witness breaks down and confesses during a brilliant cross-examination, or after an emotional closing argument to the jury. Realistic trials are long, complex, confusing and even boring.

A *Cops* game will focus on the highlights of a trial – those points where testimony can do something to affect the outcome. A policeman may need to protect a witness from intimidation, testify persuasively against a vigorous cross-examination, ferret out corruption, or otherwise affect the path of justice.

Courtroom Culture

The courthouse and courtroom set the adventure's tone in the same way as does the station house. The tone can range from the formality of a British courtroom with its judge and solicitors in formal wigs, to a rural American courtroom with lawyers in jeans. The judge may tower above the courtroom on a bench elevated three or four feet above the floor, or may be on a platform only a few inches high. The tables for attorneys may be large or small, neat or piled with papers. Witnesses may stand or sit. A criminal defendant may be allowed to sit with his counsel, or be stuck in a prisoner's "dock" or box. The courthouse itself can be in any stage of repair, from peeling paint, cracked plaster and stained ceiling tiles, to new with a smell of fresh paint. The judge and the court staff themselves range from friendly and informal to dictatorial.

Arraignment

The suspect will spend many long hours in court over the next few months and years. In the American system, his first appearance in court occurs within 24 hours after arrest, before which the prosecutor must bring the suspect before a judge.

Arraignment is the first thing done in a criminal court each morning. A line of suspects, chained together, shuffles in from the lock-up. The defendants are disheveled and unshaven, wearing whatever clothing they had on when they were arrested the day before. The clerk reads names and charges in a bored monotone. The suspect, now the defendant, identifies himself and states whether he has or can afford a lawyer. If he can't afford a lawyer (his Wealth is Poor or Dead Broke; see p. B16) the public defender on duty that morning is assigned. The court won't listen to the defendant's excuses or explanations at this time. That comes later.

Cops are not present at arraignment, except possibly as spectators. A police officer brings the defendant to the courthouse, where he becomes the responsibility of the court officers. Police hand their reports in to the prosecutor and may make a verbal report or recommendation. In a busy urban precinct, such police can be found piled in a waiting room drinking coffee or napping while waiting their turn to talk to a prosecutor.

An arraignment is a chance for the GM to give the defendants (players) an idea how much trouble they are in and whether they may be able to resolve it. He sets the tone in his description of the courtroom. Is it modern or old-fashioned? Clean or run-down? What sort of people are in the holding cell and being arraigned with them?

Public Defenders

Right after arraignment, the defendant is taken back to the holding cell. Whether he has been assigned a public defender or has hired private counsel, the attorney meets him in the cell or a nearby interview room. If the defendant can't afford an attorney, doesn't qualify for the public defender, or just wants to represent himself, he waits in the holding cell for a few more hours while other cases are being handled. A defendant has an absolute constitutional right to represent himself, but it is seldom exercised. Even trained defense counsel prefer the aid of a skilled defense attorney to their own efforts at self-defense.

This meeting is used to resolve the case through a plea agreement, or to let the defendant try to convince a cynical public defender that his case really merits significant time, attention, and resources. A friendly attorney may give the defendants useful advice on what they need to do to help themselves win the trial or get a favorable agreement.

Bail

If the defendant has not been able to reach a plea agreement, he returns to the courtroom an hour or two later for a bail hearing. The bail commissioner (a court employee) will have met with him to discuss his finances and discussed the charges with the prosecutor and defense counsel. After the defendant pleads not guilty, the bail commissioner, prosecutor, and defense attorney discuss bail with the court, which sets an amount. The actual dollar amount is based on the seriousness of the charges and whether the defendant seems likely to flee rather than come to trial.

Bail decides where the defendant will remain until trial. Bail set in an amount the defendant can afford to pay lets him walk free. Bail set high enough so the defendant needs to borrow money from a bail bondsman, family member, or a patron restricts his freedom by giving him an obligation. Bail can also be so high that the defendant is forced to stay in jail . . . or it can be denied altogether.

Bail and Bounty Hunters

Bail is a pledge of money to make certain the accused shows up for trial. Real estate, cars, or bank accounts can be used to secure a high bail (as a car loan is secured by the car itself). The trial court clerk accepts bail. Bail must always be in cash.

When a defendant cannot post bail himself, he can hire a bondsman. The bondsman charges a non-refundable fee, from 10% to 15% of the bail. Often, he asks for collateral on something worth the balance, like a relative's house. The bondsman then borrows the remainder of the money from an insurance company for 3% of the total bail and posts the bond with the court clerk.

If the defendant doesn't appear at court date, the bond is forfeit. The insurance company pays the court and starts foreclosing on the bond collateral. If there is more money owed, the bondsman or the insurance company may hire a bounty hunter to locate and return the fugitive. If the accused shows up for all his court dates and doesn't escape or flee, then bail is returned by the court minus any fees or fines owed.

Bounty hunters are paid by bail bondsmen to return fugitives. Most states do not license bounty hunters separately, but instead require them to have a private investigator's license. This involves, at minimum, a check to confirm the bounty hunter does not have a criminal record. Bounty hunters may be better trained and equipped than local police for the locating bail-jumpers.

A freelance bounty hunter is usually paid 10% of the outstanding bail for defendants expected to be within the hunter's home state, and 20% for defendants in other states. He is given a copy of the paperwork proving the defendant is a fugitive and a certified copy of the bond.

Bounty hunters are private citizens. They have no powers that private citizens don't have, aside from (where applicable) licensure to provide bounty-hunting services for money. They may freely arrest the defendant and use force in the process, because the defendant agreed to that in signing the bail bond. They may not violate other people's rights in the process. Bounty hunters do not need warrants, because they are not authorized to trespass in the first place. If a bounty hunter breaks into a house (other than the suspect's) to arrest a subject, he is breaking the law. If a bounty hunter arrests the wrong person, that's kidnapping and can result in criminal charges or lawsuits.

While out on bail, the defendant surrenders his passport, promises to stay in the state, periodically reports to court for hearings, and stays out of trouble. If the defendant causes trouble (in particular, if he is arrested again), the court revokes bail and holds him in jail until his trial.

Bail is not always required. A defendant with strong local ties charged with a minor offense may be released without bail, on his own promise to come back to court as required (his "personal recognizance").

The Pre-Trial

A criminal trial takes time to schedule. Prosecutors and defense counsel are busy people with large caseloads. The United States Constitution promises a defendant a speedy trial, which the Supreme Court says means trial within eight months to a year of the arrest or filing of formal charges. That's not eight calendar months; time can be excluded if the defense asks for delays ("continuances") or makes certain pre-trial motions. A difficult case can take four years to come to trial and still be considered within the constitutional deadline. A simple drunk driving case might come to trial within six months. A capital felony could take two years or more. Meanwhile, the defendant is either on bail, or in jail awaiting trial. If the defendant is convicted, pre-trial jail time counts toward his final sentence.

What's happening during this time? The defense attorney and prosecutor are investigating the case, talking to witnesses, doing tests on evidence and otherwise getting the case ready for trial. Since the 1960s and 1970s, the prosecutor has been required to turn over anything important that would help acquit the defendant. If he fails to do so and is caught, then conviction is overturned and the prosecutor can be fired and disbarred. If a defense attorney fails to disclose anything required to be turned over by the court's rules, he cannot use that information at trial and may be sanctioned by the judge or by the state licensing board for attorneys. There are no surprise witnesses or surprise evidence in a modern criminal trial. The attorneys know exactly who is going to testify and what evidence will be presented long before the jury is picked.

This occurs in the background in most games. If police officers have made a serious mistake in a search, interrogation, or arrest, then the defendant may go free in a pre-trial hearing. In *Dirty Harry*, Harry arrests the serial killer midway through the movie. The killer goes free because Harry searched his room and seized the murder weapon without a warrant. During the last third of the movie, Harry knows the killer will strike again and has to find a way to prevent it.

There are no surprise witnesses or surprise evidence in a modern criminal trial. The attorneys know exactly who is going to testify and what evidence will be presented long before the jury is picked.

For defendants, pre-trial is the time to find out exactly what the prosecution has for evidence against them, discover evidence to help their case, or – for the less scrupulous – use bribery, intimidation and favors to influence the prosecution's witness and evidence.

During this time, police officers may be the targets of bribery attempts, intimidation, pressure from superiors or informants, dirty tricks, assassination attempts, or other efforts to influence an important case. They defend their actions in review board hearings which can be roleplayed in summary or in depth.

Suppression Hearings

Many different pre-trial hearings take place in American courts. One at which the defense challenges evidence, claiming that the police violated the defendant's constitutional rights, is the one police characters are going to be involved in.

The police and the defendant testify to their side of the story. If the evidence was gotten illegally not only is it excluded from the trial, but any evidence obtained because of it is also excluded. Some evidence, such as a statement obtained by obvious torture, is automatically excluded, but most contested evidence can be included or excluded at the judge's discretion, which depend a great deal on the evidence itself and the skill of the attorneys trying to include or exclude it. Use *Contests of Skill: Bard* for the witnesses and *Law* for the attorneys, with bonuses or penalties for the circumstances. The defense needs to win the contest by a significant margin (combined net of +3 or +4) to win the hearing. If the defense wins, the case either is dropped or the prosecutor agrees to a plea on very favorable terms. If the prosecution wins, the defense agrees to a plea favorable to the prosecutor. In fact, the majority of cases never make it to trial.

Grand Jury

Serious felony cases usually start with a grand jury; federal felony cases always do. Other states have replaced the grand jury with a hearing before a judge, where the prosecutor must establish probable cause to believe the defendant committed the crimes charged. The prosecutor has to put witnesses, usually the victim and lead investigating officer, on the stand.

A grand jury is a group of people summoned to jury service like normal trial jurors. Its size varies. Jurors serve for a term of 12 to 18 months, rather than for one case, but the grand jury does not meet daily. Grand jurors review evidence to decide if it's sufficient to pursue a case and issue an indictment. Grand jury proceedings are secret. There are no rules of evidence, no judge, no cross-examination. Only the prosecutor is present. The defendant can be called as a witness. Witnesses don't get to bring their attorney with them, although they can assert their Fifth Amendment rights and say nothing. During the grand jury hearing, the prosecutor presents the case and calls witnesses. Grand jury proceedings are a one-sided affair. Anything a witness says at a grand jury can be used against him at trial.



The grand jury is a background event in most adventures. Though grand jury proceedings are secret, rumors leak to the press and to organized crime. If a cop testifies about corruption at the grand jury, his fellow officers are likely to know the gist of his testimony within hours or days. During a corruption investigation, officers gossip in the muster room or locker room about summons to appear before the grand jury and ask each other's advice about what to say.

Plea Agreements

85% to 90% of cases are settled by plea bargain or plea agreement. Most suspects are indeed guilty of committing a crime during the incident they were arrested for. Since criminal laws overlap, the prosecutor can pick the charges that fit each case. The prosecutor and defense attorney can agree that the defendant pleads guilty to certain charges in return for an agreed upon sentence. Plea agreements can come at any point before the jury announces its verdict, but most come before the jury is chosen. Prosecutors discuss pleas with the victim and his family, if any. They may also discuss pleas with the arresting or investigating officers.

Unless the GM wants to make an adventure out of the trial, he should probably let the defendant settle the case by plea. Misdemeanor cases usually settle at arraignment, but negotiations in felony cases can go on for months. If the defendant is an NPC, the cops may learn the verdict and sentence in a *Dragnet*-style postscript. If the defendant is going to be a participant in non-prison adventures, then he could plead guilty in return for probation. Sometimes defendants decide not to take a perfectly reasonable plea offer and insist on a trial. This can put the GM in the awkward position of roleplaying a trial and penalizing the defendant if convicted.

Police have to be careful that they do not suggest the crime to the suspect. If they do, that is entrapment and the suspect escapes conviction.

Defenses

The plea bargain is the first place where any defenses the defendant wants to raise becomes important. There are two kinds of defenses: "I didn't do it" (alibi, mistaken identity) and "I did it, but I have an excuse." Legal excuses for committing a crime either reduce the seriousness of the offense, or result in a not-guilty verdict.

Some things might affect moral guilt but aren't legal defenses. Ignorance of the law is not a defense, and neither is intoxication if the defendant voluntarily consumed drugs or alcohol before the crime.

Duress is a defense. If the defendant was forced or threatened into a crime, then he has a legal excuse. If he was reckless or negligent in getting himself into the situation, then the defense may not be available.

Entrapment is a defense. If a police officer, federal agent, or someone acting in cooperation with an officer or agent induces or encourages a person to commit a crime, the criminal may be excused. Entrapment occurs if someone lies and tells the criminal his conduct is legal, or otherwise uses unfair persuasion or inducements.

Insanity is a defense, but not a very practical one. A defendant is not responsible for a crime if because of a mental illness he either didn't understand that his act was wrong, or was unable to control his conduct. Certain Compulsive Behaviors (see p. B32), Delusions (see p. B32), Paranoia (see p. B35), and Split Personality (see p. B37) will likely qualify a defendant for an insanity plea. Mental illnesses whose primary symptoms are criminal or antisocial conduct like Berserk (see p. 31), Bloodlust (see p. B31), Kleptomania (see p. B34), and Pyromania (see p. B36) do not. When a defendant successfully proves that he was not responsible due to insanity, he is placed in a high-security mental hospital until he is deemed no longer a danger to society. The conditions at such hospitals are no better than prisons, and the defendant may be there for much longer than the maximum sentence for his crime.

Necessity is a defense. A person can be excused for a crime if it is committed to avoid harm to himself or to another person, as long as the harm or evil being avoided is greater than the harm caused. If the person recklessly or negligently creates the evil or harm, and then has to commit a crime to avoid it, then the defense of necessity is not available.

Self-defense is a defense in court. A person may use force to defend himself or another person from an immediate threat of death, sexual assault, serious bodily injury, or

kidnapping. The amount of force used must be proportionate to the threat. Self-defense is not available if one is resisting arrest by a police officer. Self-defense is (usually) not available for defending one's property. If the person can safely retreat from the situation without using force, he must do so. However, many states do not require a person to retreat from his own home.

Trial

If a plea agreement can't be reached, the case goes to trial. Prosecutors nationwide win about 75% of their trials. Defense attorneys don't take cases to trial unless they think they have a good chance to win, or unless they can't get a good plea agreement from the prosecutor.

The defendant chooses whether the case is tried in front of a judge or a jury. Trials before a judge are faster than before a jury, but juries are thought to be twice as likely as judges to acquit defendants.

Cinematic trials only show the interesting bits and don't bother with the details of realistic rules for evidence and procedure. To roleplay parts of a trial one only needs to know a few fundamental rules:

■ In most cases witnesses are "sequestered." This means that witnesses can't be in the courtroom to hear other witnesses testify and can't be told about other witnesses' testimony. The witnesses expected to testify that day hang around the courthouse waiting to be called. They are not allowed to talk to each other about the case.

■ Witnesses who are not experts can only testify about what they themselves saw and heard that is relevant to the case. They may identify people, objects, photographs, and documents. They may not offer opinions and they may not testify about other people to prove what the other person said was true.

■ Witnesses who are experts can give certain opinions. Experts may testify, for example, that a victim was killed by a gunshot, that the shot was fired from a specific gun, and that gunpowder tests showed the defendant fired a gun within a few hours before his arrest. They may not testify that they think the defendant killed the victim – that's a conclusion a jury has to reach.

■ Jurors are specifically instructed by the judge at the start and close of trials that they must weigh police testimony like that of any other person. They are not allowed to presume that officers are more (or less) honest than the average person.

■ A criminal defendant does not have to testify. The jury is specifically told it cannot infer guilt from the defendant's decision to invoke his constitutional right to remain silent.

■ Jurors are not allowed to do any independent investigation. They may not go to the crime scene alone, read newspaper stories about the case, or talk to anyone (including other jurors) about the case. Jurors may talk to each other only during deliberations while all together in the jury room.

■ Each attorney limits his closing argument to the evidence in the case. He may not give his opinion about witnesses' credibility or the defendant's guilt. He is not *supposed* to appeal to the jurors' sympathy, emotions, or passions. However, he can get away with impassioned rhetoric

The rules about character testimony are complex. A witness can be asked about a witness' (or a defendant's) reputation for truthfulness or untruthfulness and whether he is aware of any specific instances of such conduct. If a witness (including a defendant) has a criminal record, the jury may only be told about convictions in the past 10 years, which show the person is dishonest. Other crimes, gang membership, and other misconduct may be admissible to show motive, identity, or the existence of a conspiracy. It is difficult for the prosecution to show the jury a criminal record just to prove that the person is bad.

The rules about who is and who isn't an expert, and what scientific tests and theories are or are not reliable, can be a matter of great debate. But for game purposes, a skill of 13+ in a relevant area, combined with relevant credentials like a medical license, Ph.D., and Reputation, will be sufficient to qualify an expert witness.

When a witness testifies, the basic mechanics are: The witness is called into the courtroom. He is asked to sit in the witness' chair near the judge, facing the attorneys, jury and public. He states his name for the record and is sworn in by the court reporter. Whichever attorney called him begins asking questions first. When the attorney who called the witness has no more questions, the other attorney gets to cross-examine. There may be multiple rounds of examination. When both attorneys are finished asking questions, the witness is allowed to step down.

The other attorney may interrupt the questioner with objections that the question is irrelevant, repetitive, confusing, or would lead to an answer that is legally inadmissible. An attorney may also object if the other attorney is badgering or abusing the witness. The judge rules on these objections. If the objection is sustained, the witness is not allowed to answer the question.

The GM can handle testimony at any level of detail he wishes. The result can be predetermined and announced in a postscript to the adventure. One can use the *Compendium II* rules for trial (see p. CII188), roleplaying crucial testimony. Or the cops may get involved in critical events outside the courtroom, like preventing someone from tampering with witnesses, evidence, jurors, or the judge; locating a crucial witness and making sure he shows up; or protecting a witness from harm. The main point is to give them something to do that affects the outcome of the trial. It's no fun to roleplay something you can't change.

If one of the players is the prosecutor or defense attorney, they should roleplay their closing argument. This is the big emotional scene in a cinematic trial. The player may feel cheated if he doesn't get to make the big speech. In the real world, attorneys get an hour or more to speak. You may want to limit a would-be Perry Mason to a much shorter time.

The Verdict

A trial can take anywhere from a few hours for a simple misdemeanor case to months for a complex trial. Eventually, both sides decide they have presented enough evidence and will "rest," or stop making arguments. The prosecutor and the defense then make their closing arguments.

Investigators

Private investigators may be hired by the defense attorney to help prepare the case. They find and interview witnesses, take written statements and photographs, measure distances, and do all of the legwork to prepare the case. An attorney is not allowed to be both advocate and witness in the same case, even on simple things like giving opinions on distances or the accuracy of a photograph. When an attorney interviews witnesses himself, an investigator is there in case someone needs to testify in court.

Investigators are licensed by the state, which requires a background check and a bond. Public defenders hire staff investigators, many of whom are former police officers.

Hearsay

The hearsay rule is an old and most complex evidentiary rule. The basic rule is that a witness cannot testify about an unsworn, out-of-court statement to prove that it is true. In the classic law school example, a witness who comes upon a dying person who states, "I'm alive" can testify to that fact. Not to establish the truth of the statement, but to establish that the person was capable of speaking and therefore alive at the time.

Some things are exceptions to the rule of hearsay. Business records, medical records, public records, stock price reports, almanac data, and similar reports are not hearsay. Admissions against one's self-interest, like a confession, are not hearsay. Dying declarations are not hearsay.

Use common sense. Courts don't trust witnesses to accurately report what they heard. They want the person who made the statement to come in and testify.

Documents which are technically hearsay – police reports, witness statements, letters – can be used against witnesses if their testimony is inconsistent with the document. For example: "Officer, you just said that the suspect fired eight shots at you, your report says he fired three. Which is correct?"

Police Perjury

The problem of police officers perjuring themselves to ensure a conviction or to cover another officer's misdeeds has been around for a long time. A police manual written in 1919 describes this as a natural outgrowth of an officer's dependence on other officers to protect him on the streets. One veteran policeman, quoted in the manual, said: "Why, we had to lie. Nothing was safe. It was a case of self-protection; if anything went wrong we were always made the goat. We were never believed anyway, so the only thing to do was make out the best story we could. The bosses expected us to lie. They would have had paralysis if we didn't." The author, a former New York City Police Commissioner himself, warned that if officers were routinely believed to lie, then the justice system would collapse.

In a jury trial, the judge instructs the jury about the law and the jury starts deliberating. Deliberations can take a few hours, days, or weeks. In most states, jurors must unanimously vote the defendant either guilty or not guilty.

In a trial by judge, the judge makes his decision after hearing closing arguments. For simple cases, the judge may announce a decision immediately; otherwise he may go to his chambers (that is, his office), think about the case, then come back to the courtroom to give his decision.

If the defendant is acquitted (found not guilty), he can't be tried again on the same charge. However, if there is a counterpart federal crime, he can be charged in federal court on the counterpart federal charge.

Sentencing

If the defendant is convicted, police may be asked to comment on sentencing recommendations. The defendant is sentenced by a judge. (Juries are only involved in sentencing when deciding whether to impose the death penalty in capital cases.) Sentences can be for fines, imprisonment, for probation, or all of them. Sentences used to be for indeterminate terms – one to five years, five to 20 years. The convict had to serve the minimum time, less any credits for good behavior, and was eligible for release at the discretion of the parole board any time thereafter. If a convict behaved poorly, he could easily serve the entire sentence.

In the early 1980s, Congress and the states began to impose fixed sentences, taking away the discretion of the court. The defendant is sentenced to a fixed term – three years, five years, 20 years. He is eligible for early release due to good time or parole, but usually serves 75% to 85% of the sentence imposed by this method.



Any violation of the probation terms – which includes being arrested for *any* reason – can result in the entire sentence being imposed.

Often a sentence includes a suspended sentence and probation. This means the defendant must repeatedly report to a probation officer. Any violation of the probation terms – which includes being arrested for *any* reason – can result in the entire sentence being imposed. Probation can have other conditions, such as random drug tests, curfews, attending AA meetings, community service, or simply keeping a steady job.

Appeals and Habeas

Every criminal defendant in a state case has a legal right to appeal his conviction to the state appellate court, if any, and to the state supreme court. If a federal constitutional issue is involved, he may appeal to the United States Supreme Court. Federal cases are appealed to a federal appellate court and, if unsuccessful, to the U.S. Supreme Court. The prosecutor cannot appeal an acquittal, but he may be able to appeal an unfavorable decision on a suppression motion. Death penalty verdicts are automatically reviewed by the state's supreme court (for state cases) or federal appellate court (for federal cases) and are always given serious attention by the United States Supreme Court.

Appeals are handled "off-screen." A normal appeal takes anywhere from 18 to 36 months; the vast majority are unsuccessful. Appellate courts very rarely reverse trial courts. When they do, it is often to create a new rule which broadens (or narrows) all defendants' constitutional rights (like *Miranda*). If a case is reversed, the charges may be dismissed or the case returned to court for a completely new trial.

Convicts can challenge their convictions through state and federal habeas petitions. Again, these are always handled "off-screen." A habeas case is a civil case. The convict must prove that his attorney was constitutionally incompetent or that new evidence shows he was innocent. Habeas cases are very hard to win. Attorneys who were inexperienced, asleep, or drunk during part of a trial have been found constitutionally adequate. New evidence can only be used if it is indeed new and was not available at time of trial. Courts are not impressed if a witness, or the victim, recants during a habeas case.

An appeal or habeas may bring back an adversary police officers had thought safely convicted. In order to maintain a realistic game world, this should not happen very often, and the court's reasons should sound plausible.

Escapes from the Courthouse

Escapes offer a more active form of adventure, and one more familiar to many players. Hiding out and dodging the law after a successful escape adds to the drama of a person wrongly accused and seeking to clear his name. Think of Harrison Ford in *The Fugitive*.

Security at the courthouse, for routine cases, is not tight. If the defendant or the public is disruptive, or there is reason for courts to expect trouble, security will be drastically increased. Security is also increased when the verdict is announced or during sentencing. A defendant sentenced to a long prison term may throw a tantrum and start turning over desks, throwing chairs and water pitchers until wrestled to the floor by court officers and guards.

There are several possible places for the prisoners to escape:

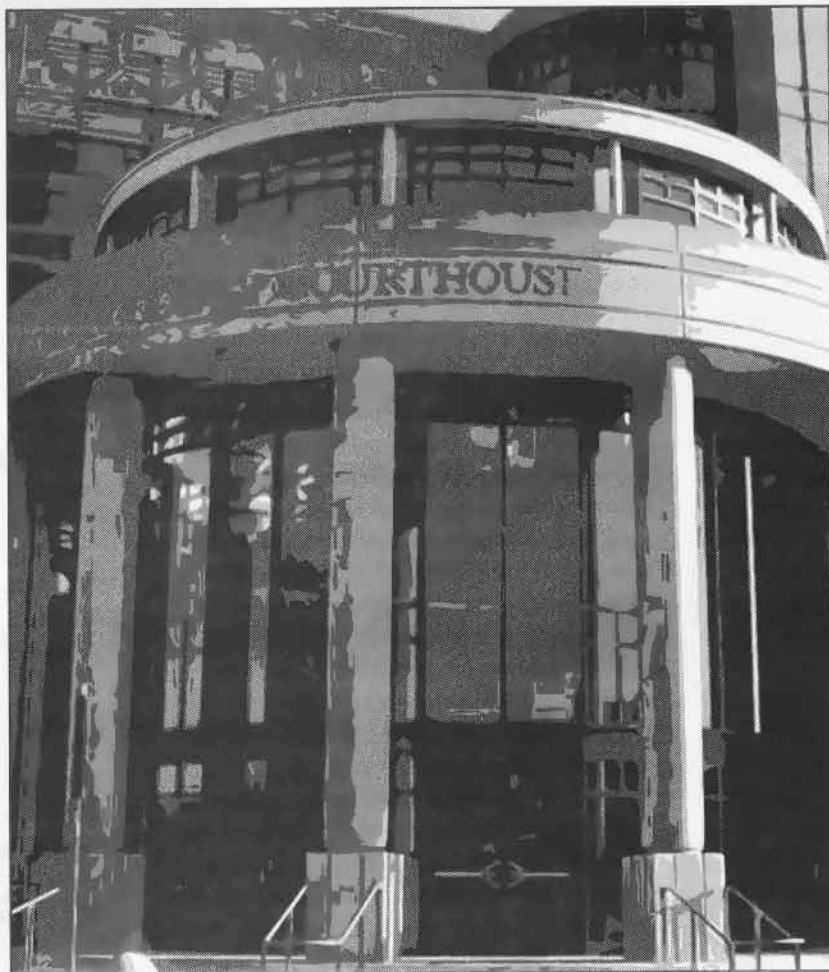
■ From the transport van. However, prisoners are always shackled, and the corrections officers driving the van will be armed. A prisoner knows ahead of time if he is being transported to court for a hearing, but he may not have much warning if he is being transferred between prisons.

■ From the holding area. Courthouses have a separate entrance for prisoners, leading directly to a holding area. There will be several armed court officers on duty in the holding area. Prisoners are supposed to be searched before being transported to court, but a busy police officer may forget to search a defendant and a busy court officer may assume the prisoner was thoroughly searched by police and not do so himself.

■ From the courtroom itself. Criminal courtrooms are never on the ground floor, and seldom have windows. Prisoners are brought into the courtroom in groups for arraignment and one at a time for hearings or trial. A courtroom has three doors: one for the public in the back of the room, one for the judge near the bench and one to the side of the bench for prisoners. All these doors can be locked if necessary. The judge's bench has a bulletproof steel plate behind a wood veneer and a panic button to summon armed court officers from the security office. Some judges keep a pistol behind the bench.

A courthouse escape requires weapons. A criminal may have associates smuggle weapons in through the public entrances. Criminal courthouses have metal detectors and X-ray machines at the door. In a few states, licensed attorneys can bypass the metal detector by showing a bar membership card. There are one or two court officers at the door with a security camera watching the area.

Weapons might also be brought in through the employee entrance. Court personnel have their own parking area and entrance. Employees often have a magnetic ID card or key that lets them enter without passing through security, although a security camera may monitor the door.



During pre-trial hearings, defendants are shackled and handcuffed and wear prison clothing. At trial, defendants may wear street clothing which was brought to them at the prison. They may have leg shackles, but usually not handcuffs. Security in the courtroom includes one or more court officers armed with pepper spray or a taser and one or more corrections officers similarly armed. About a third of judges carry handguns, some on the bench. About a quarter of prosecutors carry handguns; most leave them in their office and do not carry them in the hallways or courtrooms. Police officers in the courtroom as witnesses are not allowed to carry firearms.

Americans Abroad

Normally, each nation applies its own laws within its territory. An American citizen who commits a crime in Japan is subject to the Japanese justice system. The American embassy helps citizens find local lawyers, but will not otherwise intervene in the case.

Roleplaying a foreign prosecution is difficult without a reasonable familiarity with the court system of the country. The American court system as explained here is complex enough. Trying to explain the details of all other criminal court systems is a task well beyond the scope of this book. Some of the sources in the Bibliography provide details of other court systems. If the *Cops* campaign is set somewhere other than modern America, research into the court system and civil rights of that time and place is necessary to give it the proper flavor.

Doing Time

Rehabilitation is not our job. The truth of it is that we are warehousers of human beings.

— Ted Conover, *Newjack: Guarding Sing Sing*

If the convict is sentenced to jail, he's taken from the courthouse to prison by corrections officers. He may spend a few days in a prison being evaluated before being sent to a prison with a security level appropriate to his crime and behavior.

Once a defendant becomes a convict, he is at the mercy of corrections officers who can assign him to a prison or transfer him with little notice or reason. His rights become limited by the prison's complex rules and corrections officers' unwritten customs. His right to contact the outside world, to receive newspapers and magazines, to write letters, to make telephone calls, and to see visitors are all dictated by the prison's security needs.

Where a defendant goes depends on what he did. *Jails* are local facilities run by a county or city. They hold inmates waiting for trial, or serving sentences of a year or less. *Prisons*, used for longer sentences, are divided according to their security levels into supermaximum, maximum, medium, minimum, and community or other. Prisons range from a single building to large facilities like the Louisiana State Penitentiary at Angola, which occupies 18,000 acres (larger than Manhattan Island) along the banks of the Mississippi.

Extradition

Many nations have extradition treaties that allow one country to request another country to arrest and send to it people in its territory who committed a crime against the requesting country. Many countries that do not have the death penalty won't extradite suspects to a country where they could face the death penalty.

In 1992, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that it is not a violation of American law for the American government to kidnap people from foreign countries to stand trial in the U.S. This does not mean that the foreign country won't try to stop American agents in the act, arrest and deport them, or even prosecute them if a diplomatic solution cannot be found. The target country will also complain loudly about the incident, regardless of whether or not the agents are caught.

Several European countries have treaties that allow officers from one country limited jurisdiction in neighboring countries when pursuing suspects.

Jailbreaks

For obvious reasons, it is hard to get details about prison architecture, security, and protocols. Fictional examples of jailbreaks include *Terminator 2* (mental hospital), *The Shawshank Redemption*, and *Escape from Alcatraz*. For planning jailbreaks, rough guidelines follow:

Walls and Doors

Prisons are designed to be secure. If a prison is not in a city, the area around is cleared for several hundred feet, offering no cover for anyone to approach or escape unnoticed. It will have high (20') chain link fences, topped with multiple coils of double concertina wire (see p. CII40-41), around it. Older prisons and prisons near major roads have high, thick concrete (or stone) outer walls. The stone walls at Leavenworth, KS, are 35' high, 4' wide and extend 35' below ground level to prevent tunneling. There is at least one double row of fences, separated by a 10' wide area containing sensors and patrol dogs. Watch towers overlook the entire perimeter. Some prisons are protected by natural barriers. Alcatraz is in the middle of San Francisco Bay. Angola Prison is surrounded by swamps.

Within the prison, many areas are protected by electric gates or doors which are controlled remotely from a bullet-proof-glass control room. The doors are designed like air locks so that only one door can be open at a time. A person enters an area, the door closes behind them, a guard or camera checks them, and only then does the other door open. Control rooms are protected by electric locks. A guard may need to use a key, or punch in a PIN or password to use the door controls in the control room. The prison warden may be able to remotely disable a control room's camera monitors and door controls in case of a prison riot.

Each cell has its own door. In older prisons, there is a master bar which controls each row of cells (a "brake"), and individual locks on each cell. If a guard needs to release many prisoners at once for lunch or exercise, he can open the brake and let all the prisoners in that row out at once. He can lock individual cells before releasing the brake if certain prisoners are not allowed to participate.

Some prison mess halls and showers have tear gas cartridges mounted in the ceiling; these can be remotely released to quell riots or fights.

A prison is watched by video cameras from a central station. The camera output is videotaped, with a tape for each area that records a few seconds from each camera before moving to the next camera.

Guards

At a supermaximum or maximum-security facility, there is one guard per four inmates; inmates cannot leave their cells without a corrections officer escort. High-security inmates can only leave their cells for one hour per day for exercise and are shackled when otherwise outside their cell. In a medium or minimum-security facility, there is one guard per 8 to 12 inmates; inmates move around in the prison without an escort.

Corrections Officers (CO) carry pepper spray on their belts. The CO has a radio, latex gloves, handcuffs, a baton, and keys. Corrections body armor (see p. 61) is only puncture resistant; it is not designed to resist bullets, in case a prisoner takes the armor. No CO who has contact with inmates is armed — firearms are kept in the wall towers and in a locked armory. (Police officers and federal agents who visit prisoners must check their weapons at the outermost gate.) Some COs have body alarms that activate if the CO is knocked down, or emergency pins in their radios that activate an alarm if pulled.

Inmates may escape by capturing guards, stealing uniforms, or bribing guards to get contraband, including weapons, into the prison.

Visitors

Visitors are a serious security problem because they smuggle contraband into prison. At a supermaximum or maximum-security facility, inmates are not allowed full-contact visits (visits where the prisoner is not separated by glass or screens from the visitor) except with attorneys. Visitors talk through telephones. At a medium or minimum-security facility, inmates are allowed contact visits with family members and friends, as well as with their attorneys. Inmates are strip searched before and after any contact visit.

Visitors have to be approved by the prison staff. An inmate provides a list of family members and friends, checked by the prison for criminal records and to verify their identity and residence. Family or friends with prison records are often not allowed to visit. A prisoner's attorney can visit and bring investigators and assistants. Prisons require the visit to be scheduled a day ahead of time and check the attorney's ID on arrival. (Every state and federal district court maintains a list of attorneys authorized to practice in the state; this can be checked by the prisons.) All visitors pass through a metal detector. Family and friends may be pat-frisked for weapons and contraband items; attorneys may not.

Visitors can be forbidden to wear revealing clothing or multiple layers of clothing. They are forbidden to wear jewelry, or to bring money, tobacco, keys, magazines, or contraband into a visiting area. Visits take place in a large room, with benches separating prisoners from their visitors. Attorney and clergy visits are in separate interview rooms with a glass window that lets guards watch for dangerous situations or exchanges of contraband. (Married prisoners do not have a right to conjugal visits, but some prisons permit such visits under limited conditions.)

Prisoners are allowed to make collect calls to specific persons on their visitor list, using telephones which can be recorded and monitored by corrections officers. Lawyers' telephone calls have to be arranged in advance, but are not monitored.



Prisoners may receive mail. Mail from an attorney or from a court must be opened in the inmate's presence and cannot be read by the guards. Other mail may be inspected or read at the prison's discretion. Prisoners are limited in what they can receive by mail; wardens have wide discretion to allow or prohibit material. Law books, general fiction and non-fiction, and popular magazines are allowed. Material which might threaten prison security, order, or discipline is prohibited. This includes many "true crime" books. Many prisons would not permit inmates to possess *this* book because of the sections on investigative techniques and on jail and prison breaks.

Convicts may try to sneak contraband in with visitors, or try to somehow change clothing in a visiting area and sneak out with the visitors. They may have to leave someone else behind; visitors are counted in and out.

Cells and Contents

Cells are designed to make it difficult to hide things, to create hiding places. They are designed to be hard to damage; they are made of steel or concrete. Beds and toilets are made out of steel and solidly fixed in place.

Convicts may build weapons, tools, or keys in their cells to help in their escape. They often make makeshift knives, called "shivs" or "shanks," out of plastic or metal. In *The Shawshank Redemption*, a prisoner uses a tiny rock hammer, over years, to break through the wall of his cell into a maintenance space and escape through a service tunnel.

Many prisons would not permit inmates to possess this book because of the sections on investigative techniques and on jail and prison breaks.

Prisoners are not allowed to own radios or TVs with telescoping antennas because the antennas can be turned into zip guns. In fact, anything that could be turned into a weapon or jam a lock can be forbidden: glass containers, chewing gum, pocket knives, newspapers, magazines, beepers, cell phones.

Prisoners are also not allowed to own anything that might let them bribe guards or other prisoners: cash money, toiletries containing alcohol, jewelry, or even sneakers worth more than 50 dollars. Family and friends may not be able to give gifts from outside the prison, but may be required to buy an inmate gifts from an approved catalog (at inflated prices). Prison catalogs effectively prevent families from giving prisoners contraband.

To make ruses and escapes more difficult, prisoners can't wear clothing the same color as guards' uniforms.



Transfers

One clever way to escape from prison is with a forged transport order. One gang managed to steal a U.S. Marshal's car and acquired access to the weekend telephone answering system at the U.S. Marshal's office. Members of the gang showed up at prisons with forged court orders for a prisoner transfer. They convinced the weekend prison staff that transfer had been authorized and simply walked out with their prisoner. The gang charged prisoners \$100,000 to escape. The scheme worked undetected for several months before the gang decided it was too risky and abandoned it.

Transfers between prisons are kept secret from the prisoner until he is suddenly told to pack up his cell. He is not allowed to tell his family or attorney he has been moved until he arrives at the new facility, to prevent attempted ambush of the transport. Prisons sometimes allow a convict to briefly leave the prison (escorted by an armed corrections officer) to visit a dying relative, go to a funeral, or seek critical medical attention. These are a special kind of transfer that could give a prisoner a chance for an escape.

Furloughs

Some states have furlough programs that allow a convict to leave prison to take classes, work, or go into training programs. Prisoners who qualify for these programs have only a short time left on their sentence and are in minimum security with a record of good behavior in the prison. A prisoner could try to bribe or trick his way into a furlough program as part of an escape plan.

The Convict's View

When you are small and need help, you run to your parents. When you get older you run to a priest, a minister, a psychologist. If someone threatens you, you call a cop.

In prison there is no one to turn to, no one to solve your problems for you. If you go to the guards, you will be known as a snitch, and that can get you killed. So you are on your own, perhaps for the first time in your life and you are forced to deal with your own problems. Believe me, the guy demanding that you drop your drawers isn't going to be a good sport and simply let you walk away. You must either be willing to fight or you must give in.

*— Dr. Thomas White, chief psychologist,
Leavenworth Prison, KS*

Inmates describe prison as boring. Everyone in prison (medium security and lower) has a job unless they are too sick to work or they are in a segregation unit (solitary) for protective custody and punishment. Jobs range from teaching to sweeping floors.

Some convicts use their time to learn the law, or at least as much as one can learn with infrequent access to a minimal library; they become jailhouse lawyers and help other inmates with their cases. Convicts use their constitutional right to petition the state and federal courts about poor treatment and conditions. Some have won serious cases and forced the courts to appoint federal masters to oversee reforms. Others simply amuse themselves by filing frivolous petition after frivolous petition.

Maximum and supermaximum security prisoners are locked in their cells 23 hours a day, with an hour a day (if they behave) for exercise. Death row inmates may be locked down most of the day, or allowed to spend the day in their day room under the guard's watchful eye. High-security prisoners pass their time reading, listening to the radio, watching television, or playing games with their neighbors.

Convicts try to keep to themselves and avoid trouble. For convicts who need protection or want to cause trouble, every group has prison gangs. The Aryan Brotherhood, Black Muslims, Mexican Mafia, and Italian Mafia are national gangs. The prison can also have a local or statewide gang. Prison gangs are mostly based on race or ethnicity and are allied to street gangs. They enforce their rules and protect members from other inmates. The members use tattoos and hand gestures to recognize each other. Corrections officers try to suppress gangs and transfer gang members frequently to try to break up the organization.

Jails and prisons are a good place for a convict to learn other criminal trades — anything from burglary to how to make

a firebomb. Some convicts use the telephones and mail to conduct fraud with the aid of outside partners. A group of prisoners in Angola, Louisiana, bilked hundreds of gay men out of thousands of dollars in a "lonely-hearts" fraud. The money was intended for use to bribe the parole board on behalf of the gang leader.

Prisoners say that sex is readily available . . . with other prisoners, with female staff and guards, or through certain attorneys who bring prostitutes as their "staff" to private legal visits. Rape, that staple of prison fiction, is uncommon; prisoners get sufficient consensual homosexual sex from other prisoners. (When rape does occur, prisoners say it is not well investigated or punished by prisons.) Narcotics and cell-brewed alcohol are common. A guard can sell \$40 worth of marijuana (one ounce) to a death row inmate for \$150 to \$200. To a corrections officer making \$13,000 a year, the profit margin is tempting.

The prisoners have little respect for the COs. They take revenge for slights with actions ranging from insults, to spitting or throwing bodily excretions, to attacks with fists and homemade knives. COs retaliate by denying an inmate privileges, confining him to his cell, or putting him in solitary confinement. In serious cases, new criminal charges can be filed. Unofficially, an officer can respond with a beating, or by framing the inmate with contraband, which can cause the inmate loss of privileges.

Prisoners have taken guards and other prison personnel hostage, either as part of an escape attempt or to get attention for real or imagined grievances. Guards taken hostage have been raped, tortured, and killed by convicts.

Getting Out

A convict can get out of prison by finishing his term, by finishing a term reduced by "good time," by a parole or pardon, or by dying. Characters in many types of campaigns can be ex-convicts. Ex-cons have social stigmas (see p. B27) or reputations (see p. B17) which reflect the legal and social restrictions placed on someone with a criminal record. Ex-cons can be subject to parole or probation conditions which limit their actions for months or years.

Parole and good time are prison policies designed to encourage prisoners to behave. Convicts who have no incentive to behave are dangerous to other inmates and to corrections officers. A few convicts ignore this opportunity and actually serve their entire terms.

Good time is a reward for good behavior and completing rehabilitation programs. It is awarded by the prison and may be taken away as punishment. It can reduce a convict's sentence by 15% to 50%. Before the mid-1980s, good time programs were more generous than now.

Convicts try to make deals with police, prosecutors and corrections officers for increased prison privileges or favorable recommendations to the parole board. Convicts offer information about other inmates, about associates who escaped arrest, or, more rarely, about prison corruption. Testimony from jail-house "snitches" has even convicted defendants in capital cases. This is why attorneys warn clients never to discuss their cases with anyone in prison. The only safe people for the client to talk to are his attorney and his attorney's staff.

Parole is a function of the governor's (or the U.S. President's) power to pardon defendants. The governor appoints a parole board which reviews the defendant's conduct and decides whether to release a convict early. A convict must serve at least half his sentence before being eligible for parole and can have his case reviewed every six months or year after that. Parole boards rarely explain their standards or the reasons for their decisions. Parole, like probation (see below), means that the convict is released under supervision with conditions on his conduct. In game terms, this is a Duty (see p. 56). If the parolee violates his conditions (e.g. by committing a crime or associating with criminals) he is returned to prison. Parole lasts between one and 10 years. Some states have a "shock parole" system, like the boot camp probation systems, where first offenders are given parole quickly, in hopes that the shock of prison gives them incentive to reform.

Prisoners can apply for pardons or reprieves. A full pardon means complete exoneration for the crime and it erases the guilty verdict. A reprieve reduces the severity of the sentence. Death row inmates may receive a reprieve which merely changes their death sentence to life without possibility of parole.

Probation

Probation is used instead of (or after) a prison sentence to let the courts monitor a convict, impose conditions on his conduct (see p. 56) and send him back to prison if he fails to meet them. Probation has been around since 1878, but it was not available in every state until 1956.

Probation officers work for the courts, not the prisons. They are trained as investigators and as counselors. Their job is to supervise the convict and to help him not to commit other crimes. Probation officers supervise over 100 cases at a time. Some cases require little effort; a few ex-cons need frequent meetings and intense supervision.

Probation is limited to 10 years, although newer laws allow up to 20 years probation for sex offenders.

Courts can require convicts to pay restitution to their victims, to perform community service, to pay probation costs, or to pay a fine. American courts impose a lump sum. European courts fine a convict a percentage of his earnings each day for a set number of days.

Probationers can be sentenced to "halfway houses." Here they live in drug- and alcohol-free settings under supervision. Halfway houses offer treatment programs, help ex-cons find jobs, and counsel them. They are sometimes used for convicts completing their prison sentences and trying to re-enter society. A variation on the halfway house is a day reporting center, in which probationers live at their own home but spend the days in a structured setting with treatment and counseling available.

A newer program is to sentence a convict to "boot camp" or shock probation for 90 to 180 days. A boot camp is a residential program with military-style basic training and discipline, including military drills, physical exercise, and hard labor. They provide education and training, counseling, and treatment. After successfully completing boot camp, the probationer goes into intensive or normal probation based on his performance in the program. If he fails boot camp, he goes back to jail.

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McDonald, Brian. *My Father's Gun: One Family, Three Badges, One Hundred Years in the NYPD* (Dutton, 1999). A biography and history of the NYPD.

Maas, Peter. *Serpico* (Viking, 1973). The story of the patrolman who exposed systemic corruption in the NYPD, leading to the Knapp Commission.

MacIntyre, Ben. *The Napoleon of Crime* (Delta, 1997). Biography of Adam Worth, famous 19th-century thief, model for Professor Moriarty.

Mawby, R. I. *Policing Across the World* (UCL Press, 1999). Academic essays comparing police in various nations and criticizing the work of earlier comparisons.

Metz, Leon. *Pat Garrett: The Story of a Western Lawman* (University of

Oklahoma Press, 1974). Biography of an 18th-century Western sheriff.

Middleton, Michael. *Cop: A True Story* (NTC/Contemporary, 2000). An LAPD sergeant writes about his career from 1966 to 1987.

Miller, Wilber. *Cops and Bobbies: Police Authority in New York and London 1830-1870* (Ohio State University Press, 1973, 1997). Academic's comparison of the early years of London and New York's police departments.

Moore, Robin. *The French Connection: The World's Most Crucial Narcotics Investigation* (Bloomsbury, 1969). Detailed description of the 1961-62 investigation and seizure of 112 pounds of high-quality heroin in New York City.

Moran, David. *Trooper* (Quinlan, 1986). A Massachusetts State Police officer's autobiography (1960s to 1980s).

Murphy, Patrick. *Commissioner: A View from the Top of American Law Enforcement* (Simon and Schuster, 1977). Former NYPD police commissioner in the immediate aftermath of the Knapp Commission discusses his career (1945-73).

O'Sullivan, F. Dalton. *The Detective Adviser* (Detective Sciences, 1917). An advice manual for police detectives, insurance investigators, Secret Service agents, and private detectives. Includes a list of contemporary con games and swindles, as well as types of thieves.

Pistone, Joseph, and Richard Woodley. *Donnie Brasco: My Undercover Life in the Mafia* (New American Library, 1989). An undercover agent's story of his six years undercover in the Bonanno family in New York. An excellent book on the daily life of Mafia wiseguys and how an undercover FBI agent broke into their circles.

Rachlin, Harvey. *The Making of a Detective* (W.W. Norton, 1995). A writer's biography of a novice detective assigned to the 75th Precinct in Brooklyn (1989-92).

Reichel, Phillip. *Comparative Criminal Justice Systems, 2d Ed.* (Prentice Hall, 1999). An academic text on international policing and criminal justice.

Roemer, William. *Roemer: Man Against the Mob* (D.I. Fine, 1989). An FBI agent's description of his career and his investigations of the Chicago Mafia from 1957 to 1980.

Segrave, Kerry. *Policewomen: A History* (McFarland, 1995). A scholar's look at the history of women police officers in the United States and the United Kingdom, with information on other countries.

Simon, David. *Homicide: A Year on the Killing Streets* (Houghton Mifflin, 1991). An excellent look at life in the Baltimore Police Department's detective unit.

Söderman, Harry. *Modern Criminal Investigation* (Funk & Wagnalls, 1936). A handbook of criminal investigation.

Snow, Robert. *SWAT Teams: Explosive Face-Offs with America's Deadliest Criminals* (Perseus, 1996). An excellent discussion of SWAT teams from organization to equipment to training, with dozens of real incidents described.

Stead, Philip John. *The Police of Britain* (Macmillan, 1985). A history and description of British police forces, including a discussion of colonial forces, from the Middle Ages to the mid-1980s. Some details on training, organization and operations of U.K. police in the mid-1980s, but no details on equipment.

Stead, Philip John. *The Police of France* (Macmillan, 1983). A history and description of Parisian and French police forces from the mid-17th century to the mid-1980s. Some details on training, organization and operations of French police in the mid-1980s, but no details on equipment.

Stead, Philip John. *The Police of Paris* (Staples, 1957). A history of the police forces of Paris from the mid-17th century to 1955. Useful for 17th-19th century settings.

Terrill, Richard. *World Criminal Justice Systems, 4th Ed.* (Anderson, 1999). An academic text on the government, police, judiciary, law and prisons of England, Canada, France, Sweden, Japan, Russia, and China.

Vidmar, Neil. *World Jury Systems* (Oxford University Press, 2000). An academic survey of juries focused on American and Commonwealth countries. Some discussion of court procedure as it relates to jury trials.

Walker, Tom. *Fort Apache: Life and Death in New York City's Most Violent Precinct* (Crowell, 1976). NYPD lieutenant's description of the South Bronx in the early 1970s.

Wensley, Frederick. *Forty Years of Scotland Yard* (Doubleday Doran, 1930). Autobiography of a former Chief Constable, CID (1888-1929).

Woods, Arthur. *Policeman and Public* (Yale University Press, 1919). An essay by a former New York City Police Commissioner about police work; how police become corrupt and indolent and how to reform police organizations.

Fiction

Asimov, Isaac. *The Caves of Steel* (Doubleday, 1953). A human NYPD detective is paired with a robot to solve a murder.

Bester, Alfred. *The Demolished Man* (Shasta, 1953). Police procedural set in a society of telepaths.

Carr, Caleb. *The Alienist* (Random House, 1994). NYPD Commissioner Theodore Roosevelt secretly assembles a team to hunt NYC's first serial killer in 1896. A good look at late 19th-century "cutting edge" criminology.

Davis, Lindsey. *Silver Pigs* (Ballantine, 1989). A private detective investigates a murder in Imperial Rome.

Forsyth, Frederick. *The Day of the Jackal* (Viking, 1971). A French Com-missaire hunts a professional assassin.

Freeling, Nicolas. *A Dwarf Kingdom* (Mysterious Press, 1996). A retired French police inspector tries to rescue his kidnapped grandchild.

Garrett, Randall. *Too Many Magicians* (Doubleday, 1966). An English investigator and his forensic sorcerer solve a murder in an alternate world's London.

Hillerman, Tony. *A Thief of Time* (G.K. Hall, 1988). Navajo Tribal Police officers hunt a murderer.

Matsumoto, Seicho. *Points and Lines* (Kodansha, 1970). A Tokyo police inspector investigates a "love suicide."

McBain, Ed. *Lightning* (Arbor House, 1984). A police procedural about city detectives hunting a serial killer and a serial rapist.

Niven, Larry. *The Long ARM of Gil Hamilton* (Ballantine, 1976). Stories about a near-future UN cop with limited telekinesis.

Pratchett, Terry. *Guards! Guards!* (Roc, 1989). Adventures of an idealistic young city guard in a fantasy world.

Saylor, Steven. *Arms of Nemesis* (Ivy, 1992). A private detective investigates a murder in ancient Rome.

Simenon, Georges. *Maigret in Montmartre* (Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1959). Parisian police inspector investigates two deaths.

Sjöwall, Maj. *The Laughing Policeman* (Pantheon, 1970). A Swedish police detective in the 1960s investigates a multiple murder.

West, Christopher. *Death on the Black Dragon River* (Prime Crime, 1995). A modern Chinese police inspector investigates a murder linked to the Cultural Revolution.

Williams, Walter. *Days of Atonement* (Tor, 1992). New Mexico police chief investigates an impossible murder.

Films

Alien Nation (Graham Baker, 1988). Realistic police action/mystery movie involving a bigoted cop partnered with an alien detective.

Beverly Hills Cop (Martin Brest, 1984). Comedy/action movie in which a streetwise Chicago cop investigates a friend's murder in upscale Beverly Hills.

Blown Away (Stephen Hopkins, 1994). Suspense movie involving an escaped IRA explosives expert vs. his former friend, now instructor for the Boston bomb squad.

Copland (James Mangold, 1997). Suspense movie involving corrupt NYPD police against an overweight, ineffectual New Jersey sheriff.

Dirty Harry (Don Siegel, 1971). First in a series of popular police action movies involving a streetwise San Francisco police inspector determined to get his quarry despite the rules.

The French Connection (William Friedkin, 1971). Action movie loosely based on real life – a record seizure of heroin by two New York City detectives.

L.A. Confidential (Curtis Hanson, 1997). Corruption in the LAPD (circa 1940s) affects three officers.

Lethal Weapon (Richard Donner, 1987). Another mismatched-partners

action movie pairing an on-the-edge detective with one days from retirement. A quintessential Hollywood police action movie.

Miller's Crossing (Joel Coen, 1990). Coen Brothers movie about romantic love triangle which precipitates a mob war.

The Onion Field (Harold Becker, 1979). True-life police thriller about two officers captured by suspects in a routine motor vehicle stop and the effects of the incident on the futures of both criminals and the officer who survives the kidnapping.

Outland (Peter Hyams, 1981). Homage to *High Noon*, featuring a federal marshal investigating deaths in a mine on one of Jupiter's moons.

Prince of the City (Sidney Lumet, 1981). Dramatic movie based on the real career of a NYPD detective who starts informing on corruption within the department.

Red Heat (Walter Hill, 1988). Another "mismatched partners" action/comedy movie, this one with a fast-talking Chicago cop and an efficient Soviet officer seeking international drug smugglers.

RoboCop (Paul Verhoeven, 1987). Extremely violent dark future movie about a cybernetic patrol officer involved in corporate intrigue.

Serpico (Sidney Lumet, 1973). Dramatic movie based on the career of an NYPD officer who insisted on exposing department corruption.

The Silence of the Lambs (Jonathan Demme, 1990). Thriller about a young FBI agent's search for a serial killer using the advice of a more dangerous serial killer.

Supercop (Stanley Tong, 1992). Jackie Chan plays a Hong Kong police inspector investigating an international drug cartel.

The Corruptor (James Foley, 1999). A young white officer learns the ropes in NYC's Chinatown.

The Untouchables (Brian De Palma, 1987). Violent action movie loosely based on Eliot Ness' efforts to break Al Capone's mob.

Television

Adam-12 (1968-1975). Realistic drama about a rookie officer and his trainer on patrol in the LAPD.

Barney Miller (1975-1982). Comedy/drama about detectives in an NYPD major crimes unit.

CHIPS (1977-1983). Action series about two California Highway Patrol officers.

COPS (1989-). Reality TV show in which camera crews follow patrol officers on their rounds.

CSI: Crime Scene Investigation (2000-). Drama about Las Vegas criminologists featuring state-of-the-art (and beyond) technology and techniques.

Dragnet (Radio 1949-1957, TV 1952-1970). Long-running drama series about two LAPD detectives.

Due South (1994-1998). Comedy/drama about a fast-talking Chicago detective and a by-the-book Canadian Mountie.

The FBI (1965-1974). Drama loosely based on actual FBI cases, made with the support of FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover.

Hawaii 5-0 (1968-1980). Drama set in Hawaii featuring an elite five-man state police unit which investigated organized crime, homicide, assassination attempts, espionage, and various felonies. (Hawaii does not and never did have a state police force.)

Hill Street Blues (1981-1987). Award-winning drama set in an unspecified East Coast city. Many episodes featured a chaotic world of street crime and problems viewed by patrol officers.

Homicide (1993-1999). Drama based on homicide detectives in Baltimore.

Law & Order (1990-2001). A drama which shows first the police investigation of a crime and then the district attorney's prosecution. The series is set in NYC and the detectives may be on the D.A.'s Squad, which is involved in homicide but also works on high profile or sensitive cases.

Miami Vice (1984-1989). Stylish action series set in Miami, with lots of fast cars, speedboats, and drugs.

NYPD Blue (1993-). Gritty drama set in an NYPD homicide unit on the lower east side of Manhattan.

Prime Suspect (1991-1995). Gritty BBC series involving a world-weary female inspector (DCI) on London's homicide squad, dealing with discrimination inside and outside the department.

Star Cops (1986). Near future BBC series involving the "International Space Police Force," with jurisdiction over lunar and orbital colonies.

Streets of San Francisco (1972-1977). Drama/detective series set in San Francisco.

Useful Internet Sites

World Wide Web pages are not as stable as printed books, and many of these sites may be gone or moved within a few years after publication; nevertheless, they're worth checking.

NYPD: www.ci.nyc.ny.us/html/nypd/

LAPD: www.lapdonline.org/index.htm

FBI: www.fbi.gov

DEA: www.usdoj.gov/dea/

National Institute of Military Justice: nimj.hypermart.net/

White House Office of National Drug Control Policy:

www.whitehousedrugpolicy.gov

London Met: www.met.police.uk/

U.K.Police:

www.police.uk/

Northern Ireland: www.ruc.police.uk

Gall's Equipment: www.gallsinc.com

Fesler's Equipment: www.feslers.com

Police Radio Codes: www.policescanner.com – also features live

web casts of radio calls from several American police departments.

Slang (1920s-30s): www.miskatonic.org/slang.html

Slang (prisons): dictionary.prisonwall.org/



Glossary

302 (FBI): reports to file on contacts, interviews, telephone calls.

Bertillon System: A French system for identifying criminals based upon photographs, measurements and marks of parts of the body. See *GURPS Steam-punk*, p. 62, for details.

black bag jobs (1959+): Secret FBI operations to break into organized crime meeting rooms and plant bugging devices. In 1959-1965, when these bugs were of uncertain legality, agents were forbidden to carry any weapons or credentials to identify themselves as FBI. Any agents caught would be denounced as rogues and the FBI would allow them to be convicted by state authorities. President Johnson banned the wiretaps and bugs by executive order in 1965. Information obtained from "black bag" bugs was not admissible in court because they were planted without a warrant. After 1968, bugging devices could be secretly planted pursuant to a judicial warrant. The planting operation continued to be referred to as a black bag job.

Black Hand letters (c. 1917): Extortion letters demanding money on pain of death, purporting to come from the Mafia or Black Hand Society. Many of these letters were traced to young men trying to imitate media accounts of the Mafia.

Black Maria (c. 1858-1947): Police patrol wagon used to transport arrested suspects to station house.

BOLO: "Be On the Look Out" – an alert or warning to watch for something or someone. Some departments use "A.P.B." (all-points bulletin).

call box: Telephone on post used to communicate with police officers on beat. The box had a light on the top used to signal beat officers to contact the station. Boxes were locked, but they had a hook which could be pulled by anyone needing to summon officers.

carry the baby (Leavenworth, c. 1898): Punishment for disobedience, involving being shackled to a 25-lb. iron ball.

connected (1976+): Someone associated with the Mafia but not actually a member.

coop: A warm, dry spot where an patrol officer can rest or nap.

cop: Slang for police. Various believed to derive from "constable on patrol"; slang for "capture"; or the French word *caper*, to capture or seize.

Detective McCann (NYPD c. 1960+): Fictional detective assigned to unpromising cases. A civilian calling about a case could be told it had been assigned to Detective McCann (i.e. the trash can) who would call back as soon as possible.

D.A.R.E.: Drug Abuse Resistance Education program developed by the LAPD in 1983. A police officer teaches an elementary or high school class on drug abuse once per week in a semester.



dugout (c. 1970): Indoor spot where traffic officers can rest or nap on their beat. Preferably a spot from which the call-box could be seen.

eight ball (circa 1990): A unit of cocaine. In 1998, roughly 3.5 grams costing \$125 to \$300.

farming (Philadelphia, 1970s): Planting evidence on a suspect.

FINCEN (Financial Crimes Enforcement Network): Law enforcement analysis group based near Washington D.C. that examines bank records for money laundering.

fish (1980s): Prison slang for a new inmate.

Five Families: The leading Mafia families in New York City (Gambino, Genovese, Lucchese, Colombo, Bonanno).

Five-O: Street gang slang for police, based on the television series.

flake (FBI, c. 1970s): Plant incriminating evidence on a suspect.

"G" (circa 1970+): Mafia slang for federal agents.

gentleman (NYPD c. 1970+): Police superior who covers for alcoholic or corrupt officers in routine matters, but will not support them in disciplinary hearings.

ginks (Philadelphia c. 1973+): Slang for Internal Affairs investigators.

goomba (circa 1970+): Mafia slang for an advisor.

grass eater (c. 1970): Officer who accepts a bribe to ignore something or not issue a ticket.

hack (c. 1980s): Prison guard (implies a guard uncaringly doing his job).

hook (c. 1965+): Mentor, patron (associated with the Boston Police Department and Irish officers).

hit (c. 1970+): Mafia slang for a contract assassination.

lock step (c. 1963): FBI tactic of extremely obvious, intrusive, continuous surveillance designed to prevent a target from conducting any criminal activities.

lop (c. 1980): Prison slang for inmate victim of another inmate's scam, extortion, drug deals, etc.

made man (1976+): Mafia member under the protection of a senior boss. May involve an elaborate ceremony and oaths, or merely a senior boss describing the member as "one of us." A made man must be Italian, with a sponsor who proposes him for membership. The proposed man is voted on by senior members. A made man is introduced by another made man as "a friend of ours"; a trusted associate is only introduced as "a friend of mine." Also known as a "wiseguy" or "goodfellow."

meat eater (c. 1970): Officer who actively solicits a bribe to ignore illegal activity.

murder book: A large three-ring binder containing all of the reports, statements, sketches and photographs in a homicide case.

neutron activation analysis (NAA): Expensive, but highly accurate test for gunpowder residue. Uses swabs dipped in nitric acid and wiped over the suspect's hands. Can be defeated if suspect vigorously washes his hands with soap and water to remove residue.

mushroom (1980s+): Slang among black gangs for innocents killed by stray bullets.

pad, on the (circa 1965+): Taking bribes, payoffs, shaking down criminals for money. The NYPD pad circa 1965-1972 involved layers of payoffs from organized crime amounting to roughly \$500,000 per year. A patrol officer could expect \$6,000 per month; a sergeant \$9,000; a lieutenant \$12,000. Narcotics dealers offered arresting officers 2/3 of their stock to avoid arrest.

paraffin test: Obsolete and inaccurate test used to detect gunpowder residue on a suspect's hands. Warm wax was poured over the hand; when it hardened it was peeled off and tested for nitrates. The test was not sensitive enough to pick up small quantities of gunpowder residue and gave false results if the suspect had been recently exposed to nitrates like fertilizer or a baby's diaper.

peach (NYC 1920s): Inform on another criminal.

pennyweighter (c. 1917): A thief who substitutes imitation jewelry for real jewelry while examining it in the store.

police (c. 1829): Public safety officers, possibly derived from the Greek *polis* or city.

predator (1980s): Prison slang for an inmate involved in drug dealing, extortion, loan-sharking, and other scams while incarcerated.

probable cause: A reasonable ground for belief, less than evidence justifying a conviction, but more than bare suspicion. Probable cause concerns circumstances in which a person of reasonable caution would believe an offense has been or is being committed.

progue (LAPD c. 1990+): Derogatory slang for a supervisor with no street sense.

rabbi (NYPD c. 1965+): Mentor, patron.

reasonable suspicion: Grounds necessary to stop a person or vehicle and ask questions. Suspicious conduct gives the officer reason to suspect that a person has committed, is committing, or is about to commit a crime. Reasonable suspicion cannot be based on a hunch or on good faith, but the inferences can follow in light of the officer's experience. The suspicion must be based on specific, objective facts and logical conclusions drawn from them. More than a mere hunch, but less than probable cause.

roundsman (NYPD, late 19th century): Patrol officer.

section (London, mid-19th century): Group of nine officers under a sergeant's command, quartered in small barracks called "section houses."



Sergeant's Club (c. 1965+): Nickname for a group of corrupt officers.

sheriff: County law enforcement officer. Often elected.

shoofly (NYPD c. 1945+): Slang for Internal Affairs officer.

skel (current): Skeleton; a homeless person or drug addict.

skim: Portion of a casino's gross receipts stolen from the floor before it reaches the counting room.

snakeheads (c. 1990s): Chinese slang for those who smuggle illegal immigrants into the United States.

square badge (NYPD c. 1990+): Slang for private security officers, who are forbidden by state law from wearing oval or triangular badges similar to the NYPD's.

steady note (Philadelphia c. 1970+): bribes and payoffs; see *pad*.

Superchief (NYPD c. 1970+): Head of a major department in the NYPD.

sweating (c. 1917): Interrogation process involving holding suspect in a dark cell for several hours, repeating the same question for an hour, returning the suspect to his cell and repeating as necessary, over two or three days if needed, to get confession. The suspect is completely isolated; family and friends are not notified of his whereabouts. Confessions used by this process were not admissible in court, but the suspect would plead guilty at the arraignment.

third degree (1883 to 1950s): Questioning of a suspect using relays of police interrogators, bright lights, sleep deprivation and withholding food. In extreme cases this can involve

beating, drugs, sweatboxes, near-drowning, and other torture. Physical force was outlawed by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1936. The remaining third degree techniques were ended both by court decisions and by police reformers who realized that it produced unreliable or false confessions.

Title III (1968+): FBI slang for legal microphones placed pursuant to a judge's order. Refers to Title III of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.

throw gun or **throwdown:** Cheap handgun secretly carried by police officers to drop at a crime scene to justify a search, arrest, or shooting.

tour: Eight-hour shift. In 1945, the NYPD scheduled patrol officers for six tours a week, sergeants for five tours, and lieutenants for four.

UNSUB: FBI term for "Unknown Subject."

vory v zakone (1990+) or **vor:** Russian gang members roughly similar to Mafia "wiseguys." The term literally means "thief-in-law." These members must be recommended by an existing thief-in-law and initiated in an elaborate ceremony. They are entitled to homage from other criminals on the street.

whack (c. 1970+): Mafia slang for killing someone other than for a contract, usually for personal reasons.

yeggman or **yegg** (c. 1917): Mugger, robber, thug.

zips (c. 1970+): Mafia slang for Sicilians brought in to distribute heroin and carry out assassinations.

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COPS CAMPAIGN PLAN

GM: _____

Date: _____

Campaign name: _____ Starting character point value: _____

Campaign's starting year: _____ Rate game time passes: _____

Campaign's location: _____ (Suggestion: If it's a modern city, give players a map.)

Realistic, cinematic, or in between?: _____

Local Control Rating: _____ Weapons Control Rating: _____

Type of officer group(s) to be played: _____

Main opposition the PCs will face: _____

Local politics:

Name of mayor: _____

General nature of local politics: open, corrupt, apathetic?: _____

The department:

Police Commissioner: _____ Police Chief: _____

Significant division heads: _____

Officers' immediate supervisor(s): _____

Level of corruption in department: _____

Local organized crime:

Street gangs: _____ Usual street gang crime: _____

Mafia, etc.: _____ Usual mafiosi crime: _____

Local media:

Local newspaper: _____

"Personality" of newspaper: crusading, complacent, tool of business interests? _____

Relationship with the police department?: _____

Local TV news station: _____

"Personality" of station: _____

Relationship with the police department?: _____

Other local news media: _____

"Personality" of media: _____

Relationship with the police department?: _____

Weird stuff:

Magic? Y N If yes, what is the mana level? Is the magic open or secret? _____

Do any of the cops have spells? _____ What about the crooks? _____

Psionics? Y N If yes, what are the average power levels? Is the psi open or secret? _____

Do any of the cops have psi powers? _____ What about the crooks? _____

Horror elements, including monsters and spirits? _____

Conspiracy elements? Y N If yes, how do local politics, and the officers' department, relate to the conspiracy? _____

The Thin Blue Line

"Just the facts, ma'am . . ."

"Dead or alive, you're coming with me . . ."

"Do you feel lucky, punk? . . ."

"Federal Agent, put down your weapons . . ."

"You have the right to remain silent . . ."

Every day, thousands of men and women put their lives on the line to protect our lives and property. This is real heroism and real adventure. Every day. **GURPS Cops** brings you into the station house, the patrol cars, the crime scenes, and the crime labs. Serial killers, gangsters, drug lords, and ordinary criminals are waiting for you to try to stop their deeds. The public needs you.

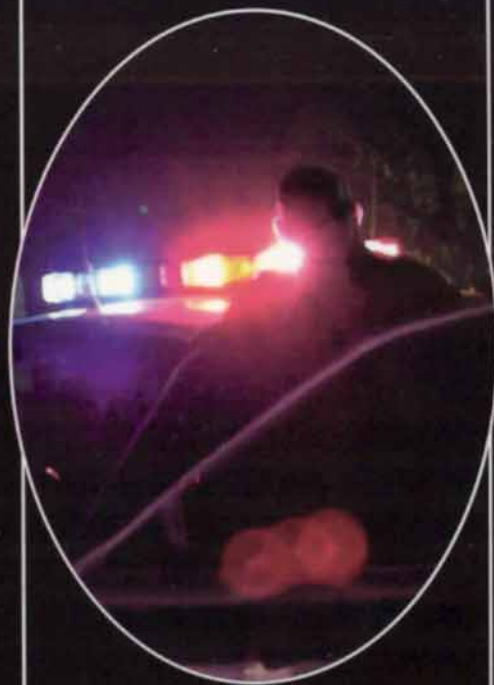
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- Creating campaigns for patrol officers, detectives, federal agents, SWAT teams, and bomb squads . . . in the style of the latest Hollywood action flicks, or with gritty realism drawn from the latest headlines.
- A template-based character generation system for quickly creating police officers, federal agents, their allies, and their adversaries.
- Descriptions and game stats for police equipment, including pepper spray, tear gas, and other less-than-lethal weapons.
- Detailed explanations of how to set up crime adventures, from muggings to locked-room murders, and how players can solve them. Use for developing campaigns in any setting.
- Suggestions for handling criminal trials, corrections, jailbreaks, and ex-convict characters.

*So straighten your uniform, rookie.
Check your loads and check your six.
It's a dangerous world out there . . .*



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GURPS Basic Set, Third Edition Revised and **GURPS Compendium I** are required to use this supplement in a **GURPS** campaign. The material in **GURPS Cops** can be used with any roleplaying system.

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