The Undisclosed Informant and the Fourth Amendment: A Search for Meaningful Standards

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Comment

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In United States v. Harris, a recent explication of the demands of the Fourth Amendment, the Supreme Court examined once again "the recurring question of what showing is constitutionally necessary to satisfy a magistrate that there is a substantial basis for crediting the report of an [unidentified] informant . . . who purports to relate his personal knowledge of criminal activity." On one level, the case of United States v. Harris can be seen as simply "another indication of the determination of the Supreme Court's changing membership to reverse the trend of the Warren Court's criminal procedure decisions." Upon analysis, however, the misfortunes of Roosevelt Harris, "a trafficker in nontaxpaid distilled spirits" exposed by "a person who fears for their life [sic] and property should their name be reported," can also convey a more basic message. For the plurality

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2. Since Mapp v. Ohio, 367 U.S. 643 (1961), federal law has come to dominate the search and seizure field. Mapp held that the Fourth Amendment, operating through the Fourteenth, barred the use of evidence secured through an illegal search and seizure from state trials.
3. 403 U.S. at 575. The question is not only "recurring," but also one of the most important in the field of search and seizure law. Most search warrants are probably granted on the basis of the hearsay testimony of unnamed informants. A study of search warrants in one California city revealed that eighty-one per cent of all warrants rested on informer data. More than eighty-five per cent of these informer-based warrants did not disclose the informants' identity. See S. Brodsky, Search Warrants, Hearsay Evidence and the Federal Constitution: A Critique Based on California Experience 29 (1965). An unpublished study of the issuance of warrants in a medium-sized Connecticut city, in which the author participated, indicated that anonymous informants were the source of the information for seventy-three per cent of all search warrants issued in 1968 and sixty-three per cent in 1969. See Appendix, Table 2 infra. Reliance on hearsay testimony of informants is especially significant in narcotics cases. In the city studied, ninety per cent and eighty-three per cent of all warrants for narcotics searches were founded on informant reports in 1968 and 1969, respectively. The study is described in more detail at pp. 708-12 infra.
5. 403 U.S. at 573.
opinion authored by Chief Justice Burger is fundamentally a continuation, rather than a repudiation, of past Supreme Court analyses of probable cause showings of search warrants based on informer testimony. The last decade of decisions in this area has consisted entirely of attempts to define standards which would prove the reliability of anonymous informants. Yet it is doubtful that those standards—whether applied strictly, as in the Warren era, or loosely, as presaged by Harris—can successfully distinguish reliable from unreliable informer affidavits.

This Comment will suggest a new probable cause model which promises to be more capable of assuring the credibility of incriminating information obtained from unidentified informants.

I. The Supreme Court’s Search for Standards

Prior to Harris, the Supreme Court formulated, and later elaborated, a “substantial basis” test for undisclosed informer testimony. The Court first specifically analyzed the use of hearsay information provided by an unnamed informant to support a search warrant in Jones v. United States. Almost unanimously, it upheld a warrant based on a tip from a “reliable” informant who had given prior information “which was correct” and who asserted that he had personally purchased narcotics from the suspects. Responding to an objection to the use of hearsay information from unidentified informants, the Jones Court declared that “an affidavit is not to be deemed insuffi-

6. A bare majority of the justices voted to uphold the warrant presented, and of these, only three could agree on any of the key points in the Chief Justice’s opinion.
7. See pp. 706-08 infra.
8. See pp. 704-08 infra.
9. 362 U.S. 257 (1960). Adumbrations of Jones are apparent in Draper v. United States, 358 U.S. 307 (1959). In Draper, a “special employee” of the Bureau of Narcotics who had always given “accurate and reliable” information in the past notified the Bureau that James Draper “was peddling narcotics to several addicts and supplied a detailed description of Draper’s appearance and where and when he could be apprehended carrying heroin. The Court found the arrest and incident search of Draper’s person valid, reasoning that since every other descriptive detail related by the informant had proved to be true, the arresting officer had reasonable grounds to believe that the one remaining unverified item—that the suspect was carrying heroin—was likewise correct. Id. at 313.
10. As in Draper v. United States, 358 U.S. 307 (1959), only Justice Douglas dissented, protesting against the use of “faceless informers.”
11. This information was corroborated by “other sources” and, to some extent, by the fact that the persons implicated were known to be drug addicts. However, the officer who obtained the warrant—solely on the basis of an affidavit that he had signed—did not swear to the results of his own independent investigation of the claims made by the informants. L. HALL, Y. KAMISAR, W. LAFAYE & J. ISRAEL, MODERN CRIMINAL PROCEDURE 236 (3d ed. 1969).
cient on that score, so long as a substantial basis for crediting the hearsay is presented." The "substantial basis" test of *Jones* was soon refined and applied in *Aguilar v. Texas* to strike down a state search warrant issued on the basis of an affidavit which recited, in relevant part, that "[a]ffiants have received reliable information from a credible person and do believe that" narcotics were on the premises to be searched. Building on *Jones*, the Court held that to enable a magistrate to determine when the hearsay statements of informants establish probable cause for a search warrant: (1) the affidavit must, in order to preclude the possibility that the informant is relying on mere rumor, indicate the circumstances from which the informer concluded that evidence is present or that crimes are occurring; and (2) the affiant must present the basis for his belief that the informant is trustworthy, thus reducing the possibility that a tip meeting the first standard is no more than a well-embroidered fabrication.

In *Spinelli v. United States* the Court restated the *Aguilar* criteria and confronted the question of whether a warrant affidavit found defective under the two-pronged reliability test of *Aguilar* might be "cured" by other averments contained in the affidavit. The entire Court agreed that supporting information could serve to establish probable cause by buttressing an otherwise unacceptable informant's tip, although the majority found the corroborative information in the *Spinelli* warrant insufficient.

12. 362 U.S. at 269.
16. Note, supra note 4, at 55. See also Spinelli v. United States, 393 U.S. 410, 416 (1969); Comment, supra note 15, at 841. This "particular knowledge" test places a premium on personal observation. If the informant claims first-hand knowledge, a detailed description of the incriminating evidence observed may not be required. See *Spinelli*, supra at 428 (White, J., concurring); cf. *Rugendorf v. United States*, 376 U.S. 528 (1963). Moreover, by its very nature the standard as applied may differ from the Court's formulation. The acceptable statement "x is selling liquor to me" and the unacceptable statement "x is selling liquor" may seem equivalent in the minds of the informant or the officers drafting the warrant application. Cf. Note, The Outwardly Sufficient Search Warrant Affidavit: What If It's False?, 19 U.C.L.A. L. Rev. 96, 136-37 (1971).
17. See Note, supra note 4, at 55; Comment, supra note 15, at 846-47. For a discussion of the problems in the operation of this rule, see Note, The Outwardly Sufficient Search Warrant Affidavit, supra note 16, at 134-36.
20. See 393 U.S. at 438 (Fortas, J., dissenting).
21. An F.B.I. investigation indicated that the suspect was spending considerable time at an apartment not his own which contained two telephones, whose numbers matched those the informant had asserted *Spinelli* was using for illegal gambling activities. In addition, *Spinelli* was known to federal authorities as a bookmaker. With respect to
United States v. Harris\textsuperscript{22} is significant principally because of its willingness to embrace dubious corroborative assertions in an affidavit in order to rescue an informer's tip which probably would have been held unacceptable by the Warren Court. The affidavit in \textit{Harris} recited that a "prudent person" had told the affiant, a federal tax investigator, that he had recently seen Harris selling untaxed liquor and that no more than two weeks ago he had purchased some of the bootlegged whiskey himself. In addition to the allegations concerning the informant's report, mention was made of "a sizable stash of illicit whiskey" once found in an abandoned house under Harris' control and attention was drawn to Harris' reputation as a bootlegger.\textsuperscript{23}

A bare majority of the Court upheld the magistrate's finding of probable cause on the basis of this affidavit, though there was no consensus on \textit{why} that finding should be upheld.\textsuperscript{24} The difficulties with the warrant stemmed from the fact that no basis was given to support the affiant's belief that the informant was generally trustworthy.\textsuperscript{25} Two of the majority Justices favored overcoming this obstacle by overruling \textit{Spinelli} or \textit{Aguilar}.\textsuperscript{26} The Chief Justice's plurality opinion noted that "at most, these allegations indicated that Spinelli could have used the telephones specified by the informant for some purpose," \textit{supra}. at 417, and that the allegation that Spinelli was "known" to the police as a gambler was "but a bald and unilluminating assertion of suspicion that is entitled to no weight," \textit{ibid.} at 414.

\textsuperscript{22} 403 U.S. 573 (1971).
\textsuperscript{23} The affidavit read, in part:
Roosevelt Harris has had a reputation with me for over four years as being a trafficker of nontaxpaid distilled spirits, and over this period I have received numerous information \textsuperscript{sic} from all types of persons as to his activities. Constable Howard Johnson located a sizable stash of illicit whiskey in an abandoned house under Harris' control during this period of time. This date, I have received information from a person who fears for their life \textsuperscript{sic} and property should their name be revealed. I have interviewed this person, found this person to be a prudent person, and have, under a sworn verbal statement, gained the following information: This person has personal information of and has purchased illicit whiskey from within the residence described, for a period of more than 2 years, and most recently within the past 2 weeks, has knowledge of a person who purchased illicit whiskey within the past 2 days from the house, has personal knowledge that illicit whiskey is consumed by purchasers in the outbuilding known as and utilized as the "dance hall," and has seen Roosevelt Harris go to the other outbuilding, located about 50 yards from the residence, on numerous occasions, to obtain the whiskey for this person and other persons.
403 U.S. at 575-76.

\textsuperscript{24} The Chief Justice's opinion was joined by Justices Black and Blackmun who also wrote separate concurring opinions. Justice Stewart joined in only part I of the plurality opinion, and Justice White concurred only in part III of the Court's opinion.

\textsuperscript{25} No one denied that the affidavit met the first \textit{Aguilar-Spinelli} test. An allegation of personal observation suffices to show that an informant has based his particular conclusions on reliable data. See 403 U.S. at 589 (dissenting opinion); \textit{cf.} note 16 \textit{supra}.

\textsuperscript{26} Justice Black desired to "wipe their holdings from the books," 403 U.S. at 585, and Justice Blackmun wrote "a personal comment" in favor of overruling \textit{Spinelli}, \textit{ibid.} at 585-86.
opinion, however, contented itself with distinguishing the facts of these cases, and, like Spinelli, indicated that a bare assertion of an informer's general reliability can be a basis for a finding of probable cause only if it is corroborated by other factual data which supports the affiant's opinion that the informant is trustworthy. Unlike Spinelli, however, sufficient corroborative data was found. Because the informant's statements were against his penal interest, they were said to have "carried their own indicia of credibility," and since police knowledge of reputation is often accurate, the affiant's declarations as to Harris' reputation as a bootlegger were considered "probative."

Thus, although Harris, in its generous view of what facts are corroborative, limits the significance of the Aguilar-Spinelli holdings, the framework that these two cases constructed for analyzing informer-
based warrants has by no means been dismantled. Affidavits which relate the testimony of anonymous informants should set forth enough of the underlying circumstances to demonstrate that there is reason to believe both that the informer is a truthful person and that he has based his particular conclusions in the matter at hand on reliable data. Affidavits deficient in either of these respects can establish probable cause only if they provide adequate information to corroborate the informant’s general reliability and/or particular knowledge.

II. The Existing Standards in Operation

In order to ascertain whether the Aguilar-Spinelli mode of evaluating informer-based warrants does, in fact, distinguish reliable from unreliable informant data, the author participated in a study of the issuance and effectiveness of search warrants in a medium-sized city in Connecticut. This study was designed to determine, first, the extent to which the Aguilar-Spinelli requirements were implemented at the local level and second, the degree to which the use of these tests succeeded in assuring the reliability of informant data.

30. Accordingly, lower courts are correct in employing the Aguilar-Spinelli tests in post-Harris litigation. See, e.g., Bacon v. United States, 449 F.2d 933 (9th Cir. 1971); Chrisman v. Field, 448 F.2d 175 (9th Cir. 1971); Manning v. United States, 448 F.2d 992 (2d Cir.), cert. denied, 92 S. Ct. 541 (1971).

31. The study was conducted by the author and Jeffrey N. Weisen, Esq., under the supervision of Dean Abraham S. Goldstein and Professor Stanton Wheeler from October 1969, through June 1970, as part of the 1970 Senior Studies Program at the Yale Law School.

Information on the warrant process was obtained by three main techniques: personal interviews, examination of records, and direct observations. Those interviewed included six judges, five police detectives, five prosecutors, two attorneys of the public defender's office, and two private attorneys. These interviews are the source of our impressions relating to the attitudes of the local participants toward compliance with Supreme Court standards described at pp. 709-11 infra.

The records examined were obtained from the files of granted search warrants maintained by the prosecutor's office. The search warrants are filed by year and divided into two classes, those in which evidence was found and those in which no evidence was uncovered. Each class is further divided by subject matter into four groups, gambling, narcotics, liquor, and “other.” See Appendix, Table 1 infra. We sampled 100 per cent of the warrants for 1968 (a total of 145) and for 1969, we sampled fifty per cent of the gambling, liquor, and narcotics warrants and 100 per cent of the “other” warrants (for a total of ninety-three).

Finally, direct observation of police, prosecutorial and judicial activities was carried out twice a week for three months. We were permitted to enter judicial chambers on six different occasions when arrest warrants were being signed, but, because of a fear of “leaks,” we were not allowed to observe the signing of search warrants.

The study also analyzed approximately 150 arrest warrants, most of which were based on citizen complaints of misdemeanor violations. Our findings concerning the arrest warrant process will be mentioned only insofar as they are suggestive of characteristics of the search warrant process as well.
A. Compliance

Search warrants in the city studied are drafted by two branches of the police department. The vast majority of the warrants are produced by the Special Services Division, which investigates narcotics, liquor, and gambling offenses. The Detective Division, which investigates other crimes, processes a much smaller number of warrants, typically relating to stolen goods.\(^{32}\)

A deep ambivalence permeates the view the police take toward the warrants they draft. The Special Services Division displays great pride in drafting acceptable search warrants, and though the Detective Division generally approaches warrants with less enthusiasm,\(^{33}\) its insistence in important cases on careful drafting matches that of the Special Services.\(^{34}\) Yet the diligence of both divisions is directed mainly at the surface appearance of the warrants.\(^{35}\) To minimize the discovery function of a warrant, the police tend to reveal the least amount of information necessary to meet judicial requirements. As a result, the allegations contained in the warrants are highly standardized, with identical paragraphs appearing in numerous warrants.\(^{36}\)

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32. In 1968, a total of 145 search warrants were granted in the study area, and in 1969, the figure was 172. As Table I shows (see Appendix infra), the Special Services Division was responsible for more than nine tenths of all warrants in both years included in the study.

33. Some members of the Detective Bureau appeared more willing to cut corners to avoid burdensome search warrant requirements. This may be because, as one officer put it, not being specialists in warrant preparation like their colleagues in Special Services, “the patrolmen like to avoid paper work [and] are always asking if they really need a warrant in this situation.” In addition, the nature of the searches (usually involving stolen goods) makes the Bureau emphasize expeditious return of the property over the painstaking investigation necessary to ensure conviction.

Although the Detective Division does not rely extensively on search warrants, it does conduct a substantial number of searches. To do so, it relies primarily on consent. One detective estimated that from seventy to eighty per cent of the suspects sign the Division’s consent form because:

They know if they don’t sign we’ll station cops around the house and get a warrant. He [sic] can stop the search anytime. Sometimes, if you’re getting warm, they’ll stop it. But most times not . . . . When they know they’re going to be arrested, they’re cooperative. If they don’t consent, they know the judge will wonder why . . . . It’s the same reason as why most murderers talk.

34. The captain of the Detective Division illustrated this attitude when he told us of a recent murder case in which the suspect admitted he had been with the victim the evening of the murder. Despite the fact that the suspect had offered to take the police to his room to prove his innocence, the captain required the investigators to obtain a warrant. In his words, “You know the state has to prove consent, and in an important case we don’t want to risk it.”

35. Supreme Court pronouncements have had an impact on at least the drafting of warrants by the police. Almost all warrants submitted by the police are approved, see p. 710 infra, and ninety-eight per cent of the approved warrants we studied contained assertions fulfilling at least one of the Aguilar-Spinelli reliability criteria.

36. The typical search warrant reviewed contains about ten paragraphs. For each type of crime there appears to be a standard form into which differing defendant names, addresses and other particulars are inserted. (In the detective bureau a prototype warrant is posted on the bulletin board of the office to aid the officers in their preparation.)
The Connecticut Circuit Court judges interviewed stated that they carefully scrutinized each warrant application. Despite the fact that less than two per cent of search warrant applications are rejected, the judges emphatically denied that they acted as mere “rubber-stamps.” Nevertheless, while the judges were knowledgeable about Supreme Court standards as to search and seizure, the quality of their scrutiny is questionable.

Applying the Aguilar test of informer

A typical narcotics warrant begins as follows:
Sgt. X is a regular member of the . . . Police Department and is presently assigned to the Special Services Division. He has a total of 19 years service, 6 of which are with Special Services. He has been in charge of numerous narcotic investigations and narcotic raids.

After several paragraphs stating the reliability of the informant, the dates upon which “known addicts” were seen entering the suspect’s apartment, or the date upon which an informant “buy” was observed by the police, the warrant concludes with a paragraph reviewing the grounds for probable cause.

The usual affidavit also contains a statement of items to be seized. In narcotics cases this usually takes the following form:
Narcotics, dangerous drugs, misbranded drugs, narcotic paraphernalia, i.e., eye drop-pers, syringes, bottle caps (cookers), needles (hypodermic), water pipes, scales, grinders, or other apparatus used for packing of narcotics.

In this fashion, the police may be given wide-ranging authority to seize a myriad of items even though the evidence presented in the affidavit often does not support the inference that they will all be present. For example, an affidavit may establish probable cause to believe that narcotic sales are occurring, but may not support a conclusion that narcotics are being used; hence, reference to narcotic paraphernalia, cookers, etc. would not be justified.

37. Since in Connecticut the prosecutor is not required to sign or attest the search warrant (CONN. GEN. STAT. REV. § 54-33a (1968)), he normally does not participate in the process. Prosecutors report that even when police request their judgment as to the adequacy of a warrant, the additional scrutiny is minimal. In addition to the lack of legal duty, one reason often given for the cursory character of the prosecutor’s review was that the police are highly competent and draft “good” warrant applications. We were told: “You’ll find they’re all exactly the same. The same guys draw them up with the same key words.”

38. This was the figure quoted to us by police, prosecutors, and judges alike. We were unable to verify its accuracy on the basis of the records at our disposal.

39. Although search warrant applications are presented to a judge in chambers whenever possible, the need for speed sometimes causes the police to approach the bench in open court or to seek the judge at home during non-court hours.

40. One judge, for instance, summarizes in notebook form all important probable cause decisions as they are handed down by the Court.

41. Because we were not permitted to view the initiation, presentation, and signing of the search warrants (see note 31 supra), we cannot substantiate by direct observation our belief that judges do not carefully analyze these documents. Our conclusion, however, is supported by two other aspects of our study and agrees with the findings of L. TIFFANY, D. MCINTYRE, JR. & D. ROTHENBERG, THE DETECTION OF CRIME 119-20 (1967). First, as is indicated above, although only a fiftieth of the warrants are denied, approximately a sixth exhibit a questionable basis for probable cause even assuming the veracity of all the allegations contained therein. Second, support for our inference is provided by our study of arrest warrants. As with search warrants, every judge asserted that he did not rubber-stamp arrest warrants, but in the course of the same interviews, the following illustrative comments were also made:

If the prosecutor and the police think there’s probable cause, I’ll sign even if I have a little doubt . . . . They both review the warrants carefully. They [the warrants] have been carefully reviewed by the prosecutors who know what to look for before they come to me.
reliability supplemented by the standards for curative corroborative information suggested by Spinelli, we concluded that eighteen per cent of the warrants approved by the judges in 1968 and sixteen per cent of the 1969 warrants were of doubtful constitutional validity.

B. Success

The existence of this group of "questionable" warrants provided an opportunity for evaluating the empirical validity of the Aguilar-Spinelli requirements. We hypothesized that if the Supreme Court standards actually selected out the unreliable informant data, the group of questionable warrants would lead to a higher proportion of

Our findings suggest that these judicial assumptions are invalid. Connecticut law requires a prosecutor to countersign arrest warrants before submission to the magistrate, but the prosecutors we observed would, almost invariably, read through the documents for the first time before the judge in chambers. One prosecutor explained that arrest warrants are only skimmed because "if it doesn't work out, we can always nolle."

As with the arrest warrants, then, the judges may be disinclined to examine even the surface allegations of the search warrant applications very closely in view of their high regard for the competence of the police in drafting search warrants. Also, in some circumstances, the limited amount of time devoted to evaluating the warrant applications may preclude meaningful review. Cf. Barrett, Criminal Justice: The Problem of Mass Production, in The Courts, The Police, and The Law Explosion 85, 117-18 (H.W. Jones ed. 1965).

42. See p. 705 supra. Since our evaluation of corroborative assertions which might "cure" a warrant which would otherwise be rejected under the two Aguilar tests was based on the Spinelli Court's strict treatment of such allegations, a portion of the warrants which we labeled "questionable" would probably be found acceptable under the generous approach of the Harris Court. See pp. 706-08 supra. Likewise, we used a demanding interpretation of the Aguilar reliability tests in classifying warrants. See note 43 infra. By doing so, we have shown that even a very strict application of the existing standards may not enhance reliability of informant data.

43. See Appendix, Table 4 infra. A warrant was regarded as "questionable" only if (1) it failed to meet the Aguilar requirements as to setting forth the basis for a belief that the informant is generally reliable (general reliability deficiency) and that the particular information he has supplied is based on reliable data (particular knowledge deficiency) and (2) it failed to meet the Spinelli standard for remedying Aguilar deficiencies by other assertions in the warrant affidavit (inadequate corroboration). In the warrants in our sample, an effort to establish general reliability always took the form of an allegation as to past information supplied by the informant. Cf. note 16 infra. A warrant which did not allude to prior correct information leading to conviction was considered deficient under the first criterion. Inadequate corroboration was more difficult to define with precision. We first determined whether the corroboration, if any, took the form of general surveillance or an informer "buy." General surveillances were then classified as "weak" if they uncovered information of only limited probative value, as in Spinelli. See Appendix, Table 4 infra. The following were typical of the "weak" surveillances we reviewed: reports that numerous persons entered and left, with no visible purchases, stores which were allegedly fronts for illegal gambling or narcotics sales; reports that an informer was observed to have walked in and out of a building in which he asserted he had placed an illegal wager; and reports that someone, identified by an informant as a policy runner who took slips from points A to B to C, in fact travelled from points A to B to C. The "buy" technique is discussed at note 78 infra. For the reasons given at note 82 infra and note 42 supra, "apartment house buys," like "weak" surveillances, were regarded as insufficient to cure a warrant found questionable under the first criterion.
fruitless searches than would the warrants that clearly met the *Aguilar-Spinelli* tests.\footnote{We do not mean to suggest that the existence of probable cause turns on the ultimate success of a search in uncovering evidence of criminality. On the contrary, the probability that a search will be successful is but one of many elements which are involved in the concept of probable cause. See note 64 infra. We focus on success only as a measure of the reliability of informant tips—\textvisiblespace}a factor which the Supreme Court has regarded as of paramount importance in assessing probable cause in the case of informer-based warrants. See pp. 704-08 supra.\footnote{Our data does not support the hypothesis that even a strict version of the Supreme Court standards provides a meaningful measure of the reliability of informer-based warrants.}

No such variation was found. In 1968, thirty-six per cent of all warrants produced no incriminating evidence whatsoever.\footnote{Nor do we maintain that unreliability of informant testimony is the only possible cause for a warrant's failure to lead to the seizure of the items specified. In some instances, especially in searches for narcotics and policy slips, the easy disposability of the evidence may have frustrated the searches. In addition, police were very concerned with "leaks" reaching the suspects. Factors such as these, however, can be expected to influence equally the success rates of "questionable" and "acceptable" warrants. See Appendix, Table 5 infra. See id. See id. An alternate explanation could be adduced. If police perjury were prevalent—that is, if police consistently fabricated the affidavits to meet the *Aguilar-Spinelli* test—then the failure rate of the "questionable" and the "acceptable" warrants might not be expected to display any significant disparity. Our data does not permit us to decide conclusively between these two hypotheses, but even if the absence of any correlation between success rates and apparent compliance with Supreme Court standards is the product of widespread police perjury, my policy recommendation is the same. See note 70 infra.} The failure rate differed slightly as between "questionable" and "acceptable" warrants, but the variation was not statistically significant.\footnote{See, e.g., Cratty v. United States, 163 F.2d 844, 847 (D.C. Cir. 1947); Note, *The Outwardly Sufficient Search Warrant Affidavit*, supra note 16, at 134. See, e.g., cases cited in Note, *The Outwardly Sufficient Search Warrant Affidavit*, supra note 16, at 134 n.138.} Likewise, the extent to which the 1969 failure rate for "questionable" and "acceptable" warrants diverged from the overall failure rate for that year of thirty-one per cent\footnote{The prosecutor we interviewed went on to say: [T]he informer is usually ignorant of his rights and admits possession. Having} was well within the bounds of normal statistical fluctuations. Accordingly, our data does not support the hypothesis that even a strict version of the Supreme Court standards provides a meaningful measure of the reliability of informer-based warrants.

If attention is directed to the character and motivations of the typical undisclosed informant, this result is readily explicable.\footnote{See, e.g., cases cited in id. at 134 n.139.} Frequently, informants are themselves criminals,\footnote{See, e.g., cases cited in infra.} drug addicts,\footnote{See, e.g., cases cited in id. at 134 n.139.} or even pathological liars.\footnote{See, e.g., cases cited in infra.} For instance, one prosecutor described the typical narcotics informant as "a guy who made a purchase a half-hour ago. He was stopped for possession, and the police make a deal with him, exchanging release for information."\footnote{See note 70 infra.} Obviously, such
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people give information for reasons other than the call of civic duty. The factors motivating undisclosed informants have been widely recognized by commentators and police alike. These motives include offers of immunity or sentence reduction in exchange for cooperation, promises of money payments, usually on a per tip basis, and such perverse motives as revenge or the hope of eliminating criminal competition. In sum,

The reliability of such persons is obviously suspect. The fact that their information may have produced convictions in the past does not justify taking their reports on faith. It is to be expected that the informer will not infrequently reach for shadowy leads, or even seek to incriminate the innocent.

done so, he has no choice but to make a deal. To keep the informer's identity secret, pushers are arrested for possession instead of sale.

For a criticism of these practices, see Goldstein, Police Discretion Not to Invoke the Criminal Process: Low Visibility Decisions in the Administration of Justice, 69 YALE L.J. 543, 562-73 (1960).

54. See, e.g., M. HARNEY & J. CROSS, THE INFORMER IN LAW ENFORCEMENT 32-49 (1960); BRODSKY, supra note 3, at 34-36; Donnelly, Judicial Control of Informants, Spies, Stool Pigeons and Agents Provocateurs, 60 YALE L.J. 1091, 1094 (1951); Note, The Outwardly Sufficient Search Warrant Affidavit, supra note 16, at 133-34.

55. See, e.g., Goldstein, supra note 53, at 565-67. These offers may be especially attractive to narcotics informants since sentences for possession are often unusually long. In Connecticut, for example, a person arrested for possession who does not cooperate risks five years imprisonment for the first offense and fifteen for the second. See CONN. GEN. STAT. REV. § 19-481 (Supp. 1969).

56. Paying addicts for information is especially prevalent. For example, Brodsky found that the payment per tip in the California municipality he studied averaged ten dollars. This amount was generally used to finance the informant's drug habit. Brodsky, supra note 3, at 35. Police in Washington, D.C., reportedly supplied narcotics to informants who were unable to obtain them through the usual illicit channels. See Jones v. United States, 266 F.2d 924, 928 (D.C. Cir. 1959). In New York City regular informers are paid a "retainer" of forty dollars per month and are given narcotics in exchange for particular tips. See N.Y. Times, Oct. 28, 1971, at 45, col. 8. See also Note, The Outwardly Sufficient Search Warrant Affidavit, supra note 16, at 133 n.154; N.Y. Times, Mar. 11, 1972, at 14, col. 7 (1500 dollars paid to F.B.I. informant). Because readily attribute the failure of a warrant to turn up evidence causes other than the unreliability of informants, see note 44 supra, financial reimbursement does not assure consistently accurate information.

57. The desire for revenge "may come only from a feeling by a member of a criminal group that he is being discriminated against or is not given the preferment or opportunity to which he thinks his talents entitle him. Sometimes a desire for revenge arises from factors independent from criminal enterprise. Jealousies and quarrels over women may set at each other's throats, bosom companions who once were as thick as thieves." HARNEY & CROSS, supra note 54, at 35. In some cases, then, information supplied to police for the purpose of vengeance will be accurate, but in others, it will be incorrect. For example, rather than implicate a friend who sold him narcotics, an informant may seek to incriminate an enemy whom he suspects may be selling, although he may have no personal knowledge of the illegal activities. If the informant does report that he purchased contraband from an individual with whom he actually had no contact, police may truthfully prepare a warrant application which, on its face, complies with the Aguilar-Spinelli particular knowledge requirement. In these circumstances, the protective value of the Court's standard will be lost.

58. See HARNEY & CROSS, supra note 54, at 35-36.

59. Jones v. United States, 266 F.2d 924, 928 (D.C. Cir. 1959). The court also pointed out that "[t]he practice of paying fees to the informer for the cases he makes may also be expected, from time to time, to induce him to lure non-users into the drug habit and then entrap them into more violations." Id.
As a result, the Aguilar-Spinelli criteria do not ensure the reliability of tips from the overwhelming majority of police informants—the admitted criminals, addicts, and stool pigeons who volunteer information in order to promote their own special interests. The general reliability criterion may establish that an upstanding citizen with whom the police have previously dealt does not exaggerate or assert imaginary happenings. But the fact that the typical informant, often operating from inherently suspect motives, may have given accurate information some unknown number of times in the past provides no assurance that he is not now seeking revenge on an enemy or implicating an innocent person. Similarly, the particular knowledge criterion is of little value when applied to the usual informant. To be sure, a magistrate may be in a better position to evaluate the reliability of the report of a presumably reliable police undercover agent if the officer states the underlying basis of his knowledge and the particular details of his relationship with the suspect. But an assertion of personal observation or involvement by the usual informant—one whose veracity is inherently suspect—can add little to the equation. That the use of such tests does not enhance the success rates of informer-based warrants is therefore not surprising.

60. Mr. Justice Harlan was sensitive to this factor. In Jaben v. United States, 381 U.S. 214, 224 (1965), he noted that “unlike narcotics informants . . . whose credibility may often be suspect, the sources in this tax evasion case are much less likely to produce false or untrustworthy information.” Similarly, in United States v. Harris, 403 U.S. 573, 600 (1971), he argued in dissent that:

[w]ithout violating the confidences of his source, the agent surely could describe for the magistrate such things as the informer’s general background, employment, personal attributes that enable him to observe and relate accurately, position in the community, reputation with others . . . and the like.

See also United States v. Ventresca, 380 U.S. 102 (1965) (general reliability test easily met for local police officers and federal investigators).

61. In some cases, the police assertion that an informant has supplied correct information may be mistaken. See Note, The Outwardly Sufficient Search Warrant Affidavit, supra note 16, at 134-35. In the Connecticut city we studied, in order to protect the anonymity of informants, police kept no records of prior information supplied by specific individuals. Instead, the usual warrant statement that an informant has given information leading to arrest or conviction on a certain number of past occasions was based on the recollections of the officers involved.

The efficacy of altering the general construction of the Aguilar-Spinelli general reliability test to require a statement of the number of incorrect as well as correct tips supplied by an informant in the past is discussed at note 68 infra.

62. Cf. note 57 supra.

63. This conclusion is not altered by the inclusion of those warrants containing "curative" averments, a possibility left open by Spinelli and seized upon in Harris, see pp. 705-08 supra. Police verification of detailed descriptive facts supplied by an informant, as in Draper (see note 9 supra), logically can provide no basis for believing that the informant knew that the suspect was acting illegally. Knowledge of a person’s dress or travel plans may merely indicate that the informant was acquainted with the suspect and knew his daily habits. See, e.g., Note, supra note 15. Other forms of police corroboration of informer tips are discussed in more detail at pp. 715-18 infra.
III. Toward A More Meaningful Test for Probable Cause

Alternatives to the existing standards for judging probable cause in informer-based warrants are not lacking. For example, since many informer-based warrants that do not meet the *Aguilar-Spinelli* criteria do result in successful searches, it might be argued that a warrant should be granted without any inquiry into whether or not a substantial basis exists for the police opinion that the informer's tip should be pursued. At the other extreme, it has been suggested that no weight should ever be given to informer tips or that *McCrory v. Illinois* should be overruled and an informant's identity be disclosed at a probable cause hearing.

Fortunately, however, the course between complete deference to police acumen and forbidding all reliance on undisclosed informants is navigable. Information provided by the usual unidentified informer whose motives are prima facie suspect would nevertheless be acceptable if a test could be devised whereby a magistrate could assure

64. It is difficult to predict the frequency with which searches would be successful in such circumstances. If the Connecticut data is representative, informer-based searches are successful more than half the time, but it is impossible to know how many warrants are not even requested because the police know the issuing magistrate will inquire into the basis of their judgment. But even if it could be conclusively demonstrated that the police seek a warrant only when they feel a suspect is guilty and that such police intuition is correct in most cases, the argument for unfettered police discretion would not stand. The probable cause requirement is more than a matter of probability. Rather, probable cause has been defined by a balancing of the privacy rights which the Fourth Amendment embraces against the police needs of the state. *Camara v. Municipal Court*, 387 U.S. 523, 534-37 (1967); *State v. Kasabuck*, 52 N.J. 110, 116, 244 A.2d 101, 104 (1968). Thus, in *Chimel v. California*, 395 U.S. 752 (1969), generally accepted police practices were declared illegal without an inquiry into whether wide-ranging searches made concurrent to arrest usually turned up evidence. On the other hand, in *Camara, supra*, area-wide searches for health-code violations were permitted even though, as to any given household in the area, the probability of uncovering violations was obviously very small.

65. See generally *Brosky, supra* note 2.

66. 386 U.S. 300 (1967).

67. See, e.g., *Fabrikant, Probable Cause and the Confidential Informant, 1* CRIM. L. BULL. 1 (1965); Quinn, *McCrory v. Illinois: Probable Cause and the Informer Privilege, 45* DENVER L.J. 599 (1968). It has also been contended that even if the informant's identity is kept secret, allowing the defendant to challenge by cross-examination of the police affidavit the accuracy of the allegations in a warrant affidavit at a pre-trial hearing would be a significant advance. See, e.g., *Kipperman, Inaccurate Search Warrant Affidavits As a Ground for Suppressing Evidence, 84* HARV. L. REV. 825 (1971). While this procedure might be valuable in conjunction with the reform advocated below, little would be gained by such "piercing" under current standards since a policeman under cross-examination could in all honesty repeat assertions which had been fabricated by an undisclosed informant deemed reliable under the *Aguilar-Spinelli* tests.

68. Justice Douglas' view that the tips of anonymous informants should have no place in probable cause determinations, see note 10 *supra*, has never commanded a majority of the Court, and it appears that such arguments can expect little judicial sympathy at a time when it is generally thought that information from undisclosed informants is essential to effective law enforcement in areas such as narcotics violations. See, e.g., *United States v. Manning*, 448 F.2d 992, 996 (2d Cir. 1971) (Moore, J., dissenting), cert. denied, 92 S. Ct. 541 (1971); *Harney & Cross, supra* note 54, at 18-19; Barrett, *Police Practices and the Law*, 50 CALIF. L. REV. 11 (1962).
himself in each case that the informant is supplying truthful and probative information. Further elaboration of the Aguilar-Spinelli criteria as to the general reliability and particular knowledge of the informant probably cannot accomplish this result, but a requirement relating to police corroboration might. The proposal here is that to establish probable cause a showing should be made in each case involving undisclosed informant tips that police investigation has uncovered probative indications of criminal activity along the lines suggested by the informant. This police investigation need not generate, in and of itself, enough evidence to establish probable cause.

But it should indicate the presence of some suspicious activity of the

69. The general reliability requirement might be further refined by demanding a statement of the informant’s overall “battling average,” i.e., the ratio of prior correct tips to prior incorrect tips. Three basic difficulties are involved in this approach. First, where should the threshold for reliability be set? Would fifty-one per cent success in the past suffice? Or should ninety or even 100 per cent be required? If the acceptability level is low, the informant’s past record does not justify much confidence in his present tip. But if the level were very high, there would be a strong incentive for police falsification. Second, to cope with the latter problem, effective enforcement of the procedure would require disclosure of the files to defense attorneys—a requirement which might jeopardize the anonymity of the informant. Third, even if a typical informant has given accurate information on, say, two out of two past occasions, he may be motivated to fabricate the information the third time. See p. 713 supra.

Further explication of the particular knowledge standard would also be pointless, for however detailed the requirement of personal observation or involvement may be, the assertions originate with the very person whose credibility is being questioned. Cf. p. 714 supra. But see United States v. Harris, 403 U.S. 573, 591 (1971) (dissenting opinion).

70. As the example presented in the text will show, this requirement is very different from the “curative” corroboration allowed under Spinelli and Harris. Under those cases, it is “always open to the officer to seek corroboration of the tip,” United States v. Harris, 403 U.S. 573, 600 (1971) (dissenting opinion), but he need not do so unless the two-pronged Aguilar test has not been met. The proposed standard treats corroboration as mandatory rather than remedial. Furthermore, the class of adequate corroborative assertions is more limited under the proposed standard. Probative indications of criminal activities of the type suggested by the informant rather than, as under Draper, innocent behavioral patterns, would have to be verified.

It might be contended that requiring corroboration of every informer tip goes too far since the presumption of unreliability does not apply to the trained police undercover agent and to the upstanding member of the community who seeks anonymity out of fear of physical retaliation. Certainly the requirement might be altered to account for this observation by allowing the affiant to supply enough details as to the informant’s background to permit the magistrate to conclude that the particular informant is an exception to the generalization of informer unreliability (cf. note 60 supra) in lieu of a corroborative investigation. On balance, however, it is probably wiser not to depart from a uniform rule of corroboration, for if the requirement could be avoided by merely alleging that the informant is an undercover agent, a strong inducement for police fabrication in drafting warrant affidavits would be present. Cf. P. CHEVIGNY, POLICE POWER (1969); J. SKOLNICK, JUSTICE WITHOUT TRIAL 214-15 (1966). Falsifying elements relating to the reliability of an unnamed informer is considerably easier than detailing the existence and results of an independent, corroborative investigation, especially if “piercing” of the affidavit allegations is permitted, see note 67 supra.

71. Of course, it would be desirable if the investigation were to do so. For instance, questions as to informant reliability were not vital in United States v. Ventresca, 380 U.S. 102 (1965), an illegal distillery case, because police observation documented different occasions when a car was driven to the rear of the suspect’s house with loads of sugar and five-gallon tins, when the odor of fermenting mash was detected near the house, and when the sounds of distillery machinery were heard in the vicinity of the house.
character suggested by the informant’s tip which, taken together with
that tip and any other averments in the warrant affidavits, might
reasonably be said to amount to a showing of probable cause.72

The manner in which this approach would operate can be illustrated
by resorting to a not too unrealistic hypothetical case. Suppose that
a police affidavit is submitted in support of an application for a war-
rant to search the premises of 123 Stratton Road. The affidavit re-
counts the statements of a “reliable person” who has given “correct
information leading to conviction on ten past occasions.” The in-
formant, whose name is not given, has told the police that every
Tuesday evening at eight P.M. suspect A drives up to his girl friend’s
house at the address given above in a blue convertible bearing the
license plate 6N4-8524, that A carries a brown attaché case which
contains heroin into the house which he uses as a base for the sale
of narcotics, and that he learned of A’s activities by buying narcotics
from A at the indicated address several times in the recent past.

Should the magistrate, on the strength of this affidavit, grant the
warrant? Since both general reliability (“prior correct information
leading to conviction”) and particular knowledge (personal involve-
ment) are set forth, the answer under Aguilar is clearly in the affirm-
ative. Indeed, even if the allegation of prior correct information were
not made, issuance might conceivably be justified under Harris,73 and
even if the informant had not admitted to a personal purchase of
narcotics, the warrant could validly be granted under Draper if the
affidavit also indicated that the police saw A drive up to 123 Stratton
Road last Tuesday in the blue convertible and carry the brown at-
taché case indoors.74 Nevertheless, under the approach advocated here,

72. For example, in Henry v. United States, 361 U.S. 98 (1959), a warrant was invali-
dated which stated only that federal officers who were investigating the theft of whiskey
twice observed large cartons being loaded into a car in a residential district. If this
police observation were combined with a specific informant tip, it might have sufficed
to establish probable cause, though this hypothetical lies at the borderline even under
the proposed standard. Data relating to general trustworthiness of the informer might
also be considered in the mix of factors pertinent to the probable cause determination.
A general statement of what elements must be present in what degrees to establish
probable cause is not possible, but this is a problem endemic to the field of search and
seizure and arrest law. This Comment is concerned with the narrower question of when
an informer’s tip should be admissible as an element in the probable cause determination.

73. Under the Chief Justice’s opinion, the fact that the information was against
penal interest and that the police regarded the informer to be reliable could be adduced
to uphold the issuance. See p. 707 supra. On the other hand, since there is no reputation
evidence impeaching A, even if the plurality opinion in Harris is accepted at face value,
it should not support granting the warrant under the circumstances sketched above.

74. See note 9 supra. See also United States v. Manning, 448 F.2d 992 (2d Cir. 1971)
(en banc) (construing Harris to mean that police corroboration of innocent behavioral
patterns would establish probable cause even in the absence of a showing of general
reliability), cert. denied, 92 S. Ct. 541 (1971).
the warrant should not be granted, whether or not the informant admitted to purchasing narcotics and whether or not the police corroborated the fact that A visited his girl friend as predicted. The outcome would be otherwise, however, if police surveillance had uncovered truly suspicious activities along the lines suggested by the tip. For example, if the police observed known narcotics users entering and leaving the premises in question beginning soon after A's arrival, the surveillance (which might not, in itself, establish probable cause)\textsuperscript{75} would show sufficiently suspicious activity to justify crediting the informant's tip in the particular case.

As this illustration indicates, the approach suggested here would give more protection to the individual and lead to a more realistic assessment of probable cause than do existing standards, because it would require the magistrate to consider whether it is reasonable to believe that the unidentified informant is telling the truth in this instance and vis-à-vis this subject. Furthermore, when an informant knows that the report he gives will be tested by independent surveillance, he will be more likely to resist the temptation to fabricate reports of criminality in order to satisfy grudges, protect friends, or receive money payments.\textsuperscript{76} Thus, implementation of a requirement of police corroboration should not only succeed in screening out unreliable tips\textsuperscript{77} but should also improve the quality of informant tips in general.


\textsuperscript{76} "Knowledge that there is such surveillance serves to prevent double-dealing by persons in an extra-official capacity and to get a fuller measure of assistance from these." M. HANLEY & J. CROSS, NARCOTIC OFFICER'S HANDBOOK 135 (1961).

\textsuperscript{77} We sought to verify the claim that a strict corroboration requirement would screen out unreliable tips by testing for a correlation between success rates and adequacy of police surveillance alleged in our sample of warrants. However, the number of warrants on which we had suitable information as to both success and the degree of surveillance was small and did not permit us to establish statistical significance at the usual significance levels. See Appendix, Table 6 infra. Nevertheless, comparison of Tables 5 and 6 is at least suggestive. Table 5 shows the surprising result that those warrants which passed a strict application of the Aguilar-Spinelli test were, on the average, less successful in terms of uncovering evidence than those which were questionable under the same criteria. On the other hand, the correlation in Table 6 is in the expected direction: Informer warrants that were granted after adequate police surveillance were, on the average, more successful in producing evidence than those which entailed either no surveillance at all or insufficient surveillance.

In Table 6, in determining which instances of surveillance were adequate and which were not, we treated warrants which involved no surveillance as unacceptable. We also regarded as unacceptable those warrants for which the surveillance produced only information of very weak probative value, such as Draper-type facts. In most instances, our evaluation of the probative force of the items verified did not require great subtlety. For example, police investigations which established only that the informer gave an accurate statement of the suspect's automobile registration number were counted as unacceptable. Because of our uncertainty as to the proper treatment of "apartment house
Despite these appealing characteristics, however, two objections can be made of the proposed corroboration requirement. First, it might be argued that there is a real possibility that judicial pressure for supplementary investigation of this sort would strain limited police resources. But this claim is easily exaggerated. In fact, there is reason to believe that further investigation is presently conducted in the preponderance of cases involving informer tips, and that a substantial portion of these investigations are already of the type that would validate the informant's tip under the standard advocated here. Moreover, some increased expenditure of police investigative resources, in light of the acknowledged unreliability of most informers, seems a small price to pay for the promotion of Fourth Amendment interests.

The second major objection to an across-the-board corroborative investigation requirement goes to the nature of what is to be corroborated. For it will not always be clear which observations along the lines suggested by the informant's tip are probative of illegal activity rather than merely representative of an innocent pattern of behavior known to the informant. In considering this objection,
it is important to observe that the need for judicial definition of the quantity and quality of police-obtained corroborative information which suffices to substantiate an unreliable informant's tip is a pressing problem under the existing standards as well. Hence the recognition that it would remain a problem under the approach recommended here does not argue against pursuing that approach. Probative indications of criminal activity obtained through police investigations can be defined only in the context of specific circumstances, and since the number of factual combinations is practically unlimited, an exhaustive listing of what investigatory discoveries are properly considered probative for the purpose of corroborating an informant's tip is virtually impossible. Nonetheless, certain patterns of activity characteristic of illegal gambling, bootlegging, and the like are discernible. Judicial decisions as to what observations should support an informer's tip in these circumstances are entirely feasible and would provide predictable, dispositive standards for the great majority of cases.

In short, a general requirement of meaningful police corroboration of the accusations of undisclosed informants would be a workable and inherently more reliable means for bolstering the credibility of informer tips. The Fourth Amendment's command that "no warrant shall issue, but upon probable cause" should mean no less.

A more frequent border-line situation arises from the use of the buy technique described at note 78 supra. In a large number of cases the premises which the informant is seen entering and leaving are apartment houses. In these circumstances there is normally no assurance that the informant has not purchased contraband in one apartment while alleging that the purchase took place in another. Lower federal courts are divided on the question of whether an observed apartment house buy can be validly considered by a magistrate in the probable cause determination. Compare United States ex rel. Rogers v. Warden, 381 F.2d 209, 219 (2d Cir. 1967), with Jones v. United States, 353 F.2d 908 (D.C. Cir. 1965).


84. In fact, focusing attention on the probative force of investigations in particular should lead in the long run to a clearer set of judicial standards than seems possible under the present approach of directing investigatory requirements toward corroboration of the minimally useful informer reliability criteria.

85. See generally HARNEY & CROSS, supra note 76.

86. Typical results of police surveillance in the municipality we studied are mentioned at notes 43 and 77 supra. Adjudication to determine the validity of such observations in establishing probable cause when combined with informer tips does not appear to raise unduly difficult problems. For instance, the fact that an informant correctly reports the number of a suspect's license plate is not probative of any criminal activity. Similarly, verification of an anonymous informer's report that an individual, allegedly a policy runner, travels from points A to B to C should not be sufficient to show probable cause. On the other hand, when combined with independent evidence that points A, B and C are frequented predominantly by known gamblers, the informant's tip and the surveillance of the reputed messenger could reasonably be held to demonstrate probable cause.

87. U.S. CONST. amend. IV.
The Undisclosed Informant and the Fourth Amendment

Appendix

Table 1
Search Warrants Granted and Sampled, By Type of Crime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Crime</th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1969</th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1969</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquor</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narcotics</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Warrants relating to a type of crime as a percentage of total warrants.
b. Warrants sampled as a percentage of warrants granted.
c. In this and all other tables percentages may not total 100 due to errors in rounding off each figure to the nearest per cent.

Table 2
Informer-Based Search Warrants Sampled, By Type of Crime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Crime</th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1969</th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1969</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquor</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narcotics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Informer-based warrants relating to a type of crime as a percentage of all warrants (regardless of source of information) relating to that type of crime.

Table 3
Distribution of Informer Warrants According to Type of Corroboration Alleged

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Corroboration</th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1969</th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1969</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Weak” Surveillancea</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Strong” Surveillanceb</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Buy”c</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Police surveillance, not involving the “buy” technique, was alleged but was judged by the study researchers to be insufficient under Spinelli v. United States, 393 U.S. 410 (1969). See note 43 supra.
b. Police surveillance, not involving the “buy” technique, was alleged and judged by the study researchers to be sufficient under Spinelli v. United States, 393 U.S. 410 (1969). See note 43 supra.
c. See note 78 supra.
Table 4
"Questionable" Warrants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1969</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Reliability Deficiency +</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inadequate Corroboration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Allegation of Prior Correct Information + No Corroboration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allegation of &quot;Prior Arrests&quot; + No Corroboration</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Allegation of Prior Correct Information + &quot;Weak&quot; Surveillance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allegation of &quot;Prior Arrests&quot; + &quot;Weak&quot; Surveillance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Allegation of Prior Correct Information + Apartment House Buy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allegation of &quot;Prior Arrests&quot; + Apartment House Buy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Particular Knowledge Deficiency +</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inadequate Corroboration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of Informer Knowledge Not Specified + No Corroboration</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of Informer Knowledge Not Specified + &quot;Weak&quot; Corroboration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of Informer Knowledge Not Specified + Apartment House Buy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. For explanation of categories, see note 43 supra.
Table 5

Success of Searches Based on Informer Warrants, By Acceptability of Warrants Under Aguilar-Spinelli Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1968</th>
<th></th>
<th>1969</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td>Questionable</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Warrants</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Successful</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Cent Successful</td>
<td>63</td>
<td></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. The number of informer warrants is less than the sample size given by Table 2. In examining success rates, we corrected for the fact that in several cases in each year more than one warrant was granted on the basis of the testimony contained in a single warrant application.

b. The differences in the success rates of acceptable and questionable warrants are not statistically significant. That is, the \( \chi^2 \) test revealed that even if the true success rates for the two categories were identical, given the size of our samples, differences in the success rates no larger than those which we observed would arise as a matter of statistical variability approximately eight times out of ten for the 1968 data and seven times out of ten for the 1969 data. Therefore, we were unable to reject the hypothesis that apparent compliance with Aguilar-Spinelli standards is not correlated with success rates.

c. A warrant is regarded as "successful" if the search conducted pursuant to it led to the seizure of evidence, whether or not the items seized were described in the warrant.
Table 6
Success of Informer Searches Based on Informer Warrants, By Acceptability Under Proposed Standard

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1968</th>
<th></th>
<th>1969</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td>Unacceptable</td>
<td>Totalb</td>
<td>( \chi^2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Warrants</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Successful&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Cent Successful&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. See note 77 supra.

b. The number of informer warrants is less than the sample size given in Table 2 both because the correction described at Table 5, note a supra was used and because informer buys were excluded for the reason given at note 77 supra.

c. The differences in the success rates of acceptable and unacceptable warrants are not statistically significant. Note, however, that the probability that the differences are attributable to random error is somewhat smaller under the proposed standard than was the case for the Aguiar-Spinelli standard. If the data for the two years studied are combined, then the differences in the success rates of unacceptable and acceptable warrants under the Aguiar-Spinelli standard yield a \( \chi^2 \) of .101 (p=.8), whereas combining the data and applying the proposed standard gives a much higher \( \chi^2 \) of .740 (p=.4).

d. "Success" is defined as in Table 5.
Robert B. Reich, *Bargaining in Correctional Institutions: Restructuring the Relation between the Inmate and the Prison Authority*