

Cumulative Force Factor: Examining Resultant Suspect and Officer Injuries

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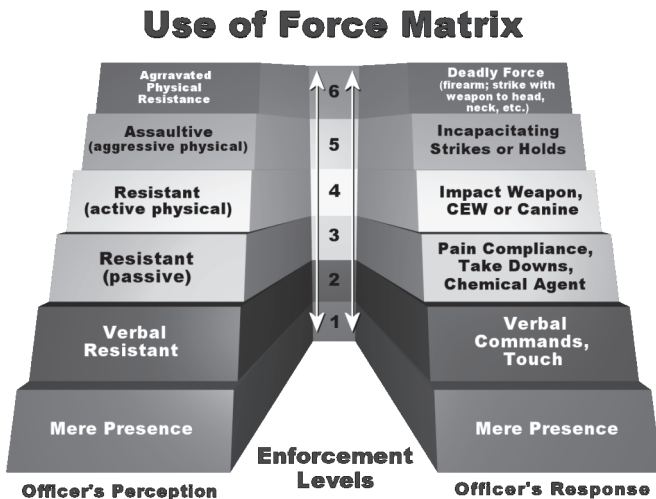
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Understanding Police Use of Force

To appreciate the complexity and diverse situations in which law enforcement personnel utilize force, force must be conceptualized not as a static concept but rather as a continuum of responses, ranging from verbal commands as a minor exertion of force to deadly force, the maximum amount of force possible to apply (Garner, Buchanan, Schade, & Hepburn, 1996; Garner, Schade, Hepburn, & Buchanan, 1995; Klinger, 1995).

Traditional use-of-force continuums rely on the concept of multiple categories of increasing officer perceptions of suspect resistance as linked to similar groupings of the officer's force-use response to those perceptions. As law enforcement officers are expected to make split-second decisions based on rapidly evolving situations, the incorporation of a use-of-force continuum into departmental policy provides guidance to officers in making force decisions. Figure 1 shows a generic use-of-force matrix, which incorporates acceptable officer responses to perceptions of use of force by subjects encountered (Mesloh & Wolf, 2008).

Figure 1. Generic Use-of-Force Matrix Example



Law enforcement officers incorporate these force continuums into preservice police academies and inservice training programs in order to be able to identify and place varying levels of suspect resistance with a reasonable and appropriate use-of-force response. While use-of-force continuums within the policies of different law enforcement agencies are not universally standardized, they all rely on legally and publicly acceptable responses by the police (Garner et al., 1995). These continuums propose that officers should progressively examine and react to each situation, de-escalating uses of force once resistance has declined or stopped (Williams, 2002); they are an attempt to clarify what may be considered objectively legal and reasonable force.

It is also important to note that use-of-force matrices are not an accepted means of identifying force concepts by all law enforcement agencies. Many agencies that adopted continuums or force matrix policies in the 1990s have now moved away from these to protect from litigation (Williams, 2002). The following section addresses the current literature on the study of law enforcement use of force; its definitions, measurement, and analysis thereof; and less lethal uses of force.

Literature Review

Studies that examine police force do not “always specify clearly how force was defined or measured, and the definitions and measures of force tended to be unique to each study” (Garner, Maxwell, & Heraux, 2002, p. 712). Garner et al. (2002) explain that police use-of-force research, while expansive, has varying approaches that are each fraught with “limited strengths and substantial weaknesses” (p. 707). A review of the literature reveals that there are numerous accepted ways to gather information about police use of force. These include examinations of agency policy (Adang & Mensink, 2004; U.S. Government Accountability Office [USGAO], 2005), observational accounts of police force incidents (Klinger, 1995), analysis of official police records and use-of-force reports (Morabito & Doerner, 1997; Ross, 1999), citizen complaints about the use of force (Hickman, 2006), and surveys of police officers or arrested persons (Garner et al., 1996; Garner & Maxwell, 1999).

While each type of data collection has strengths and weaknesses, the review of police records may have certain advantages over other categories. Garner et al. (2002) explain that this type of review provides more organized data on use-of-force incidents than actual interpretations of police work through observations. Additionally, review of police report data provides a wider view of police behavior over the studied jurisdictions than can normally be captured through observational accounts. A flaw in examining law enforcement use of force from officer reports is obvious in that these reports may well suffer from certain subjectivity as biases provided by the officers who wrote the reports may be interjected. Garner et al. (2002) remark that this approach may be most suitable for interjurisdictional comparisons rather than intrajurisdictional comparisons.

Regardless of the research strategy employed, one constant finding is that law enforcement use of force is generally uncommon, and its improper use is more so exceedingly rare (Garner et al., 1995, 1996; Klinger, 1995; National Institute of Justice, 1999; Reiss, 1971; Worden, Shepard, & Mastrofski, 1996). Conner (1991) found that 95 to 97% of all police-citizen contacts involve cooperative subjects, and Alpert and Dunham (1999) reported that 61% of the suspects who were being

placed under arrest did not resist the officer at all, and 18% offered only slight resistance. Even though the vast majority of citizens that police interact with on a daily basis can be classified as cooperative, many, although somewhat dated observational studies have found “disrespectful” or “uncooperative” citizens to be arrested more often (Friedrich, 1980; Petersen, 1972; Sherman, 1980).

Less Lethal Force

The terms *less lethal* and *nonlethal* are frequently and inappropriately used interchangeably as most police tools can become lethal if used improperly or if circumstances are extremely unlucky. In terms of less-than-lethal use of force, the court in *Graham v. Conner* (1986) addressed the use of less-lethal force in the context of the “objective reasonableness standard” by which questions regarding excessive use of force are to be judged from the perspective of a reasonable officer coping with a tense, fast-evolving situation. This revised standard alleviates some of the “Monday morning quarterbacking” that would otherwise result and respects that officers possess sound judgment skills.

In studies of less-lethal use of force, it is important to understand public perceptions; the American public, which has been raised on science fiction like *Star Trek*, has a high standard and expects phaser-like weapons that can incapacitate without causing permanent harm or death (Heal, 1999). This phenomena has created what Surette (1992) called a weapons cult within the entertainment media, “with weapons made increasingly more technical and sophisticated but less realistic” (p. 43). Furthermore, Surette adds, in displays of deadly force, evil criminals miss or inflict minor wounds, while heroes are incredibly accurate and kill painlessly and from great distances.

Less-lethal weapons in the entertainment arena can be viewed through a similar lens as their deadly weapon counterparts. The recipient is usually rendered unconscious from a single application and recovers almost immediately. This creates a massive discrepancy between reality and the portrayal of less-lethal weapons in popular media. In reality, they are, as their name reflects, less than lethal. While they have the potential to cause death or serious injury, these weapons are considerably less harmful than the projectiles fired from firearms.

In reviewing police officer use of force, it is important to acknowledge the premise that law enforcement officers select the right weapon and tactic based on the scenario. Officers are trained to react and to use the weapons and techniques they have acquired appropriately. Clearly, the most socially desirable outcome of conflicts between law enforcement and the public is one in which the disturbance is quelled and no one is injured. While officers must respond to situations appropriately, they must also act quickly. The reaction time of an officer can become a critical, life saving factor in fast-evolving use-of-force confrontations. This reaction time has been examined in the literature, and several studies have focused on the concept of the *reactionary gap*. This gap refers to the amount of time and frequently distance that an officer needs to have to react to a suspect’s advances. Officers are trained to control distance in relation to one or more subjects and, therefore, react to the subject’s actions by allowing enough time to deploy a less-lethal weapon, defensive tactic, or deadly force. Less-lethal weapons allow officers to increase their ability to react by having them at the ready prior to deployment.

This acknowledges that officers must first select a less-lethal weapon and that their decision must be appropriate or injury to the suspect or the officer may result. The decision on which weapon to choose may also be based on the fact that officers are personally self-motivated to not be injured or face future liability should they use the inappropriate level of force. In addition to civil liability, officers who do not adhere exactly to their agency's policies and procedures may face disciplinary charges, reprimands, and possible termination (Williams, 2002).

As a result, with these factors at the forefront of their minds, it is not surprising that officers use the most effective tool that is ranked lowest on their agency's force continuum, ensuring that they are well within the scope of their employment and appropriate statutory law when quelling a disturbance or engaging a suspect. In confrontations, the burden of documentation falls upon the officer; the more intrusive the level of force, the more extensive the documentation.

Degree of Force and Potential for Injury

Scientifically, force is the mass of the object multiplied by its acceleration. The larger or heavier an object is and the faster that it is accelerating, the more force it generates. While a car and a baseball might both be traveling at identical speeds, there is an obvious difference in the force produced with this equation. Kinetic energy (KE), the energy which an object possesses due to its motion, also relates to force and can be computed by taking $\frac{1}{2}$ its mass and multiplying it by the square of its velocity ($KE = \frac{1}{2} m \times v^2$).

In use-of-force situations, the principles of force, mass, and motion apply to the various tools law enforcement utilize such as baton strikes, Electro Muscular Disruption Devices, and also other projectile weapons. As such, when velocity increases, the potential for injury increases exponentially and is known to be a primary factor in soft tissue damage from impact (Viano & Lau, 1988). This may be best understood by an example: Injury is relatively small if a person were to be hit in the arm with a baseball traveling less than one mile per hour; however, as the speed of the ball increases, more severe injury occurs to the soft tissue. The energy transfer from a less-lethal weapon onto a human causes either a dysfunction of that specific body part or compliance as the subject wishes to avoid further pain. As the amount of KE transferred increases, the potential for serious injury also rises (Hubbs & Klinger, 2004). Additionally, as the object increases in mass and density, higher injury rates result (DuBay & Bir, 2000).

In use-of-force deployments, the size of the area impacted by a less-lethal weapon is also related to the potential for injury. The same amount of force applied over a wider area causes less injury than if it were to be applied over a smaller area. This can be visualized by comparing the impact of a knife-edge to that of a baseball bat. Additionally, the edge of any moving object is more damaging than its flat side. This becomes important when considering the use of improvised impact weapons, such as flashlights or knives, where its end has the potential for creating a shearing force, particularly if used to strike the head (Cox, Buchholz, & Wolf, 1987).

Research Design and Methods

Data Collection from Use of Force Reports

Of specific interest to this project was an examination of how prior researchers have collected data to study this topic. As noted above, the Use of Force Report and accompanying arrest affidavit (if applicable) are the standards in acquiring data on this subject matter. This method is not without its limitations; however, in terms of utility to the task, it is appropriate. The police Use of Force Report and accompanying documents provide a rich wealth of data. Agency policies and legal standards require that officers detail events when force is used in specific detail. This Use of Force Report, then, becomes part of court documents and is generally held as a document with integrity. The Use of Force Report is written specifically to explain the use of force; it inherently includes all the variables as observed and perceived by an officer in a temporal order. These forms identify the relationships between suspect actions and officer reactions, as well as the subsequent outcomes, categorized as type and severity of injury.

When officers are trained to use force, they are trained to interpret situational factors (variables) and respond in-kind with a level of force, which has been pre-determined by the agency, its legal department, case law, and interpretations of case law as reasonable. This action/reaction scenario is at the heart of the event-level confrontation. As the confrontation evolves, the officer and suspect may escalate and de-escalate up and down the force continuum in a temporal order that may be extremely fast. The data collected and coded in this project from Use of Force Reports were broken down to reflect how officers reacted to each subject action. While this may detail many derivations of escalations and de-escalations of force (referred to as *iterations* in this project), the models generally follow an escalation of force temporally. To follow these iterations of force, the researchers analyzed the Use of Force Reports and extracted the various level(s) of force used by the officer and the level(s) of resistance of the subject, over time (i.e., "Officer Force" Level 1, "Suspect Resistance" Level 1). Ultimately, the relationships between escalations of force and resultant injuries are explored for both suspects and officers.

Design

This project has utilized an accepted social science research methodology wherein existing data collected from archival records were coded and analyzed using *SPSS*. Key independent and dependent variables were identified by the extant literature review and developed into a data collection worksheet. The data collection sheets were filled out by coders and were then entered into *SPSS* for analysis.

Data Collection

Use of Force Reports are a regular tool that most, if not all, law enforcement agencies use in accounting for uses of force. This document captures much data and allows a research endeavor to begin at the event level. The data includes specific information regarding the type of force used in an encounter, whether less lethal or deadly, and also the type of resultant injuries. For this current study, data was collected from two major participating law enforcement agencies: the

Orange County (Florida) Sheriff's Office (OSCO) and Orlando (Florida) Police Department (OPD).

The OCSO and OPD Use of Force Reports were obtained by a public records request at each respective agency. Each agency was requested to provide their agencies Use of Force Reports (defensive tactics form) and accompanying documentation to include arrest affidavits (charging affidavit) and offense reports dated from the year 2000 to the year 2005. Grant funding provided resources to comply with payment for the public records request. A total of approximately 40 banker boxes were collected, and all reports were coded onto code sheets and entered into *SPSS*, resulting in 4,303 nonduplicate reports. Of the 4,303 incidents that were compiled and reviewed, 57.2% ($n = 2,460$) were from the OCSO, and 42.8% ($n = 1,843$) were from OPD.

Measurement

The measures utilized in this research endeavor consist of nominal, ordinal, interval level, and several scaled variables. This allows for a variety of statistical techniques in predictive analysis. Researchers categorized use of force through suspect resistance and officer level of force. In developing the measures for these variables, the force continuum was utilized as a standard measure ordered from 1 (presence) to 6 (deadly force). If the confrontation was not brought to resolution, a second and third iteration captured this data. Other key variables of importance included "Officer Force" ranked from 0 (no force) to 14 (deadly force). This variable allows the determination of effectiveness for each less-lethal weapon or use of force. A complementary variable, "Suspect Force," was included and is ranked from 0 (no additional resistance) to 15 (vehicle).

Iterations of Force

The force used by the police in a police-subject encounter does not occur in a vacuum. Certainly, a review of the type of force used would explain little if the circumstances surrounding the incident were unknown. Klinger (1995) noted that prior attempts to study nonlethal force in police encounters failed to examine that multiple levels of force may be used within a single encounter.

This study decomposed confrontations at the event level into a series of iterations, representing a single suspect action and officer reaction. If the confrontation was not brought to resolution within the first iteration, it then progressed into second and third iterations.

Results

Over half of the suspects (55.6%) were subdued at the end of the first iteration, which allowed the researchers to examine 2,391 cases to determine which less-lethal weapons were most effective in bringing conflict to resolution. Slightly less than 30% (29.3%, $n = 1,264$) of the confrontations ended at the second iteration, while 15% ($n = 648$) ended in the third iteration. There were no confrontations that extended beyond three iterations of force, although there were some cases where the suspect escaped and could not be identified.

In cases that ended at the first iteration, it was possible to show linkage between the injury and the type of force. Of key interest to this study were the resulting injuries to both officers and suspects in their confrontations. It was difficult if not impossible to assign responsibility for an injury to a specific officer action, however, as in many cases multiple techniques or less-lethal weapons were used. It was possible for an officer to use a control technique in the first iteration, a chemical agent in the second, and an electronic control device in the third.

Suspect and Officer Injuries

From a macro-view, substantially more suspects sustained injury than law enforcement officers. Twenty-three percent (23%) of suspects were injured during force encounters in comparison with only 3% of officers. Injuries to both suspects and officers tended to occur during traffic stops and disturbances, with the majority of injuries comprised of bruises and abrasions. A trend emerged when the data was deconstructed at the event level, however. Injuries to both suspects and officers increased in proportion to the length and duration of the confrontation. This in itself is not startling; it is reasonable to expect that more injuries would occur in longer confrontations. Force, wielded by either suspect or officer, is cumulative, and the use of more applications substantially increases the possibility of injury to either or both.

Suspects received injuries in 1,001 (23.3%) of the 4,303 cases. The most common type of injury was a bruise/abrasion (52%), followed by puncture wounds (29%). Although TASER deployments create small punctures, they were not coded as an injury in this analysis. Consequently, punctures coded herein were a result of canine bites or the suspect falling upon another object. It is important to note that almost all of the suspect injuries were the result of a fall during the course of forcible arrest.

Table 1. Suspect Injuries by Iteration

| New Suspect Injury | Number of Levels (Count and % Within Number of Levels) | | | Total |
|-----------------------------|---|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | One Level | Two Levels | Three Levels | |
| Bruise/abrasion | 237 50.5% | 162 50.9% | 122 57.0% | 521 52.0% |
| Sprain/strain | 8 1.7% | 8 2.5% | 1 0.5% | 17 1.7% |
| Laceration | 58 12.4% | 47 14.8% | 40 18.7% | 145 14.5% |
| Puncture | 160 34.1% | 88 27.7% | 43 20.1% | 291 29.1% |
| Broken bone/fracture | 6 1.3% | 12 3.8% | 8 3.7% | 26 2.6% |
| Internal injury | 0 0.0% | 1 0.3% | 0 0.0% | 1 0.1% |
| Total | 469 100.0% | 318 100.0% | 214 100.0% | 1,001 100.0% |

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total 100%.

As a suspect/officer confrontation continues from iteration to iteration, the likelihood of injury rises. In the first iteration, suspects were injured in 11% ($n = 469$) of the cases. This number rises to 25% ($n = 1,264$) in the second iteration, and 33% ($n = 648$) in the third and final iteration. In this study, the most frequent call types involving suspect injuries were traffic stops, disturbances, and burglaries. Injuries related to burglaries were primarily a result of a canine deployment into a building to locate a hidden suspect.

Officers were injured in 136 cases (3.2%), and the most common injury was a bruise/abrasion (65%). The next most likely injury was a laceration (16%). Similar to suspects, officers were likely to be injured from falls while attempting an apprehension. The most frequent call types resulting in officer injury were traffic stops and disturbances.

Table 2. Officer Injuries by Iteration

| Officer Injury | Number of Levels (Count and % Within Number of Levels) | | | Total |
|--------------------------|---|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| | One Level | Two Levels | Three Levels | |
| Bruise/abrasion | 18 75.0% | 27 62.8% | 43 62.3% | 88 64.7% |
| Sprain/strain | 1 4.2% | 7 16.3% | 4 5.8% | 12 8.8% |
| Laceration | 2 8.3% | 4 9.3% | 16 23.2% | 22 16.2% |
| Bite | 1 4.2% | 3 7.0% | 4 5.8% | 8 5.9% |
| Puncture | 0 0.0% | 2 4.7% | 0 0.0% | 2 1.5% |
| Broken bone/ fracture | 2 8.3% | 0 0.0% | 1 1.4% | 3 2.2% |
| Internal injury | 0 0.0% | 0 0.0% | 1 1.4% | 1 0.7% |
| Total | 24 100.0% | 43 100.0% | 69 100.0% | 136 100.0% |

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total 100%.

As shown in Table 2, it is clear that the largest number of officer injuries occur at the third iteration. As the suspect/officer conflict continues forward in time (temporally), officers tend to be injured more frequently. In the first iteration, officers were injured 24 times, creating an injury rate of 1%. In conflicts where use of force and resistance ended at the second iteration, a total of 43 officers were injured (3% injury rate). In officer/suspect confrontations which ended at the third iteration, 69 officers were injured (11% injury rate).

The overall percentage of injuries (number of uses of force per iteration) increases substantially as the suspect and officer encounter continues. Overwhelmingly, the majority of injuries in all iterations were bruises/abrasions. This is not surprising as conflicts in which the suspect and officers fight tend to mostly involve grappling,

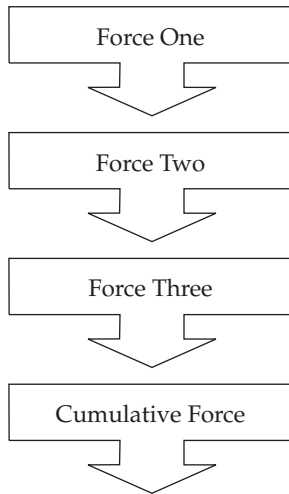
ground fighting, kicking, punching, biting, and blunt objects (i.e., sticks, bricks, and any other object that can be thrown or swung), and injuries most often sustained come from contacts from the aforementioned scenarios. In over half of the cases where an officer was injured, the suspect also received an injury.

Cumulative Force Factor

Law enforcement confrontations often have an ebb and a flow as suspect resistance increases or decreases, while officer force changes to meet that immediate threat. A force factor for each iteration was created and based upon the model created by Alpert and Dunham (1999), which measured the difference between suspect resistance and officer force. Differentiating this current study from theirs, however, the researchers based the model upon a standardized force continuum.

Based upon the force factors created for each iteration, a cumulative force coefficient for the entire event was created. Force factors from the three iterations were combined and range from a score of -9 to +5. This cumulative score represents an overall picture of the confrontation and views force used by and against the police as a cumulative concept. A single application of force may or may not cause injury, but repeated applications are much more likely to create an injury to either the suspect or officer.

Figure 2. Cumulative Force Model

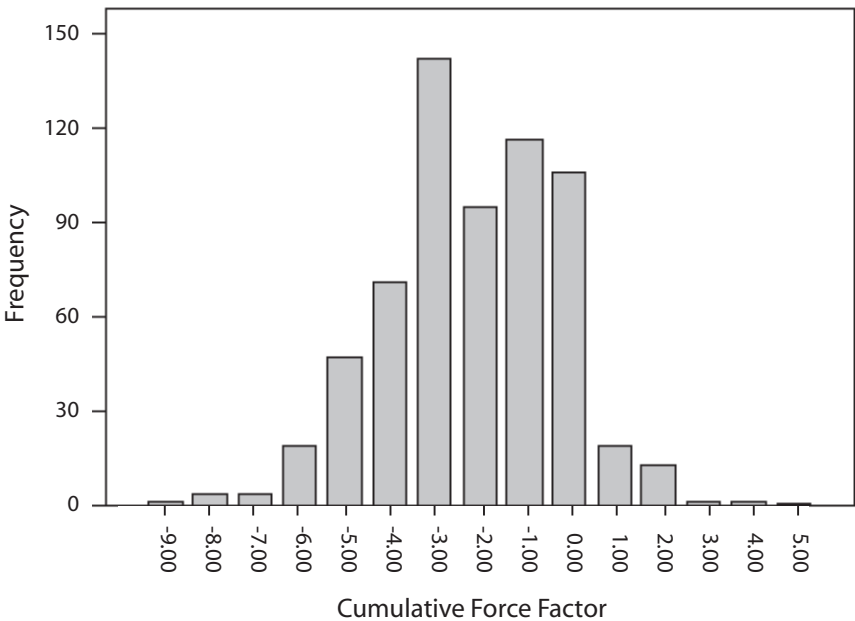


As such, the researchers utilized this concept and applied it in an aggregate manner in an attempt to capture the outcomes on injuries for suspects and officers at the end of an altercation—whether one, two, or three iterations. Cumulative Force is calculated by Force Factor 1 (+/-FF1) + Force Factor 2 (+/-FF2) + Force Factor 3 (+/-FF3) = Cumulative Force (CF). The concept of the Cumulative Force is detailed in Figure 2.

In this current study, the researchers found that overall it appeared that law enforcement officers are operating at a force deficit; the cumulative force factor in the cases examined was overall negative, indicating that consistently lower police levels of force (as standardized on the force matrix) are being used.

In Figure 3, Cumulative Force ranges from negative nine (-9) to positive five (+5). For example, a -9 score is evidence of a large cumulative difference in suspect and officer resistance, in this case indicative of police using far less force than authorized. A positive five score would indicate the contrary, when the officer used far more force than was authorized based on perceptions of the subject's actions. Over the course of the conflicts, officers used consistently less force than the suspect, which in later analysis is highly correlated with higher suspect and officer injury rates.

Figure 3. Cumulative Force Distribution



Additionally, the longer the conflicts continue from iteration to iteration, the more statistically significant the cumulative force factor becomes as a predictor for both suspect and officer injuries. Officers who consistently use less force than suspects therefore lead to longer confrontations and more injuries. Table 3 shows the difference in cumulative force factor of suspects and officers who are injured in the third iteration. An independent samples *t*-test was used to test the effects of force choices on outcomes. The researchers examined the differences in the force factor for officers who were injured ($M = -3.69, SD = 2.06$) or not injured ($M = -1.95, SD = 1.91$), which shows statistical significance, $t(641) = 7.07, p < 0.001$. The negative coefficient denotes a force deficit on the part of the officers. An initial finding

from this research is that law enforcement officers in the agencies examined are operating at a use-of-force level that is below that of the suspects and it is a highly likely factor leading to their injuries.

Table 3. Cumulative Force Factor by Officer Injuries

| | Officer Injured | | Mean | SD |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-----|---------|---------|
| | Yes/ No | n | | |
| Cumulative Force Factor | No | 574 | -1.9582 | 1.91303 |
| | Yes | 69 | -3.6957 | 2.06016 |

A second analysis conducted by the researchers examined force factor and suspect injuries. Similarly, a significant difference, $t(641) = 3.75, p < 0.001$, between suspects who were injured ($M = -2.57, SD = 2.16$) or not injured ($M = -1.93, SD = 1.88$) was found. This would appear to be counterintuitive: officers using a lower level of force causing more injuries. However, this same lower cumulative force level creates the need to use repetitive force in the form of iterations. When officers fail to subdue a suspect with a lesser form of force, they are again forced to respond to the suspect’s resistance, which may cause some form of injury.

Table 4. Cumulative Force Factor by Suspect Injuries

| | Suspect Injured | | Mean | SD |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-----|---------|---------|
| | Yes/No | n | | |
| Cumulative Force Factor | No | 429 | -1.9277 | 1.87878 |
| | Yes | 214 | -2.5794 | 2.16692 |

Conclusions and Implications

A law enforcement officer has discretionary power whenever he or she chooses how to respond to a situation (Langworthy & Travis, 2002). This discretion hinges on priorities at the time, evidence available, and the seriousness of the situation. Thus, it is the ability to properly choose between these options while weighing various factors that is at the heart of officer discretion. However, while the dynamics of the suspect/officer encounter and the law may constrain an officer’s choices, they do not dictate the officer’s response (Brown, 1981). Suspect behavior, on the other hand, significantly influences officer discretion and, consequently, the final outcome of a suspect/officer encounter. Also, generally, the use of force by the suspect is a significant predictor of the use of force by officers (Holmes, 1997), and the actions of the suspect may also determine the types of force that are used against them.

Prior research on use of force tends to examine the highest level of suspect resistance and officer force while frequently ignoring the varying interactions of the confrontation. This study has attempted to dissect these interactions by peeling them away layer by layer (iterations). As a result, it was possible to view the ebb and flow of suspect resistance and corresponding officer force at the event level. Further, this research in brief has also examined the view of officer use of force as being cumulative in nature. While a single application of force may or may not

cause injury, repeated applications certainly are more likely to cause harm. This has certainly been true in this study as is supported by the data outcomes wherein the injuries of both suspects and officers rose correspondingly with the length of the confrontations.

This research has identified a phenomenon, which the researchers refer to as a Force Deficit. That is, in examining the Cumulative Force after three iterations, it appears as though the officers were consistently using less force than may be justifiable or necessary to subdue the suspect and end the confrontation. A tentative conclusion or solution may be that the use of decisive force early on in active suspect/officer confrontations may be the solution in ending the conflict quickly and thereby statistically reducing the likelihood of additional injuries whose rates increase as observed in the second and third iterations examined. While this is far from proving causality, it does provide one possible answer to a complicated issue.

Starting at the police academy, officers are told to use the least amount of force necessary to affect an arrest. As a result, officers are understandably hesitant to immediately move to the higher end of the acceptable response option(s) and may first try lower-level techniques. The unintended consequence of this choice is that many of these techniques do not have high success rates for ending a confrontation and may serve to aggravate this situation through an escalation in resistance by the suspect. Additionally, the confrontation may extend for longer periods of time, during which the likelihood of injury to both suspects and officers increases.

Consequently, it must be carefully stated that officers should be prepared to use decisive force at the point where verbal techniques of de-escalation have failed. This does not mean the deployment of a weapon against a passive suspect, but the preparation to use such a weapon if and when the situation calls for it.

Notes

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CEW as listed in Level 4 Officer's Response is the abbreviation for Conducted Energy Weapon, a category of weapons that includes electronic control devices or electromuscular devices such as the TASER and Stinger.

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