U.S. DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

NATIONAL HIGHWAY TRAFFIC SAFETY ADMINISTRATION



PO BOX 25082 OKLAHOMA CITY, OK 73125-5050 (405) 954-3112

DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION TRAINING

"THE DRUG RECOGNITION SCHOOL"



STUDENT MANUAL

DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION TRAINING PROGRAM THE DRUG RECOGNITION EXPERT SCHOOL

1993 EDITION

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION
Transportation Safety Institute
National Highway Traffic Safety Administration

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MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY
0800-0830 SESSION XIII: Physician's Desk Reference	0800-0820 QUIZ NUMBER TWO	0800-0915 SESSION XXIV: Drug Combinations	0800-1000 FINAL EXAM
0830-0915 SESSION XIV: Hallucinogens	0820-0850 SESSION XVII: Continued	0915-0930 SESSION XXIV: Continued	1000-1015 BREAK
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1130-1200 SESSION XVI: Phencyclidine (PCP)	1030-1130 SESSION XIX: Continued	1300-1430 SESSION XXVII: Practice Test Interpretation	1630-1700 Course Critique; Closing Remarks; Presentation of Certificates
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1530-1630 SESSION XVII: Continued	1540-1640 SESSION XXII: Overview of Signs and Symptoms	1700-1800 BREAK	
1630-1730 SESSION XVII: Continued	1640-1650 BREAK	1800-2000 OPTION REVIEW SESSION #2	
1730-1800 BREAK	1650-1730 SESSION XXIII: Resume Preparation & Maintenance		
1800-2030 OPTIONAL REVIEW SESSION #1	1730-1800 QUIZ NUMBER THREE		

SESSION I

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

SESSION I INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o State the goals and objectives of the course.
- o Outline the major course content.
- o Outline the schedule of major course activities.
- o Outline the contents and arrangements of the student manual.

During this session, the participant will demonstrate his or her current knowledge of basic concepts and terminology relevant to the Drug Evaluation and Classification Process.

NOTE: Throughout this Manual, the term "DRE" is used to designate an individual who is specially trained to conduct examinations of suspected drug-impaired drivers. In some participating agencies, the term stands for "drug recognition expert"; in others, it means "drug recognition examiners"; and in others "drug recognition evaluator". In addition, some agencies use the terms "DRT" (for drug recognition technician) or "DRS" (drug recognition specialists). All of these are acceptable and synonymous. But for this training program, the standard term is DRE.

A. INTRODUCTION TO THE SECOND STAGE OF TRAINING: THE DRE SCHOOL

The <u>Drug Evaluation and Classification</u> training program focuses on a set of examination procedures. These examinations include:

- o a breath test to determine blood alcohol concentration (BAC);
- o preliminary assessments of the subject's speech, breath, appearance, demeanor, behavior, etc;
- examinations of the subject's eyes (for nystagmus, tracking ability, ability to converge, pupil size, pupil reaction to light, etc.);
- o psychophysical evaluations of the subject, based on divided attention tests;
- examinations of the subject's vital signs (e.g., blood pressure, pulse rate and temperature);
- inspections of the subject's arms, neck, nasal area,
 oral cavity, etc. for signs of drug ingestion.

Based on these examinations, and on other articulable evidence that may emerge during contact with the subject, a trained drug recognition expert (DRE) can reach reasonably accurate conclusions concerning the general kind or kinds of drugs, or medical conditions, causing the impairment observed in the subject. Based on these informed conclusions, the DRE can request the collection and analysis of an appropriate chemical sample (blood or urine) to obtain corroborative, scientific evidence of the subject's drug use.

The DRE School provides detailed explanations of the examination procedures; careful demonstrations of these procedures, both "live" and via video tape; and, ample opportunities for the students to practice administering the examinations. By the completion of this course of instruction, students should be fully proficient in checking vital signs, conducting careful evaluations of eyes, administering divided attention tests and, in general, carrying out the procedural steps of the DRE's job.

However, there is one essential learning experience that this classroom training cannot provide. It cannot afford students an opportunity to practice examining subjects who are under the influence of drugs other than alcohol. For this reason, the classroom training only constitutes Phase I in the process of developing DRE skills. Phase II of the training (which commences upon the successful completion of this course) involves hands-on practice in an actual enforcement context, i.e., examining persons who are under arrest on suspicion of drug impairment.

Although this DRE School will not conclude with the student's immediate certification as a DRE, successful completion of this classroom training is nevertheless highly important. No one can advance to Certification Training until he or she demonstrates a mastery of basic knowledge of drug categories and their effects on the human mind and body, and of basic skills in administering and interpreting the examinations involved in the Drug Evaluation and Classification process.

Mastering the necessary knowledge and skills is not difficult, if students apply themselves diligently to study and practice. There is no reason why a student who possesses solid skills in detecting and investigating persons under the influence of alcohol cannot achieve proficiency as a DRE.

B. GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE TRAINING

The <u>ultimate goal</u> of the Drug Evaluation and Classification Program, and of this course of instruction, is to "help prevent crashes and avoid deaths and injuries by improving enforcement of drug-impaired driving violations".

No one knows precisely how many people operate motor vehicles while under the influence of drugs, or how many crashes, deaths and injuries these people cause. But even the most conservative estimates suggest that America's drug-impaired drivers kill thousands of people each year, and seriously injure tens of thousands of others. In one study by the University of Tennessee (1988), 40% of crash-involved drivers treated at the University's Trauma Center had drugs other than alcohol in their urine. A similar study in Maryland (1986) showed that 32% of crash-injured drivers had evidence of marijuana in their blood. As law enforcement agencies improve their abilities to detect and convict these violators, fewer crashes should occur.

It should be noted that traffic crash reduction is not the only benefit that should result from an effective Drug Evaluation and Classification program. Improved investigative skills should increase society's effectiveness in combating the drug threat in general, and result in significant economic and human savings.

The goals of this classroom training, from the viewpoint of the law enforcement agencies participating in it, are three-fold:

- 1. To help police officers acquire the knowledge and skills needed to distinguish individuals under the influence of alcohol only from individuals who are under the influence of other drugs, or of combinations of alcohol and other drugs, or who are suffering from an injury or illness.
- 2. To enable police officers to identify the broad category or categories of drugs inducing the observable signs of impairment manifested by an individual.

3. To qualify police officers to progress to Certification Training.

The <u>objectives of this course</u>, from the viewpoint of the individual students who enroll in it, are as follows:

- o to be able to describe the involvement of drugs in impaired driving incidents.
- o to be able to name the seven broad categories of drugs, and recognize their effects on human beings.
- o to be able to describe, and administer properly, the psychophysical and physiologic examinations included in the Drug Evaluation and Classification process.
- o to be able to document the results of Drug Recognition Expert examinations.
- o to interpret the results of these examinations accurately.
- o to be able to prepare a narrative Drug Influence Report based on these examinations.
- o to be able to testify properly in typical drug evaluation cases.
- o to develop and maintain up-to-date, relevant resumes to document their qualifications as DREs.

Throughout this classroom training, and especially at its conclusion, students will be tested to assess their ability to do these things.

C. OVERVIEW OF CONTENT AND SCHEDULE

During this classroom training some the major content topics will be: the incidence of drugs in society and in vehicle operation, the development and effectiveness of the DEC Program, the DRE procedures, eye examinations, physiology and drugs, vital signs examination, Physicians Desk Reference, interviewing suspects, resume preparation, case preparation and testimony and interpreting and documenting the results of the examination. Since hands-on practice is the principal learning activity, time will be spent on conducting the eye examinations, psychophysical tests, interpreting the examination results, administering vital signs examinations, practicing the DEC procedures and simulating the drug-impaired examinations.

D. OVERVIEW OF STUDENT MANUAL

The student manual is be used as a reference and is a summary of material presented. It is <u>imperative</u> for you to attend every session of the DRE School in order to proceed to the certification training phase.

DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROGRAM

Glossary of Terms

ADDITIVE EFFECT

One mechanism of polydrug interaction. For a particular indicator of impairment, two drugs produce an additive effect if they both affect the indicator in the same way. For example, cocaine elevates pulse rate and PCP also elevates pulse rate. The combination of cocaine and PCP produces an additive effect on pulse rate.

AFFERENT NERVES

See: "Sensory Nerves."

ALKALOID

A chemical that is found in, and can be physically extracted from, some substance. For example, morphine is a natural alkaloid of opium. It does not require a chemical reaction to produce morphine from opium.

ANALGESIC

A remedy that relieves or allays pain.

ANALOG (of a drug)

An analog of a drug is a chemical that is very similar to the drug, both in terms of molecular structure and in terms of psychoactive effects. For example, the drug Ketamine is an analog of PCP.

ANESTHETIC

A drug that produces a general or local insensibility to pain and other sensation.

ANTAGONISTIC EFFECT

One mechanism of polydrug interaction. For a particular indicator of impairment, two drugs produce an antagonistic effect if they affect the indicator in opposite ways. For example, heroin constricts pupils while cocaine dilates pupils. The combination of heroin and cocaine produces an antagonistic effect on pupil size. Depending on how much of each drug was taken, and on when they were taken, the suspect's pupils could be constricted, or dilated, or within the normal range of size.

ARRHYTHMIA

An abnormal heart rhythm.

ARTERY

The strong, elastic blood vessel that carries blood from the heart to the body tissues.

AUTONOMIC NERVE

A motor nerve that carries messages to the muscles and organs that we do not consciously control. There are two kinds of autonomic nerves, viz. sympathetic nerves and parasympathetic nerves.

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AXON

The part of a neuron (nerve cell) that sends out a neurotransmitter.

BLOOD PRESSURE

The force exerted by blood on the walls of the arteries. Blood pressure changes continuously, as the heart cycles between contraction and expansion.

BRADYCARDIA

Abnormally slow heart rate; pulse rate below the normal range.

BRUXISM

Grinding the teeth. This behavior is often seen in persons who are under the influence of cocaine or other CNS stimulants.

CANNABIS

- 1. One of the seven drug categories. Cannabis includes marijuana, hashish, hash oil, and marinol.
- Several species of plants from which marijuana and related products are made (e.g., Cannabis Sativa and Cannabis Indicia).

CARBOXY THC

A metabolite of THC (tetrahydrocannabinol).

CNS (Central Nervous System)

A system within the body consisting of the brain, the brain stem, and the spinal cord.

CNS DEPRESSANTS

One of the seven drug categories. CNS depressants include alcohol, barbiturates, anti-anxiety tranquilizers, and numerous other drugs.

CNS STIMULANTS

One of the seven drug categories. CNS stimulants include cocaine, the amphetamines, ritalin, preludin, and numerous other drugs.

CONJUNCTIVITIS

An inflammation of the mucous membrane that lines the inner surface of the eyelids. Persons suffering from conjunctivitis have "pink eyes", a condition that could be mistaken for the bloodshot eyes produced by alcohol or Cannabis.

CONVERGENCE

The "crossing" of the eyes that occurs when a person is able to focus on a stimulus as it is pushed slowly toward the bridge of his or her nose. (See, also, "Lack of Convergence".)

CRACK

A hard chunk form of cocaine that produces a very intense, but relatively short-duration "high". Crack is also known as rock cocaine.

CYCLIC BEHAVIOR

A manifestation of impairment due to certain drugs, in which the suspect alternates between periods (or cycles) of intense agitation and relative calm. Cyclic behavior, for example, sometimes will be observed in persons under the influence of PCP.

DENDRITE

The part of a neuron (nerve cell) that receives a neurotransmitter.

DIACETYL MORPHINE

See: "heroin".

DIASTOLIC

The lowest value of blood pressure. The blood pressure reaches its diastolic value when the heart is fully expanded.

DISSOCIATIVE ANESTHETIC

A drug that inhibits pain by cutting off (or "disassociating") the brain's perception of the pain. PCP is usually described as a dissociative anesthetic.

DIVIDED ATTENTION

Concentrating on more than one thing at a time. The four psychophysical tests used by DRTs require the suspect to divide attention.

DRUG

Any substance, which when taken into the human body, can impair the ability of the person to operate a vehicle safely.

EFFERENT NERVES

See: "Motor Nerves".

ENDOCRINE SYSTEM

The set of body glands and other tissues that produce hormones.

EXPERT (Witness)

A person skilled in some art, trade, science or profession, having knowledge of matters not within knowledge of persons of average education, learning and experience, may assist a jury in arriving at a verdict by expressing an opinion on a state of facts shown by the evidence and based upon his or her special knowledge. (NOTE: Only the court can determine whether a witness is qualified to testify as an expert.)

FLASHBACK

A vivid recollection of a portion of an hallucinogenic experience. Essentially, it is a very intense daydream. There are three types: (1) emotional -- feelings of panic, fear, etc.; (2) somatic -- altered body sensations, tremors, dizziness, etc.; and (3) perceptual -- distortions of vision, hearing, smell, etc.

HALLUCINATION

A sensory experience of something that does not exist outside the mind, e.g., seeing, hearing, smelling, or feeling something that isn't really there. Also, having a distorted sensory perception, so that things appear differently than they are.

HALLUCINOGENS

One of the seven drug categories. Hallucinogens include LSD, MDMA, peyote, psilocybin, and numerous other drugs.

HASHISH

A form of cannabis produced by boiling, compressing and drying the leaves of the female marijuana plant. Hashish has a higher concentration of THC (tetrahydrocannabinol) than does the marijuana from which it is produced.

HASH OIL

A liquid extracted from hashish, and containing a relatively high concentration of THC.

HEROIN

A powerful and widely-abused narcotic analgesic that is chemically derived from morphine. The chemical, or generic name of heroin is "diacetyl morphine".

HIPPUS

A rhythmic pulsating of the pupils of the eyes, as they dilate and constrict within fixed limits. This condition is sometimes reported in persons suffering from withdrawal from narcotic analgesics.

HOMEOSTASIS

The dynamic balance, or steady state, involving levels of salts, water, sugars, and other materials in the body's fluids.

HORIZONTAL GAZE NYSTAGMUS

A side-to-side jerking of the eyeball that occurs as the eye is turned toward the side.

HORMONES

Chemicals, produced by the body's endocrine system, that exert great influence on the growth and development of the individual, and that aid in the regulation of numerous body processes.

HYDROXY THC

A metabolite of THC (tetrahydrocannabinol).

HYPERTENSION

Abnormally high blood pressure. Do not confuse this with hypotension.

HYPOTENSION

Abnormally low blood pressure. Do not confuse this with hypertension.

ICE

A crystalline form of methamphetamine that produces a very intense and fairly long-lasting "high".

INHALANTS

One of the seven drug categories. The inhalants include volatile solvents (such as glue and gasoline), aerosols (such as hair spray and insecticides) and anesthetic gases (such as nitrous oxide).

INSUFFLATION

See "snorting".

INTEGUMENTARY SYSTEM

The skin and accessory structures, hair and nails. Functions include protection, maintenance of body temperature, excretion of waste, and sensory perceptions.

INTRA-OCULAR

"Within the eyeball".

KOROTKOFF SOUNDS

A series of distinct sounds produced by blood passing through an artery, as the external pressure on the artery drops from the systolic value to the diastolic value.

LACK OF CONVERGENCE

The inability of a person's eyes to converge, or "cross" as the person attempts to focus on a stimulus as it is pushed slowly toward the bridge of his or her nose.

MARIJUANA

The most common form of the cannabis category.

MARTNOT.

A drug containing a synthetic form of THC (tetrahydrocannabinol). Marinol belongs to the cannabis category of drugs, but marinol is not produced from any species of cannabis plant.

METABOLISM

The process by which the body, using oxygen, enzymes and other internal chemicals, breaks down ingested substances such as food and drugs so they may be consumed and eliminated.

METABOLITE

A chemical break-down product, formed by the reaction of a drug with oxygen and/or other substances in the body.

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MIOSIS

Abnormally constricted pupils.

MOTOR NERVES

Nerves that carry messages away from the brain, to be body's muscles, tissues, and organs. Motor nerves are also known as efferent nerves.

MYDRIASIS

Abnormally dilated pupils.

NARCOTIC ANALGESICS

One of the seven drug categories. Narcotic analgesics include opium, the natural alkaloids of opium (such as morphine, codeine, and thebaine), the derivatives of opium (such as heroin, dilaudid, metopon, percodan and hycodan), and the synthetic narcotics (such as demerol and numorphan).

NERVE

A cord-like fiber that carries messages to or from the brain. For drug evaluation and classification purposes, a nerve can be pictured as a series of "wire-like" segments, with small spaces or gaps between the segments.

NEURON

A nerve cell. The basic functional unit of a nerve.

NEUROTRANSMITTERS

Chemicals that pass from the axon of one nerve cell to the dendrite of the next cell, and that carry messages across the gap between the two nerve cells.

NULL EFFECT

One mechanism of polydrug interaction. For a particular indicator of impairment, two drugs produce a null effect if <u>neither</u> of them affects that indicator. For example, PCP does not affect pupil size, and alcohol does not affect pupil size. The combination of PCP and alcohol produces a null effect on pupil size.

NYSTAGMUS

An involuntary jerking of the eyeball.

"ON THE NOD"

A state of deep relaxation, induced by impairment due to heroin or other narcotic analgesic. The suspect's eyelids droop, and chin rests on the chest. Suspect may appear to be asleep, but can be easily aroused and will respond to questions.

OVERLAPPING EFFECT

One mechanism of polydrug interaction. For a particular indicator of impairment, two drugs produce an overlapping effect if one of them affects the indicator but the other doesn't. For example, cocaine dilates pupils while alcohol doesn't affect pupil size. The combination of cocaine and alcohol produces an overlapping effect on pupil size: the combination will cause the pupils to dilate.

PARANOIA

Mental disorder characterized by systematized delusions and the projection of personal conflicts, that are ascribed to the supposed hostility of others.

PARAPHERNALIA

Drug paraphernalia are the various kinds of tools and other equipment used to store, transport or ingest a drug. Hypodermic needles, small pipes, bent spoons, etc., are examples of drug paraphernalia. The singular form of the word is "paraphernalium". For example, one hypodermic needle would be called a "drug paraphernalium".

PARASYMPATHETIC NERVE

An autonomic nerve that commands the body to relax and to carry out tranquil activities. The brain uses parasympathetic nerves to send "at ease" commands to the muscles, tissues, and organs.

PARASYMPATHOMIMETIC DRUGS

Drugs that mimic neurotransmitters associated with the parasympathetic nerves. These drugs artificially cause the transmission of messages that produce lower blood pressure, drowsiness, etc.

PDR (Physician's Desk Reference)

A basic reference source for drug recognition technicians. The PDR provides detailed information on the physical appearance and psychoactive effects of all licitly-manufactured drugs.

PHENCYCLIDINE

A contraction of <u>PHENYL CYCLOHEXYL PIPERIDINE</u>, or PCP. Phencyclidine is the name of one of the seven drug categories, and is also the name of the major drug in that category.

PHENYL CYCLOHEXYL PIPERIDINE (PCP)

- One of the seven drug categories, often called "phencyclidine".
- 2. A specific drug belonging to the phencyclidine category.

PHYSIOLOGY

The study of healthy living organisms and the changes that occur during activity.

PILOERECTION

Literally, "hair standing up", or goose bumps. This condition of the skin is often observed in persons who are under the influence of LSD.

PSYCHEDELIC

A mental state characterized by a profound sense of intensified sensory perception sometimes accompanied by hallucinations.

PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS

Methods of investigating the mental (psycho-) and physical characteristics of a person suspected of alcohol or drug impairment. Most psychophysical tests employ the concept of divided attention to assess a suspect's impairment.

PSYCHOTOGENETIC

Literally, "creating psychosis" or "giving birth to insanity". A drug is considered to be psychotogenetic if persons who are under the influence of the drug become insane, and remain so after the drug wears off.

PSYCHOTOMIMETIC

Literally, "mimicking psychosis" or "impersonating insanity". A drug is considered to be psychotomimetic if persons who are under the influence of the drug look and act insane while they are under the influence.

PTOSIS

Droopy eyelids.

PULSE

The expansion and relaxation of the walls of an artery, caused by the surging flow of blood.

PULSE RATE

The number of expansions of an artery per minute.

REBOUND DILATION

A phenomenon that reportedly is sometimes observed when direct light is shined into the eye. The pupil may be seen to pulsate in size, growing steadily larger on the expansion fluctuations.

RESTING NYSTAGMUS

A special case of horizontal gaze nystagmus, in which the eyeball can be observed jerking side-to-side while the eye is looking straight ahead.

RESUME

A written summary of a person's education, training, experience, noteworthy achievements and other relevant information about a particular topic. (Pronounced 'rez-ew-may".)

SCLERA

A dense white fibrous membrane that, with the cornea, forms the external covering of the eyeball (i.e., the white part of the eye).

SENSORY NERVES

Nerves that carry messages to the brain, from the various parts of the body, including notably the sense organs(eyes, ears, etc.). Sensory nerves are also known as afferent nerves.

SINSEMILLA

The unpollinated female cannabis plant, having a relatively high concentration of THC.

SFST

Standardized field sobriety test. There are three SFSTs, namely horizontal gaze nystagmus (HGN), walk and turn, and one leg stand. Based on a series of controlled laboratory studies, scientifically validated clues of alcohol impairment have been identified for each of these three tests. They are the only field sobriety tests for which validated clues have been identified.

SNORTING

One method of ingesting certain drugs. Snorting requires that the drug be in powdered form. The user rapidly draws the drug up into the nostril, usually via a paper or glass tube. Snorting is also known as insufflation.

SPHYGMOMANOMETER

A medical instrument used to apply measured amounts of external pressure to an artery.

STETHOSCOPE

A medical instrument used, for drug evaluation and classification purposes, to listen to the sounds produced by blood passing through an artery.

SYMPATHETIC NERVE

An autonomic nerve that commands the body to react in response to excitement, stress, fear, etc. The brain uses sympathetic nerves to send "wake up calls" and "fire alarms" to the muscles, tissues and organs.

SYMPATHOMIMETIC DRUGS

Drugs that mimic the neurotransmitters associated with the sympathetic nerves. These drugs artificially cause the transmission of messages that produce elevated blood pressure, dilated pupils, etc.

SYNAPSE (or Synaptic Gap)

The gap or space between two neurons (nerve cells).

SYNESTHESIA

A sensory perception disorder, in which an input via one sense is perceived by the brain as an input via another sense. Example: each time a person hears a telephone ring, he or she "sees" a flash of blue light. Synesthesia sometimes occurs with persons under the influence of hallucinogens.

SYSTOLIC

The highest value of blood pressure. The blood pressure reaches its systolic value when the heart is fully contracted, and blood is sent surging into the arteries.

TACHYCARDIA

Abnormally rapid heart rate; pulse rate above the normal range.

THC (Tetrahydrocannabinol)

The principal psychoactive ingredient in drugs belonging to the cannabis category.

TOLERANCE

An adjustment of the drug user's body and brain to the repeated presence of the drug. As tolerance develops, the user will experience diminishing psychoactive effects from the same dose of the drug. As a result, the user typically will steadily increase the dose he or she takes, in an effort to achieve the same psychoactive effect.

TRACKS

Scar tissue usually produced by repeated injection of drugs, via hypodermic needle, along a segment of a vein.

VERTICAL NYSTAGMUS

An up-and-down jerking of the eyeball that occurs as the eyes are elevated.

VOIR DIRE

A french expression literally meaning "to see, to say". Loosely, this would be rendered in English as "To seek the truth", or "to call it as you see it". In a law or court context, one application of voir dire is to question a witness to assess his or her qualifications to be considered an expert in some matter pending before the court.

VOLUNTARY NERVE

A motor nerve that carries messages to a muscle that we consciously control.

WITHDRAWAL

This occurs in someone who is physically addicted to a drug when he or she is deprived of the drug. If the craving is sufficiently intense, the person may become extremely agitated, and even physically ill. Withdrawal from heroin is reported to be an especially unpleasant experience.

SESSION II DRUGS IN SOCIETY AND IN VEHICLE OPERATION

SESSION II DRUGS IN SOCIETY AND IN VEHICLE OPERATION

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Define the term "drug" in the context of this course.
- o Name the seven major categories of drugs that are relevant to the Drug Evaluation and Classification Process.
- o State in approximate, quantitative terms the incidence of drug use among various segments of the American public.
- o State in approximate, quantitative terms the incidence of drug involvement in motor vehicle crashes and other driving incidents.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section.

A. Definitions and Categories of Drugs

The word "drug" means many things to many people. The word is used in a number of different ways, by different people, to convey some very different ideas.



Some Examples

As a police officer, would you agree that all of the things that <u>you</u> consider to be "drugs" have "medicinal value"? Can you think of any substances that people abuse illegally that would <u>not</u> be used as medicines?

(2) From Webster's, again. "A drug is a narcotic substance or preparation."

Webster's further defines a "narcotic" as (among other things) "something that soothes, relieves or lulls". Would you agree that all "drugs" are narcotics? Can you think of any "drugs" that definitely do not soothe their users?

(3) From Random House's College
Dictionary, 1982.

"A drug is a chemical substance administered to a person or animal to prevent or cure disease or otherwise to enhance physical or mental welfare."

This definition would appear to exclude any "drug" that is harmful in any way. Can you think of any "drugs" that have no value in treating disease or enhancing welfare?

(4) From Random House, again. "A drug is a habit-forming medicinal substance, especially a narcotic."

From your experience, do you think that all "drugs" are habit-forming? Can you think of any that are not?

From a law enforcement perspective, none of these "dictionary definitions" seems completely suitable. Each of them appears to exclude some substances whose users represent threats to society and violators of its laws. Each definition also seems to include some substances that, ordinarily, would not call for any enforcement action.

For purposes of this training, a simple, enforcement-oriented definition is needed:

A drug is any substance, which, when taken into the human body, can impair the ability of the person to operate a vehicle safely.

This definition is adapted from the California Vehicle Code, Section 312, and reflects the traffic-safety orientation of this training program.

It is worth noting that this simple, enforcement-oriented definition excludes many substances that physicians and others would consider "drugs". For example, nicotine (cigarettes) and acetyl salicylic acid (aspirin) would not be considered "drugs" for purposes of this training. Similarly, this definition includes as "drugs" many substances that physicians wouldn't ordinarily think of when they hear the word. Model airplane glue, for example, is a "drug" for purposes of this training.

Under this simple definition, there are seven broad categories of drugs.

Central Nervous System Depressants

Examples
Alcohol
Barbiturates
Anti-Anxiety Tranquilizers



Central Nervous System Stimulants

Examples Cocaine Amphetamines

Hallucinogens

Examples LSD Psilocybin Peyote

Phencyclidine (PCP)

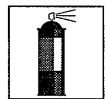
This category consists of the drug, PCP, and its various analogs or "chemical cousins".

Narcotic Analgesics

Examples
Heroin
Codeine
Demerol

Inhalants

Examples
Glue
Gasoline
Aerosols



Cannabis

This category includes the various forms and products of <u>Cannabis</u> plants (e.g., marijuana, hashish, etc.)



Each category produces a different set of effects on the human mind and body. Each category exhibits different signs of drug influence, signs which come to light in the Drug Evaluation and Classification examinations. Each category also includes drugs that are widely abused.

B. Incidence and Characteristics of Drug Use in America

Estimates of the number of American drug users vary widely and are difficult to pinpoint with any accuracy. It is known that one drug, alcohol, is (at least occasionally) used by (at least) a majority of adults in this country. Despite the fact that almost all of the alcohol consumed in this country is legally manufactured -- and taxed -- under fairly close governmental scrutiny, experts disagree as to how many people abuse alcohol, how much they consume, how frequently, etc. Knowledge of consumption patterns of other drugs is even less exact, since these drugs often are produced and sold illegally.

Nevertheless, virtually all experts agree that <u>millions</u> of Americans use drugs other than alcohol. The National Institute on Drug Abuse estimated (in 1988) that more than 20 million Americans have used cocaine, and also estimated (in 1985) that 29 million Americans are regular users of marijuana. In an article published in February, 1989, the <u>Washington Post</u> indicated that several million Americans appear to use amphetamines; that same article reported an alarming increase in the use of Methamphetamine, or "Crank" in recent months. Federally-sponsored surveys during the late 1970's and early 1980's put the estimated number of Hallucinogen users at one million; however, due to the recent upsurge in popularity of LSD, especially among high school students, that figure probably is outdated. The number of Narcotic addicts is estimated to be one-half million.

Certain prescription drugs evidently are widely used. As reported in the <u>Washington Post</u> (Tuesday, February 17, 1987) there were <u>sixty-one million</u> prescriptions for Valium, Librium and similar central nervous system depressants written in the United States during 1985.

One fact that is abundantly clear is that many drug users <u>don't</u> stick with only one substance, but instead routinely ingest more than one drug category at a time. This behavior is called "polydrug" use (the prefix "poly" derives from the Greek word for "many"). Some very commonly-abused combinations of drugs include:

- o <u>Alcohol and virtually any other drug</u>
 (for example, out of 173 drivers arrested by LAPD on suspicion of being under the influence of drugs, 81 -- or 47% -- had consumed alcohol <u>and</u> some other drug).
- o <u>Marijuana and PCP</u>
 (A very common way of ingesting PCP is to sprinkle it on a marijuana cigarette and smoke it. The user then automatically ingests both PCP <u>and</u> Cannabis.)
- o <u>Cocaine and Heroin</u>
 (This combination has its own "street name": it is commonly called a "speedball".)
- o Heroin and Amphetamine
 (This combination sometimes is called a "poor man's
 speedball".)
- o Heroin and PCP
 (Sometimes called a "fireball".)
- o "Crack" Cocaine and PCP
 (Sometimes called "space base".)
- o "Crack" cocaine and marijuana (Sometimes called "primo".)
- o "Crack" and Methamphetamine
 (Sometimes called "croak".)

The practice of polydrug use is so common that a drug recognition technician should expect to encounter <u>many</u> suspects who are under the influence of more than one category of drugs. Indeed, at some times and places, <u>polydrug</u> use may be more common than <u>single</u> drug use.

Drug use remains particularly common among teenagers and young adults. In its 1988 National High School Senior Survey, the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) found that one-third of the seniors in the class of '88 had smoked marijuana during their senior year. The <u>USA Today</u> reported (on September 17, 1987) that 70% of high school coaches believe that drug use among their athletes is a serious problem. In 1987, NIDA reported that about 30% of college seniors have tried cocaine.

C. Incidence of Drug-Impaired Driving

Accurate data on the frequency with which people drive while under the influence of drugs are very hard to come by. First of all, many impaired drivers are never detected. Secondly, since many drug users also drink alcohol, when they <u>are</u> stopped for impaired driving they may be arrested (and tabulated in statistics) as <u>alcohol</u>-impaired drivers only. Thirdly, when they are involved in crashes, they may not be tested chemically for drugs other than alcohol.

Nevertheless, some limited studies have been conducted that suggest that drug-impaired driving is a problem of significant proportions.

- (1) A North Carolina study of 600 drivers killed in single-vehicle crashes during 1978-81 showed that 14% had drugs other than alcohol in them at the time of the crash. These drugs included marijuana; barbiturates and methaqualone (central nervous system depressants); cocaine and amphetamines (central nervous system stimulants); PCP; and, opiates (narcotic analgesics). It is especially noteworthy that most of the fatally-injured drug-using drivers in this study also had consumed alcohol. In fact, 10% of all of these fatally-injured drivers had blood alcohol concentrations of 0.10% or higher and also had drugs other than alcohol in them.
- (2) A study was conducted in California of young (15-34 years old) male drivers killed in crashes during 1982 and 1983. This study covered 440 such drivers. More than half (51%) were found to have some drug or drugs other than alcohol in them. The most prevalent drug other than alcohol was cannabis, which was found in 37% of these young dead drivers. Nearly one-third of these 440 dead drivers (30%) had alcohol and cannabis in them.
- (3) In what is probably the most comprehensive study of this kind conducted to date, the University of Tennessee Medical Center analyzed the urine samples of crash-injured drivers for a broad spectrum of drugs, and found that forty percent had evidence of drugs other than alcohol.

Topics for Study

- 1. What does the term "drug" mean, as it is used in this course?
- 2. What are the seven categories of drugs? To which category does alcohol belong? To which category does cocaine belong?
- 3. What does "polydrug use" mean?
- 4. What is a "speedball"? What is "Space Base"?
- 5. What percentage of crash-injured drivers had drugs in their urine, in the University of Tennessee study?
- 6. According to NIDA, what proportion of high school seniors smoke marijuana during their senior year?

SESSION III

DEVELOPMENT AND EFFECTIVENESS OF THE DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROCESS

SESSION III DEVELOPMENT AND EFFECTIVENESS OF THE DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROCESS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o State the origin and evolution of the drug evaluation and classification program.
- O Describe research and demonstration project results that validate the effectiveness of the program.
- o State the impact of legal precedents established by case law.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section.

A. Origin and Evolution of the Program

The Drug Evaluation and Classification Program was developed by personnel of the Los Angeles Police Department. The initial impetus for the program stemmed from the frequent encounters, by experienced traffic enforcement officers, with drivers who were clearly impaired but whose blood alcohol concentrations were very low or zero. The logical suspicion was that these drivers were under the influence of drugs other than alcohol. But obtaining convincing evidence to back up that suspicion was not easy. Occasionally, officers succeeded in having physicians examine their low-BAC suspects, sometimes resulting in a medical diagnosis of drug influence. But medical personnel typically received little or no training in the recognition of specific signs of drug impairment, particularly at street-level doses; therefore, they often were unable or reluctant to offer a judgment about a suspect's condition. As a result, many drivers who almost certainly were under the influence were not prosecuted or convicted.

Two sergeants were instrumental in organizing a program to help police officers develop the skills needed to perform their own assessments of drug-impaired drivers. One was <u>Dick Studdard</u>, a traffic officer, the other was <u>Len Leeds</u>, a narcotics officer. They undertook independent research by consulting with physicians, enrolling in relevant courses, studying text books and technical articles, etc. And, they secured management-level support within LAPD to continue and to accelerate the research and development effort. With the assistance of many others, Sergeants Studdard and Leeds ultimately succeeded in developing a drug recognition program based on a three-step process:

STEP ONE

Verify that the suspect is impaired, and verify that the suspect's blood alcohol concentration is not consistent with the degree of impairment that is evident.

STEP TWO

Determine whether the impairment is drug-related or medically-related (i.e., injury or illness).

STEP THREE

Use proven diagnostic procedures to determine the category (or combination of categories) of drugs that is the likely cause of the impairment.

In 1979, the Drug Recognition program received the official recognition of the LAPD.

Persons unfamiliar with drugs sometimes wonder why it is necessary to use an elaborate set of diagnostic procedures to point toward the likely category of drugs. At first glance, it might seem that the easily-observable inconsistency between the suspect's impairment and his or her BAC would be sufficient. In other words, if the suspect is obviously impaired, and if the alcohol level in the suspect's blood is not enough to account for that impairment, why not simply obtain a blood sample and analyze it for drugs? For several reasons, this simplistic approach would not work.

- The request for the blood sample should be based on (at least) the strongest articulable evidence of drugs that is available. The mere inconsistency between BAC and observable impairment might not be deemed (by courts, or by motor vehicle licensing agencies) as sufficient to justify the subsequent chemical test. For example, it could be argued that the suspect is ill or injured, or is simply very susceptible to the effects of even low doses of alcohol. It is preferable if the officer who initiates the chemical test for drugs can articulate a credible basis for believing that those drugs are present.
- o The suspect may simply refuse to submit to the blood test. Although that action might put the suspect's driver's license in jeopardy of suspension or revocation, it also will deny the prosecution access to the scientific evidence of drug involvement. Conviction or acquittal in such a case may hinge on the officer's ability to submit detailed and convincing testimony concerning the



- and convincing testimony concerning the signs pointing toward a specific category or categories of drugs.
- o Chemical tests of blood or urine usually disclose only whether or not a particular drug was recently used. The chemical test cannot be relied upon to determine whether the drug was psychoactive in the suspect at that time (i.e., whether the suspect was "under the influence" of the drug, within the meaning of the law). The DRE is needed to establish the fact that the drug was indeed causing impairment.
- o Analysis of blood (or urine) samples for "drugs" can be very expensive, and may require a large volume of the blood. Practical constraints require that the officer requesting the chemical analysis be able to point the laboratory technician toward the type of drugs most likely to be found in the sample.

- of there is always the possibility that a person suspected of drug impairment is actually suffering from an illness or injury requiring medical attention. If the suspect's blood simply is drawn for subsequent analysis, and he or she is not examined by someone qualified to recognize the presence or absence of symptoms of drug impairment, the medical problem may not be discovered until it is too late. Drug recognition experts take justifiable pride in the numerous instances where they have secured prompt medical care for persons initially suspected of drug abuse.
- B. Evidence of Program Effectiveness

Proof of the effectiveness of the drug evaluation and classification program began to be accumulated from the very outset of the program: LAPD personnel demonstrated that they could conduct examinations that led directly to the conviction of drug-impaired drivers and other drug-law violators. And, they demonstrated that they could train others to conduct these examinations successfully.

Scientific evidence that the examinations provide accurate indicators of drug categories began to be accumulated in the early 1980's. The National Highway Traffic Safety Administration sponsored a controlled, laboratory evaluation of the LAPD drug recognition procedures. The evaluation was conducted by researchers from Johns Hopkins University, assisted by senior drug recognition experts from LAPD. The researchers recruited volunteers who agreed to consume a variety of drugs, and other substances, under the researchers' supervision. During each experimental session, each volunteer swallowed a "pill" and smoked a "cigarette". Subsequently, each volunteer was examined, independently, by four LAPD DREs.

The "pills" given to volunteers contained one of the following:

- o a placebo (i.e., no drug at all)
- o secobarbital (a Central Nervous System Depressant)
- o valium (i.e., diazepam -- another Central Nervous System Depressant)
- o desoxyn (i.e., methamphetamine sulfate -- a Central Nervous System Stimulant)

The "cigarette" contained marijuana or a placebo (i.e., no drug) marijuana that either actually contained THC or from which the THC had been removed (i.e., a placebo).

No <u>combinations</u> of drug categories were administered to any volunteer on any session. That is, if a volunteer received a marijuana cigarette, then that volunteer received a placebo pill. If the volunteer received a "loaded" pill (i.e., with a drug), then his or her cigarette was a placebo. <u>Some</u> volunteers, on some sessions, received no drug at all; i.e., both the "pill" and the "cigarette" were placebos.

Two different dose levels of marijuana, diazepam and methamphetamine sulfate were used. That is, some of the marijuana cigarettes were "weak", some were "strong". Similarly, some of the diazepam and methamphetamine sulfate pills were "weak", some "strong". All of the secobarbital pills were "strong". Note, however, that even the "strong" dose levels were a good deal weaker than the drugs typically abused by impaired drivers encountered by police officers.

A most important condition of this laboratory experiment is that neither the volunteers nor the LAPD officers knew what drugs the volunteers had received. Also, the DRE's were not allowed to "compare notes" concerning their examinations of the suspects. Each DRE conducted his or her examinations in a separate room, and each had to reach an independent judgment as to what category (if any) of drug was present.

The DREs' performance in the laboratory experiment was excellent. They correctly classified 95% of the placebo-only subjects as "not impaired". Conversely, they correctly classified 98.7% of the subjects who received "strong" drug doses as "impaired". And, they correctly identified the <u>category</u> of drugs for 91.7% of those "strong"-dose subjects.

The DREs were less successful in identifying the volunteers who received "weak" drug doses. For example, they classified as "impaired" only about one-third of the subjects who received "weak" marijuana cigarettes, and only about one-sixth of those who received "weak" methamphetamine sulfate pills. However, it is unlikely that those "weak"-dose subjects would have been stopped by officers, if they actually had been driving.

NHTSA followed up the laboratory experiment by sponsoring a Field Validation Study, in Los Angeles. Arrangements were made to have an independent laboratory analyze blood samples drawn from persons actually arrested on suspicion of drug-impaired driving. Any suspect who was involved in a crash was excluded from the study, since injuries could have confounded the drug examination. Similarly, any suspect who refused to submit to the blood test was excluded, since there would have been no way to substantiate or refute the DRE's conclusions.

Ultimately, 173 suspected drug-impaired drivers were included in the Field Validation Study. Each was examined by an LAPD DRE, and subsequently provided a blood sample for analysis by the independent laboratory.

A number of important facts emerged from this field validation study:

1. When a trained drug recognition expert concludes that a suspect is under the influence of drugs, chances are very good indeed that the suspect actually has drugs in his or her body. Only one of the 173 suspects was found to have no alcohol or other drug. Only ten others were found to have

alcohol only. Thus, 93.6% of the suspects were confirmed to have drugs other than alcohol in their bodies.

- Polydrug use is very common. Only 27% of the suspects had consumed exactly one drug. This includes the 10 suspects who had alcohol only. But 72% were found to have two or more drug categories in their system. Among the more common combinations were the following:
 - o Alcohol and PCP (23 suspects)
 - o Alcohol and Cannabis (19 subjects)
 - o Alcohol and PCP and Cannabis (18 subjects)
 - o Cannabis and PCP (20 subjects)
- 3. The independent blood analyses confirmed the DREs' opinions in most cases. Overall, for more than nine out of ten suspects (92.5%), the blood test confirmed the presence of at least one drug category "predicted" by the DREs.
- 4. Confirmation rates varied among the categories, as follows:

<u>Category</u>	Percent Confirmed by Blood
PCP	92%
Narcotic Analgesics	85%
Cannabis	78%
Depressants (other than alcoho	ol) 50%
Stimulants	33%

5. The relatively low confirmation rates for Depressants and Stimulants may have been due to limitations in the laboratory rather than because of misjudgments by the DREs. For example, the laboratory analyzed the blood only for the subcategories of Depressants known as the Barbiturates and the Benzodiazepines; there are many Depressant drugs that do not belong to those two groupings. In addition, the blood samples were not frozen prior to their shipment to the laboratory. Unfortunately, cocaine continues to metabolize in unfrozen blood samples. Therefore, it is possible that, in some samples obtained from Stimulant abusers, the cocaine simply disappeared before the samples were analyzed.

Since the initiation of the Drug Evaluation and Classification Program in Phoenix late in 1987, the Arizona Department of Public Safety's Central Regional Crime Laboratory has maintained records of the toxicologic analyses corresponding to DREs' opinions. Based on 526 cases reported by December, 1990 an overall laboratory confirmation rate of 86.5% had been achieved.

The overall conclusion of both the Laboratory and Field Studies is that the Drug Evaluation and Classification Program is a worthwhile tool for enforcement of drug-impaired driving. The tool is not 100% accurate, especially in a climate of polydrug use. However, it will furnish reliable evidence of the link between a particular suspect and a particular category of drugs in much more than a majority of cases.

C. Case Law Review

The Drug Recognition Expert Program is receiving increasingly favorable attention in court. During 1991, courts in Arizona and New York held that Drug Evaluation and Classification procedures meet the FRYE standards for evidence to corroborate, or attack, the issues of a suspect's impairment. The Frye standard is that set by the U.S. Supreme Court to govern the admissibility of "new" scientific evidence. In effect, the Arizona and New York courts took judicial notice of the Drug Recognition Expert Program, so that it is no longer necessary -- within the jurisdictions of those specific courts -- to introduce expert scientific testimony to secure the admissibility of the results of a drug influence examination.

The applicable courts are (1) the Municipal Court of the City of Tucson, County of Pima, State of Arizona (acting in "State of Arizona vs. Dayton Johnson and Samuel Rodriguez, et al.", numbers 90056865 and 90035883); and, (2) the District Court of Suffolk County, New York (acting in "The People of the State of New York vs. Mary Quinn", Docket Number 3130122). Note that in neither Arizona nor New York does the ruling apply State-wide. However, hopes are



high that, via the appellate process, the two States' Supreme Courts ultimately will uphold the lower courts' rulings, so that Statewide judicial notice of DRE procedures will be secured. Similarly, it is reasonable to expect that other States will follow Arizona's and New York's lead.

One key element of the drug influence examination -- namely, horizontal gaze nystagmus -- has been found to meet the Frye standard by several State Supreme Courts. The first case that led to State-wide judicial notice of HGN is commonly known as "State vs. Blake" (718 P.2d 171; Arizona, 1986). See also "State vs, Superior Court of County of Cochise, 149 Ariz 269, 718 P.2d 171, 60 ALR 4th, 1103). In this landmark ruling, the Arizona Supreme Court also set standards governing the training of officers who would be qualified to testify about HGN. The court also explicitly ruled that HGN cannot be used to establish BAC quantitatively in the absence of a chemical test.

TO SUMMARIZE:

The prevailing trend in court is to accept HGN as evidence of impairment, provided the proper scientific foundation is laid. However, courts consistently reject any attempt to derive a quantitative estimate of BAC from nystagmus. Keep in mind that neither nystagmus nor any other elements of the drug recognition examination are intended to substitute for chemical testing. It is true that there is an approximate, statistical relationship between BAC and angle of onset, but this approximate relationship is not sufficiently reliable to permit BAC "prediction" in any individual case.

HGN COURT DECISIONS

Other court decisions -- both favorable and unfavorable -- concerning HGN as a field sobriety test are discussed below.

PEOPLE vs. LOOMIS (California, 1984) 156 Cal. App. 3d 1, 203 Cal. Rptr. 767 (Cal. Super. 1984)

The arresting officer attempted to testify to his opinion concerning the suspect's BAC, in quantitative terms, based solely on the angle of onset of HGN. The suspect had refused to submit to a chemical test. The court held that the officer was not entitled to testify as either a lay or expert witness about HGN, or to give his opinion about the defendant's BAC. The court held that HGN is a new form of scientific evidence, that will be allowed only when there is a preliminary showing of its general acceptance in the scientific community. Moreover, it was clear from the officer's testimony that he had not been formally or properly trained in HGN, and didn't really understand how the test is to be given.

STATE vs. DAVIDSON (Maryland, 1985) Circuit Court for Montgomery County, Criminal No. 36521, April 25, 1985.

The court held that it is permissible to use HGN as a field test solely to establish probable cause for arrest. However, the court concluded that HGN does not possess the degree of reliability or acceptance in the scientific community to permit its use as substantive evidence of guilt. The court also held that HGN cannot be used, over the defense's objection, as evidence of the defendant's BAC.

People vs. Colorado (Colorado, 1986) County Court, County of Boulder, Case No. 85T10439

The court denied a defense motion to suppress HGN evidence, and ruled that the officer could testify to the results of all field sobriety tests, including HGN. In this case, the officer made no attempt to relate HGN to a quantitative estimate of BAC.

STATE vs. REED (Oregon, 1986) 732 P.2d 66 (Or. App. 1987)

The prosecution sought to have the appellate court take judicial notice of HGN, but the court refused. The court held that the prosecution did not offer sufficient expert testimony and evidence to establish the scientific reliability of HGN.

STATE vs. RICHARDS (New Hampshire, 1987)
Merimack, SS, Superior Court 85-5-391, September 16, 1987)

The Superior Court held that HGN meets the <u>Frye</u> standards for admissibility of scientific evidence. However, the court found that HGN is <u>not</u> admissible as a quantitative indicator of BAC.

<u>STATE vs. BARKER</u> (West Virginia, 1988) 366 S.E.2d 642 (W.Va. 1988)

The prosecution attempted to introduce HGN as evidence of a specific BAC. The court ruled that it was not admissible. The court did not explicitly rule on the basic admissibility of HGN as evidence of impairment; however, the court stated that, if evidence of HGN's scientific reliability were introduced, the test probably would be admitted as evidence that the defendant was under the influence.

STATE vs. CLARK (Montana, 1988)
762 P.2d 853 (Montana, 1988)

The court ruled that HGN results may be admitted at trial. This ruling was not based on the <u>Frye</u> standards, but on more "liberal" rules of evidence: the court held that all scientific evidence should be admitted unless it is "exaggerated popular opinion". In this case, no attempt was made to infer a quantitative estimate of BAC from the angle of onset.

MIDDLETON vs. STATE (Arkansas, 1989) 780 S.W.2d 581 (Ark.App. 1989)

The court held that the results of an HGN test could not be admitted into evidence at a DWI trial to prove a specific BAC level. In addition, the court held that the police officer's "testimony was insufficient to establish that gaze nystagmus testing is reliable and generally accepted in the scientific community".

ROSS vs. STATE (Georgia, 1989) 386 S.E.2d 721 (Ga.App. 1989)

The court held that the results of an HGN test could be admitted into evidence at a DWI trial as part of the "series of observations" made by a police officer to determine if a driver was under the influence of alcohol. There was no mention in the case of using the results of the HGN test to prove a specific BAC level.

<u>STATE vs. WHEELER</u> (Missouri, 1989) 764 N.W.2d 523 (Mo.App. 1989)

The HGN test could not be admitted into evidence at a DWI trial, since the State did not present a sufficient foundation for the court to determine the scientific reliability of the test.

<u>UNITED STATES vs. VAN GRIFFIN</u> (U.S. 9th Circuit Court, 1989) 874 F.2d 634 (9th Cir. 1989)

In this case involving DWI on Federal park lands, the court held that HGN test results could be admitted into evidence, as part of the results of a series of tests performed on the driver to determine if he or she was under the influence of alcohol. The issue of whether the HGN test could be used to establish a specific BAC level was not addressed in the case.

STATE vs. GRIER (Alaska, 1990) 791 P.2d 627 (Alaska App. 1990)

Court of appeals held that HGN test could be used alone to determine if there is probable cause to make a DWI arrest where there was other evidence of intoxication (e.g., bloodshot eyes) even if the defendant passed four (4) other field sobriety tests. However, court made it clear that HGN test results were not to be admitted into evidence at a DWI trial to "corroborate" a chemical test for intoxication.

STATE vs. ARMSTRONG (Louisiana, 1990) 561 So.2d 883 (La.App. 2 Cir. 1990)

Court held that the "HGN test meets the standards of admissibility in <u>Frye</u> and, with a proper foundation, may be admitted as evidence of intoxication." The court did not directly address the issue of whether HGN test results could be admitted into evidence to establish a specific BAC level.

STATE vs. MURPHY (Iowa, 1990) 451 N.W.2d 154 (Iowa, 1990)

The results of an HGN test could be admitted into evidence at a DWI trial to prove the intoxication of a driver. Note: HGN test results were not used to determine a specific BAC level. The court considered HGN to be one of the standard field sobriety tests law enforcement officers administer to persons suspected of DWI. The officer in the case was properly trained to administer the HGN test and other field sobriety tests. The court felt that the officer did not have to qualify as an expert witness because the observations of intoxication obtained from the HGN test were objective in nature.

STATE vs. BRESSON (Ohio, 1990)
554 N.E.2d 1330 (Ohio 1990)

This State Supreme Court ruling reversed the 1988 finding of the Ohio 10th Appellate District court, that had refused to admit HGN evidence in the <u>Bresson</u> case. The Supreme Court held that HGN test results could be used (1) to establish probable cause of a DWI arrest, and (2) as evidence at a DWI trial to prove that a person was driving a motor vehicle while under the influence of alcohol. However, the court also held that HGN could not be used to prove a specific BAC level.

SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS AND RESEARCH REPORTS ADDRESSING NYSTAGMUS

- 1. Anderson, Schweitz & Snyder, Field Evaluation of Behavioral Test Battery for DWI, U.S. Dept. of Transportation Rep. No. DOT-HS-806-475 (1983) (field evaluation of the field sobriety test battery (HGN, one leg stand, and walk and turn) conducted by police officers from four jurisdictions indicated that the battery was approximately 80% effective in determining BAC above and below .10 percent).
- 2. Aschan, <u>Different Types of Alcohol Nystagmus</u>, 140 ACTA OTOLARYNGOL SUPP. 69 (Sweden 1958) ("From a medico-legal viewpoint, <u>simultaneous</u> recording of AGN (Alcohol Gaze Nystagmus) and PAN (positional alcoholic nystagmus) should be of value, since it will show in which phase the patient's blood alcohol curve is...").
- 3. Aschan & Bergstedt, <u>Positional Alcoholic Nystaqmus in Man</u>
 <u>Following Repeated Alcohol Doses</u>, 80 ACTA OTOLARYNGOL SUPP. 330
 (Sweden 1975) (abstract available on DIALOG, file 173: Embase 1975-79) (degree of intoxication influences both PAN I and PAN II).
- 4. Aschan, Bergstedt, Goldberg & Laurell, <u>Positional Nystagmus in Man During and After Alcohol Intoxication</u>, 17 Q.J. OF STUD. ON ALCOHOL, Sept. 1956, at 381. Study distinguishing two types of alcohol-induced nystagmus, PAN (positional alcoholic nystagmus) I and PAN II, found intensity of PAN I, with onset about one-half hour after alcohol ingestion, was proportional to amount of alcohol taken.
- 5. Baloh, Sharma, Moskowitz & Griffith, Effect of Alcohol and Marijuana on Eye Movements, 50 AVIAT. SPACE ENVIRON. MED., Jan 1979, at 18 (abstract available on DIALOG, file 153: Medline 1979-79) (smooth pursuit eye movement effects of alcohol overshadowed those of marijuana).
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- 7. Burnes & Moskowitz, <u>Psychophysical Tests for DWI Arrest</u>, U.S. Dept. of Transportation Rep. No. DOT-HS-802-424 (1977) (recommended the three-test battery developed by SCRI (one leg stand, walk and turn, and HGN) to aid officers in discriminating BAC level).

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Topics for Study

- 1. State four reasons why it is important <u>not</u> to rely simply on a chemical test to establish a suspect's drug impairment.
- 2. What categories of drugs were included in the Johns Hopkins Laboratory Evaluation?
- 3. In what percentage of cases in the Los Angeles field validation study did blood tests confirm the DREs' opinion that <u>PCP</u> was present?
- 4. What percentage of suspects were found to be polydrug users in the Field Validation Study?
- 5. What was the landmark State Supreme Court case that upheld the use of HGN as evidence of impairment?
- 6. What do we call the standards for admissibility of scientific evidence, set by the U.S. Supreme Court?
- 7. In which two States were Drug Evaluation and Classification procedures first found to meet those standards of scientific evidence?

SESSION IV

OVERVIEW OF DRUG RECOGNITION EXPERT PROCEDURES

HS 172 R4/93

SESSION IV OVERVIEW OF DRUG RECOGNITION EXPERT PROCEDURES

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- O Name the components of the drug evaluation and classification process.
- o State the purposes of each component.
- o Describe the activities performed during each component.
- O Correctly answer the "Topics for Study" questions at the end of this session.

A. Components of the Drug Recognition Expert Procedure.

The Drug Recognition Expert Procedure is a systematic, standardized method of examining a suspect to determine:

- (1) Whether the suspect is impaired; and if so,
- (2) Whether the impairment relates to drugs or a medical condition; and if drugs,
- (3) The category or combination of categories of drugs that is the likely cause of the impairment.

It is a <u>systematic</u> process because it is based on a <u>complete set</u> of observable signs and symptoms that are known to be reliable indicators of drug impairment. A drug recognition expert never reaches a conclusion based on any <u>one</u> element of the examination, but instead on the <u>totality</u> of facts that emerge. These facts are obtained from careful observations of the suspect's:

- o appearance
- o behavior
- o performance of psychophysical tests
- o eyes
- o vital signs
- o etc.

The process is <u>standardized</u> in that it is conducted in exactly the same way, by every drug recognition expert, for every suspect. A drug recognition expert never leaves out any step in the examination, even if it is not expected to provide a positive indicator of the type of drugs that the expert may suspect. The expert also never modifies the examination by including some unproven "indicators" that he or she thinks <u>may</u> be helpful.

Standardization is very important, because it helps to:

- avoid errors of omission or commission
- o promote professionalism among drug recognition experts
- o secure acceptance in court

The Drug Recognition Expert Procedure can be broken down into twelve major components. The checklist on the next page lists the twelve components in the sequence in which they must be performed. Always follow the checklist when conducting an examination.

NATIONAL HIGHWAY TRAFFIC SAFETY ADMINISTRATION DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROGRAM

DRUG INFLUENCE REPORT CHECKLIST

	1.	Breath alcohol test
	2.	Interview of arresting officer (Note: Gloves must be worn from this point on.)
	3.	Preliminary examination and first pulse
	4.	Eye examinations
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	5.	Divided attention tests:
		Romberg balance
		Walk and turn
		One leg stand
		Finger to nose
	6.	Vital signs and second pulse
	7.	Dark room examinations and ingestion examination
	8.	Check for muscle tone
	9.	Check for injection sites and third pulse
	10.	Interrogation, statements, and other observations
	11.	Opinion of evaluator
	12.	Toxicological examination

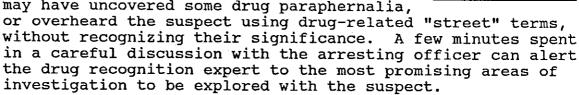
1. The <u>Breath Alcohol Test</u>, to determine the suspect's blood alcohol concentration (BAC).

By obtaining an accurate and immediate measurement of BAC, the drug recognition expert can determine whether alcohol may be contributing to the suspect's observable impairment, and whether the concentration of alcohol is sufficient to be the sole cause of that impairment.

It is always possible that a person suspected of being under the influence of drugs other than alcohol may actually have consumed only alcohol. However, it is also very common to find that a suspect has consumed alcohol and other drugs.

The <u>Interview of the Arresting Officer</u>, to take advantage of the things that he or she may have seen or heard during earlier contact with the suspect.

Most arresting officers are not as knowledgeable about drugs as are drug recognition experts. The arresting officers may have uncovered some drug paraphernalia,



3. The <u>Preliminary Examination</u>, which is a structured series of questions, specific observations and simple tests that provides the first opportunity to examine the suspect closely and directly.

One major purpose of the preliminary examination is to determine if the suspect may be suffering from an injury or some other condition not necessarily related to drugs. Another major purpose is to begin systematically assessing the suspect's appearance, behavior, etc. for signs of possible drug influence.

4. The <u>Examinations of the Eyes</u>, which include horizontal gaze nystagmus, vertical nystagmus and a check for lack of convergence.

Certain categories of drugs induce nystagmus, an involuntary jerking that may occur as the eyes gaze to the side or as they are elevated. The presence of nystagmus, and the point at which it becomes observable, can shed light on the possible presence of those drugs and the extent to which they may be affecting the suspect. The inability of the eyes to converge toward the bridge of the nose also gives evidence of the possible presence of certain types of drugs.

5. The <u>Divided Attention Psychophysical Tests</u>, which include the Romberg Balance; the Walk and Turn; One Leg Stand; and, the Finger to Nose.

The suspect's performance of these tests produces articulable evidence of his or her psychophysical impairment. The specific errors of omission or commission may point toward the categories of drugs that are behind that impairment.

6. The <u>Vital Signs Examinations</u>, which include systematic checks of the suspect's blood pressure; pulse rate; and, temperature.

Certain categories of drugs may elevate blood pressure, pulse rate and raise the body temperature. Other drugs would have precisely the opposite effects. Vital signs examinations thus provide much valuable evidence of the presence and influence of a variety of drugs.

7. The <u>Dark Room Examinations</u>, which include systematic checks of the size of the pupils of the suspect's eyes; the reaction of the pupils to light; and, evidence of ingestion of drugs by nose or mouth.

Certain categories of drugs affect the eyes, and especially the pupils, in predictable ways. By examining the eyes under carefully controlled lighting conditions, important evidence of those drugs may be obtained.

8. Examination for Muscle Tone

Certain categories of drugs will cause the muscles to become hypertense, and thus very rigid. Some other categories may cause the muscles to become very loose and flaccid.

Begin with the left bicep then move towards the left wrist to determine if the muscle is flaccid, normal or rigid.

9. <u>Examination for Injection Sites</u>, e.g., via hypodermic needles.

Certain users of certain categories of drugs routinely or occasionally ingest their drugs via injection. Evidence of needle use (scars, "tracks", etc.) may be found on veins along the neck, arms, legs, etc.

10. Suspect's Statements and Other Observations.

Based on the nine previous components of the drug examination, the drug recognition expert should have formed at least an articulable suspicion as to the category or categories of drugs that may be present. The expert then can proceed, in full conformance with the suspect's

Constitutional rights, to attempt to interview the suspect concerning the drug or drugs involved.

11. Opinions of the Evaluator

Based on all of the evidence and observations obtained during the preceding ten steps, the drug recognition expert should be able to reach an informed conclusion concerning:

- o Whether the suspect is under the influence of a drug or drugs; and if so,
- o The category or combination of categories of drugs that is the probable cause of the suspect's impairment.

These conclusions should be documented, along with a narrative capsule summary of the observed facts that led to the conclusions.

- 12. The <u>Toxicological Examination</u>, which is a chemical test or tests that can provide scientific, admissible evidence to substantiate the drug recognition expert's conclusions.
- B. General Guidelines for Interviewing the Arresting Officer

In most cases, the people you examine on suspicion of drug impairment will not be people whom you arrested. Some other officer usually will have had the first contact with the suspect, and will have made the arrest. The charge or charges of arrest may vary widely, and may or may not involve a traffic-related offense. In any event, the situation usually will be that the arresting officer (or someone else) recognizes that the suspect may be impaired, has some reason to believe that drugs other than alcohol may be contributing to the impairment, and summons you to conduct an examination of the suspect.

In a particular case, the arresting officer may happen to be quite knowledgeable about drugs and may have some very well-informed suspicions as to what types of drugs the suspect may be using. In another case, the arresting officer may not have the slightest idea as to the kinds of drugs that may be involved. But in all cases there is the possibility that the arresting officer may have seen, or heard, or smelled or uncovered something that could be a significant clue of drug influence to a trained drug recognition expert. A few minutes spent in a careful, systematic interview of the arresting officer may supply the DRE with some very important insights as to the categories of drugs most likely to be found in the particular case at hand.

The key concept here is that the interview be <u>systematic</u>. The DRE shouldn't simply ask the arresting officer an open-ended question such as "What do we have here?" The arresting officer may not be sufficiently knowledgeable about drugs to recognize what is relevant, and what is not. Instead, the DRE should inquire in a logical sequence as to the suspect's behavior, statements and any physical evidence that may have been uncovered.

Inquiries concerning the suspect's behavior

- (1) Was the suspect operating a vehicle?

 (This may help to establish whether the implied consent law applies to this particular case, and also serve to identify whether potential traffic law violations may be relevant.)
- (2) What vehicle/operator actions, maneuvers, etc. were observed? (This may disclose evidence of impaired divided attention ability, relaxed inhibitions, etc.)
- (3) Was there a collision?
 (This can indicate whether the suspect may have suffered injuries that could confound the drug examination.)
- (4) Was the suspect observed smoking, drinking or eating?
 (All of these are common means of ingesting various drugs.)
- (5) Was the suspect apparently inhaling any substance? (Another common method of ingesting certain drugs.)
- (6) How did the suspect respond to the arresting officer's command to stop? (Actions during the stopping sequence may also disclose indicators of impairment.)
- (7) Did the suspect attempt to conceal or throw away any items or materials? (Such materials may have been drugs or drug-related paraphernalia.)
- (8) What has been the suspect's attitude and demeanor during contact with the arresting officer? (This information can be very relevant to the DRE's own safety, and can also shed light on the kinds of impairment the suspect may be experiencing.)

Inquiries concerning the suspect's statements

(9) Has the suspect complained of an illness or injury? (An illness or injury could confound the drug examination, but could also suggest the effects of certain types of drugs.)

- (10) Has the suspect used any "street terms" or slang associated with drugs or drug paraphernalia?

 (Persons who use such terms are likely to be users of the drugs to which the terms relate.) NOTE: The arresting officer might not recognize "street terms" for what they are. It may be useful to follow up this question by asking the officer whether the suspect used any unusual or unfamiliar words or phrases.
- (11) How has the suspect responded to the arresting officer's questions? (Impairment may be evident, in a variety of ways, from the manner of the suspect's responses.)
- (12) Does the suspect's speech appear to be slurred, slow, rapid, thick, mumbled, incoherent, etc? (Various types of drugs may affect speech in various ways.)
- (13) What, specifically, has the suspect said to the arresting officer? (Numerous utterances may shed light on the kinds of drugrelated effects that the suspect is experiencing.)

Inquiries Concerning Physical Evidence

- (14) What items or materials were uncovered during the search of the suspect and/or vehicle? (Even seemingly innocuous or familiar items may be recognized by trained DREs as being associated with possible drug use.)
- (15) Were any smoking paraphernalia uncovered? (Even routine smoking items, such as commercially produced cigarettes, pipes, etc. may disclose evidence of drugs.)
- (16) Was there any injection related material?

 (For example, such material could include needles, syringes, leather straps or rubber tubes used as tourniquets to help expose veins, bent spoons or bottle caps used in heating and dissolving drugs, etc.)
- (17) Were there any balloons, plastic bags, small metal foil wrappings or any similar items? (These kinds of items frequently are used as drug containers.)
- (18) What was the suspect's blood alcohol concentration? (If an attempt to administer a breath test has not yet been made, the drug recognition expert should do so now.)

C. Overview of the Preliminary Examination.

The <u>preliminary examination</u> of the suspect consists of a series of questions; observations of the suspect's face, breath and speech; an initial series of checks of the suspect's eyes; and, the first of three checks of the suspect's pulse rate that will be made during the drug evaluation and classification process.

The <u>questions</u> are a set of formal inquiries about any injuries or medical problems from which the suspect may be suffering. Courts generally hold that these questions do not conflict with the suspect's Constitutional rights. However, you should be guided by your department's policy and procedure concerning the possible need to admonish the suspect of those rights prior to posing these questions. The questions include:

- o Are you sick or injured?
- o Do you have any physical defects?
- o Are you diabetic or epileptic?
- o Do you take insulin?
- o Are you under a doctor's or dentist's care?
- o Are you taking medication?

Answers to these questions may disclose circumstances that could impede or confound the subsequent steps in the drug examination. The suspect's answers, and the <u>manner</u> in which he or she answers, could also give evidence of the possible presence of certain types of drugs.

The observations of the suspect's face, breath and speech are straight forward. Make note, for example, if the face appears flushed or pale, and if the suspect appears to be perspiring. Any noteworthy odors of the breath should be recorded, such as the odor of alcoholic beverages; an odor of marijuana; or, a chemical odor, such as ether. If the suspect's speech is in any way distorted, this too should be recorded.

The initial checks of the suspect's eyes include some very important items. One of these is the estimation of the size of the suspect's pupils. This estimation is made by using an instrument called a pupillometer, which has a series of small dark circles of various diameters. The diameter is measured and indicated in millimeters (abbreviated "mm"). By holding the pupillometer alongside the suspect's eye, you can determine which circle is approximately the same size as the pupil. You must check both pupils.



If they are of unequal size, this may indicate that the suspect is suffering from a head injury, brain tumor or other condition that may require prompt medical attention. Also, pupil size can indicate the possible presence of various drugs. Certain categories of drugs, for example, cause the pupils to expand, or dilate. Other drugs may cause the pupils to constrict.

A second important check of the eyes is an assessment of the eyes' tracking ability. You should hold a pencil, penlight or similar object about 12 - 15 inches in front of the suspect's face, and move it smoothly to the suspects extreme left, and smoothly back to the extreme right, instructing the suspect to follow the motion with his/her eyes. Always make at least two complete passes in front of the suspects eyes. If the two eyes do not exhibit the same tracking ability, this too may indicate a possible head injury or medical problem.



While you are assessing the suspect's tracking ability, you can also perform a preliminary assessment of whether horizontal gaze nystagmus is present in the suspect's eyes. In particular, if the nystagmus or "jerking" is observed, an <u>initial estimation of the angle of onset</u> can be made. The approximate angle of onset <u>may</u> help to determine whether the suspect has consumed some drug other than alcohol.

Research has shown that, when an individual consumes alcohol and no other drug, there is a statistical relationship, or correlation, between the angle of onset of nystagmus and the individual's blood alcohol concentration. This statistical relationship can be expressed by the formula

BA = 50 - ANGLE or, ANGLE = 50 - BA

In this formula, "ANGLE" is the nystagmus onset angle, measured in degrees, and "BA" is the "blood alcohol", which is 100 times the \underline{BAC} . For example, if $\underline{BAC} = 0.10$ %, then "BA" = 10.

To illustrate how this formula is used, suppose you examine a suspect who is known to have a blood alcohol concentration of 0.05%. If alcohol is the <u>only</u> drug in that suspect's system, one would expect that the nystagmus onset angle would be <u>45 degrees</u>.

(from the formula, ANGLE = 50 - 5 = 45.)

But, suppose the suspect also has ingested some other drug that also causes nystagmus. For example, the suspect may have taken some central nervous system depressant other than alcohol; or may have used PCP or certain inhalants. Then, the nystagmus onset angle may occur much earlier than would be expected from the alcohol alone. For instance, if the suspect with the 0.05% BAC had also smoked some PCP, the onset of nystagmus might occur as early as 20 degrees.

Thus, if there is a significant disparity between the nystagmus onset angle, and what would be expected from the known BAC, the drug recognition expert should be alert to the possible presence of some other nystagmus causing drug.

The student is cautioned, however, not to attach too much importance to the nystagmus onset angle as an indicator of the presence of drugs other than alcohol. In the first place, not all drugs will induce nystagmus. Cannabis, for example, will not. Neither will narcotic analgesics, hallucinogens or central nervous system stimulants. Thus, a suspect could have consumed a small amount of alcohol, and smoked a large quantity of marijuana, and be very much impaired, but still exhibit a nystagmus onset angle that is consistent with a low BAC. In the second place, the relationship between BAC and onset angle is not really a precise, mathematical one, but rather is an approximate, statistical average. Human beings, and their eyes, do not all react to alcohol or other drugs in exactly the same way. The correlation between BAC and onset angle is susceptible to a great degree of individual variation. Thus, the average person, at 0.10% BAC, may exhibit a nystagmus onset angle of about 40 degrees. But individual humans, at the same BAC, could easily exhibit onsets of 35 degrees, or 45, or even wider variations.

The nystagmus onset angle is one clue to consider in assessing whether drugs other than alcohol may be present. But it certainly is not the only clue to consider, and it is far from being the most important.

One final thing to be examined in the initial checks of the suspect's eyes is the <u>condition of the eyelids</u>. Many drugs will cause the eyelids to droop, as the user exhibits a sleepy appearance. A drooping of one eyelid, but not the other, possibly signifies an injury or other medical problem. The medical, or technical, term for droopy eyelids is <u>Ptosis</u>.

The final element in the preliminary examination is the <u>first</u> check of the <u>suspect's pulse rate</u>. Pulse rate is one of the vital signs that serve as very reliable indicators of the possible presence of certain categories of drugs. Pulse rate can also be affected by anxiety, and it is common for an arrestee to experience anxiety while being examined by a police officer. Pulse rate is measured near the beginning of the drug evaluation and classification examination, again during the middle, and finally near the end to allow the suspect's anxiety to "settle down" before the last measurement.

D. Overview of the Examinations of the Eyes

The eye examinations consist of three tests, namely horizontal gaze nystagmus, vertical nystagmus and lack of convergence.



Horizontal gaze nystagmus (HGN) is the most complex of the three tests, although it is not difficult to administer or interpret. It consists of three separate checks, each of which is performed independently in each eye.

Check one: does the eyeball pursue, or track, smoothly?

Start with a stimulus (such as a pencil or penlight) held vertically in front of the suspect's face, and about 12 - 15 inches away from his or her nose. Keep the tip of the stimulus raised slightly higher than the sus-pect's eyes. Tell the suspect to keep the eyes focused on the tip of the stimulus, to hold the head steady, and to follow the movement of the stimulus with the eyes only. Move the stimulus smoothly to the suspect's extreme left, then smoothly all the way to his/her extreme right, then smoothly back to the extreme



left and then back to the extreme right. The stimulus should be moved at a speed that requires 2 seconds to bring it from the center all the way to the side. Two complete passes should be made in front of the eye: that is, from the center to left the side, back to the right side, back to the left side again, back to the right side, and finally back to the center.

While the eyeball is moving, the examiner should observe it closely for signs of a "lack of smooth pursuit". If a person is sober (i.e., free of alcohol or other drugs that induce nystagmus), the eyeball should glide smoothly in the socket, in much the same fashion that a windshield wiper slides smoothly across the windshield when it is raining steadily. But if the person is under the influence of alcohol or other nystagmus-inducing drugs, the eyeball usually will jerk noticeably as it moves, similar to a windshield wiper dragging across a dry windshield.



<u>Check two</u>: does the eyeball jerk distinctly when the eye is held at maximum deviation?

Again position the stimulus about 12 - 15 inches in front of the suspect's face, with the tip of the stimulus above eye level. Instruct the suspect to keep the head still and follow the stimulus with the eyes. Move the stimulus all the way to the left side, until the eyeball is turned to its maximum deviation. Hold the stimulus in that position for about four seconds, and carefully observe the eyeball. Then, repeat the process with the stimulus at the suspect's

extreme right side. Persons under the influence of alcohol or other nystagmus-inducing drugs usually will exhibit a distinct, pulsating, very pronounced jerking when the eyeball is at maximum deviation. In order to consider this clue as "present", you must observe a clear and unmistakable jerking. A slight, barely visible tremor does not constitute "distinct jerking".

Check three: what is the angle of onset of the jerking?



Again position the stimulus about 12 - 15 inches in front of the suspect, and slowly move the stimulus toward the left side. As you are moving the stimulus, observe the eyeball closely for the first sign of jerking. When you think that you first see the eyeball jerk, stop the stimulus and hold it steady. Verify that the eyeball is jerking: if it is not, start moving it toward the side again until you see the jerking start. Then, repeat the process for the suspect's right eye.

Once you have found the onset point, estimate the angle at which the eyeball is gazing. Remember that there is a statistical correlation that gives the approximate BAC value corresponding to a particular angle:

BA = 50 - Angle

Vertical Nystagmus is a very simple test to administer. Hold the stimulus horizontally in front of the suspect's eyes, and about 12 - 15 inches in front of the suspect's face. Instruct the suspect to focus on the center of the stimulus, and to keep the head steady. Raise the stimulus until the suspect's eyes are elevated as far as possible. Hold the eyes at that position for four seconds. If the eyes are observed to jerk noticeably, vertical nystagmus is "present".

It is also very easy to test for <u>lack of convergence</u>. Begin by holding the stimulus vertically in front of the subject's eyes, about 12 - 15 inches from the suspect's face. Instruct the suspect to focus on the tip and to keep the head still. Start moving the stimulus in a circle in front of the suspect's eyes, and observe the eyes to verify that the suspect is tracking the stimulus. Then, slowly push the tip of the stimulus in toward the bridge of the nose, holding the stimulus on the bridge of the suspects nose for approximately one (1) second then remove the stimulus from the suspects face, and observe the eyes. If one eye drifts away to the side instead of converging toward the bridge of the nose, lack of convergence is "present".

E. Review of the Divided Attention Psychophysical Tests

Four divided attention tests are administered to suspects during a drug evaluation and classification examination.

Romberg Balance

Tell the suspect to stand straight with the heels together and the arms at the sides, and to maintain that position while you give the instructions. Ask the suspect if he or she understands.

Tell the suspect that he or she will have to tilt the head back slightly (demonstrate this) and close the eyes (do not close your own eyes while demonstrating: maintain your personal safety). Tell the suspect that he or she is to stand perfectly straight in that position, and estimate when 30 seconds have elapsed. When the suspect believes that 30 seconds are over, he or she must open eyes, tilt head forward and say stop.

Ask the suspect if he or she understands.

Tell the suspect to start the test when you say start. Start timing the suspect, and make a note of how much time actually has elapsed when the suspect estimates that 30 seconds have passed. Also, make a note of the direction and degree of swaying that occurs when the suspect is performing the test.

Walk and Turn

Requires a straight line, long enough to allow a suspect to take 12-15 heel-to-toe steps.

Instruct the suspect to place the left foot on the line, then to place the right foot on the line with the heel of the right against the toes of the left. <u>Demonstrate</u> the proper stance to the suspect. Tell the suspect to keep the arms to the side and to remain standing in that position while you give the rest of the instructions. <u>EMPHASIZE THAT THE SUSPECT IS NOT TO START WALKING UNTIL YOU SAY TO DO SO.</u> Ask the suspect if he or she understands.

Give the following instructions, accompanied by clear demonstrations, as appropriate:

- o Take nine heel-to-toe steps along the line. (<u>Demonstrate</u> several heel-to-toe steps).
- o Keep arms at side at all times.
- o Watch your feet while walking and count your steps out loud.
- o When you have taken the 9th step, leave the front foot on the line, and turn around, using a series of small steps with the other foot. (<u>Demonstrate</u> a proper turn).
- o Take nine heel-to-toe steps back along the line.
- Once you start walking, do not stop until the test is completed.

Ask the suspect if he or she understands.

During the instructions stage of the Walk and Turn test, carefully observe the suspect to determine if the following actions occur:

- (1) Does the suspect break away from the heel-to-toe stance?
- (2) Does the suspect start walking too soon?

Make a note of how often these occur.

During the walking stage of the test, carefully observe the suspect and note:

- (3) Whether the suspect stops walking;
- (4) Steps off the line;
- (5) Fails to touch heel to toe;
- (6) Raises the arms from the side.

Make a note of how often these occur.

Also, watch the suspect closely to determine:

- (7) The number of steps the suspect takes, first up and then down the line. (Make a note if the suspect takes more or fewer than nine steps in either direction).
- (8) Whether the suspect turns improperly (i.e., in any fashion other than the way in which you explained and demonstrated the turn).

One Leg Stand

Tell the suspect to stand straight with the feet together and the arms at the side, and to maintain that position while you give the instructions. Ask the suspect if he or she understands.

Tell the suspect that he or she will have to raise the right foot, and hold it approximately 6 inches off the ground with the toes pointed forward so the foot is parallel to the ground. (Demonstrate the proper one-leg stance.) Tell the suspect to keep the arms at the side and to stare at the elevated foot. Tell the suspect to count out loud for 30 seconds, as follows "one-thousand-and-one, one-thousand-and-two, and so on, to one-thousand-and-thirty". (Demonstrate several seconds of counting.)

Tell the suspect not to put the foot down until the 30 seconds have elapsed.

Ask the suspect if he or she understands.

Tell the suspect to perform the test. After the suspect has completed the test, allow him or her to relax for about 10 seconds, then instruct the suspect to stand on the other foot and perform the test again.

While the suspect is performing the test, observe him or her carefully to determine if the following actions occur:

- (1) Does the suspect raise the arms?
- (2) Does the suspect sway?
- (3) Does the suspect hop?
- (4) Does the suspect put the foot down before the 30 seconds are up?

Make a note of how often each occurs.

Finger to Nose

Tell the suspect to stand straight with the feet together, the arms down at the sides, and the index fingers extended.

Demonstrate how to properly touch the tip of the finger to the tip of the nose and how to tilt their head back. (For officer safety, do not close your eyes.)

Ask the suspect if he/she understands.

Tell the suspect to close the eyes and tilt the head back.

Tell the suspect to bring the <u>tip</u> of the left-hand index finger up to the <u>tip</u> of the nose.

Then tell the suspect to touch the right-hand index finger to the nose.

Then the left-hand finger.

Then the right-hand finger.

Then the <u>right</u>, again.

Then the left.

Make a note of <u>exactly</u> where the tips of the fingers contact the suspect's nose or face.

F. Overview of the Vital Signs Examinations

The three vital signs examined during the drug evaluation and classification process are pulse rate; blood pressure; and, body temperature. They are covered in some detail in Session VII of this training program. For the present, some simple definitions are sufficient:

<u>Pulse rate</u> is the number of pulsations, or surges of blood, that occur in an artery in one minute. Each time the heart "beats" (or contracts) it sends a surge of blood through the arteries. These surges can easily be felt, if you place your finger tips over an artery and apply slight pressure. All you have to do to measure pulse rate is to feel the surges while looking at a wristwatch, and count the number of surges that occur in thirty seconds, then multiply by two.

Blood pressure is the force that the circulating blood exerts on the walls of the arteries. A person's blood pressure constantly changes, from instant to instant. When the heart contracts, and sends the blood surging through the arteries, the blood pressure reaches its highest value. That is called the systolic pressure. As the heart expands, the surge of blood slows, and the pressure drops.

When the heart is fully expanded, the blood pressure falls to its lowest level, which is called the <u>diastolic</u> pressure.

Then, the heart starts to contract and the pressure rises again. The blood pressure continuously rises and falls, cycling between the systolic and diastolic values, as the heart beats.

Measurement of blood pressure requires a special instrument called a <u>sphygmomanometer</u>. A stethoscope is also needed.



G. Overview of the Dark Room Examinations

The principal activity during the dark room examinations is the estimation of the size of the suspect's pupils. This is done using the pupillometer, in exactly the same fashion as described during the preliminary examinations. However, in this case, pupil size must be estimated under three different lighting conditions, which will be controlled by a pen light.

Estimation of pupil size under near-total darkness.

Cover the tip of the pen light completely with your thumb or index finger, so that only a red glow emerges through your skin and no white light shines out. Bring the pen light up toward the suspect's face until it is just possible to distinguish the pupil from the iris, or colored portion of the eye. Hold the pupillometer alongside the eye and identify the circle that is closest in size to the pupil. Always do this first for the left eye, and then for the right.

Estimation of pupil size under indirect light.

Hold the penlight near the side of the suspect's face, and point the light toward the suspect's nose. The light must shine across but not directly into the suspect's eye. Position the light so that a shadow of the eye is cast on the side of the subjects nose near the corner of the eye. Hold the pupillometer alongside the eye and identify the circle that is closest in size to the pupil. Always do this first for the left eye, and then for the right.

Estimation of pupil size under direct light.

Leave the tip of the pen light completely uncovered. Bring the pen light up along the side of the suspect's face, then shine the beam directly into the suspect's eye. Hold the pen light away from the face so that the beam just exactly fills the entire eye socket. Hold the pupillometer alongside the eye, and identify the circle that is closest in size to the pupil. Always do this first for the left eye, and then for the right.

While checking the pupil size under direct light, you must evaluate the pupil's reaction to light. If a person is not under the influence of any drug, his or her pupils should constrict within one second when the pen light's beam strikes the eye directly. But certain categories of drugs may cause the constriction to occur more slowly, or perhaps not to occur at all.

Two other activities conducted in the darkroom are the <u>examination of the nasal area</u> and the <u>examination of the oral cavity</u>. In both cases, you must look closely for signs of drug use, or even for traces of the drug or concealed quantities of the drug.

Tell the suspect to tilt the head back, and shine the pen light directly into the nostrils. Look for traces of drugs or other materials in the nasal passages, and look for redness, scarring or abrasions that might indicate repeated "snorting" of certain drugs.

Tell the suspect to open the mouth wide. Shine the pen light directly into the mouth. "Play" the beam around the inside of the mouth to illuminate all areas. Look for residual quantities of drugs and for unusual coloring of the inside surfaces of the mouth (e.g., green or reddish coloring). Look near the gums for small balloons, bags, tissue- or foil-wrappings, or other small containers of drugs. Tell the suspect to elevate his or her tongue, and look under the tongue for debris, etc.

Two important things should be kept in mind about the dark room examinations. First, a second officer should always accompany you and the suspect into the dark room, simply as a safety precaution. Second, after entering the dark room, no examination should begin for at least 90 seconds, to allow your eyes, and the suspect's to adjust to the darkness.

H. Examination of Muscle Tone

To begin the examination of the muscle tone start with the left bicep then move towards the left wrist to determine if the muscle is flaccid, normal or rigid. Then check the right arm in the same manner.

I. Examination for Injection Sites

Persons who frequently inject drugs often develop lengthy scars, called "tracks", from repeated injections into the same vein. Fresh injection sites often can be found at the end of a "track". Many times, a fresh injection site will not be easily visible to the naked eye. Therefore, a drug recognition expert should search for injection sites by touch, running the fingers along such places as the neck, forearms, wrists, back of hands, etc. NOTE: to avoid infection, the drug recognition expert must wear gloves during this portion of the examination. When a possible injection site is located, a ski light can be used to provide a magnified and illuminated visual inspection.

Hypodermic needles are sized according to gauge. The gauge of a needle is a measurement of its inside diameter. The gauge number represents how many needles of that size would be needed to equal one inch. For example, a 24 gauge needle has an inside diameter of 1/24th of an inch; a 10 gauge needle has an inside diameter of 1/10th of an inch. Therefore, the higher gauge, the smaller the diameter of the needle.

J. Obtaining a Toxicological Sample

The process of obtaining toxicological samples will vary depending upon individual state implied consent statutes. The laws of your state will dictate what samples can be taken, i.e. urine, blood, saliva and/or breath. The containers for these samples will also vary depending on the type of test used and the laboratory that will do the analysis. A department or agency policy should delineate how each sample should be taken. You will need to become familiar with and follow your department's policies and procedures governing toxicological sample collection, handling, shipment, etc. Consideration should be given to witnessing the sample being obtained, chain of custody for the evidence, preservation and the return of the analysis by the laboratory.

K. A Brief Overview of Toxicology

1. Introduction

The material in this Section is intended to provide the basic understanding of chemical testing for drugs that a DRE needs to have to appreciate fully the role of toxicology in this program. As far as possible, the information has been kept non-technical. It will not be covered in depth in class, but you are expected to be familiar with what is given in this manual.

2. Some Key Concepts

DEFINITION: Toxicology is the study of poisons and their effects on living organisms. For DRE purposes, the "poisons" in question are drugs, and in some cases the metabolites of drugs. A DRE Toxicologist analyzes physical specimens such as blood and urine for drugs and drug metabolites.

A metabolite, for DRE purposes, is a chemical substance derived from a drug, and that is formed by the action of the body upon that drug. It is important to be aware that some metabolites are themselves psychoactive. That is to say, some metabolites cause impairment: Therefore, a metabolite may also be a drug. It is also important to know that it may be the metabolite, and not the original or "parent" drug that is detected in the laboratory. In some instances, finding a particular metabolite allows the chemist to conclude with certainty that a specific drug was ingested, even though the methods and equipment available to the lab can't detect that drug itself. Finding the metabolite is good, scientific evidence that the drug was there.

3. Limitations of Toxicology

Toxicology has some important limitations. One limitation is that, with the exception of alcohol, toxicology cannot produce "per se" proof of drug impairment. That is, the chemist can't analyze the blood or urine and come up with a number that "proves" the person was or wasn't impaired. For alcohol alone, the chemist can do that, or at least come very close to doing it.

But alcohol is a special drug. Chemically speaking, the alcohol molecule is very simple compared to the molecules of other drugs. Alcohol's metabolites don't impair. Scientists have had many opportunities to study alcohol's effects under carefully controlled experimental conditions. And, the scientific community has a pretty clear understanding of how alcohol works on the body and These statements generally can't be made about other drugs. Drugs are metabolized in complex ways, and sometimes the metabolites are also drugs. Some drugs can be stored in the body's tissues, so that even after the drug has cleared from the blood, it's still in the body and brain, and still causing impairment. Apart from post-mortem studies of lethal levels, there haven't been routine opportunities to correlate drug concentrations with degrees of impairment. Ethical concerns limit our ability to study illegal drugs, especially at "street" dosages. And, it is difficult to replicate in the laboratory the drug combinations, methods of ingestion and drug purities characteristic of "street" use. Even if it were possible to study individual drug concentrations and their relationships to impairment in depth, the practice of poly-drug use and the myriad of different combinations seen on the street would make that information of little practical use. And finally, many laboratories simply don't perform quantitative analyses to determine the drug concentrations, but only determine qualitatively the presence of the drugs. The reasons for avoiding quantitative analysis include the facts that it is costly, time consuming, and may be beyond the capability of the equipment available to the lab. Also, if urine is the specimen preferred by or submitted to the lab, quantitative analysis is less important, because it doesn't lend itself to clear interpretation. In short, chemistry basically cannot supply the "magic number" of impairment for drugs.

Another limitation of toxicology is that it doesn't provide evidence of the <u>time</u> at which the drug was ingested. Therefore, the chemist won't be able to provide direct evidence of the suspect's condition at the time of arrest. In some instances, it is possible that a "positive" chemical test reflects drugs that the suspect took long before being arrested, and that were metabolized and no longer causing impairment prior to his or her arrest.

4. Toxicology's Roles in this Program

Exactly what are the roles that toxicology plays in this program? First and foremost, toxicology is the twelfth step in the drug influence evaluation. A DRE doesn't complete the evaluation until he or she either obtains a specimen from the suspect, or formally documents the fact that the suspect refused to submit to the toxicological test. And, it is important that the court be aware that toxicology is the <u>final</u> step of the evaluation. It follows the formation of the DRE's opinion; the opinion is <u>not</u> based on the results of the toxicological analysis. Similarly, the arrest, booking and charging of the suspect are not based on the toxicological analysis, and must be supported by other, solid evidence.

The DRE hopes -- and expects -- that toxicology will support or corroborate the opinion he or she has formed. And, a toxicological analysis supports the opinion by confirming the presence of a particular drug that is consistent with the DRE's opinion. The concentration at which the drug is present shouldn't be an issue. That's because it isn't possible to relate concentration to "impairment" with any degree of reliability.

DREs also need to understand that sometimes the toxicological analysis will <u>not</u> confirm the DRE's opinion. And the DRE needs to be honest enough to admit that, when that happens, it <u>may</u> be because his or her opinion is incorrect. The drug influence evaluation isn't an exact science. Drugs affect different people in different ways. In this program, we "never say never", and we "always avoid saying always".

But sometimes, the toxicology doesn't corroborate a DRE's opinion even though the opinion is correct. The lab's instruments, personnel and analytic methods are not infallible. There are certain drugs that a particular laboratory simply can't detect at all. And, there are others that can't be "seen" unless they are present at fairly high concentrations.

To corroborate DREs' opinions, toxicology performs two kinds of analyses: screening and confirmation. Screening tests are easier, cheaper and faster than are confirmatory tests. But, confirmatory tests are more detailed and more specific than are screening tests. In very loose terms, we can say that a positive screening test means "it looks like this sort of drug is there". A positive confirmatory test means "this particular drug is definitely there".

Confirmatory tests employ methods different from those of the screening tests. The confirmatory test is designed to provide absolute proof of a drug's presence -- or at least, as close to absolute as science can come. And, confirmatory tests usually are required if the case goes to trial. DREs should be aware that, to cut down on costs, some labs do not conduct the confirmatory tests unless the case is going to go to trial. If this is

the policy of your laboratory, you must provide the chemist with as much advanced notice of the trial date as possible, so he or she can perform the confirmatory analysis in a timely manner.

Suppose the screening test is positive, but the confirmatory test is <u>not</u> positive; what does that mean? Here again, DREs need to admit that it may mean that the drug isn't there. Some "screens" will react to substances other than psychoactive drugs. The screening tests are not absolutely indicative of drug presence; if they were, there would be no need for a confirmatory test.

But a failure to confirm a drug does <u>not</u> necessarily mean that the "screen" was inaccurate. Every analytic procedure has a "detection" threshold; that is the lowest quantity or concentration of the drug that the instrument can possibly detect. Above that is the "quantification" threshold; that is the lowest concentration that can be numerically determined by the instrument. Standard laboratory procedure calls for establishing a third level, called the "<u>cut-off</u>" level, which usually is set slightly **above** the "quantification" threshold. Typically, the laboratory's report for the confirmatory test will read "not detected" unless the drug is found at a concentration greater than or equal to the "cut-off" level. But in fact, the drug <u>could</u> be present, at a somewhat lower concentration.

Then why don't laboratories simply lower their "cut-off" levels, if they really want to support their DREs. The simple fact is that the laboratory needs to preserve its scientific validity. If it loses that, the testimony of its chemists will be worthless. There are definite limits to the accuracy of chemical equipment and procedures. If the cut-offs are set too low, "false positives" will result (i.e., reports of "drug found" when it isn't really there). The lab won't be able to defend its reports scientifically, so it won't be able to support the DREs at all. Still, it is important for DREs and State and agency DRE coordinators to consult with their toxicologists to try to reach agreement concerning optimum cut-offs, that do not compromise scientific integrity but at the same time provide adequate support to this program.

Fundamentally, then, toxicology's role in this program is corroborative. The observations of the arresting officer, and the observations, measurements and estimates of the DRE provide the best proof of the suspect's impairment. Toxicological analysis provides scientific corroboration that the suspect actually ingested a drug; in some cases, the analysis may also provide scientific support for the allegation that the suspect was impaired. And, toxicology also plays an important role in on-going studies to document the validity of this program, in monitoring the work of individual DREs and in assessing the progress students are making during their certification training.

5. Blood or Urine: Which is Better?

Blood and urine are the primary specimens available for analyses for drugs. If we have a choice, which should we pick?

The answer is, it depends. The laws of your State, the policies and procedures of your department, the particular condition of your suspect, the equipment and procedures available to your laboratory and -- possibly -- the drug categories you believe are causing the suspect's impairment will all have a bearing on the choice. There is no single perfect or "best" specimen. It is not possible to say that blood is better or that urine is better. Each has advantages and disadvantages.

Some advantages of blood:

- The presence of a drug in blood more reliably indicates recent use than does the presence of the drug in urine. Urine tests may produce "positive" results weeks after the drugs were used. This is much less likely to happen with blood tests. Thus a positive blood test is more contemporaneous with drug impairment.
- o Some drugs are easier to detect in blood than in urine.
- The extraction of a blood specimen usually occurs under a greater degree of supervision. When providing a urine specimen, a suspect may have an opportunity to dilute or contaminate the specimen, or even substitute some other fluid for it.
- Quantitative analysis of urine specimens provides information of essentially no value. Quantitative analysis of drugs in blood may help to corroborate impairment.

Some advantages of urine:

- O Urine is usually easier to obtain. Suspects often are more willing to supply urine, and medical personnel need not be present to extract it.
- o Urine analysis is less expensive than blood analysis.
- o Some drugs are easier to detect in urine than in blood.
- o Drug concentrations usually are higher -- and thus easier to detect -- in urine than in blood.
- o Some drugs clear very quickly from the blood. Thus, even a short delay between formation of the DRE's opinion and extraction of the blood sample may impede the laboratory's ability to corroborate the DRE. But drugs usually remain detectable in the urine for longer periods of time.

6. What DREs Can Do To Optimize Laboratory Corroboration

DREs can help the lab help them by following a few simple reporting procedures. First, make sure that you tell the lab what drug categories you believe are present when you send in the urine or blood specimen. Some labs want to get a copy of the complete DRE report along with the specimen; others don't. But all labs need to know the kinds of drugs that may be present, because that information can help the chemist determine if he or she needs to extend testing beyond the standard "menu" of screening procedures. And, make sure you tell the lab what drugs the suspect admitted taking, and also let them know what drugs you found in the suspect's possession.

Probably the most important advice for a DRE who wants maximum support from the lab is: talk to the chemists. Find out what kinds of specimens (blood, urine or whatever) they prefer to receive. This will vary from lab to lab, and possibly from case to case. Ask the chemists for instruction. Find out if they would like to receive a copy of your report along with the specimen. Make sure you understand what the <u>laboratory report</u> means. Establish a regular dialogue with the lab is essential for maintaining the support system this program demands.

Finally, DREs need to be aware of and sympathetic to the laboratory's limitations. DREs are not infallible, and neither are laboratories. All labs have "chemical blind spots", i.e., drugs for which no routine detection procedures or suitable instruments are available. Many labs, for example, find it very difficult to detect or confirm THC in blood specimens, or to find LSD in either urine or blood. In addition, most laboratories are not well equipped to screen for certain anti-psychotic drugs or for some of the narcotic analgesics. DREs need to know that these limitations are a fact of life. They should not be a cause for antagonism between the DRE and the lab.

Topics for Study

- 1. Give three important reasons for conducting drug evaluation and classification examinations in a <u>standardized</u> fashion.
- What are the <u>twelve major components</u> of the drug recognition expert process?
- 3. How many times is <u>pulse rate</u> measured during the drug evaluation and classification examination?
- 4. Are the diameters of a <u>pupillometer's</u> dark circles indicated in centimeters, millimeters or micrometers?
- 5. What <u>formula</u> expresses the approximate statistical relationship between blood alcohol concentration and nystagmus onset angle?
- 6. Which of the seven categories of drugs ordinarily do <u>not</u> induce nystagmus?
- 7. How many heel-to-toe steps is the suspect instructed to take, in each direction, on the Walk and Turn test?
- 8. What <u>period of time</u> is the suspect required to estimate during the Romberg Balance test?
- 9. What is <u>systolic</u> pressure?
- 10. What is the name of the instrument used to measure blood pressure?
- 11. Name the four validated clues of the One Leg Stand test.
- 12. Name the eight validated clues of the Walk and Turn test.
- 13. Suppose you have two hypodermic needles, one is 14 gauge, the other is 20 gauge. Which needle has the smaller inside diameter?

SESSION V

EYE EXAMINATIONS: NYSTAGMUS, CONVERGENCE PUPIL SIZE AND REACTION TO LIGHT

SESSION V EYE EXAMINATIONS: NYSTAGMUS, CONVERGENCE PUPIL SIZE AND REACTION TO LIGHT

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- O State the purposes of various eye examinations in the drug evaluation and classification process.
- o Describe the administrative procedures for the eye examinations.
- o Describe the clues of interest in each eye examination.
- O Conduct the eye examinations and note the cues that come to light.
- o Prepare complete, clear and accurate records of the eye examinations.

In this session, you will have an opportunity to observe demonstrations of the various eye examinations of the drug evaluation and classification process. And, you will have opportunities to practice administering those examinations.

The eye examinations include:

- Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus
- o Vertical Nystagmus
- o Lack of Convergence
- o Pupil Size Estimation
- o Pupil Reaction to Light

The following summarizes the results that <u>generally</u> can be expected when these eye examinations are administered to persons under the influence of the various categories of drugs.

	CNS Depressants	CNS Stimulants	Hallucinogens	РСР	Narcotic Analgesics	Inhalants	Cannabis
Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus	Present	None	None	Present	None	Present	None
Vertical Nystagmus	Present (High Dose)*	None	None	Present	None	Present (High Dose)*	None
Lack of Convergence	Present	None	None	Present	None	Present	Present
Pupil Size	Normal (1)	Dilated	Dilated	Normal	Constricted	Normal (3)	Dilated (4)
Reaction to Light	Slow	Slow	Normal (2)	Normal	Little or none visible	Slow	Normal

*High dose for that particular individual.

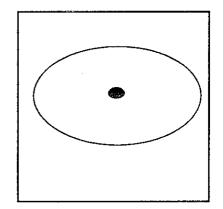
- SOMA, Quaaludes usually dilate pupils.
- Certain psychedelic amphetamines.
- 3. Normal but may be dilated.
- 4. Pupil size may be normal.

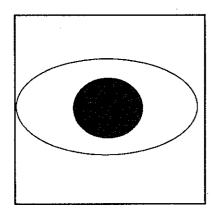
NOTE: The Normal Range of pupil size is 3.0 to 6.5 mm.

BEAR IN MIND that there is a great deal of difference among individual human beings and their individual reactions to drugs. The chart lists what we can expect to find when we examine suspects. But no one can guarantee that we will always find precisely these responses.

SOME KEY TECHNICAL TERMS REGARDING THE EYES

 $\underline{\text{Miosis}}$ means an abnormally small pupil, i.e., a pupil constricted below 3.0mm in diameter.





Mydriasis means an abnormally large or dilated pupil, i.e., a pupil more than 6.5mm in diameter.

Ptosis is the technical term for "droopy eyelids".



SESSION VI

PHYSIOLOGY AND DRUGS: AN OVERVIEW

SESSION VI PHYSIOLOGY AND DRUGS: AN OVERVIEW

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Explain in layman's terms the general concept of human physiology.
- o Explain in layman's terms the purpose and functions of major systems in the body (nervous system, circulatory system, respiratory system, etc.).
- o Explain in layman's terms how drugs work in the body.
- o Explain in general terms how the drug evaluation is used to detect signs or symptoms indicative of drug impairment.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section.

Physiology and Drugs: An Overview

The purpose of this session is to provide a brief overview of how the human body functions in a "normal" state and thus lay a foundation for comparison when drugs are introduced into the body. At best, students will acquire a general working knowledge and will by no means become a qualified medical specialist.

The Drug Recognition Expert can be compared to the operator of an evidential chemical test device...while it is beneficial to understand the general principles involved in the operation of the device, it is not necessary for each operator to be able to explain every detail of its operation. Rather, if the operator follows the operational instructions the device will produce accurate and reliable results. The same is true of the drug evaluation and classification procedure...if each DRE conducts the evaluation as instructed, and accurately records the test results and other observations, then the totality of information gathered during the evaluation will enable the DRE to predict the cause of impairment with a high degree of accuracy. The DRE's opinions of the cause of impairment will be limited to the seven categories of drugs, or some combination thereof, and/or a known or unknown medical or other condition that may produce similar signs or symptoms. It is not necessary to become a medical specialist or technician in human physiology. However, a general working knowledge of how the body functions is very helpful.

Physiology is the branch of biology dealing with the functions and vital processes of living organisms or their parts and organs. In this session, we will focus on the chief functions of the organ systems. This approach should provide a general overview of the intricate workings of the body and its larger parts.

A. Body Systems

Our simple concept of human physiology focus on ten major systems of the body. We can help remember their names by using the somewhat gruesome but easy-to-recall phrase "MURDERS, INC.". Each of those letters stands for the name of a body system:

M is for the Muscular System

U is for the Urinary System

R (the 1st R) is for the Respiratory System

D is for the Digestive System

E is for the Endocrine System

R (the 2nd R) is for the Reproductive System

S is for the Skeletal System

I is for the Integumentary System

N is for the Nervous System

C is for the Circulatory System

Webster's New World Dictionary, Second College Edition, 1980.

The last two (Nervous and Circulatory) are the most important systems to a DRE, but several of the others also come at least indirectly into play when we conduct a drug influence evaluation. Each of the ten systems is briefly discussed below.

<u>Muscular System</u>: The body has three kinds of muscles: (1) the <u>heart</u>; (2) the <u>smooth</u> muscles (which control involuntary movements); and, (3) the <u>striated</u> muscles (which control voluntary movements). The brain controls the operation of all these muscles through the nervous system.

<u>Urinary System</u>: The urinary apparatus consists of two kidneys connected by long tubes (urethras) to a storage device, the bladder, plus a third tube, the urethra, which leads from the bladder to the outside. Many of the waste products are filtered out of the blood as it passes through the kidneys and these wastes are then removed from the body in the urine.

Since drugs are removed from the blood in the kidneys and passed out of the body in the urine, the urinary system plays a key role in producing evidence of drug use.

Respiratory System: The chief organs of the respiratory system are the diaphragm and the lungs. The diaphragm is a muscular sheet that separates the thoracic cavity from the abdominal cavity, and draws fresh air into the lungs and forces used air out. The transfer of oxygen from the air to the blood and of carbon dioxide from the blood to the atmosphere occurs in the lungs. Oxygen must be supplied to all the body cells, and carbon dioxide must be removed from them in order for life to exist. The voice and, therefore all verbal communication is largely the responsibility of the respiratory system.

<u>Digestive System</u>: The digestive system consists chiefly of the tongue and teeth, esophagus (food tube), stomach, intestines, liver and pancreas. The digestive system is responsible for reducing large food particles to a size and chemical nature that can be absorbed (taken from the digestive system into the blood) and thereby utilized by the body cells for energy, growth and tissue repair.

The digestive system plays a key role in introducing drugs that are swallowed (pills, alcohol, etc.) into the blood. It also plays a role in determining onset of effects, depending upon the contents of the stomach and the type(s) of drug involved.

Endocrine System: The endocrine system consists of the thyroid, parathyroid, pituitary, and adrenal glands, plus portions of the pancreas, testes, and ovaries, in conjunction with certain other hormone-producing tissues. The endocrine system produces powerful chemical substances - hormones - that exert great influence on the growth and development of the individual, and aid the nervous system in the regulation of numerous body processes. The hormones released by the endocrine system travel through the bloodstream, and reach other tissues and organs that they help to control.

Reproductive System: The functions of the reproductive system fall into two categories: cell-producing (cytogenic) and hormone-producing (endocrinic). We are primarily concerned with hormone-production since the hormones produced by the reproductive system aid the nervous system in its regulatory role.

<u>Skeletal System</u>: The skeletal system consists of bones, cartilage and the ligaments that hold bones together. The skeletal system gives the body support and protection, permits movement, provides for muscle attachment, forms blood cells, stores minerals, and removes certain poisons from the blood.

While the drug evaluation does not directly examine the skeletal system, we must be aware that injuries or other conditions can affect performance of psychomotor tests.

<u>Integumentary System</u>: The integumentary systems consists of the skin and its accessory structure, hair and nails. The skin is well supplied with blood vessels, nerves, sweat and oil glands. The chief functions of the skin include protection of the body, helping to maintain a constant body temperature and water content, excretion of wastes and perception of changes in the environment (sensation).

The skin can provide several clues during the drug evaluation. For example, pale or flushed appearance, skin temperature, presence or absence of sweat, lack of sensation, etc.

Nervous System: The nervous system consists of the brain, spinal cord, and nerves, each of which is made up of nerve cells (neurons) and supporting tissues. The nervous system keeps the body apprised of changes in the environment by enabling sight, hearing, smell, taste and through sensations of temperature, touch, pressure and pain. The nervous system also enables reasoning, memory and emotions. It sends impulses that cause muscles to contract and glands to secrete, and it works with all body systems to integrate all physiological processes so that normal functions can be maintained. Much of the activity of the nervous system is reflex in character; that is, it is carried out below the level of consciousness.

<u>Circulatory System</u>: The circulatory system consists of the heart, blood vessels and blood. The heart pumps blood throughout the body, transporting food, water, hormones, antibodies, oxygen, carbon dioxide, and many other substances to or from the body cells as required. Body temperature regulation is a partial responsibility of the circulatory system, since warm blood is constantly moved throughout the body.

The circulatory system plays a key role in transporting drugs to the brain, where most of the drugs' effects are exerted. The circulatory system also transports the drugs to the liver and other organs, where the drugs are metabolized.

B. The Concept of Homeostasis

Homeostasis: The internal environment of the body consists of those fluids that bathe the body cells (intercellular or tissue fluid, blood and lymph). Many years ago it was discovered that although oxygen, foods, water and other substances are constantly leaving the body fluids to enter cells, and carbon dioxide and other wastes are constantly leaving cells and entering these fluids, the chemical composition of the fluids remains within remarkedly narrow limits. This phenomenon was given the name "homeostasis".

By definition, homeostasis is the dynamic balance or steady state involving levels of salts, water, sugars and other materials in the body fluids. Homeostasis is a dynamic, rather than a static (stationary) equilibrium because the composition of body fluids is in a state of flux. Within limits, no matter what we eat, how much or how little we exercise, or what daily stresses and strains the body is subjected to, it retains homeostatic equilibrium of the body fluids. The rhythm of the heart and that of breathing, the constancy of body temperature, and the steady level of blood pressure under specific circumstances or conditions are all manifestations of homeostatic mechanisms at work within the body.

Every organ system plays some role in the maintenance of homeostasis. The circulatory system keeps the body fluids well mixed; the respiratory system constantly brings in oxygen and eliminates carbon dioxide; the digestive system takes in food and water and eliminates solid wastes; the skin and kidneys eliminate watery wastes; the skeletal system forms blood cells; the nervous system integrates the functioning of the other systems; and so on.

When drugs are introduced into the body the resultant interactions can cause the body to speed up, to slow down, or to become confused. During the drug evaluation we examine bodily functions and attempt to determine the cause of the impairment that is observed.

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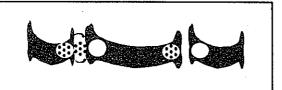
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C. A Simplified Concept of the Nervous System

The Nervous System is one of the body's major <u>control</u> mechanisms. The other major control mechanism is the endocrine system. The endocrine system uses "chemical messengers", called hormones, to control the various tissues and organs. The Nervous System uses a combination of electrical and chemical "messengers" to transmit its signals.

Nerves are sometimes depicted as <u>wires</u>, similar to telephone or telegraph wires, that carry electric signals from the brain to the muscles and from the eyes, ears, etc. back to the brain. That is not a very accurate representation, and it is not suitable for our purposes.

A better model is one that imagines that a nerve consists of a series of <u>broken wire segments</u>, where the segments are separated by short spaces, or gaps. In this model, each segment of "wire" is a nerve cell, also known as a **neuron**. The space between two cells is called a **synapse**, or synaptic gap.



We can imagine a message running along a "wire segment" in much the same manner that electrical signals travel along telephone lines. When the message reaches the end of a segment, it must somehow "jump across the synapse" to reach the next piece of

wire. Nerves use chemical messengers to jump the gap. When the signal reaches the end of the neuron, it triggers the release of a special chemical called a neurotransmitter. The neurotransmitter flows across the synapse and contacts the next neuron, where it is received. The reception of the chemical triggers an "electrical impulse" in that neuron, causing the signal to travel along the neuron until it reaches the next gap, where the release of the chemical is once again triggered. In this way, the signal moves along the entire nerve, in a series of electrical impulses and chemical transfers.

Neurons, or nerve cells, contain a number of different neurotransmitters, or chemical messengers. Each neurotransmitter carries a particular message.

The neuron has three main parts:

- o The cell body.
- o The Axon is the part of the neuron that sends out the neurotransmitter. The Axon is the "pitcher" of neurotransmitters.
- o The Dendrite is the part that receives the neurotransmitter. The Dendrite is the "catcher" of neurotransmitters.

Types of Nerves

Some nerves carry messages away from the brain, for example, commands from the brain to the heart, telling it to beat faster or more slowly; or, commands from the brain to the eyes, telling them to dilate or constrict the pupils; or, from the brain to the muscles in the arm, telling them to raise or lower the hand; or, many other commands of this type. These nerves that carry messages away from the brain are called the Motor Nerves, or the Efferent Nerves. If something interferes with the messages that the brain sends out along the Motor Nerves, the brain's control over the body's organs and muscles will be disturbed. As a result, the heart might beat faster than it should, the pupils might constrict when they shouldn't, the arms and legs might not move exactly as the brain intends.

Other nerves carry messages to the brain, for example, signals from the eyes, the ears, the body's pain sensors, the inner ear, etc. The brain decodes the signals that come to it along these nerves, and forms "pictures" of the outside world and of the body's internal condition. These nerves that carry messages to the brain are called the Sensory Nerves, or the Afferent Nerves. If something interferes with the messages that the brain receives through the Sensory Nerves, the brain's perception of what is happening to the body and to the outside world will be distorted. As a result, the brain might "smell an odor" when it ought to hear a sound, or might "see an object" that doesn't really exist, or might feel no pain despite a severe injury.

This, very basically, is how drugs work: they interfere with the messages that the brain transmits along the Motor (Efferent) Nerves, and they interfere with the messages that the brain receives along the Sensory (Afferent) Nerves.

The Motor Nerves divide into two subsystems:

- (1) One subsystem is made up of the **Voluntary Motor Nerves**; they carry messages from the brain to the <u>striated</u> muscles, i.e., the muscles that we consciously control. The Voluntary Motor nerves carry the commands that cause us to move our arms and legs, smile or frown, turn our heads, etc.
- (2) The other subsystem is made up of the Autonomic Motor Nerves; they carry messages from the brain to the heart and to the smooth muscles. The Autonomic Motor Nerves carry the commands that cause our pupils to dilate, our lungs to inhale and exhale, our heartbeat to slow, etc. In other words, the Autonomic Motor Nerves send commands to the muscles and organs we do not consciously control.

The Autonomic Motor Nerves are further divided into two groups, the **Sympathetic Nerves** and the **Parasympathetic Nerves**. The Sympathetic Nerves command the body's automatic responses in reaction to fear, stress, excitement, etc. Through the Sympathetic Nerves, the brain sends "wake up calls" and "fire

alarms" to the heart and the smooth muscles. The Sympathetic Nerves carry the messages that cause the pupils to dilate; the blood pressure and pulse rate to rise; the sweat glands to activate; the hair to stand on end; the blood vessels of the skin to constrict; etc. In short, the messages transmitted along the Sympathetic Nerves excite or stimulate the body. The Sympathetic Nerves act as the body's "gas pedal".

The Parasympathetic Nerves have exactly the opposite function. They carry messages that produce a relaxed state in the body, and that promote tranquil activities. The brain sends its "at ease" and "all clear" messages along the Parasympathetic Nerves. Those messages cause the pupils to constrict; heartbeat to slow; blood pressure to drop; peripheral blood vessels to dilate; digestion to proceed; etc. The Parasympathetic Nerves act as the body's "brake pedal".

Naturally, neurotransmitters, or chemical messengers, are involved in carrying signals along both the Sympathetic and Parasympathetic nerves. Some drugs <u>mimic</u> the action of certain neurotransmitters. When taken into the body, these drugs come into contact with dendrites (receptor ports) of nerves and cause messages to be transmitted along Sympathetic or Parasympathetic Nerves.

Drugs that mimic neurotransmitters that are associated with Sympathetic Nerves are called **sympathomimetic** drugs. They artificially cause the excitement and stimulation associated with the brain's natural "wake up calls". CNS Stimulants and Hallucinogens are considered to be sympathomimetic drugs;

Cannabis, PCP and the Inhalants have sympathomimetic characteristics, to some degree.

Drugs that mimic neurotransmitters associated with the Parasympathetic Nerves are called parasympathomimetic. They induce the transmission of messages that cause lowered blood pressure, drowsiness, muscle relaxation, etc; Narcotic Analgesics and CNS Depressants are considered to be parasympathomimetic.

The primary neurotransmitters in the brain are norepinephrine (noradrenaline), acetylcholine, dopamine, serotonin and gama amino butric acid (GABA)

D. A Simple View of the Heart and the Circulatory System

You have often heard that the heart is a <u>pump</u>, and that it works in pretty much the same way as an old-fashioned, hand-operated pump used to draw water from a well. That remains an accurate picture for our purposes.

The heart, of course, pumps blood. The heart has chambers that fill with blood. Then, the heart constricts strongly in response to signals received along the Autonomic Motor Nerves. That constriction sends the blood surging out of the heart. The blood surges out into a group of strong, elastic "tubes" called arteries. The arteries carry the blood away from the heart. The arteries divide into smaller and smaller branches, and finally into a network of tiny blood vessels called capillaries, which pervade the body's tissues and organs.

After the heart completes its strong contraction that sends the blood surging into the arteries, the heart begins to expand again. This expansion is also in response to signals received along Autonomic Motor Nerves. As the heart's chambers expand, blood pours into them. This returning blood is carried by another network of "tubes" called **veins**. The veins collect the blood seeping back from the tissues and organs, and carry it back to the heart.

One very special artery is connected to the right side of the heart. This is the Pulmonary Artery. This is the artery that the heart uses to send blood to the lungs. The blood that surges into the Pulmonary Artery has little or no oxygen in it. when the blood reaches the lungs it picks up a fresh supply of The newly-oxygenated blood then returns to the left side of the heart, via the four Pulmonary Veins. On the next contraction of the heart, the newly-oxygenated blood is sent surging into the network of arteries that connect to the left side of the heart; through those arteries the blood is carried to all other organs and tissues. The blood deposits its oxygen in the organs and tissues and then seeps back from those organs and tissues through a network of veins that connect to the right side of the heart. On the next contraction, this oxygen-depleted blood is sent surging into the Pulmonary Artery and over to the lungs, and the process continues.

Every time the heart contracts, blood rich in oxygen rushes out of the left side of the heart, into a network of arteries. At the same time, blood depleted of oxygen surges out of the right side of the heart, through the one special artery called the Pulmonary Artery. Every time the heart expands, blood that has just received a fresh supply of oxygen from the lungs pours back into the left side of the heart via the Pulmonary Veins. At the same time, blood that has given up its oxygen to the tissues and organs pours back into the right side via the many other veins.

The special nature of the Pulmonary Artery is now clear: it is the only artery that carries blood depleted of oxygen. All other arteries connect to the left side of the heart, and carry blood rich in oxygen. By the same token, the Pulmonary Veins are special, too. They are the only veins that carry oxygenated blood.

The normal heart beats regularly, and keeps on beating, and beating, and beating...never resting for more than a small fraction of a second. The rate of heartbeat is regulated by the Autonomic Motor Nerves. Sympathetic Nerve fibers insure that the heart beats fast enough to maintain circulation during any activity. Parasympathetic Nerve fibers send signals to slow the heart. This coordination of nerve signals insures that the heart beats neither too fast nor too slowly. And the coordination works, unless something...such as drugs...interferes with the signals.

E. How Drugs Work

In simple terms, drugs work by artificially introducing into the body chemicals that mimic the body's natural hormones and neurotransmitters. Therapeutic doses of legitimate prescriptive drugs and over-the-counter medications are designed to produce carefully controlled simulations of natural hormones or neurotransmitters, to make up for a deficiency in the body's natural supply. A common example of this is the first-thing-in-themorning cup of coffee that is a ritual for many people. When the alarm clock forces us to awake, against our will, our Parasympathetic Nerves are operating in high gear and we are flooded with hormones that induce sleep and relaxation. We use the stimulant caffeine to overcome the body's natural chemicals, so that we can get started on the day's work. An entirely different, but also common example, occurs when we find ourselves worried and anxious at the end of the day, because of problems on the job, at home or This is stress, and our brains react to stress by activating the Sympathetic Nerves: we're too "keyed up" to sleep. That is when many people reach for the glass of wine, or the Xanax or Valium tablet, to overcome the body's natural stimulation.

But we pay a price when we do these things. When we introduce these chemicals, we disrupt the body's natural balance. The body is going to react, because it must preserve homeostasis. And the body's reaction will try to alter its own supply of natural chemicals to accommodate the ones we have introduced.

One way in which the body may react to the presence of a drug is by producing hormones and neurotransmitters that tend to counteract the effects of the drug. For example, if a person snorts cocaine, his or her brain might react to the resulting stimulation by sending commands along the Parasympathetic Nerves to depress bodily functions, and by commanding the endocrine system to release hormones that also will produce depression. This can lead to an interesting situation: the drug may metabolize, i.e., react with oxygen and other chemicals in the body, and dissipate so that its effects no longer are present; but in the mean time, the brain has caused the body to be flooded with natural hormones and neurotransmitters designed to counteract the drug, and they may still be exerting their effects.

Cocaine, for example, metabolizes fairly quickly, so that its effects may disappear in a relatively short time. But the hormones and neurotransmitters that the brain dispatched to counteract the cocaine will probably still be around, and will still be trying to depress the body's systems. As a result, when the cocaine wears off, the user may look and act very much like someone who is under the influence of a CNS Depressant, just the opposite of how he or she looked and acted when under the influence of the cocaine.

We call this situation the downside of a drug. When a person is experiencing the downside, he or she is no longer under the active influence of the drug, because the drug has largely dissipated from the body. Instead, the person is exhibiting the effects of the natural chemicals that the body produced to try to offset the effects of the drug.

It is not uncommon for a DRE to encounter someone on the downside of a drug. When the arresting officer apprehends a suspect, the effects of a particular drug might be very evident. But by the time the DRE is summoned and arrives on scene, the effects may have worn off. As a DRE, you are called upon to give your best professional opinion concerning what is affecting the suspect at the time of your examination. You must never attempt to infer or estimate what the suspect's state or nature of impairment may have been at some time prior to your contact with him or her.

There is another way in which the body may react to drugs, especially when the drug is routinely used over a period of time. Because the drug is artificially simulating the actions of certain hormones and neurotransmitters, the body may come to rely on the drug to supply those actions, and may simply cease producing those natural chemicals. We call this phenomenon Negative Feedback. It simply means that the brain accommodates the routine presence of a drug by turning off the supply of natural chemicals that correspond to the drug. Another way in which the body may compensate is by developing increased tolerance to the drug, meaning that the same dose of the drug will produce diminishing effects. To express this another way, a steadily stronger dose of the drug will be needed to produce the same effects. Another effect is physical dependence, or addiction to the drug; because the natural chemicals are no longer available, the body needs the drug to provide the functions those natural chemicals used to perform. Evidence suggests that this Negative Feedback clearly occurs in users of heroin and cocaine, to cite just two examples. The bodies of cocaine and heroin users apparently cease producing the hormones and neurotransmitters needed for proper pain relief, stress reduction, mental stability and motivation. Very quickly, the user simply can't cope without the drug.

F. Medical Conditions Sometimes Confused With Drug Impairment

There are numerous medical conditions and injuries that may cause their victims to appear to be under the influence of alcohol or other drugs. Some of the more common of these are listed and discussed below.

Head Trauma

A severe blow or bump to the head may injure the brain and create disorientation, confusion, lack of coordination, slowed responses, speech impairment and other gross indicators of alcohol or drug influence. Because the injury usually affects one side of the brain more than the other, disparities usually will be evident in the subject's eyes. Look at the pupils, and observe whether they are obviously different in size. Check the eyes' tracking ability, and see whether they are dissimilar, e.g., one eye moving smoothly while the other jerks noticeably. Check the eyelids to see if one droops while the other appears normal.

Stroke

A stroke will usually produce many of the same effects and indicators associated with head trauma. Stroke victims often will have pupils that are markedly different in size. One pupil may remain fixed and exhibit no visible reaction to light, while the other reacts normally.

Diabetes

A diabetic is most likely to be confused with a person impaired by alcohol or drugs when he or she has taken too much insulin, so that the blood sugar level becomes dangerously low. This condition is called insulin shock. A diabetic in insulin shock may appear very confused, may be non-responsive, sweat profusely and exhibit elevated pulse rate and blood pressure. If you suspect that you may be dealing with insulin shock, give the subject a glass of orange juice, a bite of candy or simply a spoonful of sugar; that should rapidly produce a noticeable improvement in his or her condition.

Conjunctivitis

This is an inflammation of the mucous membrane that lines the inner surface of the eyelids giving a red, bloodshot appearance of the conjunctiva of the eyes. At first glance, this may appear similar to the bloodshot conditions associated with impairment by alcohol or Cannabis.

Shock

Shock victims often will appear dazed, uncoordinated and non-responsive.

Multiple Sclerosis

Victims of Multiple Sclerosis (MS) and other degenerative muscular disorders may exhibit severe incoordination, gait ataxia, tremors, slurred or garbled speech and many of the other gross indicators of intoxication. However, they will usually appear alert.

Topics for Study

- 1. What is a neurotransmitter? What is a hormone?
- 2. What is a dendrite? What is an axon? What is a synapse?
- 3. Do arteries carry blood toward the heart or away from the heart?
- 4. What is unique about the Pulmonary Artery?
- 5. What are the two types of nerves that make up the Autonomic Nervous Subsystem?
- 6. Is cocaine sympathomimetic or parasympathomimetic? What about heroin?
- 7. Explain the concept of the "downside of a drug". Explain the concept of "Negative Feedback".
- 8. What do we call the nerves that carry messages <u>away from</u> the brain? What do we call the nerves that carry messages <u>toward</u> the brain?

SESSION VII EXAMINATION OF VITAL SIGNS

SESSION VII EXAMINATION OF VITAL SIGNS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Explain the purposes of the various vital signs examinations in the drug evaluation and classification process.
- o Explain the administrative procedures for these examinations.
- o Explain the cues obtained from these examinations.
- o Document the examinations of vital signs accurately and completely.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section.

A. Concepts and Procedures for Measuring Pulse Rate

Some important definitions:

<u>Pulse</u> is the expansion and relaxation of an artery generated by the pumping action of the heart.

<u>Pulse rate</u> is the number of pulsations in an artery in one minute.

An <u>artery</u> is a strong, elastic blood vessel that carries blood <u>from the heart</u> to the body tissues.

A $\underline{\text{vein}}$ is a blood vessel that carries blood $\underline{\text{back to the heart}}$ from the body tissues.

When the heart contracts, it squeezes blood out of its chambers, and sends the blood surging into the arteries. The surging blood pushes against the walls of the arteries, causing them to expand. If you know where to locate an artery (for example, in the crease of your wrist, just below the base of the thumb) and you press your finger tips onto the skin just above the artery, you will feel the artery expand each time blood surges through it. If you keep your finger tips on the artery and count the pulses that occur in one minute, you will determine your pulse rate.

The radial artery provides a convenient pulse point. The radial artery can be located in or near the natural crease of the wrist, on the side of the wrist next to the thumb. To use the radial artery pulse point, have the subject hold his or her arm straight out, with the palm of the hand facing down. Place the tips of your index and middle fingers into the crease of the subject's wrist, near the base of the thumb, and exert a slight pressure. Allow the subject's hand to droop down from gravity; this will tighten the



pressure on your finger tips and aid you to feel the pulse.



The <u>brachial artery</u> provides another useful pulse point. It can be located in the crook of the arm, halfway between the center of the arm and the side of the arm closest to the body.

The <u>carotid artery</u> can also provide pulse points. The carotid artery can be located in the neck, on either side of the Adam's apple.

Key points to keep in mind about measuring pulse rate:

- o <u>Don't</u> use your thumb to feel someone's pulse. There is an artery in the thumb. If you apply pressure with the thumb, the "beat" you feel may be your own pulse, and not the subject's.
- o If you use the carotid artery pulse point, <u>don't</u> apply pressure to both sides of the Adam's apple. Doing so can cut off the supply of blood to the brain.
- o When measuring pulse rate, count the beats for 30 seconds, then multiply by two.

Some technical terms associated with pulse rate:

- o <u>Tachycardia</u>: Abnormally rapid heart rate.
- o <u>Bradycardia</u>: Abnormally slow heart rate.
- o <u>Arrhythmia</u>: Abnormal heart rhythm.
- B. Concepts and Procedures for Measuring Blood Pressure

Some important definitions:

<u>Blood pressure</u> is the force that the circulating blood exerts on the walls of the arteries. The blood pressure changes from instant to instant, as the heart contracts and relaxes.

Systolic pressure is the maximum or highest blood pressure. The blood pressure reaches its systolic value when the heart contracts and sends the blood surging into the arteries.

<u>Diastolic pressure</u> is the minimum or lowest blood pressure. The blood pressure reaches its diastolic value when the heart is fully expanded.

A <u>sphygmomanometer</u> is a device for measuring blood pressure. The major parts or components of a sphygmomanometer include:

- o the <u>compression cuff</u>, which can be wrapped securely around the arm and which contains a rubber bladder that can be inflated with air. There are different cuffs designed for children, adults and people with extralarge arms; these cuffs have different sized bladders.
- o the <u>pressure bulb</u>, which can be squeezed to inflate the rubber bladder with air.

- o the <u>pressure control valve</u>, which controls the inflation or deflation of the rubber bladder. To inflate the bladder, the pressure control valve must be twisted all the way to the right (clockwise); then, the pressure bulb can be squeezed to pump air into the bladder. To deflate the bladder, the pressure control valve must be twisted to the left (counter-clockwise); the more the valve is twisted to the left, the faster the bladder will deflate.
- o the <u>manometer</u>, or pressure gauge, which displays the air pressure in the bladder.
- o <u>tubes</u>, connecting the pressure cuff to the manometer and to the pressure bulb.

Some technical terms associated with blood pressure:

- o <u>Hypertension</u>: Abnormally high blood pressure.
- o Hypotension: Abnormally low blood pressure.

Blood Pressure is measured in units of millimeters of mercury. Sometimes this is abbreviated as "mmHg", where "mm" represents "millimeters" and "Hg" is the chemical symbol for the element mercury (from "Hydrargyrum", the latin word for "mercury"). When the manometer or pressure gauge indicates that the pressure in the bladder is 120 mmHg, that means that the air in the bladder, if forced into a glass tube containing liquid mercury, would push the mercury up the tube to a height of 120 millimeters. Some sphygmomanometers actually have pressure gauges that consist of glass tubes containing mercury, with a ruler alongside the tube marked off in millimeters. Usually, however, aneroid pressure gauges are used. ("Aneroid" means "without fluid".)

When you measure and record blood pressure, it is not necessary to use the symbols "mmHg". Simply record the numbers.

The principles involved in measuring blood pressure are easy to understand. When the pressure cuff is wrapped around the upper arm (e.g., around the bicep) and inflated with air, the air pressure exerts a force on the arm. When the pressure in the bladder gets high enough, the arteries in the arm will be squeezed shut, and no blood will flow through the arteries. In this respect, the pressure cuff works just like a tourniquet.

When the pressure control valve is twisted to the left, air starts to escape from the bladder and the pressure on the arm (and on the artery) starts to drop. However, as long as the air pressure on the artery remains higher than the blood pressure in the artery, the artery will remain squeezed shut and no blood will flow.

Consider this question: what will happen when the air pressure on the artery drops to the point where it just equals the blood pressure in the artery?

At that point, the heart will again be able to push the blood through the artery, so the flow of blood will resume.

But the blood pressure is constantly changing, from instant to instant. At one instant, the pressure will be at its maximum, or systolic value. Then the blood pressure drops, and a very short time later it will reach its minimum or diastolic level. Then it climbs again, and repeats the cycle over and over.

When the air pressure in the bladder drops to the point where it equals the <u>systolic</u> blood pressure, blood will be able to spurt through the artery each time the heart contracts. But an instant later, as the heart starts to expand and the blood pressure drops, the artery will squeeze shut again and the flow will stop.

If the air is allowed to continue to escape from the bladder, the air pressure eventually will fall to the point where it reaches the diastolic level. At that point, the blood pressure in the artery always will be equal to or higher than the air pressure on the artery, so the artery will stay open and blood will flow steadily.

So the basic idea is simple:

To measure blood pressure, start by pumping up the bladder until the artery is squeezed completely shut and no blood flows.

Let the air pressure drop slowly until the blood just begins to <u>spurt</u> through the artery. When that happens, the pressure shown on the gauge will be equal to the systolic pressure.

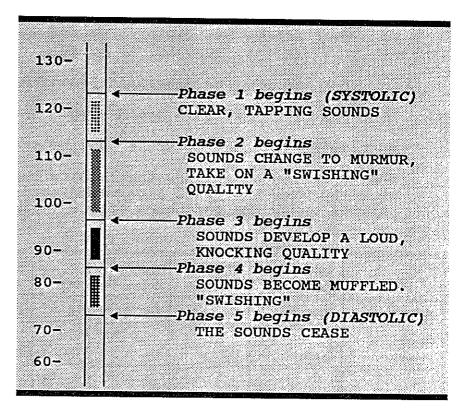
Continue to let the air pressure drop until the blood finally flows <u>steadily</u> through the artery. The pressure showing on the gauge at that time will be the diastolic pressure.

To determine when the blood starts to spurt, and when it starts to flow steadily, a stethoscope is needed.

The stethoscope should be applied to the skin, directly above the artery. For example, with the blood pressure cuff wrapped around the bicep, the stethoscope can be applied to the brachial artery pulse point.

When no blood is flowing through the artery, you will hear nothing through the stethoscope. But when the air pressure in the cuff falls to the systolic level, you will hear the blood begin to spurt. The sound you will hear starts as a clear tapping. This is the first phase of what are called the Korotkoff Sounds, a distinct series of sounds that are heard as the air pressure in the cuff drops from the systolic to the diastolic level.

As you continue to allow the air to escape from the cuff, the spurts of blood through the artery become steadily longer and the sounds change. They become fainter. and take on a swishing quality. They pass through a "knocking" phase, and then suddenly become muffled. Eventually, when the air pressure drops to the diastolic level, the blood flows steadily and all sound ceases.



Step-by-step procedures for measuring blood pressure

- (1) Position the cuff on the bicep so that the tubes extend down the middle of the arm.
- (2) Wrap the cuff snugly around the bicep.
- (3) Clip the manometer to the subject's sleeve, or to some other convenient location, so that you can observe the gauge easily.
- (4) Twist the pressure control valve all the way to the right.
- (5) Put the stethoscope earpieces in your ears. Make sure the earpieces are turned forward.
- (6) Apply the stethoscope to the brachial artery pulse point.
- (7) Rapidly inflate the bladder to a level high enough to squeeze the artery shut. Usually, a pressure of 180 will be sufficient.
- (8) Twist the pressure control valve slightly to the left to allow the air to escape from the bladder slowly (2 mmHg per second).
- (9) Keep your eyes on the pressure gauge and listen for the Korotkoff Sounds.

- Record the systolic pressure when the first sound a. (clear, tapping) is heard.
- b. Record the <u>diastolic</u> pressure when the sounds cease.
- C. Concepts of Temperature Measurement

An electronic thermometer is used to orally measure temperature.

The following summarizes the results that generally can be expected when the vital signs examinations are administered to persons under the influence of the various categories of drugs.

	CNS Depressants	CNS Stimulants	Halluci- nogens	PCP	Narcotic Analgesics	Inhalants	Cannabis
Pulse	Down (1)	Up	Up	Up	Down	Up	Up
Blood Pressure	Down	Up	Up	Up	Down	Up/Down (2)	Up
Temperature	Normal	Up	Up	Up	Down	Up/Down/ Normal	Normal

- Quaaludes and Etoh may elevate. 1.
- Down with Anesthetic gases, up with volatile solvents 2. and aerosols.

NOTE:

- "Normal" systolic blood pressure 120-140
- "Normal" diastolic blood pressure 70-90
 "Normal" pulse (adult male) 60-90
- "Normal" temperature 98.6 plus or minus 1 degree, Fahrenheit

Topics for study

- 1. Where is the radial artery pulse point?
- Why should you never attempt to feel a subject's pulse with your thumb?
- 3. Does an artery carry blood to the heart or from the heart?
- 4. What does the symbol "Hg" represent?
- 5. What is <u>diastolic</u> pressure?
- 6. When do the Korotkoff Sounds begin?
- 7. Name and describe the major components of a sphygmomanometer.
- Which of the seven categories of drugs generally will cause blood pressure to be elevated?

SESSION VIII

DEMONSTRATIONS OF THE EVALUATION SEQUENCE

SESSION VIII DEMONSTRATIONS OF THE EVALUATION SEQUENCE

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to describe the sequence in which examinations and other activities are performed in the drug evaluation and classification process.

In this session, you will have an opportunity to observe demonstrations of the entire drug evaluation and classification process. Your instructors will conduct some of these demonstrations "live", in the classroom. There will also be a video taped demonstration.

Your instructors will make the video tape available for reviewing, after normal class hours. You should make an effort to view the tape at least a second time before the completion of this course.

SESSION IX

CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM DEPRESSANTS

SESSION IX CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM DEPRESSANTS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Explain a brief history of the CNS Depressant category of drugs.
- o Identify common drug names and terms associated with this category.
- o Identify common methods of administration for this category.
- o Describe the symptoms, observable signs and other effects associated with this category.
- o Describe the typical time parameters, i.e., on-set and duration of effects, associated with this category.
- o State the clues that are likely to emerge when the drug evaluation and classification process is conducted for a person under the influence of this category of drugs.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section.

A. Overview of CNS Depressants

Central nervous system depressants slow down the operations of the brain. They first affect those areas of the brain that control a person's conscious, voluntary actions. As dosage increases, depressants begin to affect the parts of the brain controlling the body's automatic, unconscious processes, such as heartbeat and respiration.

Alcohol is the model for the CNS depressant category of drugs. Alcohol is the most familiar, and most widely abused, depressant. With some exceptions, all depressants affect people in much the same way as does alcohol.

Some major subcategories of CNS depressants other than alcohol include:

- o Barbiturates (Derivatives of barbiturate acid)
- O Non-barbiturates
 (Synthetic compounds with a variety of chemical structures)
- o Anti-anxiety Tranquilizers (Frequently prescribed and frequently abused)
- O Anti-depressants
 (It may seem to be a contradiction in terms to call a subcategory of Depressants the anti-depressants; but in this case, we simply mean that these drugs are prescribed to combat psychological depression. For that reason, the anti-depressants are sometimes known as the "mood elevators".)
- o Anti-psychotic tranquilizers
 (Also known as the "major tranquilizers", to
 distinguish them from the anti-anxiety tranquilizers,
 or "minor tranquilizers".)
- o Combinations of the other five subcategories.

Some examples of specific drugs included in each subcategory are given in the table on pages IX-3 and IX-4.

Most users of CNS depressants ingest these drugs orally. However, although the practice is not common, some barbiturate abusers inject their drugs intravenously. The injection paraphernalia used by barbiturate abusers are similar to those used by heroin addicts, although a wider-gauge hypodermic needle is used, because the barbiturate solution is thicker than the heroin solution. The injection sites on the skin of a barbiturate abuser exhibit large swellings, and may develop ulcerations resembling cigarette burns.

B. Possible Effects of CNS Depressants

Once again, alcohol is the model here. Other depressants generally affect people in much the same way as does alcohol.

- o reduced social inhibitions
- o impaired ability to divide attention
- o slowed reflexes
- o impaired judgment and concentration
- o impaired vision and coordination
- o slurred, mumbled or incoherent speech
- o a wide variety of emotional effects, such as euphoria, depression, suicidal tendencies, laughing or crying for no apparent reason, etc.

In general, a person under the influence of a CNS depressant will look and act as though he or she were drunk on alcohol.

EXAMPLES OF CNS DEPRESSANTS

BARBITURATES	NON-BARBITURATES	ANTI-ANXIETY TRANQUILIZERS		
<pre>Secobarbital Common trade name: "Seconal"</pre>	Chloral Hydrate Common trade names: "Felsule"; "Noctec"	<u>Chlordiazepoxide</u> Trade name:		
Common street names:	Common street names:	"Librium"		
"reds"; "red devils";	"Mickey Finn";	<u>Diazepam</u>		
"RDs"; "fender benders"; "F-40s"	"Knock-out Drops"	Trade name: "Valium"		
	<u>Glutethimide</u>	<u>Diphenhylhydantoin</u>		
<pre>Pentobarbital Common trade name: "Nembutal"</pre>	Trade name: "Doriden"	Sodium Trade name: "Dilantin"		
Common street names: "yellows"; "yellow jackets"	<u>Methyprylon</u> Trade name: "Noludar"	Flurazepam Trade name: "Dalmane"		
Amobarbital Common trade name: "Amytal" Common street names:	<pre>Methaqualone Trade names: "Parest"; "Quaalude"; "Sopor"; "Optimil";</pre>	Alprazolam Trade name: "Xanax"		
"blues"; "blue heavens" Amosecobarbital	"Mandrax"; Street name: "Ludes"	<u>Triazolam</u> Trade name: "Halcion"		
A combination of amobarbital and secobarbital	Ethchlorvynol Trade name: "Placidyl"	Lorazepam Trade name: "Ativan"		
Common trade name: "Tuinal" Common street names: "rainbows";	Ethinamate Trade name: "Valmid"	Estazolam Trade name: "ProSom"		
"Christmas trees"	<u>Paraldehyde</u> Trade names: "Paral"	Temazepam Trade name: "Restoril"		
Phenobarbital Many trade names Common street name: "pink ladies"	Diphenhydramine Hydrochloride Trade names: "Benadryl"; "Sominex"	Oxazepam Trade name: "Serax"		
	<pre>Carisoprodl Trade name: "Soma"</pre>			

EXAMPLES OF CNS DEPRESSANTS (CONTINUED)

ANTI-DEPRESSANTS	ANTI-PSYCHOTIC TRANQUILIZERS	COMBINATIONS				
Phenelzine Sulfate Trade name: "Nardil"	<u>Lithium Carbonate</u>	Chlordiazepoxide and Amitriptyline				
Amitriptyline	<u>Lithium Citrate</u>	Trade name: "Limbitrol"				
Hydrochloride	<u>Droperidol</u>					
Trade names:	Trade names:	Perphenazine and				
"Elavil"; "Endep"	"Inapsine"; "Innovar"	<u>Amipripttyline</u> <u>Hydrochloride</u>				
Desipramine	Haloperidol	Trade name:				
Hydrochloride Trade names:	Trade name: "Haldol"	"Triavil"				
"Norpramin";	Chlorpromazine	Chl <u>ordiazepoxide</u>				
"Pertofrane"	Trade name:					
rercorranc	"Thorazine"	Hydrochloride and				
Doxepin Hydrochloride		Clidinium Bromide				
Trade names:		Trade name: "Librax"				
"Adapin"; "Sinequan"						
Fluoxetine						

Trade name: "Prozac"*

Impramine
Trade name:
"Tofranil"

C. The Onset and Duration of Depressants' Effects

Some CNS depressants act very quickly, and begin to affect their users within seconds. Others act more slowly, sometimes taking one-half hour or more to begin to exert an influence. The quick-acting depressants also tend to be relatively minutes. The slow-acting depressants, on the other hand, tend to produce longer-lasting effects.

Depressants fall into four groups, based on how quickly they take effect and how long their effects last.

The <u>ultra-short</u> depressants take effect in a matter of seconds, but their effects dissipate in just a few minutes. They are used medically to provide a momentary sedation of a patient, for example to reduce a psychiatrist's patient's anxieties and inhibitions at the beginning of a counseling session. An example of an ultra-short depressant is thiopental sodium, sometimes call "truth serum". Ultra-short depressants rarely are the drugs of choice for abusers, because their effects don't last long enough to satisfy most abusers.

The <u>short</u> depressants are more attractive to drug abusers. They generally take effect within 10-15 minutes, and their effects last approximately four hours. Medical applications of the short depressants include treatment of insomnia and sedation of patients prior to surgery. An example of a short depressant is secobarbital.

<u>Intermediate</u> depressants may require up to 30 minutes to take effect, but their effects typically last 6-8 hours. They are popular among drug abusers who desire a longer-lasting state of intoxication. The medical applications of intermediate depressants are similar to those of short depressants. Amobarbital is an example of an intermediate depressant.

The drug amosecobarbital (trade name "tuinal", i.e., two-in-all) straddles the border between short and intermediate depressants. It combines amobarbital (an intermediate) with secobarbital (a short). The result is a fairly fast-acting drug with fairly prolonged effects.

The <u>long</u> depressants generally are not the preferred drugs of abusers. This is because they take too long to start producing effects (typically, about one hour). However, their effects usually last 8-14 hours. Long depressants are used medically to control epilepsy and other conditions that can cause convulsions. Barbital is an example of a long depressant.

D. Signs and Symptoms of Depressant Overdose

Overdoses of CNS depressants produce effects that are essentially identical to those of alcohol overdoses:

- o the person becomes extremely drowsy and may pass out;
- o the heartbeat slows;
- o respiration becomes shallow;
- o the skin may feel cold and clammy;
- o death may result from respiratory failure.

Combinations of depressants can be especially risky.
Unfortunately, many people routinely do combine depressants, usually in the form of alcohol and some other depressant. In some cases, the effects that result may be greater than the sum of the effects that the two drugs would produce independently.

E. Expected Results of the Evaluation

When a person under the influence of CNS depressants is examined by a drug recognition expert, the following results can be expected.

<u>Pupil size</u> generally will be normal; however, in the specific cases of methaqualone ("ludes") or soma, pupils usually will be dilated.

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus usually will be present.

<u>Vertical Nystagmus</u> may be present, especially if the suspect has taken a large dose of the depressant.

Lack of Convergence will be present.

Pupil's reaction to light will be slow.

<u>Pulse rate</u> will be down; however, with Quaaludes and Etoh the pulse rate will be elevated.

Blood Pressure generally will be lowered.

Temperature will be down.

Muscle Tone usually will be normal.

<u>Injection Sites</u> usually will not be found; however, some barbiturate abusers do inject. Their injection sites often will be swollen, and may appear ulcerated.

Topics for study

- Name the six major subcategories of CNS depressants.
- 2. Name the four groups of depressants based on onset and duration time factors.
- 3. To which subcategory of Depressants does <u>Thorazine</u> belong? To which subcategory does <u>Chloral Hydrate</u> belong? To which subcategory does <u>Xanax</u> belong?
- 4. Name a CNS Depressant that usually causes the pupils to dilate.
- 5. What is the generic name for the drug that has the trade name "Prozac"?
- 6. What is a trade name for the generic drug "Alprazolam"?
- 7. What is the name of the subcategory of CNS Depressants that is also known as the "Minor Tranquilizers"?

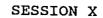
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Contract

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3. BAC : I OBSERVED OFFICER LAIRD ADMIN. GCI TEST TO SUBJ. IMPULIZZERI AT Z170 HOURS. I
OBJERUED TEST RESULT WAS 0.05%
4. NONFICETION / INTERVIEW I WAS COMPUTING DRE TRAINING AT VEPD HOPER AT 2115 HOURS ON FRIDAY
5 NOW XX WHEN MR. RESTUDDARD REDUESTED I DESERVE SUR, IMPELLIZERY, ARRESTME CHILDRE
CD LAIRD INFORMED ME THAT HE AND ME STUDDARD HAD COME YOU SUR IMPELIATER! STUMPED IN
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MITIM QUESTIONS.
6. MEDICAL PROBLEMS / TREATMENT N/A
7. PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS SUB, IMPELLIZZER, SWAYED APPROX, 3" ARWARDS -BACKWARDS ON
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PILLS, HE STATED THAT HE TAKES VALUM 4 TIMES DEQ DAY FOR STRESS.
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STATED WERE HIS VALUM DILLS. HE STATED THAT HE HAD FILLED THE DRESCRIPTION
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CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM STIMULANTS

SESSION X CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM STIMULANTS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Explain a brief history of the CNS Stimulant category of drugs.
- o Identify common drug names and terms associated with this category.
- o Identify common methods of administration for this category.
- o Explain the symptoms, observable signs and other effects associated with this category.
- o Explain the typical time parameters, i.e., on-set and duration of effects, associated with this category.
- o Explain the clues that are likely to emerge when the drug evaluation and classification process is conducted for a person under the influence of this category of drugs.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section

A. Overview of Central Nervous System Stimulants

CNS stimulants speed up the operation of the brain and spinal cord. It is important to emphasize that "speed up" does <u>not</u> mean "improve" or "enhance". The stimulants definitely do not make the brain work better. Rather, they cause the brain and the rest of the nervous system to work <u>harder</u>, and often to make more mistakes.

The "speeding up" caused by stimulants results in significantly increased heartbeat, respiration and blood pressure, all of which can lead to physical harm to the abuser. In addition, the stimulant user experiences nervousness, irritability and an inability to concentrate or think clearly.

The two major types of abused CNS stimulants are cocaine and the amphetamines.

Cocaine derives from the coca plant, an evergreen native to South America. Cocaine is made from the plant's leaves. There is archaeological evidence that natives of Peru chewed coca leaves 5,000 years ago.

Amphetamines are synthetic (i.e., manufac-tured) drugs. They were first produced near the end of the 19th Century.

Amphetamines have a number of legitimate medical applications, including control of narcolepsy; control of certain hyperactive behavioral disorders in children; relief or prevention of fatigue to allow persons to perform essential tasks of long duration; treatment of mild depression; control of appetite; prevention and treatment of surgical shock; treatment of Parkinson's Disease; maintenance of blood pressure during surgery; enhancement of the action of certain analgesic drugs; and, to antagonize the effects of depressant drugs. Numerous pharmaceutical companies manufacture amphetamines that are prescribed for these purposes. But these pharmaceutical amphetamines often are abused, as well.

Examples of common pharmaceutical amphetamines include:

DEXEDRINE

(dextroamphetamine sulfate)

Common street names: "Dexies"; "Hearts"

BENZEDRINE

(amphetamine sulfate)

Common street names: "Bennies"; "Whites"; "Cartwheels"

BIPHETAMINE

(combination of dextroamphetamine and amphetamine)

Common street name: "Black Beauty"

DESOXYN

(methamphetamine hydrochloride, also known desoxyephedrine)

Other relatively common pharmaceutical drugs are combinations of amphetamines and CNS depressants. One is DEXAMYL, which combines dextroamphetamine sulfate with amobarbital, a barbiturate.

Another is ESKATROL, a combination of dextroamphetamine sulfate with prochlorperazine, a non-barbiturate depressant. Persons using either of these drugs would be polydrug users, and would experience and exhibit effects of both depressants and stimulants. However, they might have no idea that they were using different categories of drugs, and might sincerely insist to the drug recognition expert that they had taken only one kind of pill.

Pharmaceutical amphetamines are not the only source of abused amphetamines. Large quantities also are illegally manufactured in clandestine laboratories. The two most common illicit amphetamines are methamphetamine and amphetamine sulfate.

Methamphetamine is also known as methedrine. Its common street names include "speed"; "crank"; "crystal"; "meth"; and "water".

There are various ways in which CNS stimulant abusers ingest their drugs. Cocaine is commonly insufflated (snorted), smoked, injected and taken orally. Snorting may still be the most common method of ingesting cocaine, although smoking has become increasingly popular.

In order to be smoked, a pure form of cocaine is needed. Various chemical processes can be used to "free" the cocaine from other elements to which it is chemically bonded. The pure cocaine sometimes is called "freebase", and the practice of smoking it sometimes is called "freebasing".

One of the processes used to produce "freebase" produces the pure cocaine in the form of small, hard chunks. The chunks are often called "Crack" or "Rock Cocaine". The term "Crack" derives from the cracking sound the chunks produce when they are smoked.

The pharmaceutical amphetamines are produced in the form of tablets, capsules and liquid elixirs, and so they are ingested orally. Illicitly-manufactured amphetamine sulfate usually is produced in tablet form (the tablets sometimes are called "mini beans"), and ingested orally.

Methamphetamine abusers often inject the drug directly into a vein. Methamphetamine can also be snorted or taken orally.

There is a crystalline form of methamphetamine that is known by the street name "Ice". It is abused in much the same way as "Crack", i.e., small bits of "Ice" are placed in the bowl of a pipe and flame from a butane lighter is applied to vaporize the drug; the smoker then draws the vapor into the lungs. Another crystalline form of methamphetamine, known as "crystal meth", is also smoked.

Other non-cocaine and non-amphetamine stimulants include the prescriptive drugs Ritalin, Preludin and Cylert. All have legitimate medical applications, but they also have the potential to be abused.

B. Possible Effects of CNS Stimulants

Cocaine and the amphetamines produce euphoria, a feeling that there are no problems. A feeling of super strength and absolute self-confidence may also be present. With cocaine, but not with the amphetamines, there is also an anesthetic effect, i.e., a dulling of pain.

stimulant users tend to become hyperactive,
e.g., nervous, extremely talkative and unable to
stand still. Stimulants also tend to release
the user's inhibition, and to impair the user's ability to
perceive time and distance. Persons under the influence of
stimulants become easily confused and lose the ability to
concentrate or to think clearly for any length of time.

C. Onset and Duration of Stimulants' Effects

1. Cocaine

In general, cocaine is a fairly fast-acting, but short duration drug.

When smoked, or "freebased", cocaine goes very quickly to
the brain. The smoker almost immediately feels a "rush", or
very intense euphoria. However, the effects continue to be
felt for only about 5-10 minutes.

When <u>injected</u>, the effects also begin very quickly, usually within just a few seconds, and the onset of effects is very intense. The effects usually continue to be felt for 45-90 minutes.

When insufflated or <u>snorted</u>, the onset of effects is still fairly rapid, although not so fast as with smoking or injection. The user generally feels the onset within about 30 seconds. A "rush" occurs, although it is not quite as intense as when the cocaine is smoked or injected. The user generally continues to feel the effects for 30-90 minutes after snorting the cocaine.

When taken orally, the user generally does not start to feel the effects of the cocaine for 3-5 minutes. And, the effects are not as intense as they are with other methods of ingestion. For these reasons, oral ingestion is the least preferred method of using cocaine. However, the effects of cocaine taken orally may last 15-30 minutes longer than they do when other methods of ingestion are used.

Because cocaine's effects are of relatively short duration, a cocaine user can present some difficulty to a drug recognition expert. The suspect may have been markedly impaired when first contacted by the arresting officer. But by the time the suspect is brought to the DRE, the effects of cocaine may have worn off to the point that the indicators of stimulant influence are no longer apparent. The DRE may be understandably frustrated when this occurs, but his or her conclusions as to the probable categories of drugs involved must reflect the observable evidence gleaned from the drug evaluation and classification examinations. The DRE should never "force" a conclusion as to an impairment that might have existed 30 minutes or an hour ago when he or she has no personal, credible basis for that conclusion.

2. <u>Methamphetamine</u>

Methamphetamine also is a fairly fast-acting drug, and its effects are very similar to cocaine's. However, methamphetamine's effects last a good deal longer.

When <u>injected</u>, methamphetamine's effects begin to be felt within a very few seconds. The user experiences an intense "rush", which lasts at the high level of intensity for 5-30 seconds. Subsequently, the user stays "high" or "wired' for 4-8 hours.

When methamphetamine is <u>snorted or taken orally</u>, the onset of effects is delayed, the "rush" is much less intense and the effects are much briefer.

When "Ice" or "crystal meth" is smoked, the "rush" is very rapid and intense, much like the "rush" produced by "Crack". However, the "Ice" smoker usually will remain impaired for at least several hours.

D. Signs and Symptoms of Stimulant Overdose

The euphoria expected by a stimulant user can be replaced by panic if an overdose is taken. The user may become very confused, and suddenly aggressive. He or she can suffer convulsions, and possibly faint or pass into a coma. Heartbeat will increase, possibly dramatically, and heart arrhythmia (irregular beating) may develop. This may lead to cardiac arrest. Death can also occur from sudden respiratory failure.

Another danger is that subjects or their friends may attempt to counteract a stimulant overdose with barbiturates, possibly leading to an overdose of CNS depressant.

E. Expected Results of the Evaluation

When a person under the influence of CNS stimulants is examined by a drug recognition expert, the following results can be expected.

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus - none.

<u>Vertical Nystagmus</u> - none.

Lack of Convergence - none.

<u>Pupil Size</u> will be dilated. The pupils will usually appear markedly dilated (mydriasis), possibly even under direct light.

Pupil's reaction to light - slow.

Pulse Rate - up.

Blood Pressure - up.

Temperature - up.

Bruxism (i.e., grinding of the teeth) may be evident.

Muscle Tone may be rigid.

<u>Injection Sites</u> might be found, e.g., on the arms, wrists, neck, etc., especially with methamphetamine users but also with some cocaine users. Other cocaine users who routinely snort their drug may exhibit severe redness in the nasal area, and possibly scarring or erosion of the nasal septum.

Topics for study

- 1. Why is it sometimes difficult for a drug recognition expert to obtain evidence of stimulant influence when examining a cocaine user?
- 2. What kinds of illicitly-manufactured amphetamines are most commonly abused?
- 3. Name two CNS Stimulants other than Cocaine or the Amphetamine compounds.
- 4. How do stimulants usually affect the blood pressure and pulse rate?
- 5. True or false: A person under the influence of a CNS Stimulant alone usually will <u>not</u> exhibit horizontal gaze nystagmus?
- 6. What is "bruxism"?
- 7. Fill in the blank: "Crack" is to cocaine as is to methamphetamine.

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SESSION XI

PRACTICE: EYE EXAMINATIONS

SESSION XI PRACTICE: EYE EXAMINATIONS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Conduct examinations of pupil size and reaction to light, under both lighted room and darkened room conditions.
- o Articulate the eye examination procedures.
- o Document the results of the eye examinations.

In this session, you will practice estimating pupil size and assessing pupils' reaction to light. You will work in a team with fellow students, taking turns examining each other's eyes.

When it is not your turn either to administer the eye exams or serve as the examination subject, you should try to monitor the work of your team mate who is administering the exams and coach him or her as appropriate. In this way you can assist each other in developing skills.

To prepare for this session, make sure you can correctly answer the following questions:

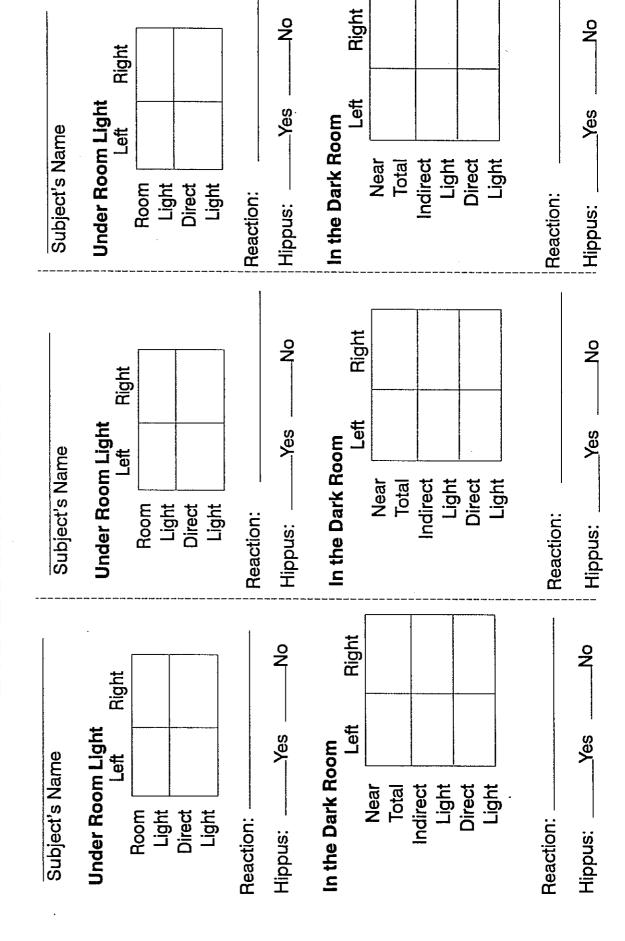
- 1. How can you produce the faint, reddish light needed for the estimation of pupil size under near-total darkness?
- 2. How should you aim the penlight to examine pupil size under indirect light?
- 3. How far in front of the subject's eye should the pen light be held during the direct light examination? How long must you shine the light into the subject's eye to evaluate the pupil's reaction to light?

(The information needed to answer these questions can be found in Part F. of Session IV)

- 4. What is the technical term meaning "constricted pupils"?
- 5. What is the technical term meaning "dilated pupils"?
- 6. What is the technical term meaning "droopy eyelids"?

(The information needed to answer these questions can be found in Session V.)

EYE EXAMINATIONS DATA SHEET



SESSION XII

ALCOHOL WORKSHOP

SESSION XII ALCOHOL WORKSHOP

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Correctly administer the preliminary clinical examinations and psychophysical tests used in the drug evaluation procedure.
- o Observe and record the suspect's performance on the preliminary clinical examinations and psychophysical tests.
- Determine the level of impairment based on the results of the suspects preliminary clinical examinations and psychophysical tests.

In this session, you will have the opportunity to practice administering portions of the drug evaluation and classification examination to persons who are actually under the influence of a drug. The drug involved is alcohol, which undoubtedly is the most familiar and most frequently abused drug in our society. Alcohol belongs to the category of drugs known as central nervous system depressants. The behaviors, signs and symptoms you observe in the volunteer drinkers participating in this session will, in many respects, be similar to what you will observe when you encounter persons under the influence of barbiturates, tranquilizers or other CNS depressants.

Working in a team with fellow students, you will administer the following tests to each volunteer:

- Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus (including estimation of onset angle)
- o Vertical Nystagmus
- Lack of Convergence
- o Pupil Size Estimation (in room light)
- o Romberg Balance
- o Walk and Turn
- One Leg Stand (each volunteer will take this test twice, once on each leg)
- o Finger to Nose
- o Pulse Rate

You will record the results of these tests on the appropriate segments of the <u>Drug Influence Evaluation</u> form.

To prepare for this session, make sure that you know how to administer these tests, and that you know what clues to look for and how to recognize them. It will be a good idea to practice administering these tests (e.g., to fellow students, family members, etc.) to sharpen your skills in preparation for this session.

SESSION XIII

PHYSICIAN'S DESK REFERENCE (PDR)

SESSION XIII PHYSICIAN'S DESK REFERENCE (PDR)

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- Explain how the various sections of the PDR can provide information that will:
 - aid in the drug influence evaluation;
 - aid in courtroom testimony.
- O Use the PDR; that is, in a practical exercise, when presented with color photographs of typical prescription drugs encountered in law enforcement contacts, the student will correctly identify and classify those drugs, and list the signs and symptoms that can be caused by them and observed and documented during a drug influence examination.

A. The Physician's Desk Reference as a Resource

The Physician's Desk Reference for Prescription Drugs is a very useful reference source for a drug recognition expert. It provides detailed information, including photographs, on virtually every drug available for prescription in the country. Many of these drugs are either CNS depressants or CNS stimulants. Others are narcotic analgesics. Still others are combinations of these. Numerous trade names exist for certain drugs, since many manufacturers offer competing products.

During the course of an arrest and examination of a suspected drug-impaired driver, it is not uncommon to discover pills, tablets, etc. on the suspect's person. Reference to the PDR usually can help to establish the identity and category of these drugs.

The PDR is published annually. Throughout the year, periodic supplements are published as new products come on the market.

B. The Contents of the PDR

The PDR contains the following color-coded sections.

- (1) An index of all manufacturers who provided information on their prescription drugs.
- (2) An index of Product Names (including discontinued products).
- (3) An index of Products by Category of Drugs.
- (4) A Generic and Chemical name index.
- (5) A Product Identification Section, including actual size and full color photographs.
- (6) A Product Information Section, describing the drug's composition, action and uses, administration and dosage, precautions, side effects and contraindications, the form in which it is supplied, etc.
- (7) A Diagnostic Product Information section.
- (8) A listing of the locations and emergency telephone numbers of poison control centers.
- (9) A guide to the management of drug overdoses.

DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROGRAM State Coordinators

(Updated - June 8, 1993)

1. ARIZONA

Officer Vern Alley 602/ 223-2342

Department of Public Safety

P.O. Box 6638 Fax: 602/223-2347

Phoenix, AZ 85005-6638

Dominic Mancini 602/ 255-3216

Operations Manager

Governor's Office of Highway Safety Fax: 602/ 255-1265

2. ARKANSAS

Charlie Marsh 501/ 569-2640

Arkansas State Highway and
Transportation Department Fax: 501/455-1978

P.O. Box 2261

Little Rock, AR 72203

(✓) Gary Simmons 501/ 569-8593

Department of Criminal Justice University of Arkansas (Little Rock)

2801 S University Little Rock, AR 72204

3. CALIFORNIA

Sergeant Jerry Tidwell 916/ 372-5620

California Highway Patrol

3500 Reed Ave. Fax: 916/ 372-5680

West Sacramento, CA 95605

Michele Meadows 916/445-9734

Office of Traffic Safety

700 Franklin Blvd., Suite 330 Fax: 916/ 324-9606

Sacramento; CA 95823

4. COLORADO

Paul Helzer Colorado Department of Transportation Office of Transportation Safety 4201 East Arkansas Avenue Denver, CO 80222

303/ 757-9462

Fax: 303/ 757-9439

5. DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Carole Lewis Highway Safety Program Coordinator DPW, Transportation Safety Branch 2000 14th Street, N.W., 6th Floor Washington, D.C. 20009

202/ 939-8018

Fax: 202/ 939-7185

6. FLORIDA

(√) Bob Jacobs
Institute of Police Technology
and Management
4567 St. John Bluff Road South
Jacksonville, FL 32216

904/ 725-0750

Fax: 904/ 646-2453

Jim Golden Highway Safety Office Department of Transportation 605 Suwanee St. (MS-17) Tallahassee, FL 32399-0450

904/ 488-5455

Fax: 904/ 922-2935

7. GEORGIA

Richard A. Carter Planner, Governor's Office of Highway Safety The Equitable Building 100 Peachtree Street, Suite 2000 Atlanta, GA 30303

404/ 656-6996

Fax: 404/651-9107

8. INDIANA

Ann Reed Indiana Division of Traffic Safety ISTA Building, Suite 330 Indianapolis, IN 46204-2249 317/ 232-1289

Fax: 317/ 233-5150

9. IOWA

Denny Becker Governor's Traffic Safety Bureau 307 East 7th Street Des Moines, IA 50319-0248

515/ 281-3907

Fax: 515/ 281-6190

10. LOUISIANA

Steve Korevec Louisiana Highway Safety Commission P. O. Box 66366

504/ 925-6994

Fax: 504/ 922-0083

Baton Rouge, LA 70896

11. MAINE

Mike Martin Office of Highway Safety 36 Hospital Street State House Station #42 Augusta, ME 04333

207/ 624-8756

Fax: 207/ 624-8768

12. MARYLAND

First Sgt. William Tower Maryland State Police 1201 Reisterstown Road Pikesville, MD 21208

410/ 653-4387

Fax: 410/ 484-2719

13. MINNESOTA

Karen M. Sprattler
Department of Public Safety
Division of Traffic Safety
207 Transportation Building
395 John Ireland Blvd.
St. Paul, MN 55155

612/ 296-9490

Fax: 612/ 297-5728

14. MISSOURI

Larry Bullock Missouri Division of Highway Safety P. O. Box 104804 Jefferson City , MO 65110

314/ 751-5960

Fax: 314/ 634-5977

15. NEBRASKA

Fred Zwonecheck 402/ 471-2515

Office of Highway Safety
301 Centennial Mall South Fax: 402/471-9594

Lincoln, NE 68509

16. NEVADA

Mark Cameron 702/ 687-5270

Traffic Safety Division
555 Wright Way
Fax: 702/687-5328

555 Wright Way Fax: 702/687-5328 Carson City, NV 89711

17. NEW HAMPSHIRE

Earl Sweeney 603/ 271-2133

NH Police Standards & Training Council
17 Fan Road Fax: 603/ 271-1785

17 Fan Road Fax: 603/ 271-1785 Concord, NH 03301-5098

18. NEW JERSEY

Chuck Colleton 609/ 588-3750

Division of Highway Safety
Quakerbridge Plaza, Bldg #5, CN 048 Fax: 609/ 588-7716

3rd Floor, CN 048
Trenton, NJ 08625

19. NEW MEXICO

Joanne Schirmer 505/ 827-0427

Traffic Safety Bureau
P. O. Box 1149
Fax: 505/ 827-0431

Montoya Building Santa Fe, NM 87504-1149

20. NEW YORK

William Pautler 518/ 473-7700

Governor's Traffic Safety Committee

Swan Street Building, Room 414 Fax: 518/473-6946 Empire State Plaza Albany, NY 12228

21. OKLAHOMA

(√) Jim Cox Oklahoma Highway Safety Office 3223 North Lincoln Oklahoma City, OK 73105-5403

405/ 425-2766 405/ 521-3314 Fax: 405/ 425-2773

22. RHODE ISLAND

Mel Woodruff Division of Drug Control Cannon Bldg. Room 304 3 Capitol Hill Providence, RI 02908

401/ 277-2837

Fax: 401/ 277-2499

23. TEXAS

Ken Joyce or Sally Beels Texas Commission on Law Enforcement 1033 La Posada, Suite 240 Austin, TX 78752 **512/ 406-3664** 512/ 406-3663

Fax: 512/ 406-3666

John McKay Department of Transportation 125 E. 11th Street Austin, TX 78701-2483

512/ 416-3170

Fax: 512/ 416-3161

24. UTAH

(/) Sergeant Dan Jensen
Salt Lake County Sheriff's Office
4474 South Main St.
Salt Lake City, UT 84107

801/ 264-2283

Fax: 801/ 264-2201

25. VIRGINIA

804/ 367-1022 Butch Latteer

Department of Motor Vehicles Fax: 804/ 367-6031 P.O. Box 27412

Richmond, VA 23269-0001

804/ 367-1137 Phyllis A. Dardenne

VA Department of Motor Vehicles

P.O. Box 27412 Richmond, VA 23269-0001 Fax: 804/ 367-6031

IACP

703/ 836-6767 Chuck Peltier

515 N. Washington St.

Fax: 703/ 836-4543 Alexandria, VA 22314-2357

DEC Eastern Regional Training Coordinator (States in NHTSA Regions I, II, III)

> 914/ 682-6162 Sergeant Ernie Floegel

222 Mamaroneck Avenue

Fax: 914/ 682-6239 White Plains, NY 10605

(/) Recently changed information (phone numbers, addresses, etc.)

PLEASE NOTIFY GLENN KARR (202) 366-0350, FOR PERIODIC UPDATING.

[GK, NRO-20]

SESSION XIV

HALLUCINOGENS

SESSION XIV HALLUCINOGENS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Explain a brief history of the Hallucinogen category of drugs.
- o Identify common drug names and terms associated with this category.
- o Identify common methods of administration for this category.
- o Explain the symptoms, observable signs and other effects associated with this category.
- o Explain the typical time parameters, i.e., on-set and duration of effects, associated with this category.
- o State the clues that are likely to emerge when the drug evaluation and classification process is conducted for a person under the influence of this category of drugs.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section.

A. Overview of Hallucinogens

Hallucinogens are drugs that cause hallucinations. An hallucination is a sensory experience of something that does not exist outside the mind. It may involve hearing, seeing, smelling, tasting or feeling something that isn't really there. Or, it may involve <u>distorted</u> sensory perceptions, so that things look, sound, smell, taste or feel differently from the way they actually are.

Hallucinogenic drugs usually produce so-called <u>pseudo-</u>
<u>hallucinations</u>. This means that the user typically knows that
what he or she is seeing, hearing, smelling, etc. is not real,
but is a product of the drug.

One common type of hallucination produced by these drugs is called synesthesia, a transposing of sensory modes. For example, seeing a particular sight may cause the user to perceive a sound. Hearing a sound may cause him or her to perceive an odor. Thus, a person under the influence of an hallucinogen might hear a telephone ring, and "see" a flash of brilliant color. Or, he or she might look at something colored yellow and "smell" the fragrance of roses. Sometimes hallucinogen users will make statements indicating that they are experiencing synesthesia (examples: "That chair sounds beautiful!" "Look at those fantastic colors!"). Drug recognition experts should be alert for such statements, and be aware that they are significant indicators of this drug category.

Sometimes, the hallucinations can be very frightening to the user. The user may be panic-stricken by what he or she is seeing or hearing, and may become uncontrollably excited, or even try to flee from the terror. Hallucinogen users call these kinds of experiences "bad trips". Users of hallucinogens have been known to be driven into permanent insanity by these experiences.

A terrifying "bad trip" sometimes may be re-experienced as a <u>flashback</u>. Hallucinogen flashbacks apparently do not occur because of a residual quantity of drug in the user's body. Rather, flashbacks apparently are vivid recollections of a portion of a previous hallucinogenic experience. Essentially, flashbacks are very intense, and very frightening, day dreams.

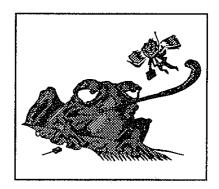
There are three types of flashback; emotional, somatic, and perceptual. The emotional flashback is the most dangerous. It brings back strong feelings of panic, fear and loneliness, and creates an intense and very real recollection of the original "bad trip". A somatic flashback consists of altered bodily sensations, e.g., tremors, weakness, nausea, dizziness, etc. that were part of the original "trip". In a perceptual flashback, the user re-experiences some of the sensory distortions of the original "trip".

Naturally-occurring hallucinogens: some common examples.

<u>Peyote</u> is a small, spineless cactus containing the active hallucinogenic ingredient called mescaline. The crowns, or "buttons", of the cactus can be collected and dried, and eaten. Certain American Indian tribes have used peyote in religious ceremonies for thousands of years. Peyote currently is used legally in religious ceremonies of the Native American church.

<u>Psilocybin</u> is a drug found in a number of different species of mushrooms. An unstable derivative of psilocybin, called psilocin, also has hallucinogenic properties and also is found in these mushrooms. Psilocybin mushrooms also have a long history of use in Indian religious rituals.

Other naturally occurring hallucinogens include nutmeg, jimson weed, morning glory seeds and Bufotenine. The last of those is an hallucinogenic substance found in the glands of certain toads. Bufotenine is toxic; the toad secretes Bufotenine through its skin as a defensive mechanism, to make it too unpleasant for a predator to eat the toad. But you guessed it: there are people who actually lick toads to get high from Bufotenine.



Synthetically-manufactured hallucinogens: some common examples.

LSD probably is the most famous synthetic hallucinogen. "LSD" is an abbreviation of Lysergic Acid Diethylamide.

MDA, MDMA, MMDA, TMA, STP, DET, and DMT are other synthetic hallucinogens. They are sometimes referred to as "psychedelic amphetamines" or "psychotomimetic amphetamines". Their effects are often similar to those of high doses of CNS stimulants.

MDA is an abbreviation for 3,4-Methylenedioxyamphetamine. Its users sometimes refer to MDA as the "Mellow Drug of America". It is normally produced as a clear liquid, or as a white powder in capsule or tablet form. MDA often is mixed with amphetamine, cocaine, methamphetamine, LSD or STP, or occasionally with strychnine. MDA probably is the most widely abused of the "psychedelic amphetamines".

MDMA is an abbreviation for Methylenedioxymethamphetamine. It is perhaps better known by the "street name" Ecstasy. MDMA is chemically very similar to MDA.

MMDA is an abbreviation for 5-Methoxy-3,4-Methylenedioxylamphetamine. Its effects are similar to those of MDA or peyote.

TMA is an abbreviation for 3,4,5-Trimethoxyamphetamine. Its effects are also similar to those of MDA or peyote.

<u>STP</u> is an abbreviation for "Serenity, Tranquility and Peace". It is also know by the chemical name <u>DOM</u>, or 2-Methyl-2,5-Dimethox-ylamphetamine.

DET is diethyltryptamine.

DMT is dimethyltryptamine. It is sometimes known as the
"businessman's trip" because its effects last only about one hour
(i.e., short enough to occupy a "businessman's lunch").

An important fact about many hallucinogens is that they are not addictive. Nevertheless, many hallucinogen abusers frequently use these drugs, because they enjoy the effects.

The most common method of ingesting hallucinogens is orally. Psilocybin mushrooms and peyote "buttons" can be eaten "as is". LSD often is placed on bits of paper, or on sugar cubes, and eaten.

Some hallucinogens, such as LSD, can be put into marijuana or tobacco cigarettes and smoked.

Some MDA users snort that drug.

Some LSD users inject that drug.

B. Possible Effects of Hallucinogens

In general, hallucinogens intensify whatever mood the user is in when the drug is taken. If the user is depressed, the drug will deepen the depression. If the user is feeling pleasant, the drug usually will heighten that feeling. If the user expects that the drug will help him or her achieve new insights or an expanded consciousness, the drug will seem to have that effect. However, use of hallucinogens often uncovers mental or emotional flaws of which the user was unaware. Such flaws can result in the panic and terror of a "bad trip" even though the user was expecting a pleasurable experience.

The most common effect of an hallucinogen is hallucination. The user's perception of reality is severely distorted, often to the point of synesthesia. This makes it virtually impossible for the hallucinogen-influenced person to function in the real world.

- C. Onset and Duration of Hallucinogens' Effects
 - Peyote's effects generally begin to be felt within one-half hour after eating the cactus "buttons". The initial effects often include nausea, possible vomiting, mild rise in blood pressure, pulse rate and temperature. And, the pupils dilate.

After about one hour, sensory changes begin. The user experiences visual distortions, accompanied by rich colors. Objects take on new forms and begin to move. Shapes "come alive". The sensory changes reach their peak in about 3-4 hours, with synesthesia occurring at about that time period. After about 10 hours there will be a gradual decline in effects, with near total recovery in about 12 hours.

2. <u>Psilocybin's</u> effects also start to develop in about one-half hour. The user first experiences dizziness, a light-headed feeling, and giddiness. The extremities (hands, feet, etc.) begin to feel very light or very heavy. After about 30-60 minutes, vision blurs. Colors become brighter and leave longer-lasting after-images. Objects take on sharp visual definition and hearing becomes more acute.

Sixty-to-ninety minutes after eating the mushrooms, color patterns and shapes start to develop. The surfaces of objects become wavy. Feelings of euphoria develop. Shortly thereafter, body sensations increase, along with mental perceptions. The user often becomes introspective.



After 2-3 hours, the effects begin to diminish.

- 3. <u>LSD's</u> effects begin to be felt in 30-45 minutes. Pulse rate, blood pressure and temperature rise. The pupils dilate. The hair starts to stand on end (piloerection). Nausea, dizziness and headache develop. The effects reach their peak in about 4-6 hours. After 7-9 hours, the effects diminish. The user generally feels normal after 10-12 hours.
- 4. MDA's effects usually begin within 40-60 minutes. The pupils dilate. Pulse rate and blood pressure increase. The effects reach their peak in about 90-120 minutes, and usually have dissipated within 8 hours.
- D. Signs and Symptoms of Hallucinogen Overdose

It is unlikely that hallucinogens <u>directly</u> are life-threatening. However, overdoses have often <u>indirectly</u> resulted in death. For example, one LSD user was killed when he attempted to stop a train, bare handed. The extreme panic and agitation of a "bad trip" have been known to lead to suicide, or to accidental deaths as users have tried to flee from their hallucinations.

The most common danger of an hallucinogen overdose is an intense "bad trip", which can result in severe and sometimes permanent psychosis.

There is some evidence that prolonged use of LSD may produce organic brain damage, leading to impaired memory, reduced attention span, mental confusion, and impaired ability to deal with abstract concepts.

E. Expected Results of the Evaluation

When a person under the influence of an hallucinogen is examined by a drug recognition technician, the following results can be expected.

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus - none.

<u>Vertical Nystagmus</u> - none.

Lack of Convergence - none.

Pupil size - dilated.

Pupil's <u>reaction to light</u> - normal. However, the psychedelic amphetamines usually will slow the pupils' reaction.

Pulse rate - up.

Blood pressure - up.

Temperature - up.

Muscle Tone may be rigid.

<u>Injection sites</u> generally will not be found. However, some LSD users do inject the drug.

Topics for study

- 1. What does "synesthesia" mean?
- 2. What is a "flashback"? What are the three types of "flashback"?
- 3. Name two naturally-occurring hallucinogens.
- 4. What is a "bad trip"?
- 5. What does "psychotomimetic" mean?
- 6. What is an "illusion"? What is a "delusion"?
- 7. What is the difference between "hallucinations" and "pseudohallucinations"?
- 8. What is "piloerection"?

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1. L	OCATION: DRUG INFLUENCE EXAMINATION OF LEW B. BUCHANAN WAS CONDUCTED BY
	Sit. Robert How on January 25, 19xx AT THE CENTRAL TESTING UNIT NCPD.
	WITNESS: ARRESTING OFFICER (DANIEL GREGORY # 3210)
	BAC: OFFICER GREGORY INFORMED ME THAT HE ADMINISTERED BREATHALYZER TEST T
	MR. BUCHAWAW AT 00:55 HOURS, AND OBTAINED RESULT OF 0.05%. MR
	BUCHAWAN LATER ADMITTED TO ME THAT HE HAD CONSUMED "A COUPLE OF BEERS"
	VOTIFICATION: I WAS SUMMONED TO CENTRAL TESTING AT 01:00 HRS. OFFICER
	GREGORY INFORMED ME THAT HE HAD OBSERVED MR. BUCHANAN DRIVING AT
	ID MOH ON CROSS ISLAND PARKWAY (LIMIT 55 MPH) DRIFTING FROM LAWE TO
	LANE. OFFICER GREGORY ALSO STATED MR. BUCHANAN DERFORMED DIVIDED
	ATTENTION TESTS VERY POORLY BUT EXHIBITED ONLY SLIGHT NYSTAGMUS
5.	INITIAL OBSERVATION: I FIRST SAW MR, BUCHANAU AT DI: 10 HRS. HE WAS
	SWAYING SLIGHTLY AS HE STOOD, AND APPEARED DATED AND DISORIENTED. HE
	RESPONDED Slowly TO MY GREETING, BUT THEN WAS GENERALLY COOPERATION
	AND RESPONSIVE TO MY QUESTIONS. I ASKED "ABOUT WHAT TIME DO
	YOU THINK IT IS RIGHT NOW?" HE REPLIED "ABOUT 100 CLOCK". IT WAS
	IN FACT OILIS HOURS.
	MEDICAL PROBLEMS / TREATMENT. MR. BUCHANAN INDICATED SOME NAUSEA
7	PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS: MR. BUCHANAN EXHIBITED 3"CIRCULAR SWAY ON ROMBER
	AND ESTIMATED 35 ACTUAL SELONDS AS 30 SECONDS. HE WAS UNABLE TO KEEP HEEL-
	TOE BALANCE FOR WAT INSTRUCTIONS. HE WAS UNABLE TO STAND ON ONE FUOT.
	ON FINGER-TO-NOSE, HE WIDELY MISSED TIP OF NOSE ON All TRIALS.
8.	CLINICAL SIGNS: MR. BUCHANAN EXHIBITED ONLY THE "LACK/SMOOTH PURSUIT"
	CIVE OF HORIZONTAL GAZE NYSTAGMUS; HE HAD NO VERTICAL NYSTAGMUS; HU EYE
	WERE NOT ABLE TO CONVERGE THE'SE INDICATIONS ARE CONSISTENT WITH
	HIS BAC OF 0,05%. IN ADDITION MR. BUCHANAN'S FUPILS WERE
	DILATED AND HIS BLOOD PRESSURE, PULSE AND TEMPERATURE WERE ALL
	ELEVATED.
4,	SIBNS OF INGESTION: NOWE EVIDENT
	STATEMENTS: MR. BUCHANAN DENIEL AND DRUG USE.
11.	OPINION: IN MY OPINION AS A CERTIFIED DRE LEW B. BUCHANAN
	PRESENTLY IS UNABLE TO OPERATE A MOTOR VEHICLE SAFELY. HIS
	IMPAIRMENT IS CONSISTENT WITH A COMBINATION OF ALCOHOL AND
12	. TOXICOLOGICAL SPECIMEN: MR. BUCHAJAJ AGREED TO SUPPLY A
16.	Rloop sample,
12	MISCELLANEOUS:
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SESSION XV

PRACTICE: TEST INTERPRETATION

SESSION XV PRACTICE: TEST INTERPRETATION

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Analyze the results of a complete drug evaluation and classification examination and identify the category or categories of drugs affecting the individual examined.
- o Articulate the bases for the drug category identification.

In this session, you will have an opportunity to review some drug evaluation and classification report forms. These "exemplars" are not based on examinations of actual suspects, but the "findings" they display are realistic simulations of what you will observe when you examine suspected drug-impaired drivers in the future.

Your task is to review the forms, consider all of the "evidence" they provide, and decide what category of drugs -- if any -- is involved in each case. Naturally, since we have only covered three categories thus far in our training, the "exemplars" only reflect those categories. Also, to make this practice session relatively easy, no combinations of categories have been included in these "exemplars".

In subsequent practice sessions of this type, you will be exposed to "exemplars" reflecting additional drug categories and combinations of categories.

SESSION XVI

PHENCYCLIDINE (PCP)

SESSION XVI PHENCYCLIDINE (PCP)

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- Explain a brief history of PCP.
- o Identify common drug names and terms associated with PCP.
- o Identify common methods of administration for PCP.
- o Explain the symptoms, observable signs and other effects associated with PCP.
- o Explain the typical time parameters, i.e., on-set and duration of effects, associated with PCP.
- o State the clues that are likely to emerge when the drug evaluation and classification process is conducted for a person under the influence of PCP.
- o Correctly answer the "topics for study" questions at the end of this Section.

A. Overview of PCP

The formal chemical name for this drug is Phenyl Cyclohexyl Piperidine, from which the initials PCP are derived. "Phencyclidine" is simply a contracted form of the actual chemical name.

PCP, or Phencyclidine, is a single drug that forms a distinct category of its own, because the effects it produces are unlike those of any other category. In some respects, PCP acts like an hallucinogen; and, it is frequently classed as an hallucinogen in medical texts and scientific/research reports. In other respects, it acts like a stimulant, and in still other respects it is similar to a depressant.

PCP was first developed in the 1950's as an intravenous anesthetic. It was patented and marketed in 1963 under the trade name Sernyl. Within a few years, as evidence of PCP's very undesirable side effects accumulated, its use as an anesthetic for humans was discontinued. In 1968, it was repatented as a veterinary anesthetic under the trade name Sernylan.

Although we speak of PCP as forming a separate category of drugs all by itself, there actually are more than one hundred slightly different drugs that belong to this category. These drugs are the <u>analogs</u> of PCP. In this case, an analog is a "chemical first cousin" of PCP, i.e., a drug that has a slightly different molecular structure from that of PCP but that has properties indistinguishable from PCP's. A person under the influence of PCP likewise cannot be distinguished from someone who is under the influence of a PCP analog. When a DRE concludes that a suspect is impaired by Phencyclidine, his or her report should state that "...the subject is under the influence of PCP or an analog of PCP".

One of the better-known analogs of PCP is <u>Ketamine</u>, a drug used as an anesthetic in pediatric surgery. Not all laboratories that perform blood and urine analyses are capable of detecting all of the known analogs of PCP; in fact, some of the analogs can be detected by few if any laboratories. Thus, a DRE should not be surprised if a negative toxicological report comes back for a suspect the DRE believed was impaired by Phencyclidine. It is possible that the suspect had used an analog that the particular lab couldn't detect.

Among PCP's least desirable side effects are delirium, visual disturbances and hallucinations and, occasionally, violence. Some evidence of long term memory disorders and psychological disturbances resembling schizophrenia has also been linked to PCP.

PCP is relatively easy to manufacture, using readily available chemicals. The formula for producing PCP has been widely publicized. However, although easy to make, it is also dangerous to make. A lack of caution in the production process could

release the same deadly gas that is used for executions in gas chambers. Also, liquid PCP is especially dangerous because it can be absorbed through the skin.

PCP has numerous "street names". The chart at the bottom of the page lists some of the more common "street names" for PCP.

Many PCP users ingest their drugs by smoking. PCP can be applied in either liquid or powder form to a variety of vegetable or leafy substances, such as mint leaves, parsley, oregano, tobacco or marijuana. The substances then can be smoked in a pipe or cigarette. Because PCP smoke is very hot and can irritate the mouth and tongue, many smokers prefer to use mint leaves and similar material to cool the smoke. For the same reason, PCP smokers who adulterate commercial cigarettes prefer to use mentholated brands, such as "Kools" and "Shermans".

Powdered PCP can also be <u>snorted</u> or <u>taken orally</u>. Liquid PCP can be injected, or administered directly to the eyes, via an eyedropper.

B. Possible Effects of PCP

PCP produces impairments and other observable effects on the human mind and body that are a combination of effects produced by depressants, stimulants and hallucinogens.

- o Slow, slurred speech
- o Disorientation
- o Loss of memory
- o Agitation, excitement
- o Blank stare
- o Passivity -- but the user may abruptly turn violent if confronted with a threatening situation.
- o Non-communicative
- o Muscle Tone rigid
- o Loss of a sense of personal identity
- o Sensory distortions
- o Auditory hallucinations
- o A feeling of extreme heat, profuse perspiration.
- Increased pain threshold.

	SOME COMMON	STREET NAMES FOR	PCP
ACE	CRYSTAL	MONKEY DUST	ELEPHANT TRANQUILIZER
AMOEBA	KRYSTAL	GREEN	HORSE TRANQUILIZER
TRANK	CRYSTAL JOINT	GREEN LEAVES	ANIMAL TRANQUILIZER
JET FUEL	KJ (or CJ)	KOOLS	SUPER WEED
JUICE	EMBALMING FLUID	SUPER KOOLS	ZOMBIE WEED
DUST	TIC TAC	SHERMS	PEACE WEED
ANGEL DUST	PEACE	SUPER GRASS	MINT WEED
DEVIL DUST	PAZ	KILLER WEED	LOVELY
MAGIC DUST	PEACE PILL		

As with many other drugs, regular users of PCP may have developed a tolerance to the drug that masks some of the observable signs of PCP's effects.

PCP has been called a "dissociative anesthetic". That is to say, it cuts off the brain's perceptions of the senses. PCP users often feel that their heads are physically separated from their bodies. They sometimes report feeling that they are dead, and that their heads are floating away.

C. Onset and Duration of PCP's Effects

When <u>smoked or injected</u>, PCP's effects generally are felt within 1-5 minutes. When <u>snorted</u>, the onset occurs in about 2-3 minutes. The effects reach their peak in about 15-30 minutes. The effects generally last 4-6 hours, but they can last somewhat longer.

D. Signs and Symptoms of PCP Overdose

One possible result of PCP overdose is bizarre, violent and self-destructive behavior. The following are extreme, but not unique, examples:

- One young man methodically pulled out his own teeth, with a pair of pliers.
- o Another drank rat poison, hoping to kill the rats that he imagined were infesting his body.
- A third suffered hallucinations of unbelievably grotesque monsters, and gouged out his own eyes to avoid seeing the monsters.
- O A 26-year-old nude woman in Washington, DC repeatedly plunged a butcher knife into her own eye, chest, groin and abdomen. She then threatened a police officer with the knife and was shot to death. (Washington Post, March 7, 1988)

PCP can also produce extreme physical, as well as psychological distress:

- o A deep coma, lasting for up to 12 hours.
- Seizures and convulsions.
- o Respiratory depression.
- o Possible cardiac problems.
- E. Expected Results of the Evaluation

When a person under the influence of PCP is examined by a drug recognition expert, the following results can be expected.

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus will be present, generally with a very early angle of onset. Vertical Nystagmus will be present.

Lack of Convergence will be present.

Pupil size will be normal.

Pupil's reaction to light will be normal.

Pulse rate will be up.

Blood pressure will be up.

Temperature will be up. It is not uncommon for persons under the influence of PCP to remove most or all of their clothing in an effort to cool down.

Muscle tone will be rigid, and usually will be very easily observable.

<u>Injection sites</u> usually won't be found, although some PCP users do inject the drug.

Topics for study

- 1. What was the original purpose for which PCP was first patented and marketed?
- 2. Why do many PCP smokers prefer to adulterate <u>mentholated</u> cigarettes with PCP?
- 3. What is Ketamine?
- 4. What does the term "dissociative anesthetic" mean?
- 5. "Phencyclidine" is a contraction of what three words?

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Page / of / DRUG INFL	UENCE E	VALUATION	800xu	HG HO	DA.	
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1. LOCATION I CONDUCTED A DRUS INFLUENCE EXAMINATION OF MR. ROBERT H. ROLL IN TH. DRE ROOM OF 4TH DIST. HDOTS NYSP, TARRYTOWN, THE EXAMMATION TOOK PLACE BETWEEN 2145 AND 2220 HOURS, DEC. 8 19XX. 2. WITNESS ARRESTING OFFICER ALAN BROWN #1832 3. BAC OFFICER BROWN INFORMED ME HE ADMINISTERED INTOXINTER TEST TO MR. RO AT 2135 HRS AND OBTAINED RESULT OF 0.00% 4. NOTIFICATION OFFICER BROWN CONTACTED ME BY RADIO AT 2120 HRS. AND REQUEST I MEET HIM AT 4TH DIST FOR PURPOSE OF CONDUCTING DI EXAM. ON ARRIVAL BROWN INFORMED ME HAD OBJECUED ROSS DRIVING S/R IN MEDIAN DIVIDER OF NYS THROUGHWAY AT APPROX, 10 MPH, BROWN STATED ROLL APPEARED DAZED AND COULD NOT STATE WHERE HE WAS OR WHERE HE HAD COME FROM. 5. INITIAL OBSERVATION AT 2140 HES ROSS APPEARED DAZED AND DISORIENTEL HE HAD A FIXED STARE. HE RESPONDED VERY SLOWLY (DELAY OF 5-10 SELOW LUGITZANI OHA LUGITZAUQ YM 10 1/4 OT 6. MEDICAL PROBLEMS/TREATMENT NONE INDICATED. 7. PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS ROLS EXAIBITED 3"CIRCULAR SWAY THROUGHOUT ROMBER! TEST AND ESTIMATED 45 ACTUAL SECONDS AS 30 SECONDS. ON WAT, ROLL STARTE WAIKING IMMEDIATELY, LOST BALANCE DURING INSTRUCTIONS. TWICE STEPPED OF TINE TWICE STOPPED WAIKING REPEATEDLY RAISED ARMS AND NEVER TOUCHE HEEL TO TOE. HE ALLO TURNED ETRUPTH AND TOUK 10 STEPS PATHER THAN 9. ROSS WAS WABLE TO COMPLETE OLS ON EITHER FOOT. HE REPEATEDLY MISSED THE TIP OF AUGE ON FINGER - NOGE TEST, AND HIS ARM MOVEMENTS WERE US RIGID. 8. Clinical SIGNL ROSS EXHIBITED HORIZONTAL ANSTAGMUS WITH IMMEDIATE ONLE: VERTICAL MYSTAGMUS AND LACK OF CONVERGENCE. HIS Blood PRESSURE, PULL AND TEMPERATURE WERE ELEVATED BEYOUD NORMAL RAUGES. HIS PUBLI SIZE WAS WITHIN NORMAL WOER ALL ILLUMINATION. 9. SIGNS OF INGESTION THERE WAS A STRONG CHEMICAL ODOR ON ROSS! BREATH. 10. STATEMENTS ROSS DEVIED TAKING ANY MEDICATION OF DRUGS II. OPINION I AM A CERTIFIED DRE. IN MY JUDGMENT, AT THE TIME OF MY EXAMINATION OF HIM. ROBERT H. ROSS WAS UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF PHENCYCLIDINE OR AN ANALOG OF PHENCYCLIDIN AND WAS NOT ABLE TO OPERATE A MOTOR VEHICLE SAFELY. 12. TOXICOLOGICAL SPECIMEN MR. ROSS SUBMITTED TO EXTRACTION OF A Blood SDECIMEN AT 2230 HOURS.

13. MISCELLANEOUS THREE DISCOLORED FILTERED CIGARETTES IN A "KOOL"

THE STATE CRIME LAB

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1. LOCATION ROBIN C. MAYER WAS THE SURSECT OF A DRE EVALUATION THAT I CONDUCT AT DENVER PD HOOTS ON 2 MAY XX, 2. WITNESSES CLIFFORD JOHNSON (ARRESTING OFFICER) - EDWARD BINGHAM (COORDIN 3. BAL I ADMINISTERED INTOXILYZER TEST TO MS. MAYER AT 2300 HRS. RESULT WAS DOSITIVE (0.04%). AT THAT TIME SHE ADMITTED SHE HAD CONSUME SOME BEEL, 4. NOTIFICATION LT. BINGHAM SUMMONED ME TO DPD HOOTS AT 2245 HRS. STATIL THAT OFFICER JOHNSON WAS EN ROUTE WITH A POSSIBLE PCP SUSPECT, AT HOP OFFICER JOHNSON STATED HE HAD APPREHENDED MS. MAYER FUR FAILING TO CE STOP SIGN. SHE WAS SMOKING A CHEARETTE THAT GAVE OF STRONG CHEMICA ODOR. OFFICER JOHNSON HAD CONFISCATED THE CIGARETTE. IT ADPEARED TO CONTAIN TOBACCO, BUT ALSO HAD A THICK STRING IMBEDDED IN IT. 5. INITIAL OBSERVATION WHEN I FIRST SAW MS. MAYER SHE WAS SITTING QUIET! IN THE DRE POOM. SHE STARED FIXEDLY AHEAD, AND SEEMED TO TAKE NO NOTICE OF OFFICER JOHNSON LT. BINGHAM OR ME. I ASKED HER TO LOOK AT ME AND I HAD TO REPEAT THAT TWICE BEFORE SHE SlOWLY RAISE HER HEAD AND MET MY EYES. G. MEDICAL PROBLEMS/TREATMENT NONE INDICATED 7. PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS MS. MAYER WAS VERY Slow IN RESPONDING TO All INSTRUCTIONS ON THESE TESTS. BUT DID ATTEMPT TO COMPLY, SHE SWAYE 3 INCHES CIRCULARLY ON ROMBERS AND OVERESTIMATED TIME BY 10 SECONDS. SHE TWICE OUT BALANCE ON WAT INSTRUKTIONS, THEN TOUK TO HEEL-TOE STEDS WITH ARMS RAISED CONSTANTLY, SWINELED ABOUTTY AND STAGGERED THREE STEPS TO HE LEFT. AFTER RESAMME BALANCE SHE CEASED TAKING HEEL-TOE STEPS AND SIMPLY TOOK 12 "NUPMA!" STEPS. HER LEGS SEEMED VERY STIFF AND RIGI AFTER 3 SERONDS OF ONE LEGSTAND, SHE FELL ON FINGER- TO - NOSE, SHE REDEATEDLY MISSED TIP OF MOSE AND ON ONE TRIALMISSED THE NOSE ENTIRE 8. CLINICAL SIGNS Ms, MAYER HAD IMMEDIATE HORIZONTAL NYSTAGMUS WERT DUTT VERTICAL NYSTAGMUS AND NO VISIBLE CONVERGENCE OF THE EYES. PULSE, B/ AND TEMO. WERE ALL ELEVATED. PUPIL SIZE WAS NURMAL. 9. SIGUS OF INGESTION MS. MAYER'S BREATH HAD A CHEMICAL ODDR 10. STATEMENTS MS. MAYER ADMITTED TO DRINKING "ONE REER" SHE DID NOT RESPOND TO MY QUESTIONS ABOUT DRUG USE OR ABOUT THE GIGARETTE. 11. OPINION IN MY OPINION AS A CERTIFIED DRE, ROBIN C. MAYER IS UNDER THE COMBINED INFLUENCE OF ALCOHOL AND PCP OR AWANALOG OF PCP AND SH IS UNABLE TO ODERATE A MOTOR VEHICLE SAFELY. 12. TOXICOLOGICAL SDECIMEN MS MAYER SUBMITTED TO A BLOOD TEST. 13. MISCELLANEOUS THE CONFISCATED CIGARETTE WAS SUBMITTED TO THE COLORADO DEDT OF HEALTH LAB.

SESSION XVII NARCOTIC ANALGESICS

SESSION XVII NARCOTIC ANALGESICS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- Explain a brief history of the Narcotic Analgesic category of drugs.
- o Identify common drug names and terms associated with the category.
- o Identify common methods of administration for this category.
- o Explain the symptoms, observable signs and other effects associated with this category.
- o Explain the typical time parameters, i.e., on-set and duration of effects, associated with this category.
- o State the clues that are likely to emerge when the drug evaluation and classification process is conducted for a person under the influence of this category of drugs.
- o Explain the procedures to examine for injection sites.
- o Correctly answer the "Topics for Study" questions at the end of the section.

A. Overview of Narcotic Analgesics

There are two sub-categories of Narcotic Analgesics. The first subcategory consists of the <u>Natural Alkaloids of Opium and opium derivatives</u>. An "alkaloid" is a substance that is found in another substance, and that can be isolated from it. For example, Morphine, Codeine and Thebaine are all found naturally in opium.

Unlike the Natural Alkaloids, the <u>Opium Derivatives</u> are not naturally-occurring substances. Rather, they are produced by chemically treating the Natural Alkaloids. Heroin is probably the most famous Opium Derivative, but there are a number of other important drugs that belong to this subcategory. The source for both the Natural Alkaloids and the Opium Derivatives is a particular species of poppy plant, called the "opium poppy", or <u>papaver somniferum</u> (Latin for "the poppy that brings sleep"). Opium is the sap from the seed pods of that plant.

The second subcategory of Narcotic Analgesics, however, has nothing to do with the opium poppy. This subcategory consists of the <u>Synthetic Opiates</u>, which are produced artificially from a variety of non-opiate substances. One of the best-known of these is Methadone, a drug used as a substitute for Heroin in drug treatment programs.

The synthetic Narcotic Analgesics are produced from a variety of non-opiate substances. The synthetics, which do not derive from opium at all, but have similar or identical effects. The synthetic Narcotic Analgesics are produced from a variety of non-opiate substances.

All narcotic analgesics share three distinguishing characteristics:

- they will relieve pain (this is what "analgesic" means);
- o they will produce withdrawal signs and symptoms, when the drug is stopped after chronic administration;
- o their use will suppress the withdrawal signs and symptoms of chronic morphine administration. (This means that the various narcotic analgesics can be substituted for each other to relieve withdrawal symptoms.)
- The chart on the next page exhibits the names of some Natural Alkaloids and Opium Derivatives and shows their derivation from opium.

Powdered opium, also known as "smoking opium", is not really a derivative, but rather is a simple refinement of raw opium. (In much the same sense, "refined sugar" is still sugar.) Powdered opium is used medically to treat diarrhea. As a medicine, it is taken orally. As a drug of abuse, it is smoked. It remains popular as a drug of abuse among some Asian American communities.

Morphine is the principal Natural Alkaloid of opium. It was first isolated from opium in 1805. Morphine is used medically to suppress severe pain, for example, with terminal cancer patients. It is highly addictive.

Codeine is another Natural Alkaloid of opium, separate from morphine. Codeine was first isolated in 1832. It is used medically to suppress coughing or minor pain. Although codeine is an analgesic, its pain-killing ability is much weaker than morphine's. Codeine definitely is addictive. NOTE: the technical, or generic, name for codeine is Methylmorphine.

Heroin is an Opium Derivative that is produced by chemically treating Morphine. Heroin is the most commonly abused illicit narcotic analgesic. Heroin was first produced in 1874, in the hope that it would prove to be a non-addictive substitute for morphine. Heroin was approved for general use by the American Medical Association in 1906. However, its importation and manufacture have been illegal in this country since 1925. NOTE: The technical, or generic, name for heroin is Diacetyl Morphine.

<u>Dilaudid</u> is another Opium Derivative that also is produced from Morphine. Dilaudid sometimes is called "drug store heroin", because it is commercially available. It is used medically for short term relief of moderate to severe pain, and to suppress severe, persistent coughs. Dilaudid has the same addictive liabilities as does heroin or morphine. NOTE: The technical, or generic, name for dilaudid is <u>Hydromorphone Hydrochloride</u>.

Hycodan is an Opium Derivative that "descends" from the Natural Alkaloid, Codeine. The technical name for Hycodan is Hydrocodone. It is used medically to treat coughs. Sometimes hycodan is abused by addicts who are unable to obtain heroin or morphine.

<u>Percodan</u> is another Opium Derivative that is produced by chemically treating Codeine. The technical name for Percodan is Oxycodone. Percodan is one of the most commonly prescribed narcotic analgesics. It is somewhat less addictive than morphine, but more addictive than codeine. Another prescriptive drug, called "percobarb" is a combination of percodan and barbiturate. Thus, someone who takes percobarb is a polydrug user, and will experience a combination of the effects of narcotic analgesics and CNS depressants.

Metopon derives from thebaine, which is another Natural Alkaloid of opium. Metopon is chemically similar to morphine, and is used to relieve chronic pain (such as terminal cancer).

2. Some common synthetic opiates include the following.

<u>Demerol</u> is one of the most widely used synthetic opiates for relief of pain and for sedation. It was first produced in 1939. The technical name for Demerol is Meperidine. Demerol is the most frequently abused narcotic analgesic among the medical profession.

Methadone was developed in Germany during World War II. Methadone's effects are similar to morphine's, although methadone's effects develop more slowly and last longer. Methadone was developed because of wartime shortages in Germany of morphine. The primary advantage of Methadone is that it cannot be injected, and it has a much longer duration of effects than Heroin. Also, methadone's withdrawal symptoms are slower and milder than are morphine's. It is for these reasons that methadone is used extensively in "maintenance programs" as a substitute for heroin for addicts undergoing treatment. The technical name is <u>Dolophine</u>.

Numorphan is a powerful analgesic with the same addictive properties as morphine. It is used medically for relief of chronic pain. It is sold in ampules (injection) and in suppositories.

The <u>Fentanyls</u> include several hundred "designer drug" analogs of morphine. "Sublimaze" is a brand name for fentanyl. It is a Schedule II drug. It is frequently found in overdose situations. For example, "Tango and Cash" and "Goodfellas," which contained fentanyl, were sold in New York City in 1990 as Heroin. Many fatal overdoses occurred as a result. Fentanyls were first developed in 1965. The principal abused fentanyl is "three-methyl fentanyl". This analog is very powerful, and can be fatal in very small amounts.

MPPP is an illegally manufactured analog of Demerol. MPPP is powerfully addictive, and thus is very dangerous in its own right. What makes it even more dangerous is the fact that the "home chemists" who produce it often make a mistake that causes the MPPP to become contaminated with a substance called MPTP, a chemical that produces a paralysis similar to Parkinson's Disease.

<u>Darvon</u> is a synthetic opiate of relatively low analgesic potency, and relatively low addiction liability. Technical Name is Propoxyphene. It is fairly commonly prescribed.

- Methods of administration vary from one narcotic analgesic 3. to another. Heroin, and some others, usually are injected. Some are taken orally, some are snorted (taken intranasally), others in the form of suppositories. Others may be smoked.
- Possible Effects of Narcotic Analgesics В.

However, the effects that a narcotic analgesic user will experience and exhibit depend on the tolerance that the user has developed for the drug. As a person develops tolerance for a drug, that person will experience diminishing effects if he or she continues to take the same dose of the drug. Conversely, if the person wishes to continue to experience the same effects, he or she will have to take steadily larger doses as tolerance develops.

People develop tolerance to narcotic analgesics fairly rapidly. A narcotic analgesic user who has developed tolerance and who has taken his or her "normal" dose of the drug may exhibit little or no evidence of intellectual or physical impairment. For example, an heroin addict who has injected his or her usual dose may be able to operate a car properly and perform flawlessly on field sobriety tests.

The intellectual and physical effects of narcotic analgesics usually are evident with new users, or with tolerant users who have taken more than their "normal" doses.

One of the most easily observable effects with a new user is a condition known as "on the nod". This is a semi-conscious type of sleep, brought about by the sedative action of the drug. When a user is "on the nod", his or her eyelids will become very droopy (ptosis), and the head will slump forward until the chin rests on the chest. But the user usually can be awakened easily and be sufficiently alert to respond to questions.

In general, the effects of narcotic analgesics include:

- slowed reflexes 0
- 0 slow, low and raspy speech
- o sluggish, "rubber-like" movements
 o slowed breathing
- 0 cold skin
- possible vomiting



Heroin users generally experience certain psychological effects immediately after injection. These include a feeling of pleasure or euphoria; relief from withdrawal symptoms; and, relief from pain. Physical effects, if they are evident at all, typically

will become evident after 5-30 minutes. But remember: physical effects may not be evident if the user is tolerant and has taken a normal dose. With new users, the physical effects include:

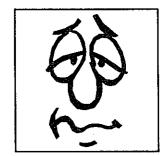
- o "on the nod"
- o poor motor coordination
- o depressed reflexes
- o slow breathing

The physical effects usually will be observable for up to 3-6 hours with new users.

As the physical effects begin to disappear, <u>withdrawal</u> signs and symptoms start to emerge. These withdrawal signs can become very severe, if the user does not inject another dose. However, it is important to keep in mind that <u>when</u> withdrawal signs are evident, the individual is <u>no longer</u> under the influence of the drug.

Withdrawal symptoms usually begin to be felt within 4-6 hours after the last injection of heroin. The addict experiences chills, aches of the muscles and joints, nausea and insomnia.

Outward signs of withdrawal typically start to be observable within 8-12 hours following injection. The addict sweats and has goose bumps on the skin. Reflexes become hyperactive. The addict yawns, may vomit, and his or her nose becomes runny and the eyes tear. At this point, the withdrawal signs and symptoms closely resemble those of the common cold or the 'flu. The withdrawal signs and symptoms intensify from 14-24 hours following injection, and may be



accompanied by gooseflesh, slight tremors, loss of appetite and dilation of the pupils.

Approximately 24-36 hours since the last "fix", the addict experiences insomnia, vomiting, diarrhea, weakness, depression and hot/cold flashes. Withdrawal signs and symptoms generally reach their peak after 2-3 days. At this point, the addict usually experiences muscular and abdominal cramps, elevated temperature and severe tremors and twitching. This twitching, especially of the legs, is referred to in the expression "kicking the habit". The addict is very nauseated at this time, may gag and vomit repeatedly, and may lose 10-15 pounds within 24 hours.

D. Signs and Symptoms of Narcotic Analgesic Overdose

Narcotic analgesics depress respiration. The user's breathing becomes slow and shallow, and death can occur from severe respiratory depression. The skin becomes clammy, and the overdosing user may experience convulsions, slip into a coma, lips turn blue, body become pale or blue and extremely constricted pupils (unless there is brain damage in which pupils may be dilated).

The danger of death from an overdose of narcotic analgesic is heightened by the fact that the addict may not know the strength of the drug that he or she is taking.

E. Expected Results of the Evaluation

When a person under the influence of a narcotic analgesic is examined by a drug recognition expert, the following results generally will be obtained.

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus - none.

<u>Vertical Nystagmus</u> - none.

Lack of Convergence - none.

Pupil size - constricted.

Pupil's usually will exhibit little or no visible <u>reaction to light</u>.

Pulse rate will be down.

Blood pressure will be lowered.

Temperature will be down.

Muscle tone usually will be near normal to flaccid.

<u>Injection sites</u> usually will be found, with heroin users. Injection sites may not be evident with users of other narcotic analgesics.

F. Injection Site Examination

Examination of injection sites can reveal many clues about a users' drug habit. The sites can reveal if the user injects their drugs and if the use was current or in the recent past.

Drugs enter the body through three major tissues of the body - intramuscular, just under the skin or through a vein.

The primary instrument used to inject drugs is a hypodermic syringe. The syringe consists of a hollow needle, tube and a plunger. The inside diameter of the needle or gauge vary in size. The larger the gauge, the smaller the needle.

The user's equipment is commonly referred to as a "hype kit" or "works". The kit consists of a cooker, handle, matches or lighter and a tourniquet.

You will be asked in court to describe the difference between legal and illegal injection marks. A legal injection utilizes the muscle, usually is only mark and sterile needles are used. A illegal injection utilizes veins, will usually be multiple marks in various stages of healing and since the same needle is usually used over and over again the mark will have a barbed or jagged appearance.

A user will frequently use the same spot to inject the drugs to reduce the likelihood of detection. The veins may become hard and thick from continuous use, thus making it difficult to find the vein.

When a needle punctures the skin, a scab is formed. A scab develops within 18 - 24 hours after the puncture wound. After about 14 days a scab usually starts to peel, flake and fall off. The skin is shrivelled and is lighter in color.

There is not exact science to classify the age of puncture wounds. However, there are some general guidelines to follow. A fresh puncture wound is defined as 0 - 12 hours and will be a red dot and have a oozing appearance. An early puncture wound is 12 - 96 hours and will have a light scab, light bruise, reddened border and a crater appearance. A late puncture wound is 5 - 14 days and will have a dark scab, dark bruise and the crater will flatten. A healing puncture wound is over 14 days and the scab will be flaking and falling off with shriveled, light colored skin.

G. Expected Location of Injection Marks

Injection sites can be located anywhere on the users' body. The arms are the most frequently used place. The user may use the ankles, neck, feet or any place where a vein is accessible.

It is necessary to conduct a thorough methodical examination of the suspect's arms. Using a magnifying light examine the left inner arm as it is extended with the palm facing you. Then ask the suspect to contract the arm by grasping their shoulder (this forces the veins to protrude). Beginning at the wrist, examine the arm to the elbow. Examine the outer arm as it is extended palm facing down. Start the exam at the shoulder and move to the wrist. Ask the suspect to extend his or her fingers to examine the fingers. Pay particular attention to the areas between the fingers, under watches and rings. Repeat the examination for the right arm.

Ankles are the next most common injection site, especially the back. Extreme caution should be used when examining the shoes and socks for evidence because syringes and needles are commonly hidden there.

H. Conclusion

The examination may reveal evidence of recent use, however, just the presence of injection sites doesn't mean the person is under the influence or impaired.

A slow methodical examination utilizing a magnifying light is required to obtain evidence for court.

Conducting a thorough examination is a skill and requires practice to become proficient.

Topic	s for	study
		

PANYOR.

- 1. What are the two subcategories of Narcotic Analgesics?
- 2. What three distinguishing characteristics do all narcotic analgesics share?
- 3. Consider this situation:

A heroin addict injects what is, for him, a "normal" dose of the drug. One hour later a drug recognition expert examines the addict and finds that he is not impaired.

What is the most likely explanation for this?

- 4. What is another, more common, name for the drug call Diacetyl Morphine?
- 5. What is Thebaine? What is Percobarb? What is MPPP? What is MPTP?

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I. LOCATION I CONDUCTED THE DRUG DUFLUENCE EVALUATION OF JERRY T. VAUGHN IN THE 3RD PET. DRE ROOM OF THE INDIANAPOLIS POLICE DEPT. 2. WITNESS COL. STANLEY O'DELL (#7650) - ARRESTING OFFICER 3. BAC 0.00% (TEST ADMINISTERED BY O'DELL IN MY PRESENCE, 2115 HOURS) 4. NOTIFICATION I ARRIVED FOR DUTY AT 320 PCT AT 2100 HOURS AND OBSERVED OFFICER O'DELL WITH ARRESTEE I LATER LEARNED WAS JERRY T, VAUGHO. OFFICER O'DELL TOLD ME HE HAD ARRESTED MR. VAUGHN FOR DUT, AFTER OFSERVING VAUGHU'S VEHICK WEAVING ACROSS TRAFFIC PANES, AND AFTER ADMINISTERING SEVERAL FIELD SOBRIETY TESTS. OFICER O'DELL STATED THAT MR. VAUGHN APPEARED TO BE VERY DRUNK, BUT HAD NO ODOR OF A KOHOLIC BEVERAGE. 5. INITIAL OBSERVATION AT 2100 HOURS, MR. VAUGHN WAS SEATED ON THE BENCH IN THE DRE ROOM. HE APPEARED TO BE ASTEEP : EYES WERE CLOSED, HEAD NODDED FORWARD, BREATHING S/OW. BUT HE RESPONDED TO MY QUESTIONS, AND BECAME MORE ALERT AS WE SPOKE. HIS VOICE WAS TOW AND HIS SPEECHY HAD A RASPY QUALITY, HE LICKED HIS LIPS REPEATEDLY. 6. MEDICAL PROBLEMS / TREATMENT IN ACCORDANCE WITH DEPARTMENTAL GENERAL ORDER YY-172, "IV DRUG WERS" Blow WAS DRAWN FROM MR. VAUGHN FOR PURPOSES OF AIDS TESTING. 7. PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS MR. VAUGHN ESTIMATED 50 SECONDS AT 30, AND SWAYED 3" CIRCULAR ON RUMBERG. LOST BALANCE DURING INSTRUCTIONS OF WALK/TURN, RAISED ARMS SEVERAL TIMES, STUDDED WALKING TWICE STAGGERED ON TURN. PUT FOOT DOWN SEVERAL TIME! ON LEG STAND ALSO SWAYED AND RAISED ARMS MISSED TIP OF NOSE ON All TRIALS OF FINGER TO NOSE. 8. CINICAL SIGNS MR. VAUGHD EXHIBITED NO NYSTAGMUS, AND HIS EYES WERE ABLE TO CONVERGE. HIS BLOOD PRESSURE WAS BELOW NORMAL RANGE. PULSE AND TEMPERATURE WERE WITHIN NORMAL RANGES. PUPILS WERE CONSTRUCTED BELOW NORMAL WOER ALL ILLUMINATION, AND SHOWED NO MSIBLE REACTION TO LIGHT. HIS EYELIDS WERE VERY DROWY. 9. SIGNS OF INSESTION MR VAUGHN HAD "TRACK"-TYPE SCARS ON BOTH THE LEFT AND RIGHT FOREARMS, AND A FRESH, COPING PUNCTURE WOUND ON THE BACK OF HIS RIGHT HAND, 10. STATEMENTS MR, VAUGHU DEVIED USING ANY MEDICINE OR DRUGS AND REFUSED TO ANSWER MY QUESTION ABOUT HIS TRACKS" OR THE FRESH PULLTURE WOUND. I CEASED INTERPOGATING HIM WHEN HE STATED HE DID NOT INTEND TO ANSWER THAT ONESTION. IL. OPINION AT THE TIME OF MY INVESTIGATION, MR. VAUGHU WAS UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF A NARCOTIC ANAIGENIC, AND WAS UNARIE TO OPERATE A MOTOR VEHICLE SAFELY. 12. Tournhoural Speciasis Mo Valenti Donnes Dome A 170-15 A in A Plant Carolle

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Are you taking any medication or	drugs? Yes	ATTITUDE				COOMONATION POOL				2 %
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2 60 ,2221	lax. Deviation	YES			Right Ey		Eye	(15)		26)
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DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATION

MID-COURSE REVIEW

SESSION XVIII

PRACTICE: TEST INTERPRETATION

This session is similar to Session XV. You will once again review some drug evaluation and classification report "exemplars", consider all of the "evidence" they provide, and decide what categories of drugs -- if any -- are present. Now that we have covered five of the seven categories, you can expect to find any or all of those five involved in these "exemplars". And, do not be surprised if you find that one or more "exemplars" involve combinations of drug categories.

	•	EVALUATOR	WARNER,	WOYNE
Page of DRUG INFL	UENCE EVALUATION	BOOKING NO.	04	
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Glasses Contacts if so Herri	Eyes: Soft Normal Bloodshot	Watery No	 -	Tracking:
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Pageof DRUG INFLUENCE		018	92-XX-50
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PUPIL SIZE ZEQUAL C Unequal (explain) 2.0 MM PULSE à TIME HGN L	oft Eye Right Eye Ve	No Yes	□ No □ Normal □ Drocory ONE LEG STAND
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	Are you taking any medication or drugs? Z No			-/NE	RUBUS	Box	NATION JERS	Ky, S7	UMP//	us
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Unequal (expl	āin)	<u>'</u>	ΣÝ	-	•	Y		1	Normal	□ Droopy
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1 108 / 2358	Angle of Onset	NONE	ころろ	E	<u> </u>				(A)	ර
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Page DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATION	SOOKING NC DR
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1. LOCATION EXAMINATION OF STEPHEN H, HATOS WAS	Southern DOS Porce Many and
Jail.	CO-DUCIED NO DRC KOOM, MARICOPACT
2. WITNESS ARRESTING OFFICER (UNSWORTH, J.	#1811)
3. BAC A.O. INFURMED ME THAT HE ADMIN.	BREATHAYZER TEST TO MR. HATOS
AT 2320 HRS . 11/25/XX AND OR	
4. NOTIFICATION / INTERVIEW REC'D RADIO CALL TO 1	
of ARRESTING CHICER CAME AT 2310 H	
WHICH TIME A.O. INFORMED ME MR. HATE	· ·
Speed, Failed to STOP AT RED TRAFFIC	
APPEARED NERVOUS AND PERFORMED P	
5. INTIAL ORSERVATION MR. HATOS WAS VERY THI	
	LIBITED NERVOUS, ABRUPT MOVEMEN
	PEAKING, HE APPEARED TO GRILL
i e	J ODOR OF A COMMIC BEVERAGE
6. MEDICAL PROBLEMS/TREATMENT N/A	
	are all Time a township
7. PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS MR. HATOS DERFORM	NED SIDE-SIDE ON ROMBERS AND
	13 30. LOUT BALANCE TWICE STOPPED
	ARMS ON WAT, SWAYED AND RALLE
	E PUT FOOT DOWN. REPEATEDLY MILL
	DED WRONG HAND ON LAST TWO
TRIAIS,	
8. CLINICAL SIGNS PULSE AND BPEKVATED.	ABOVE NORMAL RANGES . BILLIES
9. SIGNS OF INGESTION MR. HATOS " NOSTEN!	
WISIBLE NASA	I HAIR,
10. STATEMENTS MR. HATOS ADMITTED TO DRIN	IKING "A GIASS OF RED WINE" BU
DENIED THAT HE WAS DRUM	IK. HE Also STROWERY DENIES USP
ANY OTHER DRUGS. IN RESY	ONSE TO MY QUESTION WHAT ELSE HA
	WERED "I DIDNY SHORT ANNTHING
11. ODINION OF EVALUATOR IN MY OPINION AS	A CERTIFIED DRUG RECOGNIPON
EXPERT MR. HATOS IS	••
12. TOXICOLOGICAL SPECIMEN I REQUESTED	MR, HARS TO PROVIDE A URINE
SAMPLE AND HE COMPLIE	D. I FORWARDED THE SAMPLE
TO MR. GENE ADJECT OF TH	E STATE WINE LAIS
13. Miscellaneous	

			EVALUATOR	POFF.	NEC
Page of DRUG INFLU	ENCE EVA	LUATION	020		1- XX-07
INGRAHM ROBER	TI	31 M B		MEL 190	· · ·
DATE EXAMINED TIME (LOCATION / 1/17/XX ZZOO HCSO	i	RESULTS. Refu		 .	CAL TEST Both Texts Urine Blood Refused
MIRANDA WARNING GIVEN	What have you	esten today?	When?	What have you been	drinking? How much? Time of
Type now? When did you last sleep? How long'	Are you sick o		JUHTIME 1 Yes	Are you dispend or e	 . ~ ~//
BO YOU TEXT IN TENT 2 HR.		ny physicial defects?	2 /10 □ Yes	Are you under the ca	ire of a doctor/dentiat? Yes
Are you taking any medication or drugs?			Z/w	DOCTOR - FO	e STRESS ON
VALIUM 10mg TWICE/DAY ON		ATINE/DET	PATCHED		MELING STATEGERING
S/OW TO RESPOND	CHEMIL	AL ODOR		BLANK	1/ COLUR STARE
CORRECTIVE LENS None Glasses Contacts, if so Hard So	Eyes:	Bloodshot	Stindn Watery Zh		Tracking:
PUPIL SIZE Equal		HGN Present		low somulus:	Eyelida:
Unequal (explain)	Left Eye	Yes Right Eve	No Vertical Nystagittu	✓Yes □ No	Normal Drocey ONE LEG STAND
		-		ØYes □ No	SAC 123 31210
1. <u>92 / 22/0</u> Lack of Smooth Pursuit 2 <u>92 / 2225</u> Max. Deviation	YES YES	YES	Right Eye	Left Eye	(3)23 (12)50
3. 94 /2235 Angle of Onset	<i>3</i> 0°	30°	6 2		The state of the s
BALANCE EYES CLOSED WALK AND TURN TE	NAD TO R	TOUS CON	ot keep balance _	vv	
2 0 2 2 0 2		Start	s too soon	st Nine 2nd Nine	
CIRCULAR SCUAY	, 4	1 1 12	s Walting	v v	H Sways while balancing.
			s off Line		Upes arms to belance.
	ορ	Actu	al Steps Taken	9 10	Puts foot down.
INTERNAL CLOCK Describe Turn Control Torres Describe Turn Desc	ACKWAR	ZDS Cann	ox do Teet (explain)	1/4	Type of Footweer RUNNING SHOES
☐ Right ☐ Left			rioneas Indiri		CLEAR
VGRY RIGID ARM	Left Eye			5 4.0	DRIL CUITY GREENISH
MOVEMENTS	Right Eye HEPPUS		0 5.	5 4.0 Reaction, to L	
Na sa	MECHT ARM	A No	☐ Yes	ENO NOR	MAL
(() () () () () () () () () (
0	£		, N	10	
(a) T			No. of the second	ISIBLE	2
			MAD		
BLOOD PRESSURE TEMP				_	
144 / 100 99.2 °		_		~	一人自
☐ Near Normal ☐ Flaccid ☑ Rigid Comments: ARMS NECK RIGID		ATTACH	PHOTOS OF FR	ESH PUNCTURE	MARKS ST
What medicine or drug have you been using? How	much?	Time of use?	1,66		
DATE/TIME OF AMPEST 17 JAN XX 2/20	1	TO NOTE PE	2) YILALION	AL START TIME	TIME COMPLETED

Page	DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATION	BOOKING NC DR
-		
1.	LOCATION I CONDUCTED THE DRE EXAMINATION C	OF MR. ROBERT I. INGRAHM AT THE
	DRE ROOM, HOOTES, HARRIS COUNTY S.O.	
2.	WITNESS MR. JOHN MSKAY (TEXAS DELP COOR	D.) WAS PRESENT THROUGHOUT EXAM.
<u>3.</u>	BAC MR. INGRAHM TESTED AT 0.00% BAC.	ON INTOXIMETOR (I ADMW, TEST)
41	NOTIFICATION / INTERVIEW I PERSONAlly	ARRESTED MR. INGRAHM
	INITIAL OBSERVATION OF SUSPECT SEE.	
6.	MEDICAL PROBLEMS / TREATMENT N/A	
	PSYCHOPHYSICAL TESTS MR. INSPAHM SWAY	LED 2 IN. CIRCULAR ON ROMBERS AUX
	ESTIMATED 46 SGCS AS 30 SECS, ON WAT 1	TABRAHM TWICE LOST BALANCE DURING
	INSTRUCTIONS TWICE STOPPED WALKING ON	LE STEPPED OFF INE, REPENTEDLY
	MISSED HEEL-TOE AND RAISED ARMS, AU	TOOK 10 STEDS RATHER THAN 9 ON
	THE RETURN WALK ON OLS , INGRAHM	
	ARMS AND TWICE PUT THE FOOT DOWN	; HE DID THIS ON BOTH TRIALS.
 -	ON FTN, HIS ARM MOVEMENTS WERE	VERY RIGID, AND HE MISSED TI
	TIP OF NOSE ON EVERY TRIAL.	
8.	CLINICAL SIGNS MR. INGRAHM EXHIBITED HO	
	OF CONVERSENCE. PULSE WAS ELEVATED (9)	2,92,94). 8/000 PRESS. WAS
<u> </u>	ELEVATED (144/100). TEMP WAS WITHWA	DEMAI RNG. (99.2).
<u>7 · </u>	SIGHS OF INGESTION MR. INGRAHM HAD GO	EENING COATING ON TUNGUE AUD
M	CHEMICAL ODOR ON BROOTH,	Mal succession
<i>70 .</i>	STATEMENTS MR. INGRAHM STATED HE REG	
	BUT SAID HE HAD NOT TAKEN ANY SINCE ANY OTHER DRUGS. WHEN I ASKED "WHAT	
	REPLIED "I DIDN'T DO ANTHING ELSE".	WHEN TALKED WHEN WHAT TIME OF
	WAS HE SAID "ABOUT 8 O'CLOLY" , 17	LIAN WE CALE IN COM
11,	OPINION OF EVANDEDE IN MY OPINION A	WAS THE FACT TO THE ME THERAMA
	/S • • • •	A CERTIFICACE, THE STOPPING
12.	TOXICO GOICAL Specimen MR. INGROMM	SUPPLIED A DOWE SOFTIMEL. I
	DELIVERED IT TO MR. TIM RAINES of T.	HE H.C. CRIME LAB.
<i>1</i> 3.	MISCELLANEOUS	
	7	

	·····	- <u>, ", ", </u>			EVALUATOR	STUDDA	D RA	CHARD (?
Page of	DRUG INFL	UENCE EV		N	OZ	/ .	/- XX	1-52	
	REGINA S	J.	33 F			FFICER HAME SI BKA ,DAY		32 M	DC .
3/18/XX 20	30 US	ľ	ATH RESULTS. Ruths 0.00	Potused Instru	ment = 12	34	CHEMICAL TE	Blood	Both Tests Refused
GIVEN BY KOCHUBKI	7 4	Yes What have	YOU BEEN TODAY?	Wh	on? ORAhak	What have you	been onniun		
Time now? When did yo	ou last sleep? How los	ng? Are you are	ik or injured?	CELTO (4)	☐ Yes				\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
MIDNIGHT LAST			re any physicial d	lafects?	Yes No	Are you under	the care of a	doctor/dential	2 No
Are you taking any medication			PASSIVE		-	COOPENATION POSE -	VERY	Slope	
S/OW/ LOW	+ RASPY	BALEATH	170315	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	•	F/USHO			STARE
CORRECTIVE LENS	None	Eyes:			Stinor	W88.		Tractong	
PUPIL SIZE Equal	s. if so Hard 📋	Son Norm	HGN Present			None LE	ye □RI Eyek		I Unequal
Unequal (expl	ein) HGN	Left Ey		Yes N	o Ical Nysteom		<u> No </u>	ONE LEG S	Droopy TAND
1. 92 / 2038	Lack of Smooth Purs	wit YES	YE	, -		vergence	<u></u>	(6)(3)	20-
2 96 , 2051	Max. Deviation	YES			Right Eye	Luft Eye	(8		Via
1. 92 /2103	Angle of Onset	35		-0				7	K16
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(EYE	^{[5} })	HEPPLIS	Yes	REBOUND D	LATION .	Reaction	on to Light		,
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BLOOD PRESSURE	TEMP	1 ((- TWO F WITH	RED A	المالمالة المعالمة	ue Fluis	, \	
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SESSION XIX

INHALANTS

SESSION XIX INHALANTS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

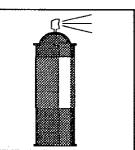
- o Explain a brief history of the Inhalant category of drugs.
- o Identify common drug names and terms associated with this category.
- o Identify common methods of administration for this category.
- Explain the symptoms, observable signs and other effects associated with this category.
- Explain the typical time parameters, i.e., on-set and duration of effects, associated with this category.
- o State the clues that are likely to emerge when the drug evaluation and classification process is conducted for a person under the influence of this category of drugs.
- O Correctly address the "Topics for Study" questions at the end of this session.

A. Overview of Inhalants

Inhalants include a wide variety of breathable chemicals that produce mind-altering results. There are three major subcategories of inhalants.

The <u>volatile solvents</u> include a large number of readily available substances, none of which is intended by the manufacturer to be used as a drug. The most widely abused volatile solvent is plastic cement, or "model airplane glue". Other frequently abused volatile solvents include paint, gasoline, paint thinners, dry cleaning fluids, typewriter correction fluid and fingernail polish removers. The principal active ingredient in many abused volatile solvents is toluene.





The <u>aerosols</u> are chemicals discharged from a pressurized container by the propellant force of a compressed gas. Commonly abused aerosols include hair sprays, deodorants, insecticides, freon, glass chillers and vegetable frying pan lubricants. Abused aerosols contain various hydrocarbon gasses that produce drug effects.

Most of the people who abuse volatile solvents or aerosols appear to be children between the ages of 10 and 15 years. Male abusers outnumber females by a ratio of 10-to-1. Poor children are significantly over-represented among inhalant abusers.

The third subcategory, the <u>anesthetic gases</u>, includes substances that are less frequently abused than are volatile solvents or aerosols. The anesthetic gases are drugs that abolish pain, and they are used medically for that purpose during surgery. Anesthetic gases that are sometimes abused include ether, chloroform, amyl nitrite, butyl nitrite, isobutyl nitrite and nitrous oxide.

There is an important distinction between the Anesthetic Gases and the other two subcategories of Inhalants. The Volatile Solvents and the Aerosols usually cause elevated blood pressure. But the Anesthetic Gases usually cause blood pressure to become lower than normal. Apparently, this is due to the fact that the Anesthetic Gases restrict the pumping action of the heart, so that the heart cannot constrict as forcibly as it usually does. The result is that blood pressure drops. Pulse rate, however, usually is increased by all three subcategories of Inhalants.

Possible Effects of Inhalants в.

The effects of inhalants vary from one substance to another.

- Glue and similar volatile solvents typically produce: 1.
 - inebriation similar to alcohol intoxication
 - 0 bizarre thoughts
 - 0 dizziness and numbness
 - 0 euphoria and grand:
 floating sensation euphoria and grandiosity
 - 0
 - distorted perceptions of time and distance .0
 - possible hallucinations 0
 - antagonistic behavior 0
 - intense headaches 0
- Gasoline and similar petroleum products typically give rise 2.
 - nausea and excessive salivation 0
 - drowsiness and weakness 0
 - 0 light headedness
 - sensation of spinning, moving, floating 0
 - 0 distorted space perception
 - altered shapes and colors

In general, persons under the influence of inhalants will appear confused and disoriented. Their speech usually will be slurred.

Onset and Duration of Inhalants' Effects C.

> Inhalants' effects are felt virtually immediately. However, the duration of effects depends on the substance used. For example, glue, paint, gasoline and other commonly abused inhalants usually produce effects that last several or more hours. Nitrous oxide's effects typically last 5 minutes or less. The effects of amyl nitrite and butyl nitrite last from a few seconds to up to 20 minutes.

D. Signs and Symptoms of Inhalant Overdose

> Some inhalants will depress the central nervous system to the point where respiration ceases. Others can cause heart failure. Some inhalant overdoses induce severe nausea and vomiting, and the unconscious user may drown in his or her own vomit. Thus, there is a significant risk of death due to inhalant overdose.

In addition, some inhalant users prefer to put the volatile solvents in a plastic bag, then place the bag over their heads to provide a high concentration of fumes. Sometimes, the user will pass out, then suffocate with the bag over the head.

There is evidence that long-term inhalant abuse can cause:

- o permanent damage to the central nervous system
- o liver damage
- o kidney damage
- o bone and bone marrow damage
- greatly reduced mental and physical abilities

E. Expected Results of the Evaluation

When a person under the influence of inhalants is examined by a drug recognition expert, the following results generally will be found.

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus - present.

<u>Vertical Nystagmus</u> - present, high dose for that particular individual.

Lack of Convergence - present.

<u>Pupil size</u> - normal, but may be dilated with certain specific inhalants (anesthetic gases).

Pupil's reaction to light - slow.

Pulse rate - up.

<u>Blood pressure</u> - up or down. Volatile Solvents and Aerosols usually will cause elevated blood pressure, while Anesthetic Gases usually will lower the blood pressure.

<u>Temperature</u> - up, down or normal depending on the substance.

Muscle tone usually will be normal.

Topics for study

- 1. What are the three major sub-categories of inhalants?
- 2. What is the principal active ingredient in many volatile substances?
- 3. In what important respect do the effects of Anesthetic Gases differ from the effects of Volatile Solvents and Aerosols?
- 4. Does any of the subcategories of Inhalants cause <u>pulse rate</u> to decrease?

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	INFLUENCE	EVALUA	ATION	0 2.7	2 9	18-XX-22	
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DATE EXAMINED TIME LOCATION DE	D T	BREATH RESU				HEMICAL TEST	Both Tests
7/2/XX 2200 TZ	Affic DIVISION What	Results O.		When?		Unne Bood seen drinking? How mus	Refused .
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Type now? When did you last see		YOU BICK OF INJUS	red?	□ Yes 27%	Are you diabetic	or epileptic?	☐ Yes
Do you take insulin?		ou have any ph	yarcısı delects?	☐ Yes	Are you under th	se care of a doctor/dem	TEN Yes
Are you taking any medication or drugs?	☐ Yes ATT	DA Z	THE BU		1 .	NELY STAN	_
SPEECH SURRED MUMBI	ED MEA	CHEMI	cal occur	SIMILAR	FACE PAINT	- SMERRES	ou
CORRECTIVE LENS Non		TO PAIN	JT-	Blinds	uppen.	Trace	
☐ Glasses ☐ Contacts, if so ☐				Watery Z	None LEye	R Eyo	qual 🔲 Unequal
PUPIL SZE Equal Unequal (explain)		HGN	Present	_ " " "	Now somulus:	Eyelida:	. 5-
PULSE & TIME	HGN I	Left Eye	Pight Eye	Vertical Nystagm	us?		STAND
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2. 102 12224 Max De	viation	YES	YES	Right Ey	e Luft Eye		1651 NEEL.
1 /04 /2236 Angle of	Onset	<i>3</i> 0°	30°				30° (
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What medicine or drug have you been u	rsing? How Ruch?		Time of use?	. // V		gs used? (Location)	-
What medicine or drug have you been u I Swiffed a CITTLE GOLD DATE:TIME OF ARMEST	NOT 100		ABOUT E		IN THE PA	THE COMP	ETEO
2 July XX 2130		2/9			2200	2240	

			EVALUATOR	TIONEIL	JERRY	
Page of DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATION			DOOKING NO	27-××-61		
DERBY ADELE S.		16 F W	, ,	FICER MANE SERIAL	_	
DATE EXAMINED TIME LOCATION 12/7/XX 2000 HES		0.03%	used Instrument * 12	CHE	ACA: 5000	Both Tests Refused
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Time now? When did you last sleep? How long		DI 27Y	<u>7-R SCHOO!</u> □ Yes	Are you dispense or		7PM
Do you take insulin?	Yes Do you have i	い physical defects		Are you under the o	care of a doctor/demat?	2 ‰
Are you taking any medication or drugs?	Yes ATTITUDE CO	PERATIVE		COORDINATION	account co	216
Stores Slow	MEATH DISTURE ONE OF FACE			MEIMG		
CORRECTIVE LENS SHORE	Eyex	NE	Blindn	Flush	Tracking	
Glasses Contacts, if so Hard S	oft Normal	Bloodshot HGN Present		ione LEye	1	Unequal
Unequal (explain)		ZYes	□ No	Yes No	Normal	☐ Droopy
PULSE & TIME HGN	Left Eye	Right Eye	Vertical Nystagmi	187	ONE LEG STA	מאט
1. 100 / 2010 Lack of Smooth Pursu 2 100 / 2024 May Page 200	<u>, YES</u>	YES YES	Com Right Eye	rergence Left Eye	(2)(3)(4))]
3 100 / 2036 Angle of Onset	35°	35°				CANHAGE
Lancot keep balance						
CIRCULAR SURY TEXT AND ATTENDED TO STORY WESTERN						
STOMBLED AND TEST	T TO THE PARTY IN		s Waltong les Heal-Toe		Sways while b	stancing.
		~c0	s off Line &		Uses arms to I	belance.
RITERNAL CLOCK Describe Turn	514		ot do Test (explain)	6 WHEN	Type of Footwee	
Fight A Left	PUPIL SZZE		or do Test (explain)		TENAIS SHOE	
Draw lines to spots buched STH AJD 674 TALAIS	LeR Eye	5.0 6	.5 6.		OBOIL OF 6	مخمارسو
AND GTH TRIALS	Right Eye			0 4,5	ODOR OF	IJE
de sh	PEROUND DILATION Reaction to Light Yea Zino NORMAL					
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0	NO N					
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TEST ADMINISTERSED SEATED MARK						
146 , 104 98.8 ·						
HUBQLE TONE						
Near Normal Flaccid Rigid ATTACH PHOTOS OF FRESH PUNCTURE MARKS						
What medicine or drug have you been using? How much? I DIDN'T SNIFF ANYTHIUG I DON'T DO GAS I DIDN'T DO IT TONICH						
THE ONE NOTE OF THE CONTRET OF THE C						

Page of DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATION	BOOKING VC DR					
1. LOCATION EXAM OF DERBY, ADELE S. TOOK PLACE AT CENTRAL TESTING WIT STOCKEN PD						
2. WITNESS MR. ARNIE TROTTER CONFORMIA OFFICE OF TRAFFIC SAFETY						
3. BAC I ADMINISTERED GCI TEST TO MS. DERBY. RESULT WAS POSITIVE (0.03%)						
4. NOTIFICATION / INTERNIEW N/A I PERSONALLY ARRESTED MI. DERBY						
5. INITIAL OBSERVATION OF SUSPECT WHEN I FIRST SAW MS. DERBY, SHE WAS WALKING						
NORTH DOWN IN THE N'BOUND TRAFFIC LANE OF STATE STREET. VEHICHAR TRAFFIC						
WAS MUDERATE TO HEAVY, AND ONCOMING VEHICLES WERE FORCED TO SWERVE IN						
AVOID HER. SHE WAS STAGGERING STUMBLING AND REELING AS SHE WALKED.						
6: MEDICAL PROBLEMS/TREATMENT N/A						
7. BYCHODHYSICAL TESTS MS. DERBY SWAYED 3"IN A CIRCULAR MANNER WHEN PERFORM						
ING REECE BALANCE AND STUMBLED TO THE RIGHT NEARLY FALLING. SHE ESTIMATE						
19 SECOUDS AS 30 SECS. I ATTEMPTED TO A	ADMW. WALK-TURN, BUT SHE STEPPE					
Off the live several times stagged and nearly fell. I terminated the						
TEST OUT OF CONCERN FOR HER SAFETY. SIMILARLY, I TERMHATED ONE LEG						
Stavo test afrex outs four (4) SECS BECAUSE SHE HAP PUT THE FOOT DOWN 3						
TIMES, SWAYED AND NEARLY FELL. I AlbURO MS, DERBY TO REMAIN SEATED						
FOR FINGER-NOSE. SHE MISSED TIP OF ALL						
FINGER ON LAST TWO TRIALS.						
8. Clinical Signs Ms. DERBY HAD HORIZ. DYSTAGMUS, AND HER RIGHT EYE FAILED						
TO CONVERGE. HER PULLE WAS ELEVATED (100). HER BLOUD PRESSURE ALSO WAS						
ELEVATED (146/104).						
9. SIGNS OF INGESTION THERE WAS A NOTICEARLE ODOR OF GASOLINE ON						
MJ. DERBY'S BREATH.						
10. STATEMENTS I ASKED MS. DERBY "WHERE D	ID YOU SNIFT THE GASOLINE TONIGHT"					
AND SHE REPLIED "I DION'T SNIFF ANYTHING - I DON'T DO GAS", I THEN INFORME						
HER THAT I COULD SMELL THE GASOLINE ON HER BREATH, AND I ASKED "WHAT						
TIME DID YOU SUIFF THE GAS ". SHE REPLIED " T DIDN'T DO IT TONIGHT "						
11. ODINION OF EVALUATOR IN MY OPINION AS A CERTIFIED DRUG RECOGNITION						
EXAMINER, MI. DERBY IS UNDER THE IN						
INHABAUT AND IS WABLE TO OPERATE A M						
12. Toxicological Specimen Ms. DERRY PROVIDED A URINE SPECIMEN, WHICH						
I FORWARDED TO THE CHP CRIME LAB.						
13. MISCELLANEOUS						

SESSION XX

PRACTICE: VITAL SIGNS EXAMINATIONS

SESSION XX PRACTICE: VITAL SIGNS EXAMINATIONS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Conduct examinations of pulse, blood pressure and temperature.
- o Articulate the vital signs examination procedures.
- o Document the results of the vital signs examinations.

In this session, you will have opportunities to practice taking measurements of pulse, blood pressure and temperature. You will work in a team with two or three fellow students, taking turns measuring these vital signs on each other. When it is not your turn to serve either as the test administrator or the test subject, you should closely observe your teammate who is administering the examinations and offer any coaching that seems appropriate.

In preparation for this session, make sure you can do the following:

- o Locate the radial, brachial and carotid artery pulse points.
- o Position the blood pressure cuff properly on a subject's arm.

VITAL SIGNS EXAMINATIONS DATA SHEET

EXAMINER'S NAME	
DATE/	
PULSE MEASUREMENTS	BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENTS
SUBJECT'S NAME	SUBJECT'S NAME
TIME	TIME
PULSE POINT USED	SYSTOLIC
BEATS PER MINUTES	DIASTOLIC
SUBJECT'S NAME	SUBJECT'S NAME
	TIME
	SYSTOLIC
BEATS PER MINUTE	DIASTOLIC
SUBJECT'S NAME	SUBJECT'S NAME
	TIME
	SYSTOLIC
	DIASTOLIC

SESSION XXI

CANNABIS

SESSION XXI CANNABIS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Explain a brief history of Cannabis.
- o Identify common names and terms associated with Cannabis.
- o Identify common methods of administration for Cannabis.
- o Explain the symptoms, observable signs and other effects associated with Cannabis.
- o Explain the typical time parameters, i.e., on-set and duration of effects, associated with Cannabis.
- o State the clues that are likely to emerge when the drug evaluation and classification process is conducted for a person under the influence of Cannabis.
- o Correctly answer the "Topics for Study" questions at the end of this session.

A. Overview of Cannabis

"Cannabis" is the category of drugs that derive primarily from various species of <u>Cannabis</u> plants. Two species that supply much of the abused Cannabis are <u>Cannabis Sativa</u> and <u>Cannabis Indica</u>. Some jurisdictions as well as botanists don't recognize Cannabis Indica as a separate species. The active ingredient in these drugs is:

Delta-9 Tetrahydrocannabinol (abbreviated Δ -9 THC, or simply "THC")

THC is found principally in the leaves and flowers of the plant, especially the female plant, rather than in the stem or branches. Different varieties of Cannabis plants have different concentrations of THC. A variety that has a relatively high concentration of THC is the <u>Sinsemilla</u> plant, a type of Cannabis Sativa having very tiny seeds. ("Sinsemilla" is a Spanish expression for "without seeds".)

Cannabis has some limited medical applications. It lowers intraocular pressure, and so can be helpful for glaucoma patients. It suppresses nausea, and sometimes is recommended for cancer patients to relieve the nausea that accompanies chemotherapy.

There are four principal forms of the drug Cannabis.

Marijuana consists of the dried leaves of the plant.

<u>Hashish</u> basically is a concentrated version of marijuana. It is produced by crushing and boiling the leaves of the female plant and allowing them to dry into a semi-solid mass.

<u>Hashish oil</u> is a liquid extracted from hashish. It is also known as Hash Oil.

Marinol (also known as Dronabinol) is a synthetic form of THC that is not derived from Cannabis plants. Marinol is a prescriptive drug. It is sometimes administered to cancer patients to suppress the nausea that may accompany chemotherapy. Nabilone is a synthetic form of THC and is used as an antivomiting agent.

Marijuana usually is smoked. Marijuana, hashish and hash oil also can be taken orally, e.g., baked in cookies or brownies and eaten. Marinol is taken orally.

B. Possible Effects of Cannabis

Cannabis appears to interfere with a person's ability or willingness to pay attention. People under the influence of marijuana do not divide their attention very well. When driving, they may attend to certain parts of the driving task but ignore other parts. For example, they may continue to steer the car but ignore stop signs, traffic lights, etc.

Because Cannabis impairs attention, divided attention tests such as Walk and Turn and One Leg Stand are excellent tools for recognizing people who are under the influence of Cannabis. Generally speaking, Cannabis also will:

- o diminish inhibitions
- o impair perception of time and distance
- o create disorientation
- o cause body tremors
- o eyelid tremors
- o marked reddening of the conjuctiva of the eye

C. Onset and Duration of Cannabis' Effects

Persons begin to feel and exhibit marijuana's effects within 8-9 seconds after inhaling the smoke. The effects usually reach their peak within 10-30 minutes, and the effects generally continue for 2-3 hours. The user typically feels "normal" within 3-6 hours after smoking marijuana.

It is important to understand that some blood and urine tests may continue to disclose evidence of the use of marijuana long after the effects of marijuana have dissipated. That is because certain chemical tests do not seek to find THC itself, but instead look for metabolites of THC, or chemical by-products. Some blood tests may disclose marijuana use for at least 3 days after smoking. Some urine tests may indicate the presence of THC metabolites for 28-45 days.

Two important metabolites of THC affect the duration, and the perception, of the effects of Cannabis. One of these metabolites is Hydroxy THC; this causes the user to feel euphoric, so that he or she is aware of the effects. Hydroxy THC usually is eliminated from the blood plasma within about six hours. The other important metabolite is Carboxy THC. This metabolite also causes impairment, but no feeling of euphoria, so the user might not be aware that he or she is still impaired. Carboxy THC may be found in the blood plasma for several days following marijuana use. Therefore, the user may actually be impaired for a good deal of time after his or her perceptions of impairment have ended.

D. Signs and Symptoms of Cannabis Overdose

Excessive use of marijuana can create paranoia and possible psychosis. These same effects may develop from long-term use of the drug, which has also been observed to produce sharp personality changes, especially in adolescent users. Other long-term effects include:

- o lung damage
- o chronic bronchitis
- o lowering of testosterone (male sex hormone)
- o acute anxiety attacks
- o chronic reduction of attention span
- o possible birth defects, still births and infant deaths

E. Expected Results of the Evaluation

When a person under the influence of Cannabis is examined by a drug recognition expert, the following results generally can be expected.

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus - none.

<u>Vertical Nystagmus</u> - none.

Lack of Convergence will be present.

Pupil size will be dilated, but possibly normal.

Pupil's reaction to light will be normal.

Pulse rate will be up.

Blood Pressure will be up.

Temperature will be normal.

Muscle tone will be normal.

Injection sites usually will not be found.

Topics for study

- 1. What is the active ingredient in Cannabis?
- Why are the Walk and Turn test and the One Leg Stand test excellent tools for recognizing persons under the influence of marijuana?
- 3. What is Marinol? What is Sinsemilla?
- 4. Name two important metabolites of THC, and describe how they affect the duration and perception of the effects of Cannabis.

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Are you taking any medication or drugs?	UT COOMDINATION NEAD V EELI
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Glasses Contacts, if so Hard Soft Normal Bloodshot	Blindness: Tractung. Watery None L Eye R Eye Equal Dinequal
PUPIL SIZE Equal HGN Present	Able to follow stimulus: Eyelids:
	No Yes No Normal Droopy whices Nystagmus? ONE LEG STAND
1. 106 / 2210 Lack of Smooth Pursuit No NO	Yes No
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SESSION XXII

OVERVIEW OF SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS

SESSION XXII OVERVIEW OF SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- Name the possible effects that may be observed in each major indicator of drug impairment.
- o Identify the effects that will most likely be observed with suspects under the influence of each drug category.

SUMMARIZING WHAT WE'VE LEARNED ABOUT THE EFFECTS OF EACH CATEGORY:

AN EXERCISE FOR THE STUDENT.

We have now completed a detailed review of all seven drug categories. In this session, we will summarize what we've learned about the major indicators of drug impairment that DREs rely upon to form their opinions. We will also summarize how each drug category usually "discloses itself" on those major indicators.

The major indicators of impairment consist of eight items:

- o Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus
- o Vertical Nystagmus
- Lack of Convergence
- o Pupil Size
- o Pupil Reaction to Light
- o Pulse Rate
- o Blood Pressure
- o Body Temperature

As a DRE, you will evaluate each of these indicators for every suspect you examine. What are the possible things that you may observe for each indicator? For example, what are the possible things that you may observe when you check a suspect for Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus? What are the possible things that you may observe when you check the suspect's blood pressure?

With Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus, there are only two possibilities: either it will be Present (i.e., the eyes will jerk) or Not Present there will be none (i.e., the eyes will move smoothly). Some drugs induce nystagmus, others simply dc not; there is no drug that "cures" nystagmus. With Blood Pressure, there are three different things we might observe: it may be up, or it may be down, or it may be normal. Some drugs usually elevate the blood pressure, other usually lower it; if a person has taken two different kinds of drugs, one that raises BP and one that lowers it, it is possible that the two drugs will partly off-set each other, and the BP might wind up normal.

What about the other six major indicators? What are the possible things we may find with each of them? Before you turn to the next page, try to complete the list we've started below:

Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus?	PRESENT OF NONE	
Vertical Nystagmus?		
Lack of Convergence?		
Pupil Size?		
Reaction to Light?		
Pulse Rate?		
Blood Pressure?	UP, DOWN	
Body Temperature?		

How did you do? Your completed list, on the previous page, should look something like this:

<u> Indicator</u>	Possible Effects			
Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus?	PRESENT OF NONE			
Vertical Nystagmus?	PRESENT OF NONE			
Lack of Convergence?	PRESENT OF NONE			
Pupil Size?	DILATED or NORMAL or CONSTRICTED			
Reaction to Light?	NORMAL, SLOW, or LITTLE OR NONE VISIBLE			
Pulse Rate?	UP or DOWN			
Blood Pressure?	UP or DOWN .			
Body Temperature?	UP, DOWN, or NORMAL			

Next, your instructors will expect you to be able to state how each category of drugs usually affects each of the eight major indicators. This is information that was first covered in your PRE-School, and covered in even greater detail earlier in this School. In the table below, we've listed what we can usually expect to see in suspects who are under the influence of CNS Depressants. Try to fill in the rest of the table before Session XXII is given in class.

WHAT WILL WE USUALLY SEE IN OUR SUSPECTS?

	Depress	Stimul	Halluc	Phencyc	Narcot	Inhalant	Cannabis
HGN	present						
Vert Nystag	present *(high dose)						
Lack Conv	present						
Pupil	normal (1)						
React Light	slow						
Pulse Rate	down (2)						
Blood Press	down						
Body Temp	normal						

^{*} high dose for that individual (1)Soma and quasindes usually dilate pupils

⁽²⁾ Quasludes and ETOH may elevate

The attachment, <u>Comparison of DRE Symptomatology With Cross Section of Drug Symptomatology Sources</u>, is a small portion of the available scientific literature addressing drug influence. The Synopsis is consistent with the DRE training.

COMPARISON OF DRE SYMPTOMATOLOGY WITH CROSS SECTION OF DRUG SYMPTOMATOLOGY SOURCES

CNS DEPRESSANTS:

DRE Symptomatology:
nystagmus
decreased blood pressure
disoriented
thick slurred speech

decreased pulse uncoordinated sluggish drunk-like appearance

The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Seventh Edition, Gilman, A,; Goodman, I.; MacMillan Publishing Co. 1985, Barbiturates, pages 546-547:

nystagmus
difficulty in visual
accommodation
vertigo
positive Romberg sign
dysmetria
sluggishness
slowness, slurring of speech
poor memory
emotional lability

ataxia gait
hypotonia
diplopia
difficulty in thinking
poor comprehension
faulty judgement

strabismus

A Primer of Drug Action, Julien, Robert M. W.H. Freeman and Company, New York, 6th Ed. 1992, pp. 61-63.

Drug and Alcohol Abuse, A Clinical Guide to Diagnosis and Treatment, (3rd Ed., Schuckit, M.D., Mark A. Plenum Medical Book Co, New York 1989. p.19.

Encyclopedia of Drug Abuse, O'Brien, Robert; Cohen, Sydney. M.D. Facts on File, INC New York (1984), page 36: barbiturates effects like alcohol (staggering, poor motor control).

<u>Drug Abuse and Dependence</u>, Grinspoon, Lester, MD; Bakalar, James B., Harvard Medical School Mental Health Review No. 1 (1990), page 11: sedative hypnotics same as alcohol and other depressants

<u>Drugs of Abuse</u>, Giannini, A. James, M.D.; Slaby, Andrew E. M.D., Ph.D. Medical Economics Books, Oradell, New Jersey (1989), page 72: Benzodiazepines same as barbiturate effects; pages 247; 292): Barbiturates:

nystagmus depressed blood pressure incoordination depressed pulse diminished concentration decreased reaction time Manual of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Guidelines for Teaching in Medical and Health Institutions, ed Arif, Awni. M.D., Westermeyer, Joseph, M.D.. Ph.D..D Plenum Medical Book Company, New York (1988), p. 135.

<u>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders</u> (Third Ed, Revised), American Psychiatric Association (1987), p. 159

Maladaptive behavioral changes, e.g., disinhibition of sexual or aggressive impulses, mood lability, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning.

slurred speech unsteady gait

incoordination
impairment in attention
 or memory

CNS STIMULANTS:

DRE Symptomatology:
dilated pupils
increased temperature
body tremors
excited
talkative
anxiety
redness to nasal area
loss of appetite
increased alertness

increased pulse rate increased blood pressure restlessness euphoric exaggerated reflexes grinding teeth runny nose insomnia

The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Seventh Edition,

Gilman, A,; Goodman, I.; MacMillan Publishing Co. 1985, Cocaine 551-554

Medical Toxicology-Diagnosis and Treatment of Human Poisoning, Ellenhorn, Matthew J., Barceloux, Donald G. Elsevier Science Pub. Co. 1988, Amphetamines, Page 634:

Mild influence:
mydriasis
restlessness
irritability
tremor
diaphoresis
nausea
pallor

hyperreflexia
talkativeness
insomnia
flushing
combativeness
vomiting
dry mucous membranes

Moderate: hyperactivity hypertension

confusion tachypnea

tachycardia chest discomfort abdominal pain mild temperature elevation repetitive behavior panic reactions

Serious:
delirium
hyperreflexia
hypotension

premature ventricular contraction vomiting profuser diaphoresis impulsivity hallucinations

marked hypertension/
 tachycardia
convulsions
coma

Cocaine, page 650-659

Early Stimulation:
euphoria
excitement
irritable behavior
sudden headache
vomiting
twitching of small muscles
tremor
cocaine psychosis
elevation of pulse

garrulity
apprehension
mydriasis
nausea
dizziness
tics
jerks
hallucinations
increased respiration

Advanced: convulsions decreased consciousness

hyperreflexia increased pulse and blood pressure

Later Stages: hypotension dyspnea et al

hypothermia

A Primer of Drug Action, Julien, Robert M. W.H. Freeman and Company, New York, 1992, pages 120-123: Amphetamines and cocaine (CNSS):

dilation of pupils slight tremor agitation

increased blood pressure restlessness possibly hallucinations

<u>Drug and Alcohol Abuse, A Clinical Guide to Diagnosis and Treatment</u>, (3rd Ed., Schuckit, M.D., Mark A. Plenum Medical Book Co, New York 1989, page 99: CNSS cause:

dilation of pupils elevation of blood pressure increased body temperature

rapid heart rate tremor in hands restlessness Encyclopedia of Drug Abuse, O'Brien, Robert; Cohen, Sydney. M.D. Facts on File, INC New York (1984), pages 25, 121: Amphetamine:

dilation of pupils blood pressure teeth grinding tremors

increase heart rate flushing dry mouth lack of coordination

pages 64, 100, 121:

dilation of pupils increased heartbeat increased temperature similar to amphetami

similar to amphetamine

Drug Abuse and Dependence, Grinspoon, Lester, MD; Bakalar, James B., Harvard Medical School Mental Health Review No. 1 (1990), pages 8 and 10 Cocaine and Amphetamine:

dilated pupils
increased blood pressure
vasoconstriction
increased temperature dilated pupils

Drugs of Abuse, Giannini, A. James, M.D.; Slaby, Andrew E. M.D., Ph.D. Medical Economics Books, Oradell, New Jersey (1989), page 29 Amphetamines:

pupil dilation (mydriasis) elevated blood pressure talkative restless teeth grinding (bruxism) urinary retention fidgety, jerky, random illogical, loose thoughts motions

increased pulse rate hyperactive irritable anorexia

Page 295: cocaine:

dilated pupils tachycardia increased blood pressure vasoconstriction hyperpyrexia

Manual of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Guidelines for Teaching in Medical and Health Institutions, ed Arif, Awni. M.D., Westermeyer, Joseph, M.D.. Ph.D..D Plenum Medical Book Company, New York (1988) page 142: Amphetamine:

increased pulse possibly increased temperature general increase in psychomotor activity

increased blood pressure increased wakefulness

page 145: cocaine

mydriasis (dilated pupils); may cause psychosis euphoria

agitation

Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Third Ed, Revised), American Psychiatric Association (1987), p. 142.

Maladaptive behavioral changes, e.g., euphoria, fighting, grandiosity, hyper-vigilance, psychomotor agitation, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning.

pupillary dilation elevated blood pressure nausea or vomiting

tachycardia perspiration or chills visual or tactile hallucinations

AMPHETAMINE:

Maladaptive behavioral changes, e.g., fighting, grandiosity, hyper-vigilance, psychomotor agitation, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning.

pupillary dilation elevated blood pressure nausea or vomiting

tachycardia perspiration or chills

HALLUCINOGENS:

DRE Symptomatology: dilated pupils increased blood pressure dazed appearance synesthesia paranoia nausea difficulty in speech poor perception of time/distance

increased pulse rate increased temperature body tremors hallucinations uncoordinated disoriented perspiring

The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Seventh Edition, Gilman, A,; Goodman, I.; MacMillan Publishing Co. 1985, LSD and Related Drugs, page 564

pupillary dilation tachycardia tremor piloerection increased body temperature hypervigilance loss of boundaries

increased blood pressure hyperreflexia nausea muscular weakness hallucinations synesthesia

Medical Toxicology-Diagnosis and Treatment of Human Poisoning, Ellenhorn, Matthew J., Barceloux, Donald G. Elsevier Science Pub. Co. 1988, LSD, pages 667-669:

pupillary dilation increased body temperature weakness hyperreflexia hallucinations poor judgment

increased heart rate piloerection tremor ataxia depersonalization mood swings

A Primer of Drug Action, Julien, Robert M.; W. H. Freeman and Company, New York, 1992

<u>Drug and Alcohol Abuse, A Clinical Guide to Diagnosis and Treatment</u>, (3rd Ed.), Schuckit, M.D., Mark A. Plenum Medical Book Co, New York 1989 page 160:

dilated pupils increased awareness sensory input flushed face

increased blood pressure
faltered body images
fine tremor
increased body
 temperature

Encyclopedia of Drug Abuse, O'Brien, Robert; Cohen, Sydney. M.D. Facts on File, Inc New York (1984), pages 100; 115 120, 153): Hallucinogens:

dilated pupils increased blood pressure profuse perspiration hallucinations

increased heart rate
increased temperature
loss of appetite

<u>Drug Abuse and Dependence</u>, Grinspoon, Lester, MD; Bakalar, James B., Harvard Medical School Mental Health Review No. 1 (1990)

<u>Drugs of Abuse</u>, Giannini, A. James, M.D.; Slaby, Andrew E. M.D., Ph.D. Medical Economics Books, Oradell, New Jersey (1989), page 218: LSD:

ataxia hyperreflexia tachycardia high blood pressure incoordination

Manual of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Guidelines for Teaching in Medical and Health Institutions, ed Arif, Awni. M.D., Westermeyer, Plenum Medical Book Company, New York (1988)

<u>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders</u> (Third Ed, Revised), American Psychiatric Association (1987), p. 145.

Maladaptive behavioral changes, e.g., marked anxiety or depression, ideas of reference, fear of losing one's mind, paranoid ideation, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning.

Perceptual changes occurring in a state of full wakefulness and alertness, e.g., subjective intensification of perceptions, depersonalization, derealization, illusions, hallucinations, synesthesia

pupillary dilation sweating blurring of vision incoordination

tachycardia palpitations tremors

PHENCYCLIDINE

DRE Symptomatology:
nystagmus
increased blood pressure
perspiring
blank stare
"moon walking"
incomplete responses
repetitive speech
cyclic behavior
hallucinations

increased pulse
increased temperature
warm to the touch
early onset of nystagmus
difficulty in speech
repetitive response
increased pain threshold
confused, agitated
possibly violent and
combative

The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Seventh Edition, Gilman, A,; Goodman, I.; MacMillan Publishing Co. 1985, PCP, page 565-567

nystagmus
elevated blood pressure
staggering gait
numbness of extremities
muscular rigidity
drowsiness
repetitive movements

elevated heart rate feeling of intoxication slurred speech sweaty blank stare hostile behavior

Medical Toxicology-Diagnosis and Treatment of Human Poisoning, Ellenhorn, Matthew J., Barceloux, Donald G. Elsevier Science Pub. Co. 1988, PCP 768-777:

nystagmus depressed light reflexes diminished pain miosis blurred vision ataxia

tremors slurred speech increased pulse rate amnesia body image distortion depersonalization hallucinations

muscle weakness drowsiness increased blood pressure anxiety/agitation euphoria disordered thought processes

A Primer of Drug Action, Julien, Robert M. W.H. Freeman and Company, New York, 1992, page 262: PCP:

increased blood pressure disinhibition muscle rigidity delirium excitement hallucinations speech difficulty elevated blood pressure

blank stare mood swings agitation disorientation analgesia pain tolerance

Drug and Alcohol Abuse, A Clinical Guide to Diagnosis and Treatment, (3rd Ed.), Schuckit, M.D., Mark A. Plenum Medical Book Co, New York 1989 p. 178

sweating fever convulsions muscle rigidity increased blood pressure

Encyclopedia of Drug Abuse, O'Brien, Robert; Cohen, Sydney. M.D. Facts on File, INC New York (1984), page 100, 208: PCP:

nystagmus increased pulse rate changes in body awareness speech difficult violent behavior

increased blood pressure flushing speech difficulties decreased responsiveness

Drug Abuse and Dependence, Grinspoon, Lester, MD; Bakalar, James B., Harvard Medical School Mental Health Review No. 1 (1990), page 25: PCP:

body image distortions nystagmus loss of muscle control
memory loss drooling

increased blood pressure muscle rigidity incoherent speech blank stare

Drugs of Abuse, Giannini, A. James, M.D.; Slaby, Andrew E. M.D., Ph.D. Medical Economics Books, Oradell, New Jersey (1989) page 296: PCP:

nystagmus hallucination disorientation extreme agitation loss of motor control automated speech Nystagmus at rest

disassociation from environment

Manual of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Guidelines for Teaching in Medical and Health Institutions, ed Arif, Awni. M.D., Westermeyer, Joseph, M.D.. Ph.D..D Plenum Medical Book Company, New York (1988), page 156: PCP:

ataxia
muscular hypertonicity
ptosis
horizontal, vertical
and rotary nystagmus

tremors,
hyperreflexia
tachycardia
mood swings
elevated blood pressure

<u>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders</u> (Third Ed, Revised), American Psychiatric Association (1987), p. 155.

Maladaptive behavioral changes, e.g., belligerence, assaultiveness, impulsiveness, unpredictability, psychomotor agitation, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning.

vertical or horizontal nystagmus increased blood pressure or heart rate numbness or diminished responsiveness to pain. ataxia dysarthria (slurred speech) muscle rigidity seizures hyperacusis

NARCOTICS:

DRE Symptomatology:
constricted pupils
decreased blood pressure
droopy eyelids
drowsiness
low, raspy speech
facial itching
fresh puncture marks

decreased pulse rate decreased temperature (ptosis) "on the nod" depressed reflexes dry mouth euphoria

The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Seventh Edition, Gilman, A,; Goodman, I.; MacMillan Publishing Co. 1985, Opiods page 541-545

Medical Toxicology-Diagnosis and Treatment of Human Poisoning, Ellenhorn, Matthew J., Barceloux, Donald G. Elsevier Science Pub. Co. 1988; Heroin, pages 702-703. See also methadone, demerol, etc.:

A Primer of Drug Action, Julien, Robert M. W.H. Freeman and Company, New York, 1992, page 196-198: Morphine:

constructed pupils drowsiness mental clouding depressed respiration euphoria

decreased blood pressure dysphoria sedation analgesia

Drug and Alcohol Abuse, A Clinical Guide to Diagnosis and Treatment, (3rd Ed., Schuckit, M.D., Mark A. Plenum Medical Book Co, New York 1989

Decrease pain (p.6)

Encyclopedia of Drug Abuse, O'Brien, Robert, Cohen, Sydney. M.D. Facts on File, INC New York (1984) page 100, 120, 123, 124: Narcotics:

constricted pupils analgesia euphoria

reduced heart rate depressed appetite going "on the nod"

Drug Abuse and Dependence, Grinspoon, Lester, MD; Bakalar, James B., Harvard Medical School Mental Health Review No. 1 (1990), page 14: Narcotics:

constricted pupils dreamy state euphoria

"nodding off" pain suppression

Drugs of Abuse, Giannini, A. James, M.D.; Slaby, Andrew E. M.D., Ph.D. Medical Economics Books, Oradell, New Jersey (1989) page 293-294:

miosis (constricted pupils) bradycardia hypothermia decreased temperature) euphoria/dysphoria drowsiness lethargy confusion flaccid muscle tone depressed respiration analgesia

(decreased heart beat) depressed respiration

Manual of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Guidelines for Teaching in Medical and Health Institutions, ed Arif, Awni. M.D., Westermeyer, Joseph, M.D.. Ph.D..D Plenum Medical Book Company, New York (1988), page 132

miosis (constricted pupils) itching

low blood pressure flushing sweating

<u>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders</u> (Third Ed, Revised), American Psychiatric Association (1987), p. 152.

Maladaptive behavioral changes, e.g., initial euphoria followed by apathy, dysphoria, psychomotor retardation, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning.

pupillary constriction slurred speech

drowsiness
impairment in attention
 or memory

INHALANTS: (Toluene)

DRE Symptomatology:
nystagmus
increased blood pressure
odor on mouth
slurred speech

increased pulse rate residue around nose nausea disorientation confusion

The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Seventh Edition, Gilman, A,; Goodman, I.; MacMillan Publishing Co. 1985, Inhalants, page 567

<u>Drug and Alcohol Abuse, A clinical Guide to Diagnosis and Treatment, (3rd Ed., Schuckit, M.D., Mark A. Plenum Medical Book Co, New York 1989. p. 185</u>

decreased inhibitions drowsiness sneezing runny nose

floating sensation light sensitivity

Encyclopedia of Drug Abuse, O'Brien, Robert; Cohen, Sydney. M.D. Facts on File, INC New York (1984)

lowered inhibitions incoordination confusion nausea

restlessness disorientation impaired judgment

<u>Drug Abuse and Dependence</u>, Grinspoon, Lester, MD; Bakalar, James B., Harvard Medical School Mental Health Review No. 1 (1990)

<u>Drugs of Abuse</u>, Giannini, A. James, M.D.; Slaby, Andrew E. M.D., Ph.D. Medical Economics Books, Oradell, New Jersey(1989), pages 265, 272, 297: Toluene:

nystagmus tremors cerebellar rambling speech light headedness mental dulling ataxia irritability tremors

CNS depression that mimics narcotic analgesics blank stare

ataxia euphoric mood

Manual of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Guidelines for Teaching in Medical and Health Institutions, ed Arif, Awni. M.D., Westermeyer, Joseph, M.D.. Ph.D..D Plenum Medical Book Company, New York (1988)

brief euphoria giddy intoxication, similar to alcohol CNS depression (volatile solvents/toluene) vertigo

Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Third Ed, Revised), American Psychiatric Association (1987), p. 149.

e.g., belligerence, Maladaptive behavioral changes, assaultiveness, apathy, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning.

nystaqmus incoordination unsteady gait depressed reflexes tremor generalized muscle stupor or coma euphoria

dizziness slurred speech lethargy psychomotor retardation blurred vision or diplopia weakness

CANNABIS

DRE Symptomatology: dilated pupils odor of marijuana body tremors relaxed inhibitions paranoia impaired perception of time distance

marked reddening of conjunctivae debris in mouth eyelid tremors increased appetite disorientation

The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, Seventh Edition, Gilman, A,; Goodman, I.; MacMillan Publishing Co. 1985, Cannabis, pages 559-561

euphoria temporal disintegration information processing impairment balance and stance dry mouth additive to alcohol

short term memory impairment impairment increased hunger

Lower doses:

affects perception, impairing well beyond when subject subjectively feels effects; alters all information processing; relatively simple motor skills unaffected

High doses:

anxiety
increased heart rate
marked reddening of conjunctiva
simple motor skills affected

hallucinations increased systolic blood pressure

Medical Toxicology-Diagnosis and Treatment of Human Poisoning, Ellenhorn, Matthew J., Barceloux, Donald G. Elsevier Science Pub. Co. 1988; Cannabis, page 678-681

reddening of conjunctiva
motor coordination impairment
relaxation
temporal distortion (time slows)
impairment of motor tasks and
reaction times requires higher
dosages
loss of short term memory
systematic thinking impaired

alteration in mood euphoria sleepiness decrease in balance, steadiness and muscle strength elective attention stimulated appetite dry mouth

A Primer of Drug Action, Julien, Robert M. W.H. Freeman and Company, New York, 1985: page 178, Marijuana

reddening of conjunctiva altered sensory perception

dry mouth increased blood pressure

Drug and Alcohol Abuse, A Clinical Guide to Diagnosis and Treatment, (3rd Ed., Schuckit, M.D., Mark A. Plenum Medical Book Co, New York 1989, page 145: Cannabis:

red conjunctiva
relaxation
increased heart rate
time distortion
impairment in ability to do
 multi-step tasks

euphoria
dry mouth
possibly nystagmus
short term memory
tremors
decrease level of motor
coordination

Encyclopedia of Drug Abuse, O'Brien, Robert; Cohen, Sydney. M.D. Facts on File, INC New York (1984), pages 100, 120: Marijuana:

red eye increased heart beat dryness of mouth and throat increased pulse rate

increased appetite
time and space
 distortions
increased heart rate
lack of coordination

Drug Abuse and Dependence, Grinspoon, Lester, MD; Bakalar, James B., Harvard Medical School Mental Health Review No. 1 (1990).page 19: Marijuana:

increased appetite bloodshot eyes agitation hallucinations

faster heartbeat confusion incoordination

Drugs of Abuse, Giannini, A. James, M.D.; Slaby, Andrew E. M.D., Ph.D. Medical Economics Books, Oradell, New Jersey (1989), page 296: Cannabis:

red conjunctiva pleasant relaxation slowed time apathy problems with motor coordination tachycardia (increased

increased appetite intensification of sensations passivity heart rate)

Manual of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, Guidelines for Teaching in Medical and Health Institutions, ed Arif, Awni. M.D., Westermeyer, Joseph, M.D.. Ph.D..D Plenum Medical Book Company, New York (1988), page 147: Cannabis:

red conjunctiva changes in time sense memory coordination balance and stance

increased hunger short-term memory loss dry mouth tachycardia (rapid heart beat)

elevated systolic pressure affected

Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Third Ed, Revised), American Psychiatric Association (1987), p. 140.

Maladaptive behavioral changes, e.g., euphoria anxiety, suspiciousness, or paranoid ideation, sensation of slowed time, impaired judgment, social withdrawal.

red conjunctiva tachycardia (rapid heart)

increased appetite dry mouth

SESSION XXIII

RESUME PREPARATION AND MAINTENANCE

SESSION XXIII RESUME PREPARATION AND MAINTENANCE

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- Describe and discuss the purpose of the resume.
- o Identify the elements of a drug recognition expert's resume.
- o Prepare a basic resume summarizing his or her relevant training, education, experience and accomplishments to date.
- O Update and extend the resume, as his or her relevant achievements continue to expand.

A. Purpose of the Resume

The principal purpose of the resume is to help establish your qualifications for testifying in court as a drug recognition expert. The resume records the education and training you have received, and the experience you have accumulated, that qualify you to render an opinion concerning drug impairment.

As a general rule, witnesses can testify only to personal knowledge, and cannot offer <u>opinions</u> as testimony. An important exception to this rule is granted to <u>expert</u> witnesses.

Basically, an expert witness is someone who the court decides is a expert. But "experts" usually are persons skilled in some art, trade, science or profession, who have a knowledge of matters not within the knowledge of people of average education, learning and experience. The prosecution or defense will call a witness who, they assert, is a "expert" in some matter. The court will carefully assess the credentials of that witness, i.e., the education, training and experience he or she has had in the matter in question. And the court — and the court alone — will decide whether the witness is a expert. If the court rules that the witness is a expert, then the witness may assist the finder of fact (jury or judge) in arriving at a verdict by expressing an opinion on a state of facts shown by the evidence, and based upon his or her special knowledge.

After you have completed all of the necessary training, the prosecution will begin to call <u>you</u> as an expert witness in drug evaluation and classification cases. The court will wish to consider relevant evidence of your alleged expertise. The resume can help to ensure that the court rules in your favor.

B. Preparation for Court Qualification

Being qualified as an expert may be as simple as stating your occupation. Or, it could require several hours of exhausting questioning by the prosecutor and the defense attorney. The prosecutor will seek to show that, insofar as drug evaluation is concerned, your knowledge is greater than that of the average person. The stronger your credentials, the better the chance that the court will consider you an "expert". And, the stronger your credentials, the more impressed the jury will be with your expertise, and the more weight they will give to your testimony.

The credentials that you have to offer to establish your expertise consist mainly of:

- o The formal education and training you have received.
- o The directly relevant experience you have acquired.
- o The "outside" readings and study you have done.

You need to have accurate, up-to-date and documented evidence of these credentials, to support the assertion that you are a expert.

C. Resume Content

- 1. Relevant Formal Education.
 - a. High School Education List the high school(s) you attended and the dates of your attendance. Highlight classes that provided knowledge in the area of drugs.
 - b. College Education List the schools and dates. Highlight courses relevant to drugs, and relevant to the drug evaluation and classification examination procedures. List major field(s) of study, degree(s) earned, etc.
 - c. Specialized College/University level courses.
 List dates, instructor, subject(s) covered, credits
 earned, etc. Highlight the relevance of these courses
 to drugs.

Formal Training.

- a. Police Academy (recruit-level training).
 List dates of attendance, major topics covered.
 Highlight drug-relevant training.
- b. Specialized Police Training/In-Service Training. List dates, topics, instructors. Highlight drug-relevant training.
- c. Other specialized training (e.g., military; special seminars; lectures).
 List dates, topics, instructors. Highlight drug-relevant training.

3. Relevant Experience.

- a. Job Experience. (law enforcement) List specific assignments, including dates, rank held, etc. Include special assignments. Highlight duties associated with drug enforcement.
- b. Other Job-Related Experience. List employers, dates, specific duties, etc. Highlight work relevant to drugs.
- c. Drug Enforcement/Evaluation Experience. Maintain up-to-date totals of vehicle stops; DWI investigations; DWI arrests; drug evaluations; filings on alcohol-and drug-related charges; convictions on each charge.

- d. Prior experience in testifying in drug-related cases. Maintain up-to-date totals of the numbers of appearances in various level courts (e.g., municipal, superior, etc.); the number of times qualified as an expert witness in drug cases; the number of times qualified as an expert witness in other cases.
- Outside Readings and Study.
 - a. Maintain listings of the drug-related texts read; departmental training bulletins read; journals read; research papers read; films and video tapes viewed; etc.

Document drug-related training and research that you conducted or in which you participated. List all relevant publications, training bulletins, etc. that you authored or co-authored.

D. Sample Resumes

The remainder of this section of the Manual presents two sample DRE's resumes. They are based on the training and experience of actual drug recognition experts, although specific identifiers have been changed to preserve their anonymity.

SAMPLE RESUME NUMBER ONE

SHELTON POLICE DEPARTMENT Traffic Division

The Resume of:

SERGEANT DAVID CARROLL REGAN Certified Drug Recognition Expert

Latest update: 3/17/XX

Sgt. David C. Regan

Introduction

Sergeant David Carroll Regan is a supervisor in the Traffic Division, Shelton Police Department. He currently commands the special Impaired Driving Enforcement Activities Squad (IDEAS), a unit he was instrumental in forming. Sgt. Regan is a 15 year veteran of law enforcement. Prior to joining the Shelton Police Department ten years ago, he served for five years as a deputy with the Fairfield County Sheriff's Department.

Sergeant Regan has been assigned to the Traffic Division since his promotion to sergeant on 11/18/YY. His duties have included coordination of speed and DWI enforcement activities, the Joint Shelton-Derby Task Force for Sobriety Checkpoints, the Officer Friendly Program, the Motorcycle Safety Education Project, and general supervision of Traffic Division officers. He also serves as the Department's principal instructor for radar speed measurement, standardized field sobriety testing and drug recognition expert training.

Sergeant Regan hold the Bachelor's Degree in the Administration of Justice from Fairfield University, and currently is a candidate for a Master's Degree in Police Science and Administration at the University of Stratford. He holds an Instructor Certificate from the State Law Enforcement Training Board.

Sergeant Regan has served on two committees of the Governor's Task Force to Prevent Drunk Driving: The Standardized Field Sobriety Tests Committee and The Paperwork Reduction Committee. The one-page Standard Note-taking Guide for Field Sobriety Testing that is employed by all departments statewide was designed by him.

Law Enforcement Experience

11/18/YY	to	Present	Set	rgeant	-,	Traf	fic	Divis	ion
			,		_	~ •	_		

Shelton Police Department Supervisor, IDEAS Unit Drug Evaluation and Classification

Program Coordinator

Patrol Officer First Class 7/8/YY to 11/17/YY Training and Operations Shelton Police Department

Unit Supervisor, Traffic Law Enforcement Training Branch

9/11/YY to 7/7/YY Patrol Officer

Third Precinct, Motorcycle Shelton Police Department

Sgt. David C. Regan

Law Enforcement Experience (continued)

11/5/MM to 9/10/XX Patrol Officer First Precinct

Shelton Police Department

10/10/NN to 11/4/MM

Deputy

Traffic Patrol

Fairfield County Sheriff's

Department

Special Police Training

10/XX	National Highway Traffic Safety Administration DRE Instructor Training (Certified as a DRE Instructor on 11/12/XX)
8/XX	Drug Enforcement Administration Drug Interdiction Seminar
11/YY	National Highway Traffic Safety Administration Drug Evaluation and Classification Training: DRE School (Certified as a DRE on 1/28/XX)
10/YY	National Highway Traffic Safety Administration Drug Evaluation and Classification Training: PRE School
3/YY	Southeastern University Institute of Police Technology Special Conference: Managing DWI Squads
4/22	International Association of Chiefs of Police Instructor Training in Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus and Divided Attention Field Sobriety Tests
10/MM	University of Stamford, Northern Police Institute Standardized Field Sobriety Testing
6/NN	Acme Scientific Instruments, Inc. (Certified to perform inspection and repair of the Intoxotector J2Z breath testing instrument on 6/22/NN)

Sgt. David C. Regan

Court Qualification Record

8/VV Qualified as drug recognition expert in a case involving Phencyclidine impairment. (Judge Sally Grey, 8th District) Qualified as drug recognition expert in a case 11/WW involving a combination of CNS Stimulant and Narcotic Analgesic. (Judge Lewis Buchanan, Superior Court) 3/WW Qualified as drug recognition expert in a case involving Cannabis impairment. (Judge Sally Grey, 8th District) 9/00 Qualified as drug recognition expert in a case involving Narcotic Analgesic impairment. (Judge

Specialized Readings

specialized keadings	
<u>Title</u>	Author
Drug and Alcohol Abuse	Marc A. Schuckit, M.D.
A Primer of Drug Action	Jerome Jaffee, Robert Petersen and Ray Hodgson
The Practitioner's Guide to Psychoactive Drugs	Ellen L. Bassuk, M.D. and Stephen C. Schoonover, M.D.
Drug Abuse: A Manual for Law Enforcement Officers	Smith, Kline & French (pub.)
Licit and Illicit Drugs	Edward M. Brecher
Chocolate to Morphine	Andrew Weil, M.D. and Winifred Rosen
Cocaine Addiction	U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
•	

Jerome Byrnes, 8th District)

Marijuana Alert

Peggy Mann

SAMPLE RESUME NUMBER TWO

TRUMBULL POLICE DEPARTMENT

The Resume of:

OFFICER ANN MARIE REED Certified Drug Recognition Expert

Latest Update: 4/25/YY

Officer Ann M. Reed

Introduction

Officer Ann Marie Reed is an eight year veteran with the Trumbull Police Department. She is currently assigned to the Special Operations Branch of the Administrative Division, where she serves as a Narcotics Enforcement Officer. Previously, she has served in the same Branch as a Vice Enforcement Officer, and as a patrol officer in the Department's first and second precincts.

Officer Reed is a graduate of Monroe College, with the Bachelor's Degree in Police Science and Administration. She is currently a candidate for the JD Degree at the Law School of the University of Bridgeport.

Law Enforcement Experience

·		
5/12/VV to	Present	Narcotics Enforcement Officer and Drug Recognition Expert Special Operations Branch Trumbull Police Department
3/26/WW to	5/11/VV	Vice Enforcement Officer Special Operations Branch Trumbull Police Department
9/23/XX to	3/25/WW	Patrol Officer First Precinct Trumbull Police Department
8/28/NN to	9/22/XX	Patrol Officer Second Precinct Trumbull Police Department
5/15/NN to	8/25/NN	Trainee Fairfield County Regional Police Academy

Special Police Training

2/YY	University of Norwalk, Police Science Institute Seminar: Packaging and Transport of Illicit Drugs
10/VV	University of Norwalk, Police Science Institute Seminar: Suppression of Drug-related Crime
3/VV	National Highway Traffic Safety Administration Drug Evaluation and Classification Training: DRE School (Certified as a DRE on 5/22/VV)

(Graduated 8/25/NN)

Officer Ann M. Reed

Special Police Training (Continued)

2/VV Fairfield County Regional Police Academy

Drug Evaluation and Classification Training:

PRE-School

10/WW Fairfield County Regional Police Academy

Standardized Field Sobriety Testing

Publications Authored

Reed, Ann M. and Cockroft, Robert S., "Narcotics Enforcement Tactics for the Medium-sized Department"; The Police Chief. January 17, 19XX.

Reed, Ann M., <u>Procedures for Requesting Drug Recognition</u>
<u>Technician Services</u>; Training Bulletin for the Trumbull Police
Department. 6/VV.

Reed, Ann M., <u>Recognizing the Heroin Addict</u>; Training Bulletin for the Trumbull Police Department. 1/VV.

Court Qualification Record

11/WW Qualified as an expert witness for identification of Heroin impairment. (Judge Michael Adkins, 7th

District)

3/WW Qualified as a drug recognition expert in a case

involving a combination of CNS Stimulant and Narcotic Analgesic. (Judge Roberta Mayer, 7th

District)

9/ZZ Qualified as an expert witness for identification

of "track" marks. (Judge Charles Peltier, 7th

District)

Specialized Readings

<u>Title</u> <u>Author</u>

Signs and Symptoms Handbook Barbara McVan, M.D.

Drugs From A to Z Richard R. Lingeman

Guide to Psychoactive Drugs Richard Seymour and David E.

Smith, M.D.

Addictions: Issues and Answers Robert M. Julien, M.D.

Report on Synthetic China

White: Fentanyl Det. James Miller, LAPD

HS 172 R4/93 XXIII-10

SESSION XXIV DRUG COMBINATIONS

SESSION XXIV DRUG COMBINATIONS

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Explain the prevalence of polydrug use among drug-impaired suspects and identify common combinations of drugs abused by those suspects.
- o Explain the possible effects that combinations of drugs can produce on the major indicators of drug impairment, and define the terms "Null", "Overlapping", "Additive" and "Antagonistic" as they relate to polydrug effects.
- o Identify the specific effects that are most likely to be observed in persons under the influence of particular drug combinations.

A. Examples of Polydrug Use

The collective experience of DREs across the country suggests that polydrug use -- the simultaneous consumption of two or more different types of drug categories -- is very common among drug abusers. In the Los Angeles Field Validation Study (1985), nearly three-quarters (72%) of the suspects who were evaluated were found to have two or more drugs in their blood samples. During Certification Training in New York City in early 1989, two-thirds (67%) of the suspects were polydrug users. familiar drug of all, alcohol, apparently is an especially popular "mixer" with other drugs. Alcohol routinely shows up in combination with virtually everything else, and often DREs encounter suspects who have consumed alcohol along with two or more other drugs. Cannabis is another popular "mixer", and frequently shows up in combination with Cocaine, PCP and various other things. The "speedball", a combination of Cocaine and Heroin, remains popular, despite the well-publicized hazards of that particular mixture; it was the combination responsible for the death of the actor John Belushi.

The practice of polydrug use is so common, and the "tastes" of drug abusers are apparently so indiscriminate, that DREs should not be surprised to encounter virtually any possible combination of drugs. Indeed, at many times and places, DREs should expect to find more polydrug users than single-drug users. This means that, if the DRE is to do a good job at interpreting the results of evaluations, he or she must understand the mechanisms of drug interaction.

B. The Mechanisms of Drug Interaction: Four Basic Concepts

When a person takes two different kinds of drugs into his or her body, each drug goes to work independently, in accordance with its own nature, and in keeping with its own parameters of onset and duration. What the body will **exhibit**, however, is a combination of those individual effects.

Four types of combined effects can, and generally will, occur when two drug categories are used together.

1. The Null Effect

The simplest way to explain the Null Effect is to say that it is the same thing as "zero plus zero equals zero". A specific example may help clarify this.

One of the first things a DRE does when examining a suspect is to check for horizontal gaze nystagmus. We know that many drugs simply do not affect nystagmus. For instance, if we examined a suspect that we knew was under the influence of Cocaine and nothing else, we would not expect to observe nystagmus. Likewise, if we examined someone who had used marijuana and nothing else, no nystagmus would be present. What do you expect we would see when we check for nystagmus in the eyes of someone who has used Cocaine and Cannabis in combination? Since neither drug independently has any

effect on nystagmus, the combination also would not affect nystagmus: nothing plus nothing equals nothing.

Another example of the Null Effect would be found when we check the pupil size of a suspect who has used PCP and Xanax. PCP does not affect pupil size; neither does Xanax, a CNS Depressant. Both of those drugs, acting independently, will leave pupils normal. Their combination also will not affect the size of the pupils.

The Null Effect, then, means simply this: If neither drug affects some particular indicator of impairment, their combination also will not affect that indicator.

2. The Overlapping Effect

The Overlapping Effect comes into play when one drug does affect some indicator of impairment and the other drug has no effect whatsoever on that indicator. This is a case of "something plus nothing equals something".

Consider once again the example of a combination of Cocaine and Cannabis. We've already seen that this combination produces a Null Effect as far as nystagmus is concerned. But what about when we examine the suspect's eyes for a Lack of Convergence? Cannabis does produce a Lack of Convergence. Cocaine doesn't have any effect on Convergence; it doesn't produce a lack of convergence, but it also doesn't "cure" lack of convergence. Therefore, the suspect who is under the combined influence of Cannabis and Cocaine will exhibit a Lack of Convergence, due to the independent effect of the Cannabis. This is an instance where the effects of the two drugs "overlap".

Another example of an Overlapping Effect would be the pupil size of a person who has taken PCP in combination with Heroin. PCP doesn't have any effect on pupil size, but Heroin causes missis, or constricted pupils. Therefore, the combination would also cause the pupils to constrict.

The Overlapping Effect boils down to: Action plus no action equals action.

3. The Additive Effect

The Additive Effect occurs when two drug categories both, independently, affect some indicator of impairment in the same way. In combination, these effects reinforce each other.

Once again, think of the combination of Cocaine and Cannabis. What will we find when we check this suspect's pulse rate? Cannabis produces Tachycardia, or an elevated pulse rate. So does Cocaine. When the two drugs are taken together, we can expect to observe Tachycardia because the drugs reinforce each other for that particular indicator of impairment. That is, the effect is additive.

The simplest way to express the Additive Effect is to say "something plus the same something produces that same something". One thing we can't say for certain is how much the two drugs will reinforce each other. Sometimes the reinforced effect is as simple as "one plus one equals two". But at other times, the combined effect is much greater than the individual contributions of the two drugs, e.g., on the order of "one plus one equals five". This is sometimes, by some people referred to as a "super-additive" or synergistic effect. As DREs, we do not use those terms, simply because it isn't our job to try to predict how much of an effect will be observed. We will use the term Additive Effect to cover all situations where two drugs impact on some parameter in the same way.

You have already noticed that we have used one particular drug combination, Cannabis and Cocaine, to furnish examples of all three kinds of effects covered so far. This drives home the important point that drug interactions are often complex, and involve a number of different mechanisms operating at the same time. One more of these mechanisms needs to be explained.

4. The Antagonistic Effect

The Antagonistic Effect occurs when two drug categories affect some parameter in exactly the opposite ways. This is a case of "action plus opposing action". For example, suppose we check the blood pressure of someone who is under the combined influence of Heroin and Cocaine; what are we likely to find?

The fact is, we're likely to find just about anything at all. The Heroin, independently, tends to produce Hypotension, or lowered blood pressure; the Cocaine, independently, usually produces Hypertension, or elevated blood pressure. The two drugs may offset each other, as far as blood pressure is concerned, and the suspect's blood pressure may wind up normal. On the other hand, if the Cocaine's effects are starting to wear off and the Heroin is still active in the suspect's body, we might find the blood pressure down. Conversely, if the Cocaine is active but the Heroin's effects have not yet reached their peak, we might find the blood pressure up. When we deal with an Antagonistic Effect, we simply can't predict what the outcome will be.

C. The Symptomatology of Drugs

On the next page, you will find the Cumulative Drug Symptomatology Matrix. This lists all of the expected effects of each drug category on the major indicators of impairment, and summarizes the general indicators, time parameters and methods of ingestion for each category. This matrix will be useful in identifying how specific combinations of drugs will interact to produce a variety of Null, Overlapping, Additive and Antagonistic Effects.

INDICATORS CONSISTENT WITH DRUG CATEGORIES

				-			
	DEPRESSANTS	STIMULANTS	HALLUCINOGENS	PCP	NARCOTIC ANALGESICS	INHALANTS	CANNABIS
HGN	PRESENT	NONE	NONE	PRESENT	NONE	PRESENT	NONE
VERTICAL NYSTAGMUS	PRESENT (HIGH DOSE)*	NONE	NONE	PRESENT	NONE	PRESENT (HIGH DOSE)*	NONE
LACK OF CONVERGENCE	PRESENT	NONE	NONE	PRESENT	NONE	PRESENT	PRESENT
PUPIL SIZE	NORMAL (1)	DILATED	DILATED	NORMAL	CONSTRICTED	NORMAL (4)	DILATED (6)
REACTION TO LIGHT	SLOW	SLOW	NORMAL (3)	NORMAL	LITTLE OR NONE VISIBLE	MOTS	NORMAL
PULSE RATE	DOWN (2)	UP	UP	UP	DOWN	UP	UP
BLOOD PRESSURE	DOWN	UP	UP	UP	NMOQ	UP/DOWN (5)	UP
BODY TEMPERATURE	NORMAL	UP	UP	UP	NMOQ	UP/DOWN/ NORMAL	NORMAL

*high dose for that particular individual

FOOTNOTE:
These indicators are those most consistent with the category, keep in mind that there may be variations due to individual reaction, dose taken and drug interactions.

- SOMA, Quaaludes usually dilate pupils.
 - Quaaludes and ETOH may elevate.
- Certain psychedelic amphetamines cause slowing. Normal but may be dilated.
- Down with anesthetic gases, up with volatile solvents and aerosols.
- Pupil size possibly normal. 4 66 64 66 69

CANNABIS	Marked reddening of conjunctiva Odor of marijuana Marijuana debris in mouth Body tremors Eyelid tremors Relaxed inhibitions Increased appetite Impaired perception of time & distance Disorientation Possible paranois	2-3 hours - exhibits effects (Impairment may last up to 24 hours, without awareness of effects.)	Smoked Oral	Fatigue paranoia
INHALANTS	Residue of substance around nose & mouth Odor of substance Possible nausea Slurred speech Disorientation Confusion Bloodshot, watery eyes Lack of muscle control Flushed face Non-communicative Intense headaches ***NOTE: Anesthetic gases cause below normal blood pressure; volatile solvents and aerosols cause above normal blood pressure.	6-8 hours for most volatile solvents Anesthetic gases and aerosois - very short duration.	Insufflated (Historically, have been taken orally.)	Coma
NARCOTIC ANALGESICS	Droopy eyelids ("ptosis") "On the nod" Drowsiness Depressed reflexes Low, raspy, slow speech Dry mouth Facial itching Buphoria Fresh puncture marks Nausea Track marks NOTE: Tolerant users exhibit relatively little psychomotor impairment.	Heroin: 4-6 hours Methadone: Up to 24 hours Others: Vary	Injected Oral Smoked Insufflated	Slow, shallow breathing Clammy skin Coma Convulsions
PCP	Perspiring Warm to the touch Blank stare Very early angle of HGN onset Difficulty in speech Incomplete verbal responses Repetitive speech Increased pain threshold Cyclic behavior Conflused agitated Hallucinations Possibly violent & combative Chemical odor "Moon walking"	Onset: 1-5 minutes Peak Effects: 15-30 minutes Exhibits effects up to 4-6 hours	Smoked Oral Insufflation Injected Eye drops	Long intense "trip"
HALLUCINOGENS	Dazed appearance Body tremors Syneathesia Hallucinations Paranoin Uncoordinated Nausea Disoriented Difficulty in speech Perspring Poor perception of time & distance Memory loss Disorientation Flashbacks NOTE: With LSD, piloerection may be observed (goose bumps, hair standing on end)	Duration varies widely from one hallucinogen to another.	Oral Insufflation Smoked Injected Transdermal	Long intense "trip"
CNS STIMULANTS	Restlessness Body tremors Excited Euphoric Talkative Exaggerated reflexes Anxiety Grinding teeth (bruxism) Redness to nasal area Runny nose Loss of appetite Insomnia Increased alertness Dry mouth Irritability	Cocaine: 5-90 minutes Amphetamines: 4-8 hours Methomephetamines 12 hours	Insufflation (snorting) Smoked Injected Oral	Agitation Increased body temperature Hallucinations Convulsions
CNS DEPRESSANTS	Uncoordinated Disoriented Sluggish Thick, slurred speech Drunk-like behavior Gait ataxia Drowsiness Droopy eyes Fumbling Methaqualone, pulse will be elevated and body tremors will be evident. Alcohol and Quasludes elevate pulse. Soma and Quasludes dilate pupils.	Barbiturates: 1-16 hours Tranquilizers: 4-8 hours Methaqualone:	Oral Injected (occasionally)	Shallow breathing Cold, clammy skin Pupils dilated Rapid, weak pulse Coma
MAJOR INDICATORS	GENERAL INDICATORS	DURATION OF EFFECTS	USUAL METHODS OF ADMINISTRATION	OVERDOSE SIGNS

D. <u>Specific Examples of Drug Combinations: An Exercise for the Student</u>

On the final five pages of this section of the Manual, you will find examples of specific drug combinations. The expected results for the first two of these combinations (Cannabis and Stimulants, and PCP and Heroin) have been worked out for you. Study those examples, then complete the work sheets for the thr remaining combinations.

CANNABIS AND STIMULANT IN COMBINATION

IMPAIRMENT INDICATOR	EFFECT DUE TO CANNIBIS	EFFECT DUE TO STIMULANT	TYPE OF COMBINED EFFECT	WHAT WILL WE SEE
HORIZONTAL GAZE NYSTAGMUS	NONE	NONE	NULL	NONE
VERTICAL GAZE NYSTAGMAS	NONE	NONE	NULL	NONE
LACK OF CONV.	PRESENT	NONE	OVERLAPPING	PRESENT
PUPIL SIZE	DILATED(1)	DILATED	OVERLAPPING OR ADDITIVE	DILATED(1)
REACT LIGHT	NORMAL	SLOW	OVERLAPPING	SLOW
PULSE RATE	UP	UP	ADDITIVE	UP
BLOOD PRESSURE	UP	UP	ADDITIVE	UP
BODY TEMP	NORMAL	UP	OVERLAPPING	UP

FOOTNOTE:

Pupil size may be normal.

PHENCYCLIDINE AND HEROIN IN COMBINATION

IMPAIRMENT INDICATOR	EFFECT DUE TO PHENCYCLINDINE	EFFECT DUE TO HEROIN	TYPE OF COMBINED EFFECT	WHAT WILL WE SEE
HORIZONTAL GAZE NYSTAGMUS	PRESENT	NONE	OVERLAPPING	PRESENT
VERTICAL GAZE NYSTAGMAS	PRESENT	NONE	OVERLAPPING	PRESENT
LACK OF CONV.	PRESENT	NONE	OVERLAPPING	PRESENT
PUPIL SIZE	NORMAL	CONSTRICTED	OVERLAPPING	CONSTRICTED
REACT LIGHT	NORMAL	LITTLE OR NONE VISIBLE	OVERLAPPING	SLOW/NORMAL
PULSE RATE	UP	DOWN	ANTAGONISTIC	DOWN/NORMAL/UP
BLOOD PRESSURE	UP	DOWN	ANTAGONISTIC	DOWN/NORMAL/UP
BODY TEMP	UP	DOWN	ANTAGONISTIC	DOWN/NORMAL/UP

WORKSHEET #1

PCP AND HALLUCINOGENS

IMPAIRMENT INDICATOR	EFFECT DUE TO PCP	EFFECT DUE TO HALLUCINOGEN	TYPE OF COMBINED EFFECT*	WHAT WILL WE SEE
HORIZONTAL GAZE NYSTAGMUS			·	
VERTICAL GAZE NYSTAGMAS				
LACK OF CONV.				
PUPIL SIZE				
REACT LIGHT				
PULSE RATE				
BLOOD PRESSURE				
BODY TEMP				

^{*}Null; Overlapping; Additive; or, Antagonistic

WORKSHEET #2

CANNABIS AND DEPRESSANT

IMPAIRMENT INDICATOR	EFFECT DUE TO CANNABIS	EFFECT DUE TO DEPRESSANT	TYPE OF COMBINED EFFECT*	WHAT WILL WE SEE
HORIZONTAL GAZE NYSTAGMUS				
VERTICAL GAZE NYSTAGMAS				
LACK OF CONV.				
PUPIL SIZE				
REACT LIGHT			•	
PULSE RATE		·		
BLOOD PRESSURE				
BODY TEMP				

^{*}Null; Overlapping; Additive; or, Antagonistic

WORKSHEET #3

STIMULANT AND DEPRESSANT

IMPAIRMENT INDICATOR	EFFECT DUE TO STIMULANT	EFFECT DUE TO DEPRESSANT	TYPE OF COMBINED EFFECT*	WHAT WILL WE SEE
HORIZONTAL GAZE NYSTAGMUS				
VERTICAL GAZE NYSTAGMAS				
LACK OF CONV.				
PUPIL SIZE				
REACT LIGHT	:		·	
PULSE RATE				
BLOOD PRESSURE				·
BODY TEMP				

^{*}Null; Overlapping; Additive; or, Antagonistic

SESSION XXV

PRACTICE: TEST INTERPRETATION

SESSION XXV PRACTICE: TEST INTERPRETATION

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- O Analyze the results of a complete drug evaluation and classification examinations and identify the category or categories of drugs affecting the individual examined.
- o Articulate the bases for the drug category identification.

This session is similar to Sessions XV and XVIII. You will once again review some drug evaluation and classification report "exemplars", consider all of the "evidence" they provide, and decide what categories of drugs — if any — are present. Now that we have covered all seven categories, you can expect to find any or all of the categories in these exemplars. And, some exemplars might involve combinations of drug categories.

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DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATION

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SESSION XXVI

PREPARING THE NARRATIVE REPORT

SESSION XXVI PREPARING THE NARRATIVE REPORT

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Discuss the essential elements of the drug evaluation report.
- o Prepare a clear and concise narrative description of the results of the drug evaluation.

The Importance of a Good DRE Report

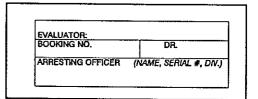
Successful prosecution of a DRE case will depend, more than anything else, on the evidence that **you** supply, and on how clearly and convincingly you **present** that evidence. The chemist or toxicologist may also be able to provide some important evidence, but the results of the blood or urine analysis definitely play a supportive, or corroborative role. The chemical test simply cannot prove that the suspect was impaired, or under the influence at the time the violation occurred. It is up to you to prove that, and to prove that the nature of the impairment was consistent with some category or combination of drugs. Your observations, your examinations and your expertise are the prosecution's strongest weapons. In some cases, they will be the <u>only</u> weapons. You have to get your evidence across, and you have to make it as believable as possible. You start doing this in your DRE report.

The DRE Report has two major sections. The first is the standard Drug Influence Evaluation Face Sheet. Its purpose is to document the results of all observations and examinations that you personally made of the suspect. This Face Sheet is a unique document. It is used by every law enforcement agency that participates in the NHTSA/IACP Drug Evaluation and Classification Program. It contains some very important information, and it must be filled out accurately and But notwithstanding the importance of the Face Sheet, it completely. does not constitute the entire DRE report. A narrative section also must be prepared. The narrative section must be a clear, plain-English and detailed rendition of all evidence obtained during all twelve components of the drug recognition process, including the breath test result; the information obtained from your interview of the arresting officer; statements, actions, gestures, etc. made by the suspect; paraphernalia found in the suspect's possession; etc. in mind that the Face Sheet is a technical document. As a DRE, you are very familiar with the Face Sheet, and with its various symbols, abbreviations, etc. But many prosecutors, most judges and virtually all jurors won't know how to read the Face Sheet. It is up to you to "translate" the Face Sheet and all other evidence into language that they can understand. That's where the narrative section of your report comes in.

Standard Procedures for Completing the Face Sheet

The Standard Drug Influence Evaluation Face Sheet must be completed, in its entirety, every time you conduct an evaluation of a person suspected of drug impairment. Follow the guidelines given in the paragraphs below every time you complete a Face Sheet.

The upper right corner of the standard Drug Influence Evaluation Report consists of spaces to record recordkeeping data, consistent with your department's standard operating procedures.



On the first three full lines of the report, you will record identifying information about the suspect, the arresting officer, and the time and place where the DRE examination was conducted. You will also note the results of the breath test (if available), and note the type of sample (blood or urine) taken for drug analyses. And, you will indicate whether the suspect was admonished of his or her constitutional rights in accordance with the Miranda ruling, and if so, by whom.

Page of	DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUA	ATION
ARRESTEE'S NAME (LAST, FIRST, MI)	AGE SEX RACE	
DATE EXAMINED/TIME/LOCATION	BREATH RESULTS: ©Refused Results Instrument #	CHEMICAL TEST DBoth Tests DUrine DBlood Refused
MIRANDA WARNING GIVEN: "Yes	1 -	What have you been drinking? How much? Time of last drink?

Starting on the third line, and continuing through the ninth line, you will record the results of the <u>preliminary examination</u> of the suspect. If the suspect merely responds "yes" or "no" to a question, you may simply put a mark through the appropriate box on the right side of the space provided for the question. But if he or she embellishes the response, you should use the space provided to capture the response. For example, if the suspect were to answer the question "what have you eaten today" in an obviously false or ridiculous manner ("I haven't eaten for six years"), you should record that answer verbatim.

Time now?	When did you last sleep? How long?	Are you sick or injured	? □Yes □No	Are you diabetic or epileptic?	□Ye: □No		
Do you take	insulin? □Yes □No	Do you have any physic	al defects? □Yes □No	Are you under the care of a doctor/dentist?			
Are you takin	ng any medication or drugs? □Yes □No	ATTITUDE		COORDINATION			
SPEECH		BREATH		FACE			
CORRECTIVE CORRECTIVE	/E LENS: □None □Contacts, if so □Hard □Soft	EYES:		dness: Tracking: c □L.Eye □R.Eye □Equal □Unequal			
PUPIL SIZE	: □Equal □Unequal (explain)	HGN Present: □Yes □No	Able to follow sti	imulus: Eyelids: □No □Normal □Droopy			

After completing the preliminary questioning of the suspect, be sure to record brief descriptions of his or her attitude, coordination, speech, breath and facial appearance. Check to determine the type of corrective lenses the suspect is wearing, if any, and record the general appearance of the suspect's eyes. Be sure to indicate whether the suspect is or claims to be blind in either eye. Check the suspect's tracking ability (just as you would test for lack of smooth pursuit), and indicate whether the eyes track equally, whether HGN is present and whether he or she is able to follow the stimulus. whether the suspect's pupils are of equal size, and note the condition of his or her eyelids.

PULSE & TIME

Almost midway down the form, and on the left side, is the space to record the three measure-ments of the suspect's pulse that are required during the DRE examination. Always record the pulse in beats per minute. For example, since you use a 30 seconds interval to count the pulse, be sure to multiply the count by two, and record that result on the form.

Also, always record the time at which each pulse count was taken.

Record the results of the checks for Horizontal Gaze Nystagmus, Vertical Nystagmus and Lack of Convergence in the spaces at the center of For HGN, write the word "YES" to indicate that there was a the form. lack of smooth pursuit, and write "NO" if the eye does pursue the stimulus smoothly. In other words, "YES" means that evidence of HGN is present and "NO" means that the evidence wasn't found. Similarly,

HGN	Left Eye	Right Eye
Lack of Smooth Pursuit		
Max. Deviation		
Angle of Onset		

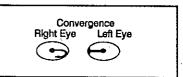
along the "Max. Deviation" line, write "YES" if there is distinct jerking when the eye is held as far to the side as possible, and write "NO" if the eye does not jerk distinctly. Along the "Angle of Onset" line, write the number of degrees at which the jerking first is noticed; try to estimate the angle to the nearest

five degrees (i.e., 30, 35, 40, etc.). If the eyes actually jerk while the suspect stares straight ahead, write the word "RESTING" on the "Angle of Onset" line. If the jerking begins before the eye has moved to the 30-degree point, write the word "IMMEDIATE". check each eye independently, and record the evidence of HGN separately for each eye.

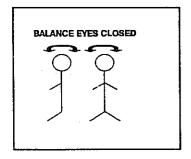
For the Vertical Nystagmus test, simply check either the "YES" or "NO" box, depending on whether the evidence was present or absent.

Vertical Nystagmus? □Yes □No

For the Convergence test, draw a circle in the middle of each "eye socket" provided on the form, and connect arrows to the circles to depict how the eyes moved when the test was For example, the sketch at the right shows that the left eye converged properly, while the right started to move in, and then drifted back out.



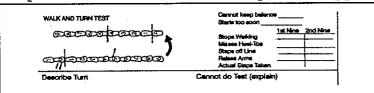
HS 172 R4/93



Spaces are provided to record in detail the suspect's performance of the four divided attention tests. Make sure that the Romberg Balance test is the first one that you administer. The two "stick figures" are used to indicate how much the suspect sways while standing with the eyes closed. The figure on the left (with only one arm and one leg visible) is used to depict forward-and-backward swaying; at the arrow points above the "head", write the approximate number of

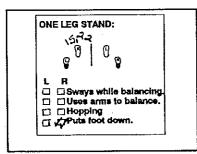
inches the suspect sways forwards and backwards. Write the word APPROXIMATE across the stick figures to indicate that it is not a measure but an estimate. The figure on the right (with two arms and legs) is used to depict side-to-side swaying. If the suspect sways in a circular manner, indicate by writing "Circular Swaying" across the "stick figures". In the space immediately below the "stick figures", write the number of seconds that the suspect actually stood with the eyes closed, while he or she attempted to estimate the passage of 30 seconds.

For the Walk and Turn test, you must diagram how the suspect walked, and you must indicate how often each of the eight validated clues was observed. On the diagram of steps, when the suspect steps off the line, indicate with half a slash mark at an angle in the direction the step was taken. If the suspect stopped walking, draw a slash mark



between the feet. The sketch to the left, for example, diagrams a test on which the suspect moved the right foot to the side twice while listening to the instructions; stepped off the line

toward the left on the fifth step; and stopped after the fourth step on the way back down the line after turning. Anything else that is unusual or noteworthy about how the suspect walked should be indicated in writing near the diagram (e.g., "stopped counting aloud after the third step"). In the spaces provided to the right of the diagram-of-the-feet, use check marks to record how often each clue was seen and the actual numbers of steps the suspect took. In the space below the diagram-of-the-feet, write a brief but clear description of how the suspect executed the turn; if he or she turned in the proper fashion, simply write "PROPER". If the suspect was unable to complete the test, write an explanation of why the test was stopped.

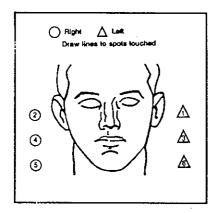


For the One Leg Stand, you will diagram when the suspect put the foot down (if at all) and you will indicate how often each of the four validated clues was observed. Always have the suspect first perform this test by standing on the left foot, and indicate that you did so by darkening in the left foot on the left-side sketch, as shown in the example to the right. If the suspect puts the elevated right foot down, indicate above the foot the number they

were counting when they put their foot down. In our example, the

suspect put the right foot down when he or she had counted to "one thousand and fifteen" and again when the count reached "one thousand and twenty-two". Put check marks in or near the boxes below the sketch to indicate how often each of the four clues was seen while the suspect stood on the left foot.

Then, have the suspect repeat the test by standing on the right foot, and use the right-side sketch to record the results of that test. In the box below, indicate the type of footwear the suspect was wearing while performing these tests.



For the Finger to Nose test, you will diagram exactly where each finger tip touched the suspect's face. Simply draw a line from the point of contact on the face to the symbol representing each finger (this makes it easier to draw a straight line). The finger symbols are numbered in the sequence in which you should instruct the suspect (i.e., "left, right, left, right, right, left"). If the suspect inadvertently uses the incorrect hand at some point, draw in an additional appropriate symbol (circle or triangle), write the trial number in it (1 to 6) and draw a line from it to the spot

touched on the face. Then, cross out the symbol for the finger that he or she should have used on that trial. For example, in the sketch above, the suspect actually used the right-hand index finger on the third trial, rather than the left hand as instructed.

PUPIL SIZE	Room Light	Darkness	Indirect	Direct	NASAL AREA
Left Eye Right Eye					ORAL CAVITY
HIPPUS	¤Yes □No	1	DILATIO No	N Reactio	n to Light

Pupil size estimations are to be recorded in the boxes provided. You should have a pupillometer with circles ranging in diameter from 1.0mm to 9.0mm, in half-millimeter

increments. Simply record the size of the circle that comes closest to the size of the pupil. DO NOT attempt to interpolate between circles. For example, if a pupil appears to be ever so slightly smaller than the 3.0mm circle, DO NOT write 2.8 or 2.9 as the pupil size record to the nearest 1/2 mm!

In the spaces provided, write a brief but clear description of anything noteworthy that you found in your examinations of the suspect's nose and mouth. If hippus or rebound dilation is observed, note that in the appropriate space. Remember, hippus refers to a pulsating pupil that rhythmically contracts and expands within <u>fixed</u> limits, for example always dilating to 5.0mm and always shrinking back to 4.0mm. Rebound dilation also involves pulsating pupils, but with an overall trend towards greater and greater dilation. For example, the pupil might initially expand to 5.0mm, but soon after "balloon out" to 5.5mm, then to 6.0mm, etc. REMEMBER ALSO that sloppy procedure with the penlight could induce a response that could be confused with

rebound dilation or hippus. If you inadvertently move the penlight closer to the suspect's eye and then draw it farther away, you will change the intensity of the light flooding into the eye and you may cause the pupil to constrict or dilate. Make sure that you always hold the light steady while making these examinations.

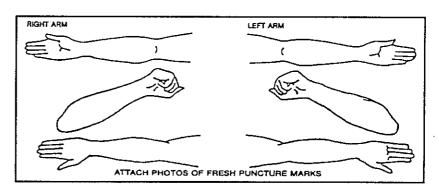
In the space provided, indicate how the suspect's pupils reacted when the light was directed into the eye. If the reaction appeared to be normal, write "Normal"; if it appeared to be a slow reaction but some shrinkage of the pupil was evident, write "Slow"; if the pupil did not appear to shrink at all, write "None". Approximately 1 second is normal.

BLOOD PRESSURE:	ТЕМР
/	°

Record both the systolic and diastolic blood pressure (in even numbers), and the suspect's body temperature, in the spaces provided. Also indicate whether the suspect's muscle tone

appeared to be rigid, flaccid or normal.

You will examine the suspect's arms and hands for punctures or "track marks", and you will sketch anything noteworthy that you find. Draw lines on the arm and hand pictures to indicate the locations and lengths of scars, and draw x-marks to depict puncture wounds. Always describe



the condition of puncture wounds (e.g., "red dots, oozing fluid"). It is always good practice, and it is standard operating procedure for many departments, to take photographs of a suspect's fresh puncture wounds. If photos have been taken, indicate on the sketch which areas were photographed. If the examination discloses no punctures, scars or anything else worthy of note, draw a diagonal line across the sketches of arms and hands and write "No Visible Marks" on that section of the form.

On the third line from the bottom, record the suspect's responses to the final three questions. Remember that most if not all courts generally hold that a suspect must be advised of constitutional rights before these kinds of questions should be asked.

	What medicine or drug have you been using? How much?	Time of use?	Where were the drugs used? (Location)
L			

The last two lines on the form are used to record information about basic time parameters of concern to the evaluation, and to record additional pertinent information about you, the DRE who conducted the evaluation. If another DRE supervised your evaluation, his or her name should be written in the final block on the lower right corner of the form. That is especially important during your certification training phase.

The reverse side of the form should be used for the narrative Drug Evaluation Report, and continuation sheets should be attached, as appropriate. Guidelines for organizing the narrative report are given below.

Guidelines for writing the narrative report

The narrative portion of a standard DRE report has thirteen segments.

a. The Location

State where the drug recognition evaluation was conducted.

Example:

Evaluation of Subject Richardson was conducted in the DRE room, Jail Division, Parker Center.

b. Witnesses

Give names, agency affiliations and other identifiers of any persons who witnessed all or portions of the evaluation. State the person who served as the evaluator and recorder with complete agency names.

Example:

Derald Gautier, Denver, Colorado Police Department served as a witness for the entire evaluation. Sgt. Tom Page, Los Angeles, California Police Department served as the evaluator. Officer Jim Brown, Los Angeles, California Police Department, served as the recorder.

c. The Breath Alcohol Test

Indicate if the test was taken, and state whether you personally administered or observed the test. Give the test results, and state the serial number or other identifier of the instrument on which the test was taken.

d. The Notification and Interview of the Arresting Officer

Indicate when you were first notified of the request for a drug evaluation, and summarize the information you were given at that time. State where you were and what you were doing when the request was received. Include a summary of your interview of the arresting officer.

Example:

On 3/17/xx, at 2145 hours, this officer ... was notified by Officer John ... that he had arrested one Richardson. ... Officer Page requested that I conduct a drug influence examination ...

Officer John informed me that Subject Richardson's vehicle was observed moving ... at approximately 15 mph. Vehicle maintained speed as it passed stop sign ... Officer John activated lights/siren. Subject vehicle responded slowly ... Subject Richardson appeared to be asleep ...

e. Initial Observation of the Suspect

Document in detail your personal initial observations of the suspect. Describe where and when you first saw the suspect. Highlight any noteworthy or unusual actions, appearances, etc. that you observed. Summarize the findings of your Preliminary Examination of the suspect.

Example:

I first saw Richardson at 2200 hours ... He wore a 3-pc business suit ... Subject walked slowly, staggered ... swayed constantly ... head nodded forward repeatedly ... (etc.)

f. Medical Problems and Treatment

Describe your own observations concerning possible injuries or illness that the suspect may be suffering. Document suspect's statements or claims concerning illness or injury. Document any medical attention or treatment that the suspect received while in your care.

g. Psychophysical Indicators of Impairment

Give a brief but clear, complete and accurate description of the suspect's performance of the Romberg, Walk-and-Turn, One-Leg-Stand and Finger-to-Nose tests.

Example:

Romberg Balance: Forward sway up to 7 inches; backward sway up to 5 inches. Actual elapsed time of 55 seconds when estimating 30 seconds.

h. Clinical Indicators of Impairment

Give a brief but clear, complete and accurate description of your examinations of the suspect's eyes and vital signs.

Example:

Horizontal gaze nystagmus: Lack of smooth pursuit (both eyes); distinct nyst. at max. dev. (right eye only); no angle of onset up to 50 deg. (both eyes). Total of 3 clues of nyst.

i. Signs of Ingestion

Document the results of your examinations of the suspect's oral and nasal cavities, search for injection marks, etc. Describe any odors detected on the suspect's breath, hands, clothing, etc. Describe any physical debris of drugs or drug paraphernalia found on the suspect's person.

Example:

Left arm: Three recent puncture wounds (red dots, oozing fluid). One-inch "track mark" scar. (Photo attached.)

j. Subject's Statements

Document the subject's statements, both in response to your questions and spontaneous utterances. Use verbatim quotes whenever possible. Document your Miranda admonition to the suspect and his or her waiver.

Example:

Subject Richardson repeatedly denied using drugs. At one point...he responded "Do I look like I do Dope?" Subsequently,...he responded "Go have a heart attack".

k. The DRE's Opinion

State the category or combination of categories of drugs that you believe is/are affecting the suspect. State your opinion concerning the suspect's ability to operate a motor vehicle safely, if vehicle operation is relevant to this case. Summarize the key facts/observations that support your opinion.

Example:

In the opinion of this officer, Subject Richardson is under the influence of a Narcotic Analgesic, and is unable to operate a motor vehicle safely. This opinion reflects the facts that:

- o There is no evidence of a medical problem or injury
- o Richardson's BAC was 0.00%
- o Richardson exhibits noticeable psychophysical impairment
- o Richardson's pupils are markedly constricted and show no visible reaction to light
- o Richardson's vital signs are depressed
- o There are fresh injection marks on Richardson's arm

1. The Toxicologic Sample

State the type of sample (blood, urine, etc.) taken from the suspect. Give the name, title, agency affiliation, etc. of the person who drew the sample or observed its collection. State where the sample was taken and to whom it was given. If the results of the toxicologic analysis are known at the time the report is written, state those results. If the suspect refused to submit a sample, state that fact in the report.

m. Miscellaneous

Include any other information that might be relevant.

Example:

Based on the observations of Subject Richardson, this officer infers that the subject is right-handed. This would be consistent with hypodermic injection into his left arm.

The remaining pages of this section of the Manual provide a complete sample DRE report, on Subject Page.

	PAGE, TOM							
Page 1 d DRUG INFLUEN	ICE EVALU	JATION	1624		- C-	050A		
APPRESTEES HAVE RAST, FIRST, MA	ACA		APPESTING O	ALCOHAR	MANNE BESTAL R	DW)		
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Time now? When did you last sleep? How long?	Are you sick or in				TONE	13707		
2200 LAST NIGHT, 5HRS	n		D46					
	Do you have any ;	physicial delects?	□ Yo E 18o	• 1	PI under the oc	re of a doctor/donder? ☐ Yes		
Are you taking any medication or drugs? Yes	COUPERS	and E		1 —	DENTION DOL			
Free Class	HIADME					A /		
Slow raspy \$1000	Normal		T Patra	0.6	peaved	l sleepy		
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Unequel (explain)	HG	H Prosent	Albin to 1	Olom Mi	TUNE	Eyelicisc		
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- 58 /22.36	No	YES				1		
BALANCE EYES CLOSED WALK AND TURN TEST	NONE-	NONE				0 0		
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1/	ort Eye 2	.6 3.			2.6	Normal		
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112 / 56 97.7 .								
HUSCLE TOHE	E,							
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What medicine or drug have you been using? How mu	d17	Time of use?			were the drugs used? (Location)			
DENIED AND DRUG USAGE		N/A		N/		THAT COMPLETED		
CONTROL EXHANG OFFICER	21	45HRS		220	C HRS	2236 HRS .		
92-17 Page, Tom		OOZ5	TRA	ac	+ 2-25-C			

DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATION NARRATIVE

- 1. LOCATION: Evaluation conducted in DRE room of Jail Division, Parker Center.
- 2. Witnesses: Sgt. Tom Page, Los Angeles Police Department, Evaluator. Officer Jim Brown, Los Angeles Police Department, Recorder. Derald Gautier, Denver, Colorado Police Department, Witness.
- 3. BREATH ALCOHOL TEST: Officer Clark John obtained a .00% BAC from Richardson.
- 4. THE NOTIFICATION AND INTERVIEW OF THE ARRESTING OFFICER: At approximately 2145 hours Officer John requested me to conduct a DRE evaluation on suspect Richardson. Richardson had been arrested by John for DUI. Impairment was not consistent with .00% BAC obtained from Richardson. Officer John stated he stopped Richardson after observing him commit numerous Traffic Violations. John stated that Richardson appeared sleepy, "on the nod", and that his voice was low in volume, raspy in tone and slow in tempo. Richardson failed to perform psychomotor tasks of the SFST as demonstrated.
- 5. INITIAL OBSERVATION OF SUSPECT: I first observed Richardson in the DRE room at approximately 2200 hrs. Richardson walked very slowly, staggered and stumbled without falling. As he stood while John removed his handcuffs, Richardson swayed constantly and his head nodded forward. I advised Richardson of his Miranda Rights which he waived. Richardson responded to all questions in a slow, raspy, low voice. Eyelids were droopy. Pupils appeared constricted. First pulse was 60 BPM.
- 6. MEDICAL PROBLEMS AND TREATMENT: Suspect denied illness or injury. No evidence of injury or illness observed. Blood for HIV drawn at Jail Infirmary by Dr. Mogge.
- 7. PSYCHOPHYSICAL: Richardson exhibited impairment throughout all portions of the psychophysical exams. Examples: Swaying and impaired internal clock during Romberg; staggered, raised arms, failed to touch heel to toe on Walk and Turn; swayed, raised arms, put foot down during One Leg Stand; used wrong hand on Finger to Nose.
- 8. CLINICAL INDICATORS: EYES: Lack of smooth pursuit in both eyes. HGN at maximum deviation in right eye only. No angle of onset. No Vertical Nystagmus. Lack of Convergence present. Pupils constricted in all light levels. No visible reaction to direct light. Ptosis (droopy eyelids) evident. VITAL SIGNS: Pulse depressed (60, 58, 58 BPM); systolic B/P depressed; temperature at lower end of normal range.

- 9. SIGNS OF INGESTION: Three fresh puncture wounds found on suspect's left arm. (photo attached).
- 10. SUSPECT'S STATEMENTS: Richardson denied drug usage.
- 11. DRE'S OPINION: In my opinion, Richardson is under the influence of a Narcotic Analgesic and is unable to safely operate a motor vehicle.
- 12. TOXICOLOGICAL SAMPLE: Urine obtained from crime lab analysis. Page and I witnessed elimination by the suspect.
- 13. MISCELLANEOUS: Needles and syringes were found in Richardsons' vehicle.

SESSION XXVII

PRACTICE: TEST ADMINISTRATION

SESSION XXVII PRACTICE: TEST ADMINISTRATION

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be better able to:

- o Administer selected portions of the battery of examinations that constitute the drug evaluation and classification process.
- o Articulate the examinations procedures.
- o Document the results of the evaluations.

In this session, you will have an opportunity to practice conducting a complete drug evaluation and classification examination. You will work in a team with one or two fellow students. When you conduct the examinations, your teammate will serve as your test subject. And, you will serve as the subject for a teammate when he or she conducts the examination.

SESSION XXVIII

CASE PREPARATION AND TESTIMONY

CASE PREPARATION AND TESTIMONY

SESSION XXVIII

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

- o Conduct a thorough pre-trial review of all evidence and prepare for testimony.
- o Provide clear, accurate and descriptive direct testimony concerning drug evaluation and classification examinations.
- o Respond effectively and appropriately to cross-examination in drug evaluation and classification cases.

A. Guidelines for Case Preparation

Case preparation actually begins with your first contact with the suspect. At that point you begin "collecting" the evidence that you will organize and present at trial.

To begin properly, make sure that you complete each portion of the standard drug evaluation and classification report form. Be especially careful to take accurate notes of your observations of the suspect, and to record his or her statements accurately. Note and document all relevant information you obtain during your interview of the arresting officer.



When you are notified of the trial date, you should conduct a careful review of all records and reports associated with the case. If you made the arrest, or were summoned to the scene, revisit the scene. During discovery, list and properly document all evidence. Compare your notes with the arresting officer, and clarify or resolve any discrepancies, if possible.

If at all possible, try to arrange a pre-trial conference with the prosecutor. Review with the prosecutor all evidence and all bases for your conclusions. If there are weak points in your case, bring them to the prosecutor's attention. Ask the prosecutor to review the questions he or she intends to ask you on the witness stand. Point out when you do not know the answer to a question. Ask the prosecutor to review questions and tactics that he or she anticipates the defense attorney may use. Make sure your resume is current. Review your credentials and qualifications with the prosecutor.

If you cannot have a pre-trial conference, try to identify the main points about the case, and be sure to discuss these with the prosecutor during the few minutes you will have just before the trial.

B. Guidelines for Direct Testimony

 Testifying about your qualifications as a drug recognition expert.

Remember that having been qualified as an expert in the past does not automatically guarantee that this court and judge will deem that you are an expert in this case. You may have to testify in some detail as to your relevant training, education and experience. In fact, it often is to the prosecution's advantage to have you provide such detailed testimony: juries and even judges may be favorably impressed by the depth and scope of your experience and other credentials, and may attach added "weight" to your opinions and conclusions if they have had an opportunity to learn how

well qualified you are to render them. For this reason, you should encourage the prosecutor, if possible, <u>not</u> to accept the defense's stipulation as to your expertise. Instead, always try to enter testimony as to your credentials into the record.

When testifying about your qualifications, try to relate your training and experience to the specific categories of drugs involved in the case at hand. Highlight the number of times you have seen a person under the influence of those drugs. Explicitly highlight the number of times you have examined subjects and concluded they were not under the influence of those drugs: this helps to demonstrate the fairness and impartiality of your examinations.

2. Testifying about the facts of the case.

Your basic task is to establish that the suspect was under the influence of a drug or combination of drugs. When you testify about the suspect's performance of the standardized field sobriety tests, do not use the terms "pass" or "fail". Also, do not refer to the suspect's "score" on the test or the number of "points" he or she produced. Instead, describe clearly and explicitly how the suspect performed (e.g., "stepped off the line twice, raised the arms three times, etc."). By presenting your observations clearly and convincingly, you will allow the fact of the suspect's impairment to speak for itself. In the same way, describe exactly what you observed and measured during the eye examinations and vital signs examinations, and relate these observations and measurements to your training and experience. In this way you will establish a solid foundation for introducing your opinions and conclusions.

Always keep in mind that juries typically focus on an officer's demeanor as much or more than on the content of his or her testimony. Strive to maintain your professionalism and impartiality. Be clear in your testimony: explain technical terms in layman's language; don't use jargon, abbreviations, acronyms, etc. Be polite and courteous. Do not become agitated as a result of questions by the defense. Above all, if you don't know the answer to a question, say so. Don't guess at answers, or compromise your honesty in any way.

C. Introduction of Evidence Involving "New" Scientific Principles

As a drug recognition expert, you will be asked to offer opinions and conclusions based on scientific principles that are quite unfamiliar to the jury or even to the judge. These principles aren't really "new", but they are newly discovered, and they aren't yet within the common realm of knowledge of average people. Your task is to help see to it that the evidence you have obtained through your hard work will be acceptable to the court.

Evidence derived from a "new" scientific principle is subjected to the <u>Frye</u> standard of admissibility. This standard derives from the landmark case <u>Frye vs. United States</u>, 293F. 1013 (D.C. Cir. 1923). <u>Frye</u> requires that the scientific principle or theory used to support some offered "evidence" be in conformity with a generally accepted explanatory theory, if the "evidence" is to be admissible. Under <u>Frye</u>, it is not enough that a qualified expert, or even several experts, testify that a particular scientific technique is valid. The technique must be generally accepted by the relevant scientific community.

D. Typical Defense Tactics

In a drug evaluation and classification case, <u>you</u> will be the key witness for the prosecution. Therefore, the defense will try very hard to cast doubt on your testimony.

The defense may ask some questions to <u>challenge your observations</u> and <u>interpretations</u>. For example, you may be asked whether the signs, symptoms and behaviors you observed in the suspect couldn't have been caused by an injury or illness, or by alcohol, or by something else other than the drugs you concluded were present. You may also be asked questions whose purpose is to make it appear that you weren't really certain that you actually saw what you say you saw. Answer these questions honestly, but carefully. If your observations are <u>not</u> consistent with what an illness or injury or alcohol would produce, explain why not. Make it clear that your conclusions about drug influence are not simply one plausible interpretation of the observed facts, but the only logical interpretation.

The defense may also ask some questions to challenge your credentials. These questions may try to disparage or deprecate the formal training you have had as a drug recognition expert. There may also be an attempt to ask questions to "trip you up" on technical/scientific issues, to make it appear that you are less knowledgeable than you should be or claim to be. Stick to absolute honesty. Answer all questions about your training fully and accurately, but don't embellish. Don't try to make the training appear to have been more elaborate or extensive than it really was. Answer scientific/technical questions if you know the answer. Otherwise, admit that you don't know. Don't try to fake or guess the answers.

And, the defense may ask questions to challenge your credibility. You may be asked several very similar questions, in the hope that your answers will be inconsistent. You may be asked questions whose purpose is to show that you had already formed your opinion well before you completed the examination of the suspect. And, you may be asked questions that try to suggest that you eliminated portions of the examination, or only gave very cursory attention to some portions. Guard against these kinds of defense challenges by always performing a complete, painstaking examination, exactly as you have been taught. Standardization will help ensure both consistency and credibility.

E. Test Your Knowledge

The Final Written Examination for this School will take place during Session XXX. This is an opportunity for you to test your knowledge prior to the exam, to verify that you are ready for it. The test that appears on the following pages is similar to the final exam in terms of its content and structure, although it does not (of course) contain the same questions. Take this sample test, and compare your answers with the answer key that appears on the page following the test.

REVIEW SESSION #2

SESSION XXIX

CLASSIFYING A SUSPECT (ROLE PLAY)

SESSION XXIX CLASSIFYING A SUSPECT (ROLE PLAY)

Upon successfully completing this session, the participants will be able to:

O Compile a complete, clear and accurate report documenting the conduct and results of a drug evaluation and classification examination.

In this session, you will have opportunities to participate in conducting complete drug evaluation and classification examinations of "arrested suspects". Of course, these "suspects" will not actually be under the influence of any drug. However, at various points during the examination they will instruct you to record certain measurements and observations. In this way they will supply you with information simulating a possible drug-impaired subject.

When you complete the examination, you will carefully review all of the data you have recorded and decide whether the "suspect" is <u>simulating a person</u> who is:

- (1) under the influence of a drug or drugs; and,
- (2) if so, what category or combination of categories of drugs is causing the simulated "impairment".

A word of caution: it is possible that one or more of these "suspects" will be role-playing <u>unimpaired</u> subjects. That is, in some cases, the correct conclusion may be that the "suspect" is not under the influence of any drug. In addition, it highly likely that one or more "suspect" will be simulating a person who is under the influence of a <u>combination</u> of drug categories.

At some point during this practice session an instructor will approach you and notify you that you will have to prepare a complete narrative report on your examination of one of the "suspects". The particular "suspect" who will be the subject of your report could be any of the ones you examine. Therefore, it is very important that you take good, comprehensive and detailed notes on each examination.

You will work in this session as a member of a team with two or three fellow students. You and your team mates should "put your heads together" in reaching your conclusions concerning each "suspect"; that is, discuss the "evidence" you have recorded and reach a joint conclusion. You should divide the report writing work among yourselves in some equitable fashion. And, you should each take at least one turn at conducting the complete examination.

This is a very important session in this course. It is here that your instructors will begin to determine whether you have the skills needed to progress to Certification Training, or whether you need more practice before you are ready to move on.

DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROGRAM

LOG OF DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATIONS

••		WITNESSES/ COMMENTS	,				
page:		TOXICOLOGIC RESULTS					
		OPINIONS OF DRE					
		DATE					
		BOOKING					
Drug Recognition Expert	IACP Certificate Number	SUSPECT'S NAME					
Drug Recogn	IACP Certif	CONTROL					

DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROGRAM

LOG OF DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATIONS

		WITNESSES/ COMMENTS	Madalantin war.					
page:		TOXICOLOGIC W RESULTS						
		OPINIONS 1 OF DRE						
	DATE							
		BOOKING						,
Drug Recognition Expert	IACP Certificate Number	SUSPECT'S NAME						
Drug Recogn	IACP Certif	CONTROL						

WITNESSES/ COMMENTS page:_ TOXICOLOGIC RESULTS DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROGRAM LOG OF DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATIONS OPINIONS OF DRE DATE BOOKING NUMBER SUSPECT'S NAME Drug Recognition Expert IACP Certificate Number CONTROL

DRUG EVALUATION AND CLASSIFICATION PROGRAM

	e:		WITNESSES/ COMMENTS						
	page:		TOXICOLOGIC RESULTS						
LOG OF DRUG INFLUENCE EVALUATIONS			OPINIONS OF DRE		,				
RUG INFLU			DATE						
LOG OF I			BOOKING						
	Drug Recognition Expert	Drug Recognition Expert IACP Certificate Number	SUSPECT'S NAME						
	Drug Recogn	IACP Certif	CONTROL	·					

SESSION XXX

TRANSITION TO CERTIFICATION TRAINING

SESSION XXX TRANSITION TO CERTIFICATION TRAINING

During this session, the participants will:

- O Demonstrate his or her mastery of the knowledge and skills the course was intended to help him or her develop.
- o Summarize the key topics covered.
- o Offer comments and suggestions for improving the course.
- o Receive his or her assignments for Certification Training.

This session completes the first, or classroom phase, of your training as a candidate drug recognition expert. Among other things, three important events will take place during this session.

- 1) You will take a written, multiple-choice test, designed to measure your knowledge of drugs, drug recognition examination procedures, and related facts. This knowledge test is one indicator of whether you are ready for Certification Training.
- (2) You will take a proficiency examination, in which you will demonstrate your <u>skills</u> in conducting the drug evaluation and classification examination. This skill test is the <u>other</u> indicator of your readiness for the next phase.
- (3) You will complete a written -- but anonymous -- critique form, which gives you a chance to express your opinions about this course and the instructors. This information is very important. It will help your department improve the quality of the training, and to maintain the quality at the highest possible level.
- A. Preparing for the Knowledge Examination

The following are not the questions that will appear on the knowledge examination. But some of them are quite similar to the examination questions, and all of them address subject matter that will be covered on the test.

If you can answer these questions correctly, you will have no problem in scoring very well on the knowledge examination.

Answers appear on the pages following the questions.

B. Preparing for the Proficiency Examination

On the three pages that immediately follow, you will find a copy of the <u>Proficiency Examination Checklist</u> that your instructors will use to assess your skills in conducting the drug evaluation and classification procedures. Review the Checklist carefully. It will give you a good idea of what factors will be considered in your examination, i.e., the errors of omission or commission that you need to avoid.

<u>Practice</u> conducting the drug evaluation and classification procedures before submitting yourself to this proficiency examination. Make sure you can administer the procedures flawlessly. It would be a good idea to conduct some after-classhours practice with fellow students, so that you can coach each other and help each other progress to Certification Training.

C. The Anonymous Written Critique

The <u>Student's Critique Form</u> appears on the following pages. You will have time, during the final session of the course, to complete this form and offer any comments that you think are appropriate. It will be especially helpful to your department to hear your suggestions for improving this training.

Please look over the critique form prior to the final session, to start organizing your thoughts and feelings about the instruction you have received.

D. Maintaining the Log of Drug Influence Evaluations

Beginning with your first night of Certification Training, and continuing throughout your career as a DRE, you will maintain a log of all persons you examine for possible drug impairment. The log is your personal record of your work as a DRE, and it will have a major impact on three things that should be of cable importance to you:

- (1) Whether or not your instructors can recommend you for your initial certification as a DRE.
- (2) Whether or not you qualify for re-certification, when your initial certification expires.
- (3) Whether or not the trial judge in a particular drug impairment case qualifies you as an expert, and allows you to render your opinion as evidence.

Under the National Program Standards established by NHTSA and IACP, your instructors <u>cannot</u> endorse you for certification by IACP unless your Log of Drug Influence Evaluations is up-to-date, complete and accurate. The next-to-last line on the Certification Progress Log that you received at the beginning of the PRE-School, and that you handed back in at the start of this School, is titled "Rolling" Log Approved. ("Rolling" Log is the informal name of the Log of Drug Influence Evaluations.) If a valid instructor's signature does not appear on that line, IACP cannot grant you a certificate. Once you do receive a certificate, it usually will be valid for two years. At that time, to qualify for re-certification, you must submit a copy of the entries in your "Rolling" Log since you were certified, as proof that you have maintained your proficiency. And, each time you go to court as a DRE, you must bring your "Rolling" Log along, to help establish your credentials as an expert.

What is the "Rolling" Log? Five copies of it appear on the final pages of this manual. Remove one of those copies now, so that you can refer to it as you read the instructions for entering information on it.

At the top of the Log, there is a space in which you will print your name ("Drug Recognition Expert"); another space for the page number (obviously, the first page will be #1, the second #2, and so on; as you continue your career as a DRE, the page number will grow very large); and, a third space in which to print your IACP Certificate Number. Until you have completed your certification training, you will print the word "STUDENT" in that space.

Each subsequent line of the log corresponds to a suspect examination in which you participated. In the "Control Number" box, you will print the number that you assign to the examination; i.e., if this is the seventh examination in which you participated in 1993, the control number would be 93-7. If you were the actual examining DRE for this particular case, you need not print anything other than the control number in that box. But if you served only as the recorder, you must print "RECORDER" in the box, immediately below the control number. Likewise, if you were participating only as a witness, you will print "WITNESS" in the box.

In the box to the right of the control number, you will print the suspect's full name (last, first, middle initial); further to the right, enter the booking number. The booking number is whatever control number the responsible law enforcement agency assigned to track this particular arrestee. In some instances, there may be no booking number. For example, you may have an opportunity to examine a person who is receiving drugs in a clinical setting, and no arrest is involved. Or, the person you are examining might be someone already incarcerated in the jail who agrees to submit to the examination with the understanding that its outcome will not affect his or her particular case; in that instance, the booking number would not be relevant. In any case where there is no relevant booking number, simply print "N/A" in the box.

In the next box, print the date on which the examination began; in other words, an examination that starts one minute before midnight on March 17th is recorded on that date, not on the 18th, despite the fact that almost all of the work took place on the later day.

The next box, of course, is very important. Record your opinion in complete detail. If you conclude that the suspect is not impaired, that is what you will record. If you conclude that he or she is under the influence of alcohol only, that is what you must record. If you believe the suspect is suffering from an injury or illness, print "Medical Rule Out" in the box. Otherwise, print the category or combination of categories of drugs that you believe is causing the impairment. If the suspect has a positive BAC, don't forget to include "alcohol" as one of those.

In the "Toxicologic Results" box, you will print the outcome of all chemical tests performed on the suspect. Obviously, days or weeks will usually pass by before you have the results of blood or urine tests, so you will routinely have to "update" your log. Don't forget to include the BAC obtained from the breath test in this space. And, if the suspect refused to submit to the blood or urine test, indicate that.

In the final box, print the names of persons who witnessed the examination, and include any other appropriate comments. Use the reverse side of the page, or add continuation sheets, if longer comments are appropriate.

Experienced DREs usually maintain two copies of their "Rolling" Logs, to ensure preservation of this most important record.

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Date

DRT SCHOOL STUDENT'S CRITIQUE FORM

1. Rating The Various Segments Of The School

On a scale from 1 (="low") to 5 (="high"), please indicate how important each major topic or activity of this school was for you personally.

	1	2	3	4	5
Drugs In Society and In Vehicle Operation					
Development and Effectiveness of the DEC Program					
Overview of the Drug Recognition Expert Procedures	i				
Physician's Desk Reference		•		***************************************	
Eye Examinations: Explanation and Demonstrations by Instructors			·		
Eye Examinations: Hands-on Practice by Students					
Vital Signs: Explanations and Demonstrations by Instructors					
Vital Signs: Hands-on Practice by Students					
Physiology and Drugs					
The Alcohol Workshop			-		
The "Practice: Test Interpretation" Sessions					
The Sessions on the Individual Drug Categories					
Overview of Signs and Symptoms					
Drug Combinations					
Resume Preparation and Maintenance					
Preparing the Narrative Report					
Case Preparation and Testimony					
The Mid-Course Review Session					
The Role Play Session (Instructors "simulating" drug impaired subjects)					
The Quizzes					

2.	Suggestions F	or Improving The School								
If you <u>absolutely</u> had to cut four hours out of this school, what topics or sessions would you reduce or eliminate?										
If y addi	you could add f tional time be	our hours to the School spent?	, how would you recommend that the							
			·							
3.	Specific Feat	ures Of The School								
		appropriate word to ind each of the following s								
1	The DRT Schoo	ol is at least one day to	oo long.							
	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure							
2.	We spent too	We spent too much time in hands-on practice.								
	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure							
3.	Now that I've had the DRT School, I believe that the $\underline{PRE}\text{-School}$ really wasn't needed.									
	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure							
4.	Some of the instructors didn't seem to be as well prepared as they should have been.									
	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure							
5.	I do $\underline{\text{not}}$ feel confident about my ability to estimate nystagmus onset angle accurately.									
	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure							
б.	This School w	vas much harder than I t	hought it would be.							
	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure							
7.	We should hav	re spent more time in ha	nds-on practice.							

8. The instructors seemed to know their material, but some of them didn't get it across very well.

Agree

Disagree

Disagree

Not Sure

Not Sure

Agree

	9.	We spent too much time on the details of each drug category.				
- man		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
S	10.	I am not confident that I can measure blood pressure accurately.				
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	11.	I would have to say	that the final examinat:	ion was hard, but fair.		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	12.	Some of the instruc	ctors "threw the bull" a l	oit too much.		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	13.	Now that I've had the DRT School, I am more convinced than ever that the PRE-School is very important.				
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	14.	I am still very cor	nfused about drug combina	tions and their effects.		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	15.	I am not confident	that I can estimate pupi	l size accurately.		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
The second secon	16.	I would have to say it would be.	y that this School wasn't	quite as hard as I thought		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	17.	There were too many	y quizzes in this School.			
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	18.	The final examinat	ion was much harder than	it should have been.		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	19.	We did <u>not</u> receive symptoms of the var	enough information about rious drug categories.	the effects, signs and		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	20.	I am confident that training.	t I will succeed in the C	ertification Stage of my		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
	21.	The DRT School is at least one day too short.				
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
· chamana						

4. Rating of Instructors

HS 172 R4/93

On a scale from 1 (="poor") to 5 (="excellent"), please indicate your overall assessment of each instructor.

Rating
Rating

On a scal overall a	le from 1 (="po assessment of t	oor") to 5 (=" the quality of	excellent"), pl this School:	lease indicate you	r
1	2	3	4	5	
Please of appropria	ffer any final ate.	comments or s	uggestions that	you feel are	
					
• • •					
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	,				
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