

Teaching from 2025



Course Companion

Cambridge Advanced National in Applied Science

F185 Forensic science

Endorsed for Cambridge OCR qualifications



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Teacher's Introduction

This course companion has been written specifically for the Cambridge OCR Level 3 Alternative Academic Qualification Cambridge Advanced Nationals in Applied Science qualification (first teaching from September 2025).

The theory notes, examples and questions cover the essential knowledge and understanding prescribed in the optional Unit F185 specification for the Extended Certificate qualification.

About Unit F185: Forensic biology

Unit F185 ^(60 GLH) is centre assessed using four practical activities that learners carry out independently. Centre assessments are OCR moderated.

Unit F185 is an optional unit and will draw on learning from Unit F180 (Fundamentals of science) and Unit F181 (Science in society).

The resources is divided into four sections, with the aim of providing the students with the information in the order in which it will be most useful to them as they complete the tasks of the assignment. Specification references have been provided in brackets.

Within each section there are student notes covering the specification content and structure. These notes include descriptions of theory, supported with examples and diagrams where appropriate.

Questions are interspersed throughout the guide to assess and develop understanding. There are recall questions to check knowledge understanding, more creative your turn tasks, and tasks which allow students to apply their knowledge. Additionally, there are formative discussion questions, based around a practice scenario to allow students to practice key skills.

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

Sensitivity in teaching this resource is important as it deals with very sensitive content that may be upsetting or difficult for some students. It is vital that the teacher checks any content carefully beforehand to judge its suitability for their class. **In particular some case studies contain references to potentially upsetting topics such as murder, serial killers, rape, death and strangulation. In addition, some of the images in this resource are very graphic and may upset some students – in particular Figure 1.4 on page 7 which contains images of rigor mortis, livor mortis and pallor mortis.** Please ensure that these are viewed, along with any additional content you intend to use, **before** using them in class.

October 2025

Endorsement statement

The teaching content of this resource is endorsed by Cambridge OCR for use with Level 3 Alternative Academic Qualification Cambridge Advanced National in Applied Science (H151). All references to assessment, including assessment preparation and practical format/style are the publisher's interpretation of the specification and are not endorsed.

This resource was designed for use with the version of the specification available at the time of publication. However, as specifications are updated over time there may be contradictions between this resource and the specification, therefore please use the information on the latest specification and all times to ensure students are fully prepared for their assessments.

Endorsement does not mean that a resource is suitable to support delivery of a Cambridge qualification. It does not mean that the endorsed resource is the only suitable resource to support delivery of the qualification or necessary to achieve the qualification.

Cambridge OCR recommends that teachers consider using a range of teaching and learning resources and their own professional judgement for their students' needs. For more information on the endorsement process, please visit the Cambridge OCR website.

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Who robbed the corner shop

This example will be referred to in the formative discussion question boxes throughout the course.

Scenario

A corner shop selling snacks, drinks and essential items was the scene of a robbery on 10.43pm. It was a dark, rainy evening (see Figure 0.1).

A person wearing a black ski mask and holding a knife entered the store. They stole the cash register. They exited the scene via the doored entrance to the shop. A customer chased after the person as they left the shop. The attacker turned and stabbed the customer. Splatters of blood can be seen on the floor.

The attacker fled on a bicycle. An ambulance and police were then called to the scene.

The person was not wearing gloves and held the door handle to swing open the door. As they got away on the bike, they spat their chewing gum onto the pavement. A wet, muddy shoe print was seen on the shop floor.

A bike, matching that described by the witness, was found ditched in a layby one street away. Hair and fibres were found present on the bike handlebars.

The police identify two suspects.

- **Suspect A:** Has a history of theft in the area and was spotted by an employee of the shop. The police found muddy trainers by the front door, a pack of chewing gum and a black ski balaclava (headwear that exposes only part of your face) hidden in the suspect's home. The police found a small knife with a small trace of blood on it in the suspect's home. The suspect said they had cut themselves on it when preparing the evidence.
- Police collect the following evidence from Suspect A: fingerprints, a sample of chewing gum, a sample from a shoe, a shoe print, fibres, hair, the balaclava, the knife.
- **Suspect B:** Was seen loitering outside the shop the day before. The suspect was seen by an employee as they shouted aggressively at them the previous week for refusing to show them without ID to confirm they were over 18 years old. The police find a bag of soil in the suspect's home. The suspect said they had been cutting a joint of cannabis in the bag.
- Police collect the following evidence from Suspect B: fingerprints, a sample of soil, a cultured soil sample from a shoe, a shoe print, fibres, hair, and the knife.



Figure 0.1 A corner shop, like the one described in this example.

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Section 1: Plan the crime scene investigation

Forensic biology disciplines

! Key points covered	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Defining forensic science Civil and criminal law Locard's exchange principle Differences between forensic science and forensic biology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Serology Pathology Anthropology Odontology Botany Microbiology

Features of forensic science and forensic biology (1.1.1)

Forensic science is the application of scientific methods and techniques to investigate crimes and examine **evidence** that might be presented in a court of law.

Forensic scientists work to uncover the truth by:

- Collecting evidence:** This involves gathering physical evidence from crime scenes, such as fingerprints, **DNA**, blood, and other biological materials.
- Analysing evidence:** In specialised laboratories, forensic scientists examine evidence using advanced techniques to identify substances, match samples, and determine the origin of materials.
- Interpreting results:** Scientists analyse the data obtained from the evidence and draw conclusions that can be used in legal proceedings.
- Testifying in court:** Forensic scientists often provide expert testimony, explaining their findings to judges and juries in a clear and understandable manner.

Criminal and civil law

Table 1.1 shows the difference between criminal law and civil law:

Table 1.1 Differences between criminal law and civil law.

	Criminal law	
Primary goal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In criminal cases, the primary goal is to determine guilt or innocence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Civil cases involve disputes between individuals or organisations with the goal of resolving the dispute.
How forensic science is used	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying suspects: DNA analysis, fingerprint matching, and other forensic techniques can link a suspect to a crime scene. Establishing the crime: Forensic evidence can prove that a crime occurred, such as determining the cause of death in a murder case. Providing corroborating evidence: Forensic findings can support other forms of evidence, strengthening the prosecution's case. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Determining liability: Forensic evidence can be used to reconstruct events and identify who was at fault. Authenticating documents: Forensic techniques can be used to verify the authenticity of important documents.

Suspect – someone who is suspected to have committed a crime
Liability – the legal responsibility for an act
Corroborate – to provide additional evidence that supports a claim or theory

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	Criminal law	
Examples of forensic evidence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DNA profiles matching a suspect to biological evidence • Ballistic analysis linking a firearm to a crime scene • Toxicology reports determining the cause of death <p>DNA profile – a pattern of DNA used to identify an individual or a sample of bodily fluids</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Handwriting analysis to identify the author of a document • Accident reconstruction to determine what happened in a car accident • Fire investigation to determine whether insurance fraud is involved • Medical expertise to provide professional opinion on the extent of injuries and potential for recovery

Locard's exchange principle

Locard's exchange principle is a fundamental concept in forensic science, stating:

This means that when two objects come into contact, there is an exchange of materials between them, as seen in **Figure 1.1**.

The principle in action

This principle is the cornerstone of crime scene investigation. Whenever someone enters a crime scene, they bring something with them (like dirt, hair, skin cells or fibres from their clothing) and they also take something away with them (like fibres from the victim's clothing, or carpet fibres).

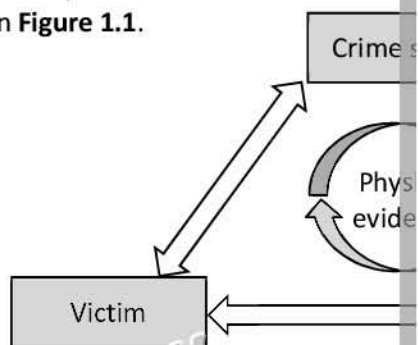


Figure 1.1 Diagram showing Locard's exchange principle

Examples of evidence left behind:

- Hair: from the victim, suspect, or others at the scene
- Skin cells: shed by the victim or suspect
- Blood: from the victim or suspect
- DNA: found in blood, saliva, hair, or skin cells
- Fingerprints: left on surfaces
- Footprints: made in dust, mud, or other soft surfaces

The importance of Locard's exchange principle

By understanding and applying Locard's exchange principle, investigators can:

- Link suspects to crime scenes
- Identify the sequence of events
- Corroborate witness testimony
- **Exonerate** innocent individuals

Exonerate – free someone from blame

It allows forensic scientists to piece together the puzzle of a crime by examining the

Recall questions

1. Explain key differences between criminal law and civil law.
2. Explain what is meant by Locard's exchange principle. Give an example of this in action.

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Difference between forensic biology and forensic science

Forensic science is a broad field encompassing the application of scientific methods to crimes and examine evidence.

In essence, forensic biology is a subset of forensic science. While forensic science covers various scientific disciplines, forensic biology specifically concentrates on the biological aspects.

Forensic biology is a specialised area within forensic science that focuses on the examination of **biological** evidence, as shown in **Figure 1.2**. It primarily involves:

- Pathology: The study of the causes and origins of diseases.
- Anthropology: The scientific study of human behaviour, biology, cultures, societies, and linguistic.
- Odontology: The scientific study of teeth.
- Microbiology: The study of bacteria, fungi and viruses.
- Forensic serology: Identifying bodily fluids (blood, semen, saliva) at crime scenes.
- Forensic botany: Using plant evidence to link a suspect to a crime scene.
- Forensic entomology: Studying insects to obtain biological evidence from the scene.

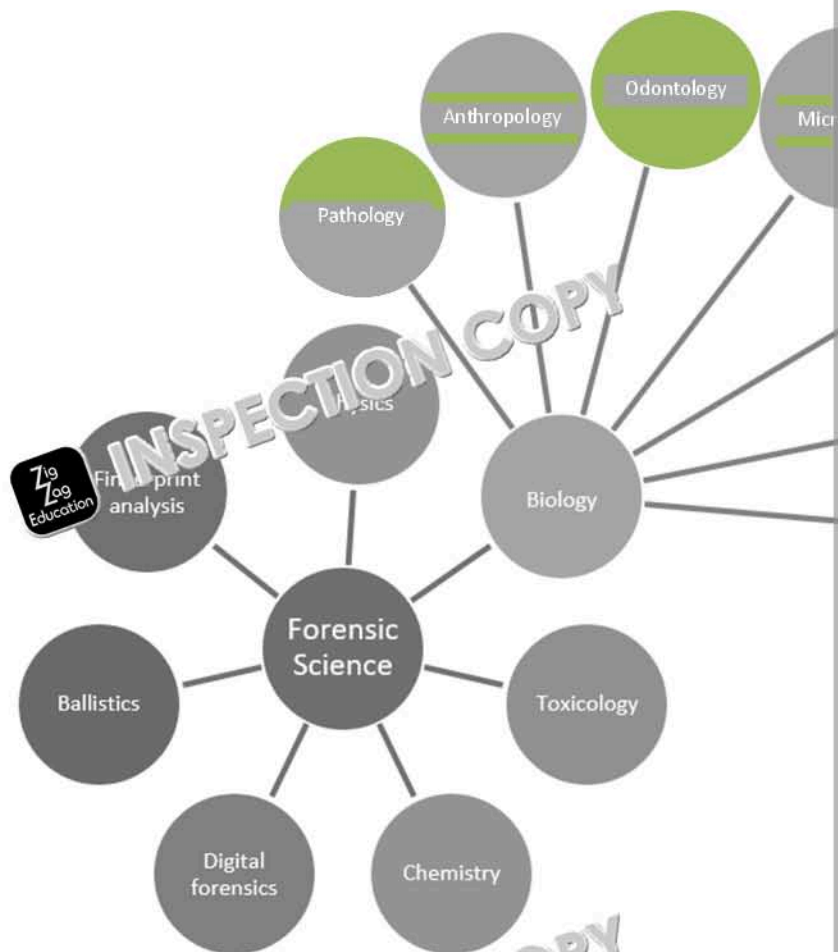


Figure 1.2 Diagram showing the difference between forensic science and forensic biology and their sub-disciplines.

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Disciplines associated with forensic biology (1.2.1)

As shown in **Figure 1.2**, there are a number of different disciplines within forensic biology.

Serology

Serology focuses on the identification and characterisation of biological substances.

The key roles of a forensic serologist are:

- **Detection:** Identifying potential biological stains at a crime scene.
- **Identification:** Determining the type of bodily fluid present (blood, semen, saliva).
- **Classification:** Categorising the biological material (e.g. blood type, species of origin).
- **Preparation:** Preparing samples for DNA analysis.
- **Bloodstain pattern analysis:** Bloodstain patterns can provide clues about the events that occurred at a crime scene.

Pathology

Pathology studies the causes and origins of diseases. Pathologists play a vital role in examining tissues, organs, bodily fluids, and even the whole body in some cases.

Forensic pathology is a specialised branch of forensic biology that applies medical knowledge to legal investigations. Forensic pathologists investigate deaths that are sudden, unexpected, or suspicious to find the exact cause and time of death.

Role of a forensic pathologist

- **Autopsy:** An examination of the deceased to determine the **cause** and **manner of death**. This includes:
 - **External examination:** Identifying injuries caused by blunt force, sharp force, gunshot, and other types of trauma (see **Figure 1.3**).
 - **Internal examination:** Examining internal organs and tissues for evidence of disease, injury, or infection.
 - **Toxicology:** Detecting and identifying poisons or drugs in body fluids or tissues that contributed to death (see case study 'Serial killing by poisoning' in the box below).
- **Asphyxia:** Investigating deaths caused by lack of oxygen, such as strangulation or drowning.
- **Post-mortem interval (PMI):** Using various factors such as body temperature, **rigor mortis**, and decomposition to estimate the time since death (see **Figure 1.4**).
- **Child and elder abuse:** Investigating cases of suspected abuse.
- **Identification:** Assisting in the identification of victims through dental records, fingerprints, or DNA analysis.

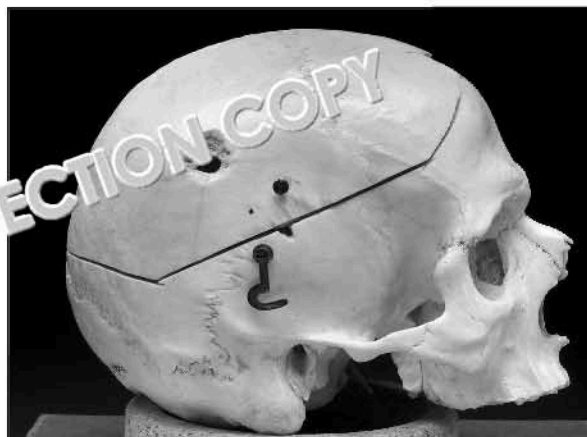


Figure 1.3 A skull showing a gunshot trauma.

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Case study: Serial killing by poisoning

Using forensic toxicology, an investigator was found guilty of a series of poisonings of five patients. The patient's post-mortem liver samples, experts detected drugs to the patient's, including digoxin, which is a drug used to slow heart rate.

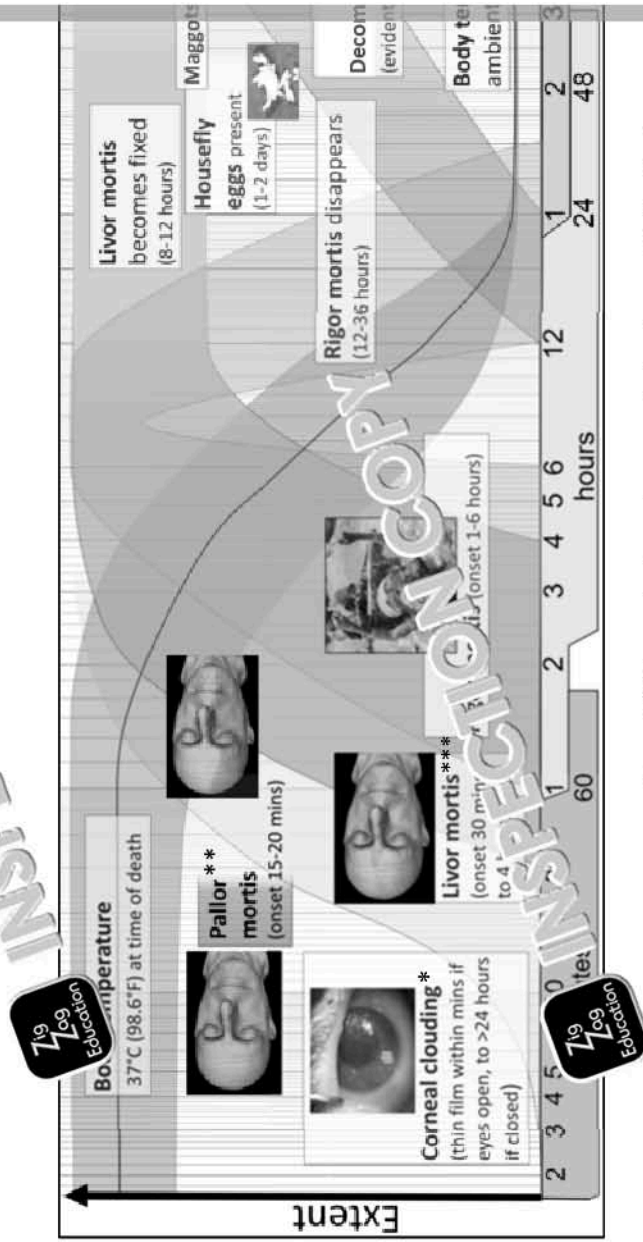


Figure 1.4 The graph shows the approximate stages of death, also known as post-mortem changes.

* Corneal clouding – when the clear, outer layer of the eye (cornea) becomes cloudy.

** Pallor mortis – when the skin of the body turns pale due to blood circulation stopping.

*** Livor mortis – when the body turns bluish-purple because of the blood settling in the lower parts of the body.

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Anthropology

Anthropology is the scientific study of humanity, concerned with human behavior, societies, and linguistics, in both the present and the past. Forensic anthropology uses anthropological knowledge to legal matters and involves the examination of human remains.

Role of a forensic anthropologist

- Recovery of remains: Assisting in the **excavation** and recovery of skeletal remains from crime scenes or disaster sites.
- Skeletal analysis: Examining bones to determine age, sex, stature, ancestry, and unique features of the individual to help identify victims (see **Figure 1.5** in the 'Further your knowledge' box, below).
- Trauma analysis: Identifying fractures, bullet holes, and other injuries on bones to determine cause and manner of death.
- Taphonomy: Studying the processes affecting the remains after death, such as decomposition and scattering to estimate the time since death.
- Archaeological techniques: Using methods from **archaeology** to recover and analyse skeletal remains.

Further your knowledge

A forensic anthropologist can estimate the age of a skeleton using the size of the skull and the squiggly lines seen in **Figure 1.5**, known as sutures. The sagittal suture, which is the wavy line that runs the length of the skull, is usually fused in people older than 35 years, and the coronal suture, the horizontal line at the front of the skull, usually fuses by the age of 40.

Figure 1.5 A skull showing cranial sutures which can be used to estimate age.



Case study: Using bones to identify the dead

In the 1970s, a young person was murdered by American serial killer and buried in his basement. The well-known forensic anthropologist Dr Clyde Snow identified many of the victims using information from missing person reports.

The unknown remains of one victim found at the property was identified as 19-year-old David Talsma, who went missing in 1977. According to the missing person report and historical records, he had fractured his left arm when he was a child.

When analysing one of the remains, a healed fractured left arm was evident. The fact that suggested the victim was left-handed, such as the left arm being several millimetres shorter than the right, and having a bevelled left scapula, led to David Talsma's identification.

Dr Snow also determined that all the victims were killed by suffocation or strangulation.

Apply your knowledge

The Balkans Conflict:

Between 1992 and 1995, the Balkan War resulted in 35,000 missing people. During the conflict, 200 men were killed on the top of a cliff on Mount Vlašić, a mountain in Bosnia. They fell from the cliff and were left in a trench around 400 m deep. The site where their bodies lie is at an altitude of 1,900 m. Forensic anthropologists are still working to identify the missing people.

- Research and explain what role a forensic anthropologist might have in the case of the Balkan Conflict.
- Discuss the challenges they might have in identifying the missing persons.

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Odontology

Odontology is the scientific study of teeth, their structure, development, and disease. It is a specialised branch of dentistry that applies dental knowledge to the legal system. Forensic odontologists use their expertise to examine, evaluate and interpret dental records.

Role of a forensic odontologist:

- Identification of human remains: By comparing dental records (such as X-rays) of teeth of unidentified remains, they can help to establish the identity of victims in disasters, fires, or when bodies are severely decomposed. See **Figure 1.6** of a post-mortem dental chart of an unidentified male found in 1996.
- Bite mark analysis: Forensic dentists can analyse bite marks found on victims or suspects to link a suspect to a crime. This involves comparing the bite mark to dental impressions of a suspect.
- Age estimation: By examining dental development and wear patterns, a forensic odontologist can estimate the age of an individual, which can be crucial in cases involving child abuse or missing persons.
- Child abuse detection: Dental evidence can reveal signs of abuse, such as bite marks, fractures, or malocclusion (bad bite).

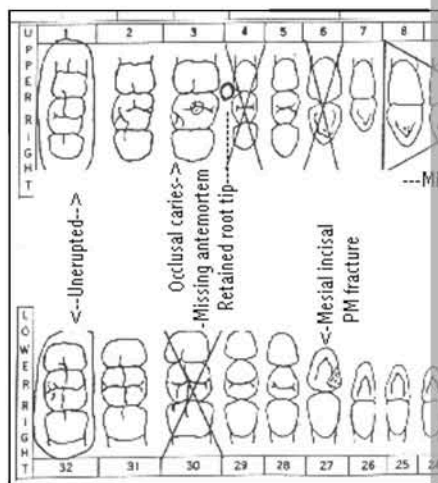


Figure 1.6 Dental chart of an unidentified male, California. * O amalgam

Botany

Botany is the study of plants. Forensic botany is the application of plant science to forensic investigations. By examining plant materials found at a crime scene, forensic botanists can provide valuable evidence.

Role of a forensic botanist:

- Linking a suspect to a crime scene, e.g. using plant matter to place a suspect at a crime scene.
- Determining the post-mortem interval (PMI) using the types of plants growing in an area.
- Reconstructing crime scenes: By analysing the distribution of plant materials, forensic botanists can help reconstruct the movement of victims or suspects (see the case study 'Solving murders with plants').
- Identifying geographic origin: Plant materials can help determine the origin of a suspect or victim involved in a crime.

Case study: Solving murders with plants



Figure 1.7 Fallen oak leaves in a woodland.

In August 2022, Robert Kern Jr was charged with the murder of a 15-year-old girl who was found in a wooded area nearly an hour away from his home. Dr Hardy, a forensic botanist, was called to help with the investigation. He found two leaves in an area with many species of trees and grapevines. Dr Hardy discovered that the leaves were found in Kern's car. After analysing their rather unique morphologies with a scanning electron microscope at the crime scene. He also found the same leaves in the car, suggesting that the leaves had been in the car at the time of the crime (**Figure 1.7**). This matched the two-week-old leaves found in the car, suggesting the crime could have been committed. The importance of botany in bringing criminals to justice.

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Ornithology

Ornithology is the study of birds. Forensic ornithology is another relatively new field. It involves the identification and analysis of bird remains to aid in criminal investigations, accident reconstruction, and wildlife conservation efforts.

Role of a forensic ornithologist:

Key applications of forensic ornithology

- Crime scene investigation:
 - Identifying bird species found at a crime scene can link a suspect to a specific location, even with small quantities of droppings or feathers (see **Figure 1.8**).
 - Determining the time of year based on bird behaviour or migration patterns can help establish a timeline.
 - Analysing bird remains for toxins or poisons can provide evidence of foul play.
- Wildlife crime:
 - Identifying illegally traded bird species or their parts.
 - Investigating poaching and trafficking activities.

Apply your knowledge

A 25-year-old male was reported missing and a week later was found dead in a woodland. A feather and some intact leaves were found in the car of a suspect.

- Explain how forensic ornithologists could aid this investigation.
- Explain how forensic botanists could aid this investigation.

Entomology

Entomology is the study of insects. Forensic entomology is a field that involves using details about a crime scene to determine the time of death.

Role of a forensic entomologist:

- Determining time of death: Insects are attracted to decomposing bodies and the types of insect present, their life stages, and the rate of their development can help estimate the post-mortem interval (PMI).
- Locating the crime scene: Some insect species are specific to certain geographical areas. If a body is typically found in a particular area, it can help pinpoint where the body was found.
- Vehicle use and past locations: Remains of insects found on the fronts of vehicles can indicate where the vehicle was used.
- Detecting drug overdose or poisoning: Certain insects may be attracted to specific substances, providing clues about the cause of death.
- Revealing abuse or neglect: In cases of child abuse or neglect, insect evidence can indicate the severity of neglect.

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Contribution of microbiology to forensics (2.3.1)

Microbiology is the study of **microorganisms**: mainly bacteria, viruses, fungi and protists. By analysing bacteria, fungi and viruses, forensic microbiologists can provide crucial evidence for solving crimes and identifying the perpetrator.

Key contributions of microbiology to forensic science

- Post-mortem interval (PMI) estimation:
 - **Necrobiome** analysis: The microbial community on and within a decomposing body undergoes predictable changes over time. By analysing this microbial profile, forensic scientists can estimate the time since death.
 - **Insect microbiome**: Insects that colonise a corpse carry specific microbial communities. Studying these microbes can provide additional clues about the PMI.
- Place of death:
 - Microbial **fingerprinting**: The microbial composition of different environments is unique. By comparing the microbial profile of a crime scene to that of a suspect's clothing or body, investigators can establish potential links.
- **Bioterrorism** and **biocrime** investigations:
 - Microbiological analysis helps identify the causative agent in cases of biological attacks, aiding in the investigation and prevention of further harm.
- **Biosecurity**:
 - Forensic laboratories often handle potentially dangerous biological materials, such as blood, bodily fluids and unknown substances, which carry an infection risk. Proper biosecurity measures safeguard the health and safety of laboratory staff.
 - Contaminated evidence can compromise the integrity of forensic investigations. Biosecurity protocols help maintain the chain of evidence and prevent tampering or degradation of samples.
- Cause and manner of death:
 - Identification of **pathogens**: Microbiological analysis can detect the presence of pathogenic bacteria or viruses that may have contributed to a victim's death.
 - Toxicology: Microorganisms can be used to degrade or produce toxins, and their presence can provide evidence of poisoning.
- Individual identification:
 - Microbial signatures: Everyone has a unique microbial profile, which can be used to identify remains or link suspects to crime scenes.
- Foodborne illness outbreaks:
 - Source tracking: Microbiological analysis of food samples can help identify the source of an illness outbreak, protecting public health (see the case study 'Killer bug').

Your turn

Create an illustration or a mind map outlining the key contributions of microbiology to forensic science for display in your sixth-form college.

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Case study: Killer bug

In May 2024, over 120 people were hospitalised and one person died because of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) thought to have originated from pre-packaged supermarket sandwiches. *E. coli* poisoning is an illness caused by eating food contaminated with *E. coli* (a type of bacteria). Symptoms include severe diarrhoea, vomiting,

The UK Health Security Agency (UKHSA) investigated the case. Their investigation involved microbiologists performing DNA analysis techniques such as the **polymerase chain reaction** (PCR) to check for the presence of the bacterium's DNA, and whole genome sequencing (WGS) to analyse all of the bacterium's DNA to identify and characterise the microorganism. This confirmed the outbreak strain and was critical for the protection of public health.

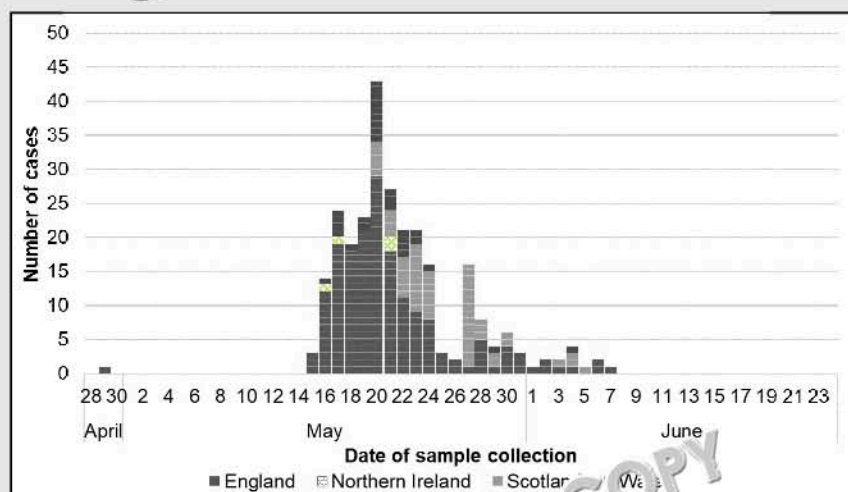


Figure 1.9 The number of STEC cases per week.



Formative discussion questions:

Read the scenario 'Who robbed the corner shop' on page 2.

- What evidence could be obtained from the crime scene and the suspects, and which could help?
- Present your findings in a mind map.



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Planning to preserve a crime scene and explaining your choices

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Key points covered

- Restriction of the scene and access to the scene
- Search patterns
- Recording and documenting the scene
- Evidence available from scales and individuals, relevant to forensic biology
- Relative importance of evidence
- Types of evidence and how to collect it
 - Types of observation
 - Cellular evidence in
 - Tissue evidence in
 - Organ evidence in



Preserving a crime scene (3.1.1)

Access to a crime scene is restricted by marking an area with police tape and having a cordon log. Sometimes a forensic tent is erected to protect the area from weather and other factors. Usually, a **cordon log** is kept where details of those entering and leaving the area are recorded.



Figure 3.1.1: Forensic tent and police tape to cordon off the crime scene.

Reasons for restriction:

- Chain of evidence: Limiting access helps maintain the integrity of evidence and prevents it from being tampered with.
- Contamination prevention: Unauthorised personnel could accidentally destroy or contaminate forensic material.
- Investigation sensitivity: Protecting ongoing investigations and the privacy of the scene.

Who typically has access:

- Police officers are usually first to arrive at the scene. **Scene of crime officers (SOCOs)** collect evidence and document the crime scene. Detectives interview witnesses and discuss the evidence with the SOCOs.
- Scientists, forensic psychologists and specialists in various forensic disciplines contribute their expertise.
- Prosecutors, defence lawyers and judges may need access to evidence for legal proceedings.

Recall questions



- When you do your assignment, for every step of the plan you created, you should consider the following questions:
1. Were any changes to the plan required? If so, why?
 2. What was the reason for this part of the plan? Did it achieve its objective in protecting the evidence and preventing disturbance?

Tip!

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Search patterns

Search patterns are systematic methods employed by forensic investigators to ensure that every part of an entire crime scene is searched. The choice of pattern depends on factors such as the size and shape of the crime scene and the available resources.

The five most common search patterns are:

- **Lane search:** Investigators form a line and walk in a straight line from one end to the other. This pattern is effective for large, open areas.
- **Grid search:** Similar to the lane search, but investigators retrace their steps in the opposite direction, creating a grid pattern. This method is highly effective for finding small pieces of evidence.
- **Spiral search:** Investigators move in an inwards or outwards spiral pattern from a central point. This method is useful for small crime scenes, and where the boundaries are unclear.
- **Wheel or ray search:** Several investigators move outwards from a central point in different directions. This pattern is suitable for open areas.
- **Quadrant search:** The crime scene is divided into smaller sections, and each section is searched by a different team member. This method is effective for confined, large, and complex crime scenes.

Factors affecting search pattern selection:

- **Size and shape of the crime scene:** Large, open areas might require a strip or lane search, while enclosed spaces might be better suited for a spiral or zone search.
- **Number of investigators:** The available personnel will determine the feasibility of a search pattern. For example, a spiral search pattern can be done by one investigator.
- **Type of crime:** The nature of the crime can influence the search focus. For example, a search for trace evidence might require a more detailed search pattern.
- **Time constraints:** Urgent cases may require a quicker search pattern, such as a lane search.

Apply your knowledge

Create your own example search pattern for each of the five common search patterns, and justify why it is suitable for the crime scene chosen.

Formative discussion questions:

Read the scenario 'Who robbed the corner shop' on page 2 and discuss the following questions:

- How will you preserve the appearance of the crime scene?
- How will you restrict access to the crime scene and relevant site locations?
Explain your reason for restricting access.

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Evidence available from crime scenes and individuals (1.3)

Class and individual evidence

There are various types of evidence that can be collected from crime scenes and individuals. These types of evidence can be categorised into **class evidence** and **individual evidence**.

For example, if a shoe print was left at a crime scene, forensic scientists will examine the impression and compare it to the suspect's trainer (as seen in Figure 1.11).

If the impression was found to match the model and size of the shoe, the shoe print would be described as class evidence.

Some class characteristics seen in Figure 1.11 include:

- Arch section split up into nine sections.
- Heel section split into four quarters.
- Nike logo in the same position as the shoe print impression.
- '5.0' marking in the same position as the shoe print impression.
- 'Nike Free' written in the same position as the shoe print impression.

Forensic examiners will also look for individual evidence.

As seen in Figure 1.11, the impression (on the left) shows 12 characteristics (circled in the photo) that are distinct to that particular shoe (on the right). The individual characteristics are caused by normal wear and tear.

Biological evidence

Biological evidence includes hair, skin, bones and teeth, and bodily fluid. It can provide information about the identity of a perpetrator. Microorganisms are also a form of biological evidence.

Physical evidence

Physical evidence is any tangible object that can connect an offender to a crime scene. There are many things that could constitute physical evidence, but we can group them into categories.

- Impression evidence, such as footprints, fingerprints, bite marks, etc.
- Firearms and ammunition
- Evidence collected from individuals, such as clothing, documents, personal belongings, etc.

Note that some types of physical evidence are also biological, and physical evidence can overlap with any biological evidence that is available.

Class evidence is evidence that can be used to narrow down the list of suspects by placing them into a group. It is used to identify a group of people.

Individual evidence is evidence that can be used to identify a specific person. It is used to identify a single person.



Figure 1.11
Shoe print impression

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Recall questions

1. What is the difference between class evidence and individual evidence? Give an example for each.

Trace evidence

Trace evidence is a very small quantity of material. Trace evidence refers to tiny pieces of material that are found between people, objects or environments. Examples of trace materials are fibres, paint, glass, etc.

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Relative importance of each type of evidence

The relative importance of biological, physical and trace evidence in forensic science depends on the specific case, as shown in **Figure 1.12**, below.

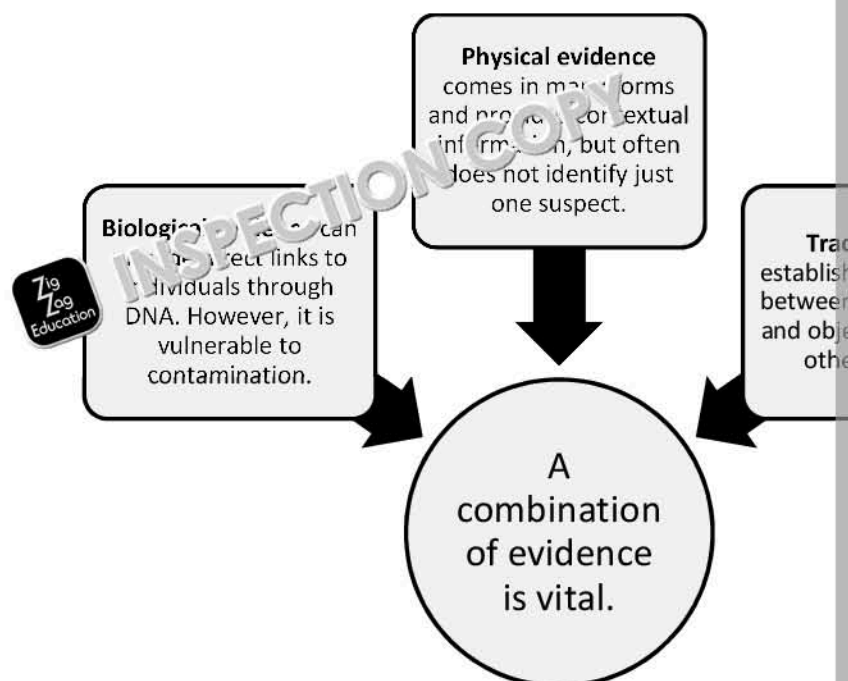


Figure 1.12 Shows the relative importance of different types of evidence.

For instance:

- Trace evidence (fibres from a suspect's clothing) might link a suspect to a crime scene.
- Physical evidence (a tool mark on a door entry point) might place a suspect at the scene.
- Biological evidence (DNA found at the scene) might definitively identify a suspect.

No single type of evidence is more important than another. The value of evidence is determined by the context and support a logical conclusion.

Apply your knowledge

- Suggest what sorts of evidence have high **probative** value. Justify your answer.
- Biological evidence can be used to identify a person. Apart from identification, suggest two other purposes of biological evidence and why revealing that information is important.

Types of evidence

Often, the initial visual observation of evidence can yield more information even before laboratory analysis has been done. It is important to know what kinds of evidence are present to complete an effective search.

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Cellular evidence in forensic biology (2.2.1)

Cellular evidence can come from a variety of sources, from bacteria and yeasts to

Bacteria

Bacteria are increasingly being used as evidence in forensic science. This is due to their unique microbiome, which is the collection of bacteria that live on and in their body. Bacteria can be found on a variety of surfaces, including skin, hair and clothing. By analysing the bacteria found on a surface, scientists can potentially identify the person who was in contact with that surface.

There are a number of different ways that bacteria can be used as evidence in forensic science:

- Identifying the source of a biological sample: Bacteria can be used to identify a sample as blood, semen or saliva. This can be helpful in cases of rape, murder and other crimes.
- Determining the time of death: Bacteria can be used to determine the time of death by analysing the types of bacteria that are present on a body change over time as the body decomposes.
- Linking a suspect to a crime scene: Bacteria can be used to link a suspect to a crime scene by analysing the bacteria found on a suspect's hands, clothing, or other objects that can be transferred to the crime scene.
- Identifying the origin of a biological weapon: Bacteria can be used to identify a biological weapon as bacteria in a biological weapon will often have a unique genetic signature.

There are a number of challenges associated with using bacteria as evidence in forensic science:

- The microbiome is not static: The populations of microorganisms in the body change over time, making it difficult to link a suspect to a crime scene based on the bacteria that are present.
- Bacterial samples can be easily contaminated: The introduction of new bacteria to a sample can make it difficult to determine the true source of the bacteria.
- There is a lack of standardised methods for analysing bacteria which makes it difficult to compare results from different laboratories and makes it challenging to get admissible evidence.

Yeast and unicellular algae

Yeast is a unicellular fungus, and unicellular algae are photosynthetic microorganisms. While not as extensively studied as bacteria, yeast and unicellular algae do possess forensic potential.

Potential applications

1. Post-mortem interval estimation:
 - Certain yeast and algae species thrive in specific environmental conditions, such as temperature, humidity and light exposure. By analysing their growth patterns on a decomposed body, scientists might be able to estimate the post-mortem interval (PMI) with greater accuracy.
 - The presence or absence of specific species could indicate the environment in which the body decomposed, aiding in crime scene reconstruction.
2. Crime scene reconstruction:
 - These microorganisms can be used as indicators of environmental conditions. For example, the presence of specific algae species might suggest the presence of water.
 - Analysing the distribution of yeast or algae on a body or objects can provide information about the location of the body or objects within a crime scene.
3. Geographic profiling:
 - Some yeast and algae species are specific to certain geographic regions. By analysing the species found on a piece of evidence, investigators might be able to narrow down the location where the evidence was found.
4. Trace evidence analysis:
 - Yeast and algae can be found on various surfaces and can be transferred from one surface to another. This could potentially be used to link suspects to crime scenes or victims.

Challenges and future research

- Limited database: A comprehensive database of yeast and algae species and their growth patterns under various conditions is still under development.
- Contamination risk: Contamination with environmental microorganisms during sample collection or analysis can be a significant challenge.
- Complexity of analysis: Identifying and analysing yeast and algae species can be a complex process.

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Pollen and fungal spores

Pollen, mostly from wind-pollinated plants, and fungal spores are everywhere. They are found on surfaces, in the air, and even the soles of shoes.

Using pollen and fungal spores in forensic biology is known as forensic palynology. It involves analysing pollen and spores to link individuals, objects, and crime scenes.

How pollen and spores become evidence

- **Unique signatures:** Each geographic region, even small areas, has a distinct pollen profile. This allows investigators to pinpoint the origin of a sample.
- **Persistence:** Pollen and spores are incredibly resistant to decay, making them valuable for long-term analysis.
- **Ubiquity:** As mentioned above, these microscopic particles are everywhere.
- **Variety:** Beyond simply identifying location, pollen can indicate the time of year and the type of pollen present.

Applications in forensic science

- **Linking suspects to a crime scene:** If a suspect's clothing contains pollen or spores that match the crime scene, it can strongly suggest their presence.
- **Establishing timelines:** By analysing the types of pollen present, investigators can determine when a crime occurred.
- **Identifying body dump sites:** Pollen and spore profiles from a body can help determine where it was located before being moved.
- **Verifying alibi:** If a suspect claims to have been elsewhere, pollen evidence can either confirm or contradict their story.
- **Drug and botanical analysis:** Pollen and spores can be used to identify the origin of illegal substances.

While forensic palynology is a powerful tool, it does face challenges:

- **Database development:** Comprehensive pollen and spore databases are essential for accurate comparison.
- **Expert analysis:** Skilled palynologists are required to interpret the complex patterns of pollen and spores.
- **Sample contamination:** Careful handling is crucial to prevent contamination of the evidence.

Evidence from human cells

In forensic science, biological evidence can be collected from a crime scene to identify the perpetrator. Skin cells, cheek cells, and blood cells are all valuable sources of DNA evidence for these purposes.

- **Skin cells:** Can be transferred during physical contact, leaving them on clothing or surfaces at a crime scene. DNA extracted from the cells can be used to identify the individual.
- **Cheek cells:** Cells from the inside of the cheek detach continually and are found in various locations – on cigarette butts, discarded food, cups, drinking glasses and utensils that have been sealed with saliva. DNA can be used for identification.
- **Blood cells:** Blood cells can provide a wealth of evidence in forensic science, from identifying the victim to determining the time of death.

Limitations of human cells:

- **DNA can be easily damaged** by factors such as light, heat, bacteria and mould.
- **Contamination:** DNA samples can be easily contaminated with other people's DNA, especially if they have not had direct contact with the object.

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2.2.2 Tissue evidence in forensic biology

A tissue is defined as a group of similar cells that work together to perform a specific function. Evidence that can provide evidence include hair, skin, blood and bodily fluids.

Hair

Hair is a rich source of information for forensic investigation. While DNA analysis is possible, microscopic examination can reveal a wealth of details.

Macroscopic examination

- Colour: Can provide clues about the ethnicity, age, and potentially hair treatments. Colour is more reliable than DNA analysis.
- Length: Can provide clues about the individual's origin or occupation.
- Damage: Can indicate the presence of hair treatments, environmental factors, or trauma.

Microscopic examination

- Scale pattern: Determines species origin (human or animal).
- Medulla: The central core of the hair can vary in thickness and pattern, aiding in identification. Sometimes providing racial indicators.
- Cortex: The main body of the hair, containing pigment granules, can reveal clues about hair treatments (see **Figure 1.13**).
- Root: The presence of a root can enable DNA analysis, but even without a root, the hair can be compared to known samples.
- Origin of the hair: Identifying the body part (head, pubic, etc.) from which the hair came.

Other evidence from hair

- DNA analysis: Especially where the hair root contains a follicular tag (tissue surrounding the root), DNA can be extracted for individual identification.
- Additionally, by studying the core of the hair structure (medulla) and the pigment granules, can determine if a sample matches hair from a specific source.
- Toxicology: Detecting drugs, poisons, or heavy metals that the individual has consumed.

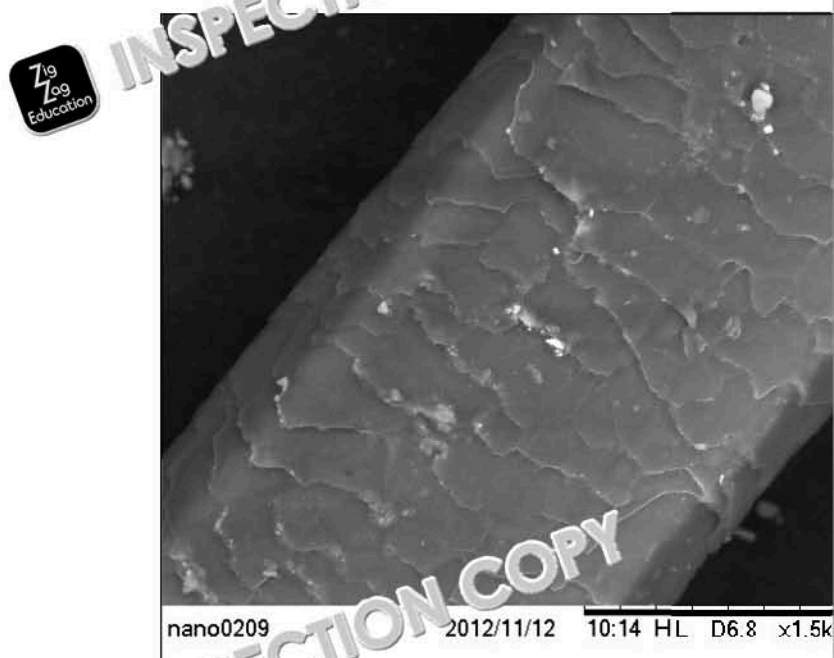


Figure 1.13 An electron micrograph of human hair.

Limitations of hair evidence

- Identification: While microscopic examination can provide strong evidence, it cannot definitively link a hair to a specific individual without DNA analysis.
- Contamination: Hair evidence can be easily contaminated, which can affect the results of any analysis.
- Time frame: The amount of DNA available in a hair sample decreases over time, making it difficult to obtain a profile.

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Skin

Skin can provide crucial evidence in forensic investigations. It can reveal details about the perpetrator, and the circumstances of a crime.

Types of evidence from skin include:

- DNA analysis
- Wound analysis:
 - Weapon identification: The shape, size and depth of wounds can indicate the type of weapon used.
 - Assault pattern: Multiple wounds can reveal the sequence of events and the direction of the attack.
 - Defensive wounds: Injuries sustained while trying to protect oneself can provide insight into the victim's actions.
- Trace evidence:
 - Fibres: Clothing fibres can transfer to the skin and be recovered.
 - Drugs or poisons: Substances absorbed through the skin can be detected.
 - Gunshot residue (GSR): Particles from a firearm can embed in the skin.
- Skin conditions:
 - Diseases: Certain skin conditions can help identify a victim or provide clues about their health.
 - Injuries: Burns, cuts and bruises can indicate the nature of a crime.

Challenges and limitations

- Skin degradation: Skin can decompose rapidly, making evidence collection difficult.
- Contamination: Skin can be easily contaminated, affecting DNA analysis.
- Individual variation: Skin conditions and healing processes vary among individuals.

Blood

Blood is one of the most common and informative types of evidence found at crime scenes.

Types of evidence from blood include:

- Bloodstain pattern analysis (BPA)
- DNA analysis
- Blood toxicology
- Toxicology: Detecting drugs, alcohol or poisons in the blood
- Disease analysis

Blood evidence can:

- Place a suspect at a crime scene
- Establish the sequence of events
- Identify the victim
- Determine the cause of death
- Provide evidence of drug or alcohol use

Bodily fluids

Bodily fluids can be valuable sources of evidence. Biologically, not all of these are

- Semen: Contains spermatozoa and other cells, used for DNA profiling and paternity testing.
- Saliva: Saliva contains DNA and is found in spit, on cigarette butts, on bite marks.
- Urine: Can reveal the presence of drugs, alcohol or poisons, or some illnesses.
- Sweat: Can be used to test for drug use.

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2.2.3 Organ evidence in forensic biology

Evidence can be obtained from both animal and plant organs.

Teeth

Teeth are incredibly resilient structures, making them invaluable in forensic investigation. Here's how they can be used:

- **Identification**
 - Dental records: Comparing dental records (including fillings, crowns, extractions, and other characteristics) to the remains of a tooth can positively identify a victim.
 - Bite marks: Impressions left on skin or objects can be compared to a suspect's teeth. However, bite mark analysis is often debated for its reliability.
- **Age estimation**
 - Tooth development: By examining the stage of tooth development (eruption and root formation), odontologists can estimate a person's age, especially in children and adolescents.
 - Wear and tear: Signs of wear, such as attrition and plaque build-up, can provide clues about a person's age and habits.
- **Trauma analysis**
 - Bite marks: As mentioned, bite marks can help identify a suspect but can also reveal the nature of an attack.
 - Tooth fractures: Examining broken teeth can reveal details about the force and direction of an assault or accident.
- **Other evidence**
 - DNA: Teeth can contain DNA, especially in the pulp, which can be used for identification.
 - Drug analysis: Teeth can absorb and retain drugs, providing a history of substance use.

Limitations: While teeth offer valuable information, it's important to note that factors like dental changes, decomposition, and the quality of dental records can affect the accuracy of analysis. Additionally, dental records may not be available for all individuals.

Bone and skeletal anatomy

Bones and teeth are incredibly resilient biological materials, often the only remains left after a disaster. By examining these remains, experts can determine various aspects of an individual's life and death.

- **Age estimation**
 - By examining bone growth patterns, fusion of bones, and changes in bone mineral density, anthropologists can estimate the age at death.
- **Pelvic bones, skull, and long bone features** are crucial in determining biological sex.
- **Long bone measurements**, particularly femur and tibia, can approximate the individual's height.
- **Skeletal features**, such as skull shape and measurements, can provide clues about ancestry.
- **Examination of joint surfaces** can reveal information about age, activity level, and potential trauma.
- **Comparing unique features** such as healed fractures, dental work, or bone density can aid in positive identification.
- **Trauma analysis**:
 - Cause of death: Examining fractures, bullet holes, tool marks, and other injuries can determine how the person died.
 - **Perimortem** injuries: Distinguishing between injuries sustained around the time of death and those occurring after death helps reconstruct the crime scene.
 - Weapon analysis: The shape and characteristics of bone fractures can sometimes indicate the type of weapon used.
- **Post-mortem interval (PMI)**:
 - Bone decomposition: Observing changes in bone colour, texture, and structure can help estimate the time since death.
- **Additional forensic applications**:
 - **Lifestyle and health**: Analysing bone abnormalities and isotopic signatures can provide insights into the individual's diet, occupation, and overall health.
 - **DNA analysis**: Extracting DNA from bone can help identify individuals and establish familial relationships.

Although bone evidence provides an abundance of information, it can be difficult to interpret. Factors like environmental conditions, burial depth, and time since death can affect bone preservation. Challenges are also presented when determining post-mortem injuries when bones are fresh. It is also very difficult to obtain DNA from old bone.

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Leaves

Leaves, often overlooked in crime scene investigations, can provide valuable forensic evidence as forensic botany.

How leaves can be used as evidence:

- Linking a suspect or an object to a crime scene:
 - Leaf morphology: The shape, size and venation (vein pattern) of leaves can identify plant species, narrowing down the possible crime scene location.
- Determining time of death or burial:
 - Decomposition rates: The condition of leaves found on or near a body can indicate the post-mortem interval.
 - Seasonal indicators: The types of leaves present can indicate the time of year a body was buried.
- Identifying primary and secondary crime scenes:
 - Leaf transfer: By analysing the types of leaves found on a suspect, victim or object, investigators can determine where they/it may have been.
- Reconstructing crime scenes:
 - Leaf position and damage: The position and condition of leaves at a crime scene can help reconstruct the events that took place.

Forensic botany: seeds and fruits

Study of seeds and fruits in criminal cases is also part of forensic botany. Seeds and fruits can provide clues in forensic investigations, such as:

- Time of death: Certain plant species have specific fruiting or seeding seasons, which can help determine the time frame of a crime.
- Geographic origin: The presence of specific plant species can indicate the location where a body was moved.
- Link to a suspect: If a suspect's clothing or belongings contain(s) plant material from a crime scene, it can establish a link between the two.
- Dietary habits: Analysis of seeds and fruits found in stomach contents can reveal recent dietary habits.
- Identifying the location of a hidden body: By analysing the types of pollen and seeds found, forensic botanists can determine the environment where the body was concealed.

Forensic botany: flowers and roots

Forensic botany also covers the study of flowers and roots in criminal cases.

Flowers:

- Pollen analysis (palynology):
 - Pollen grains are unique to specific plant species and can be found on clothing, vehicles, or surfaces.
 - By analysing pollen, investigators can determine the location, season, and even the type of plant.
 - Pollen can link a suspect to a crime scene or exclude them as a possibility.
- Flower identification:
 - Certain flowers are associated with specific regions or climates.
 - Identifying flowers found at a crime scene can help establish the origin of the body.

Roots:

- Soil analysis:
 - Root systems can provide information about the soil composition at a crime scene.
 - Soil samples can reveal the presence of specific minerals, pollutants, or other substances.
 - Root systems can also indicate disturbances, such as a recent grave.
- Plant growth patterns:
 - The growth patterns of roots can help determine the age of a crime scene.
 - By examining root growth, investigators can estimate how long a body has been buried or how long a plant has been growing in a particular location.

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Examples of forensic botany in action:

Forensic botanists use a variety of techniques to analyse plant materials, including

- Microscopy: Examining the structure of plant cells and tissues under a microscope.
- DNA analysis: Comparing the DNA of plant material found at a crime scene to provide a positive identification.
- Pollen analysis: Studying pollen grains can reveal the types of plants present used to track the movement of people or objects.
- Seed and fruit identification: Comparing the morphological characteristics of seeds and fruits from crime scene collections can help identify plant species.

To extract maximum information from evidence, forensic scientists employ various

- Microscopy: Examining leaf structures and identifying unique characteristics.
- DNA analysis: Comparing leaf DNA to reference samples to determine plant species.
- Pollen and spore analysis: Identifying specific pollen and spore types to link to a location.
- Stable isotope analysis: Determining the geographic origin of a plant based on isotopic ratios.

Forensic botany can be a challenging field due to the following factors:

- Plant material can degrade over time, making it difficult to analyse.
- There may not be complete reference collections of all plant species in a given region.
- The interpretation of plant evidence can be subjective and may require expert testimony.

Observational evidence (4.1.1)

Fingerprints and footprints

Fingerprints – the unique patterns formed by the ridges and valleys on our fingertips – have been a cornerstone of forensic science for over a century (see **Figure 1.14**).

Their distinctive nature and permanence make them valuable tools for identifying individuals and linking them to crime scenes.



Figure 1.14 A) Anna Timiryova, and B) her fingerprints taken in 1954. Anna Timiryova was arrested for allegedly spreading anti-Soviet propaganda.

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When a forensic expert arrives at a crime scene, their initial focus is on identifying evidence. These might include:

- Obvious surfaces: Windows, doors, furniture and appliances.
- Latent prints: Invisible prints that require development techniques.
- Patent prints: Visible prints left by substances such as blood, ink and grease.
- Plastic prints: Impressions made in soft materials such as wax or putty.

The type of print found will influence the subsequent analysis and development techniques.

Recall questions



1. How can footprints be used to provide class and individual evidence? Suggest how a fingerprint might be preserved. Explain.

Other types of prints

Ear print analysis is a relatively new field in forensics, but it is showing promising potential as an identification tool (see **Figure 1.15**). Here are some initial observations:

- Uniqueness: Like fingerprints, ear prints are believed to be unique to each individual. This makes them a potential powerful tool for identification.
- Persistence: Ear prints can be left on various surfaces, including glass, metal and fabric, making them potentially valuable evidence at crime scenes.
- Complementary to other evidence: Ear prints can corroborate other forms of evidence, such as DNA or fingerprints, strengthening the case against a suspect.

Lip prints offer a unique potential in forensic investigation. While not as widely utilised as fingerprints or DNA, they can provide valuable supplementary information.

Beyond identification, lip prints can potentially provide information about:

- Number of individuals: Multiple lip prints may indicate the presence of more than one person.
- Sex: Some studies suggest potential sex determination based on lip print characteristics.
- Habits: Certain lip habits (e.g. biting, smoking) may leave distinctive marks.
- Force applied: The pressure used to create the print can provide clues about the force applied.

Fingernails and associated skin cells

Fingernail clippings and chips from nails can be a gold mine of forensic evidence. They can contain substances or materials that can link a suspect to a crime scene or victim, including DNA, which can be detected using microscopy.

Trace evidence

- Fibres, paint chips and soil particles can place a person at a particular crime scene.
- Drugs or explosives: Residues of these substances can be detected in nail clippings, indicating exposure.

DNA evidence

- Associated skin cells: As mentioned, skin cells under the nails can be a rich source of DNA.
- Blood: If a victim has scratched an attacker, blood may be present under the nails.

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Flies (Diptera) and beetles (Coleoptera)

Initial evidence from flies includes:

- Bluebottles (order Diptera) and houseflies: These are the first insects to arrive at a decomposing body, attracted by the odour of decaying flesh. Their arrival time can provide a crucial estimate of the initial post-mortem period.
- Maggot development: Maggots are part of the life cycle of houseflies and bluebottles. The stages of maggot development (egg, larva, pupa) follow a predictable timeline under specific environmental conditions. By examining the size and stage of maggots, forensic entomologists can establish the time of colonisation and, consequently, the PMI.
- Succession of flies: Different species of flies arrive at a decomposing body in a predictable sequence. This succession pattern can help refine the PMI estimate.

Initial evidence from beetles includes:

- Carrion beetles: These beetles (see **Figure 1.17**) arrive later in the decomposition process, feeding on dried tissues and remains. Their presence can indicate a later stage of decomposition.
- Predator and scavenger beetles: Some beetle species prey on maggots or other insects associated with decomposition. Their presence can provide additional information about the insect community and the time since death.



Figure 1.17

Other factors affecting insect evidence:

- Environmental conditions: Temperature, humidity, and geographic location significantly affect insect development rates.
- Body conditions: Factors such as body size, clothing, and cause of death can affect insect colonization.
- Preservation of evidence: Proper collection and preservation of insect evidence are crucial for accurate analysis.

Fibres

Fibres are tiny strands of fabric material and can be incredibly valuable pieces of evidence in forensic investigations.

Initial examination and potential findings:

- Type of fibre: Natural (cotton, wool, silk) or synthetic (nylon, polyester, acrylic).
- Colour: Can be compared to fibres found on suspects or victims.
- Length and diameter: Can provide clues about the type of fabric and its use.
- Damage: Burns, tears, or other damage can provide information about the circumstances of the crime.
- Location: Where the fibre is found can be crucial. For example, a fibre found on a victim's clothing might link them to a suspect or crime scene.

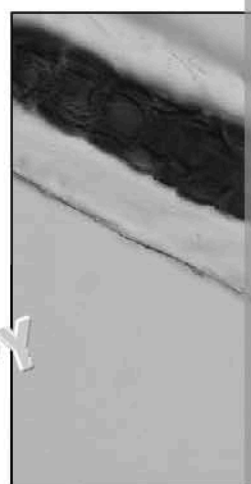


Figure 1.18 A micrograph of a strand of wool.

While initial examination can provide valuable clues, microscopic examination is required for detailed analysis of fibre structure, including scale patterns, cross-sectional shape, and colour distribution (see **Figure 1.18** of a micrograph of a strand of wool).

You will need to refer to section 3.2.3 in order to plan your investigation.

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Hazards and risk assessment



Key points covered

- Hazards of forensic work at the crime scene
- Hazards of forensic work in the laboratory

Hazards associated with forensic work (3.2.1)

Hazards at the crime scene

Collecting evidence from a crime scene is a crucial but inherently risky task. There are many hazards associated with forensic work that are not familiar. Investigators face a variety of potential hazards at the crime scene.

Biological hazards

- Infectious diseases: Exposure to blood-borne pathogens such as HIV, Hepatitis B, and Hepatitis C.
- Decomposition: Contact with decomposing bodies can lead to exposure to bacteria and other pathogens.

Chemical hazards

- Toxic substances: Exposure to poisons, drugs, or other hazardous chemicals.
- Explosive substances: Risk of exposure to unexploded bombs or live firearms.
- Flammable materials: Risk of fire or explosion from substances such as gasoline or alcohol.
- Corrosive substances: Damage to skin and eyes from acids or bases.

Physical hazards

- Sharp objects: Injuries from broken glass, needles, or weapons.
- Structural instability: Risk of collapse in damaged buildings or structures.
- Confined spaces: Difficulty breathing, lack of oxygen, and other health risks.

To mitigate these risks, crime scene investigators must adhere to strict safety protocols.

- Personal protective equipment (PPE): Use of gloves, masks, gowns, and eye protection.
- Proper training: Knowledge of hazardous materials, decontamination procedures, and emergency response.
- Scene control: Controlling access to the crime scene to prevent contamination.
- Documentation: Detailed records of evidence collection and handling.

Hazards in the laboratory

Key biosecurity measures in forensic laboratories

- Risk assessment: Identifying potential hazards and vulnerabilities is the first step in establishing effective biosecurity protocols.
- Access control: Limiting access to laboratory facilities and restricted areas helps prevent unauthorised entry and potential contamination.
- Biological containment: Ensuring that no microorganisms can escape from the facility through procedures and equipment put in place.
- Personal protective equipment (PPE): Proper use of PPE, such as lab coats, gloves, and safety glasses, protects personnel from exposure to hazardous material (see Figure 1.19).
- Safe handling and disposal of biological materials: Following strict procedures for the disposal of biological samples minimises the risk of contamination and accidental release.
- Emergency preparedness: Developing and practising emergency response plans is crucial for mitigating potential consequences.
- Training and education: Regular training for laboratory personnel on biosecurity and safety culture.
- Security systems: Surveillance systems, alarms, and other security measures to monitor and detect suspicious activities.



Figure 1.19 A

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Preparing a risk assessment for the crime scene and laboratory

A comprehensive risk assessment is crucial for ensuring the safety of personnel, protecting evidence, and the overall efficiency of operations at a crime scene and in a forensic laboratory. A risk assessment should be prepared:

1. Identify potential hazards
 - The previous section lists most of these.
2. Assess the risks
 - Likelihood: How likely is it that a hazard will cause harm?
 - Severity: What is the potential severity of the harm?
3. Develop control measures: What can be done to reduce the risk?
 - Personal protective equipment (PPE): Gloves, masks, gowns, eye protection.
 - Scene security: Controlling access to the crime scene.
 - Scene preservation: Proper handling and packaging of evidence.
 - Emergency procedures: Plans for medical emergencies or hazardous material spills.
 - Training: Ensuring personnel are trained in safety protocols and evidence handling.
4. Implement and monitor
 - Communicate the risk assessment: Share the assessment with all personnel involved in the scene investigation.
 - Review and update: Regularly review the risk assessment and make necessary updates.
5. Documentation
 - Record findings: Document the assessment process and the control measures implemented.

Specific considerations for forensic labs

- Chain of custody: Implement strict procedures to prevent evidence contamination.
- Data security: Protect sensitive information from unauthorised access.
- Quality control: Establish robust quality control measures to ensure accurate results.
- Emergency preparedness: Develop plans for handling emergencies such as fires or natural disasters.

Recall questions

1. Make a list of all the ways contamination can be avoided in a forensic lab. You have learned so far throughout the course.

Tip!

After you have completed your activity, for point D2, you will **evaluate** the effectiveness of the risk assessment. So make sure that you note down anything which came up while you were doing the activity.

Formative questions:

Read the scenario on page 27 and answer the following questions.

A risk assessment is a process that identifies potential hazards, assesses the risk (which is the likelihood of harm that a hazard may cause) and suggests some control measure (which advises how to reduce the risk). Create a risk assessment for the crime scene investigators and experts analysing the evidence.

Include the following:

- Hazards
- Risk
- Control measures

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Section 2: Investigate the crime scene collect evidence

Recording the crime scene



Key points covered

- Recording and documenting the scene
- Visual evidence

Recording and documenting the scene (3.1.2)

Crime scene notes

Crime scene notes are the foundational document for any forensic investigation. They record everything observed and done at the crime scene.

Importance of crime scene notes:

- Accuracy: They provide an accurate and objective record of the crime scene.
- Completeness: They capture every detail, no matter how insignificant it may seem.
- Clarity: They are clear and concise, allowing for easy understanding.
- Timeliness: They are recorded promptly to ensure accuracy and completeness.
- Legal admissibility: They can be used as evidence in court.

Crime scene notes should include:

- Basic information: Date, time, location, case number, and names of personnel.
- Weather conditions: Temperature, humidity, precipitation, wind direction, and weather icons.
- Initial observations: Overall description of the scene, including lighting, odour, and sounds.
- Evidence documentation: Detailed description of each piece of evidence, including any unique characteristics.
- Photography and sketches: References to photographs and sketches taken at the scene.
- Personnel actions: A record of who was present, when they arrived, and what they did.
- Chain of evidence: Documentation of the movement of evidence from the crime scene to the laboratory.

Note-taking techniques:

- Clarity and organisation: Use clear and concise language, and organise notes logically.
- Objectivity: Record only observed facts, avoiding personal opinions or interpretations.
- Detail: Include as much detail as possible, even if it seems irrelevant at the time.
- Timeliness: Record information as soon as possible to ensure accuracy.
- Accuracy: Double-check information to ensure accuracy.

Example of crime scene notes

Date: 01/01/2024

Time: 14:30

Location: 123 High Street, Anytown, UK

Case number: ZIG-0001

Personnel: Officer J, Detective S, CSI

Weather: Clear, cold, temperature 8 °C, humidity low

Initial observations: Single-storey house, front door forced open, living room in disarray, blood splatter on living room wall.

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Evidence:

- Knife with apparent blood stains found on kitchen worktop.
- Blood sample collected from living room wall.
- Footprint on rug on living room floor.
- Fibre sample collected from sofa cushions.

Photography: Photos taken of exterior, interior, and evidence.

Sketch: Rough sketch of living room created.

Chain of evidence: Evidence collected and packaged according to standard procedure.

Visual evidence

Visual evidence is crucial for preserving the crime scene in its original state and providing a record of the scene between evidence collection and the scene.

Photography and video

- Types of photos:
 - Overview photos: Establish the overall scene.
 - Mid-range photos: Focus on specific areas and evidence.
 - Close-up photos: Detail evidence with and without scales.
 - Evidence-establishing photos: Show the relationship of evidence to the scene.
 - Body photos: Document victim's position and injuries.
- Techniques:
 - Use different angles and perspectives.
 - Employ flash for clarity and elimination of shadows.
 - Maintain consistency in camera settings.
 - Document photo conditions (date, time, camera settings, lens).

Measuring

- Tools needed:
 - Measuring tapes
 - Rulers
 - L-shaped measuring devices
- Techniques:
 - Measure distances between key points.
 - Record measurements in a clear and organised manner.
 - Use reference points for accuracy.

Drawing

- Types of drawings:
 - Rough sketch: Created at the scene, outlines key features (see **Figure 2.1**).
 - Finished sketch: Detailed drawing with accurate measurements and labels.
 - Perspective sketch: Shows three-dimensional relationships.
- Techniques:
 - Use symbols and legends to represent objects.
 - Include a scale and north direction.
 - Label evidence with unique identifiers.

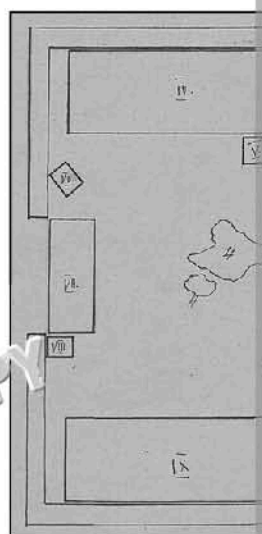


Figure 2.1 A crime scene sketch against František Saidl, who was found in the Central Bohemian region after he stabbed his own son.

Formative discussion questions:

Read the 'corner shop robbery' scenario on page 2.
Create detailed notes of the crime scene.

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Collecting and storing evidence



Key points covered

- Collection of evidence
- Storage of evidence

Collection of evidence (3.2.2)

Evidence recognition

Recognising and identifying evidence at a crime scene is a critical first step in any investigation. It requires knowledge of different types of evidence, and an understanding of how it can be collected.

Evidence can be broadly categorised into **direct evidence** and **circumstantial evidence**.

Physical evidence is a subset of circumstantial evidence and can be further divided into:

- Biological evidence: This includes DNA, blood, saliva, hair, and bodily fluids.
- Trace evidence: This encompasses fibres, paint chips, glass fragments, soil, and gunshot residue.
- Impressions: This includes fingerprints, footprints, tyre tracks, and tool marks.

Recognising evidence at a crime scene involves:

- Observation: Carefully examine the crime scene for any abnormalities or out of place items.
- Documentation: Photograph and document everything, including the location of evidence.
- Collection: Carefully collect evidence using proper techniques to preserve its integrity.
- Preservation: Store evidence in appropriate containers and maintain the chain of custody.

Challenges in collecting evidence:

- Evidence can be easily overlooked or destroyed.
- The condition of the crime scene can make evidence difficult to find.
- Evidence may be transferred or contaminated.

Remember:

Proper collection and preservation are crucial to maintain the integrity of biological evidence.

- Wear protective gear: Gloves, masks and gowns prevent contamination of the evidence and protect the investigators.
- Document the scene: Photographs, sketches and notes are essential for the investigation.
- Collect samples carefully: Use sterile swabs, vacuumed collection, or other appropriate methods.
- Package and store properly: Prevent degradation with appropriate containers and labeling.

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Methods for collection of trace evidence

Collecting trace evidence requires meticulous attention to detail, and proper techniques in the correct order depending on the type of trace evidence present. Forensic examiners should always use the method which causes the least destruction first. This prevents damage and avoids contamination. For example, here are some common methods to collect trace evidence in an appropriate order:

1. Swabbing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose: Collecting trace evidence from larger surfaces and objects. • Process: A moistened swab is used to collect samples from the surface (using a double swab technique) and both swabs are processed for DNA recovered. • Considerations: The type of swab and the collection solution depend on the type of evidence.
2. Forceps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose: Collecting individual pieces of trace evidence. • Process: Fine-tipped forceps are used to carefully pick up small fragments, hair, or fibres. • Considerations: Forceps must be clean and handled with care.
3. Tape lifting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose: Collecting trace evidence from flat surfaces. • Process: Adhesive tape is pressed onto the surface to lift the evidence. • Considerations: Tape lifts should be placed on a clear acetate sheet.
4. Vacuuming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose: Collecting a large amount of trace evidence from a surface. • Process: A specialised vacuum with a fine filter is used to collect the evidence and other particles. • Considerations: The filter or material must be properly labelled and packaged.
5. Marks and impressions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose: Collecting impressions often found in soft surfaces like sand; and marks such as tyre marks on roads. • Process: Lift the evidence from a hard surface using various methods. Cast the evidence if there is an impression in a soft surface. • Consideration: When lifting the evidence, enough pressure must be applied.
6. Print lifting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose: Collection of fingerprints. • Process: Fingerprints can be found by dusting surfaces with powder (see Figure 2.2). Fingerprints can then be lifted using a lifting card (called a backing card) to preserve it. • Considerations: The lift must be stored flat and in dry conditions.



Figure 2.2 A forensic examiner applying a dark powder to a fingerprint, which is the first step in the process of lifting a fingerprint.

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Other methods

- Brushing and shaking: Clothing or other items can be brushed and shaken over a surface to collect fibres or debris.
- Evidence collection kits: Pre-packaged kits containing various tools and containers for collecting different types of evidence (see **Figure 2.3**).
- Collecting soil samples: Use stainless steel tools such as a spatula or spade that are not susceptible to corrosion and is easy to clean to reduce contamination. If you find a shoe, package the object and collect the soil sample in the laboratory. Scrap the soil using a paintbrush and spatula.



Figure 2.3 A DNA collection kit, including latex gloves, sterile swabs and evidence labels, instructions and a tamper-evident storage bag.

Important considerations

- Chain of custody: Maintain a detailed record of who handled the evidence and when.
- Documentation: Photograph and document the collection process.
- Personal protective equipment: Wear gloves, masks, and other PPE to protect yourself and the evidence.

Recall questions

1. Describe how trace evidence is collected from a crime scene.
2. Why is it important to collect trace evidence in a particular way?

Storing evidence (3.2.3)

Packaging

Use appropriate containers to prevent damage or loss of evidence.

Generally, paper must be used to package wet evidence such as clothing covered in bodily fluids (a wet sample degrades in plastic packaging).

Bindles can be used to transport trace evidence. Plastic containers or bags can be used for dry evidence (such as a soil sample or a mobile phone).

Vials are used to store liquids. Where these are plastic, they should come with a lined lid (PTFE-lined lid) and a chemical compound which is compatible with many substances).

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Apply your knowledge

State one piece of evidence you might transport in: a bindle, a plastic container, a vial, or a bag.

Documentation process

1. Initial observation:

- Note the location, type, and quantity of the trace evidence.
- Describe any unique characteristics or patterns.
- Take photographs and/or videos of the evidence *in situ*.
- Sketch the crime scene showing the general layout of the crime scene in relation to the surroundings.
- Use a scale to indicate the size of the evidence.



2. Collection:

- Collect the trace evidence using appropriate techniques to avoid contamination.
- Place the evidence in suitable containers.
- Seal the containers with evidence tape and create evidence labels detailing relevant information, including:
 - Case number
 - Item number
 - Date and time of collection
 - Collector's name and initials
 - Description of the evidence
 - Location of the evidence
 - Any relevant case information

At the end of the process, evaluate the effectiveness of the documentation. Ensure you have:

- Justified your actions.
- Made notes of what is required.
- Made notes of what you have done.



3. Maintain the chain of evidence, as detailed in the next section.

4. Laboratory analysis.

Documentation challenges

- Trace evidence can be easily lost or contaminated if not handled properly.
- Documentation can be time-consuming and requires attention to detail.
- Interpretation of trace evidence can be subjective and open to debate.

Additional considerations

- Use standardised documentation forms to ensure consistency.
- Consider using digital photography and video to supplement written documentation.

Your turn

Create a training poster to remind professionals working at crime scenes about the steps to be taken in labelling evidence.

Formative discussion question

Read the scenario 'Who robbed the corner shop' on page 2. Plan how you will collect the 'corner shop robbery' evidence through the recovery of trace material. Explain your choice of methods.

To answer this question, consider the following points:

- Trace evidence is vulnerable to contamination. How would you preserve the integrity of the evidence and minimise the risk of contamination?
- What methods should be used to recover the evidence found at the scene of the robbery? Justify your chosen methods.

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Proper storage of forensic evidence is crucial to maintain its integrity and admissibility. The method of storage depends on the type of evidence.

Methods for storage of evidence

General storage principles are:

- Secure environment: Evidence should be stored in a locked, climate-controlled environment to prevent contamination, and degradation.
- Chain of evidence: A detailed record of who has handled the evidence, when, and where it was stored.
- Packaging: Evidence should be packaged appropriately to prevent damage and contamination.
- Labelling: Clear and accurate labelling is crucial for identification and tracking.
- Environmental controls: Temperature, humidity, and light levels should be controlled.

Specific storage requirements

- Biological evidence:
 - Often stored frozen or refrigerated to prevent degradation.
 - Dried blood stains can be stored at room temperature in paper bags.
- Trace evidence:
 - Typically stored in paper bags or envelopes to prevent moisture build-up.
 - Some items, such as fibres, may require special storage conditions.

Further information

Wet or liquid evidence should be stored in a container which provides airtight seal, such as the DNA storage container.

Evidence storage facilities

Many law enforcement agencies have dedicated evidence storage facilities. These facilities are designed to meet specific storage requirements and ensure the preservation of evidence. Within schools, you may have dedicated spaces you have available to store evidence, which is preserved under the same conditions as the evidence.

Challenges in evidence storage

- Space constraints: Evidence storage can be costly and space-consuming.
- Evidence degradation: Some types of evidence degrade over time, despite proper storage.
- Security: The risk of theft, loss or contamination is always present.
- Budget constraints: Adequate funding for evidence storage is often limited.

Movement of evidence: the chain of evidence

The movement of evidence, also called the chain of evidence, is a meticulous record of the collection, movement, handling and possession of evidence from the crime scene to the court. It is a critical part of forensic investigations, ensuring the integrity and admissibility of evidence.

Importance of a chain of evidence

- Preservation of evidence: It safeguards evidence from contamination, tampering, and degradation.
- Legal admissibility: A complete and unbroken chain of evidence is essential for evidence to be accepted in court.
- Accountability: It establishes accountability for those handling the evidence.

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Elements of a chain of evidence

The elements of a chain of evidence include the following in **Figure 2.4**:

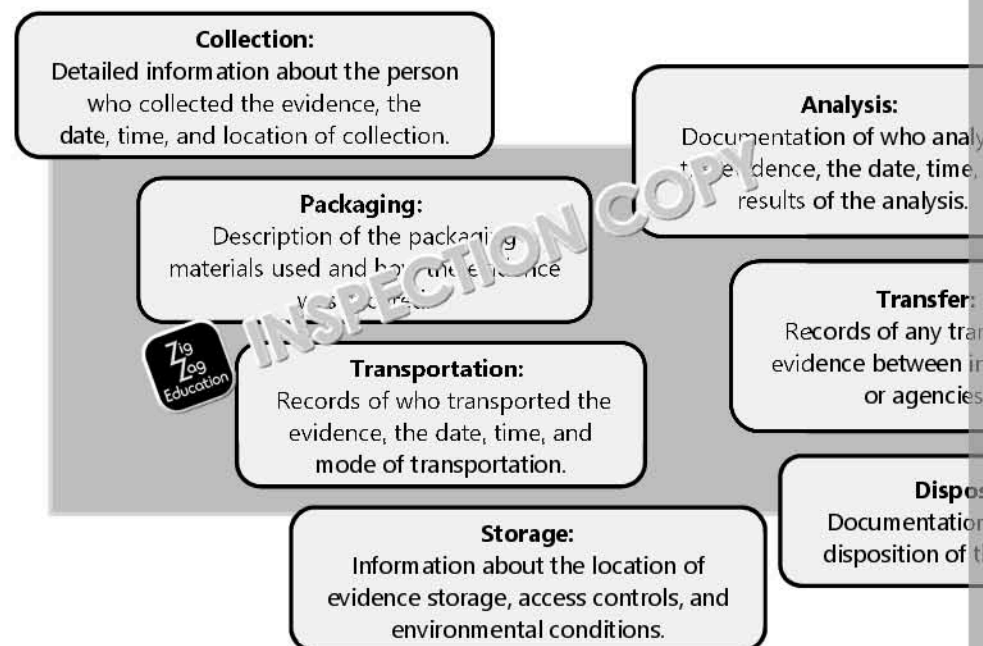


Figure 2.4 Elements of a chain of evidence.

A chain of evidence form is typically used to document the movement of evidence

- Unique identification number for the evidence
- Description of the evidence
- Name and signature of individuals handling the evidence
- Date and time of each transfer
- Reason for the transfer

Maintaining a chain of evidence

- **Security:** Evidence should be stored in a secure location with restricted access.
- **Documentation:** All transfers and handling of evidence must be documented.
- **Training:** Personnel handling evidence should be trained in chain of evidence procedures.
- **Review:** Regular review of chain of evidence records helps identify potential issues.



Figure 2.5 Security seals are added to bags of evidence to ensure no unauthorized access.

Recall questions

1. Explain why it is important to select the appropriate packaging for different evidence. Give an example.

Formative discussion questions:

Read the scenario 'Who robbed the corner shop' on page 2 and plan how you would package and transport the evidence from the crime scene:

- What factors must you consider when selecting the most appropriate packaging to use?
- What factors would influence the appropriate selection of the storage environment?

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Section 3: Analyse the evidence

Planning an analysis of the evidence



Key points covered

- Preparing forensic evidence for analysis
- Technology used in forensic analysis
- Techniques for analysis

Analysing observational evidence (4.1.2)

There are various techniques, some traditional and some modern, used to analyse evidence. We will discuss the most common ones.

Observation, photography, measuring and drawing

Making observations is valuable, but some record and quantification should accompany observations to be admissible in court.

Photography, measuring and drawing are fundamental components of crime scene investigation. They are used in tandem to create a comprehensive and accurate record of the crime scene for analysis.

- Photographs are used to capture visual evidence crucial for preserving the crime scene.
- Accurate measurements provide spatial relationships between evidence and the crime scene.
- Drawings create a visual representation of the crime scene to complement photographs.

Formative discussion question

Read the scenario 'Who stole the corner shop' on page 2. Consider how you would use observation, photography, measuring and drawing to analyse the evidence from the crime scene.

DNA identification

DNA profiling is a powerful tool for comparing biological evidence to suspects or victims. (Unmasking Colin Pitchfork in the box below). DNA is an extremely stable molecule that can be found at crime scenes. For extraction, DNA is isolated from the biological sample; this could be a single speck of blood.

Case study: Unmasking Colin Pitchfork

In 1983 and 1986, 22-year-old Colin Pitchfork raped and murdered two 15-year-old girls in Leicestershire.

To find the perpetrator, the police mass tested the DNA of 1000 men in the area. Pitchfork escaped the testing by asking a friend to donate a sample of their blood, while he bragged about getting away with the crimes.

In 1988, Colin Pitchfork was arrested and it was confirmed that his DNA matched the evidence. This case was a revolutionary as Pitchfork became the first person to be convicted using DNA profiling.

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Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is a powerful technique that allows forensic scientists to amplify minuscule quantities of DNA found at crime scenes. It is a method of DNA amplification that creates more copies of DNA molecules that have been found. This is useful for:

- Overcoming the limitation of small samples: PCR enables the creation of millions of copies of a specific DNA sequence from a tiny starting sample. This is crucial because crime scene evidence often consists of small traces such as hair follicles, skin cells, or saliva.
- Accessing degraded DNA: PCR can effectively amplify short fragments of DNA (even those with a decrease in volume) even when the DNA is degraded, which is common in older or exposed crime scene evidence.

Gel electrophoresis is a laboratory technique that separates DNA fragments according to size and charge by passing an electrical current through a gel. It involves the following steps:

- Isolate DNA from sample and amplify using PCR.
- Load DNA samples to the wells at one end of the gel.
- Run an electric current through the gel.
- Stain the DNA bands and record the results.

Once amplified, the DNA can be either sequenced or profiled, or both.

DNA sequencing: Determines the exact order of **nucleotides** (adenine or A, thymine or T, cytosine or C, guanine or G) in a DNA molecule. DNA is extracted from a sample (e.g. blood, saliva, hair). It is then broken down into smaller fragments. These fragments are sequenced using advanced technologies such as Sanger sequencing or next-generation sequencing. The sequence data is assembled to reveal the complete DNA sequence.

Nucleotide – a building block of DNA.

DNA profiling: Creates a unique genetic fingerprint of an individual based on specific DNA markers. This information generates a DNA profile, a unique pattern representing the individual's DNA (see **Figure 3.2**).



Figure 3.2 The picture above shows DNA bands on agarose gel.

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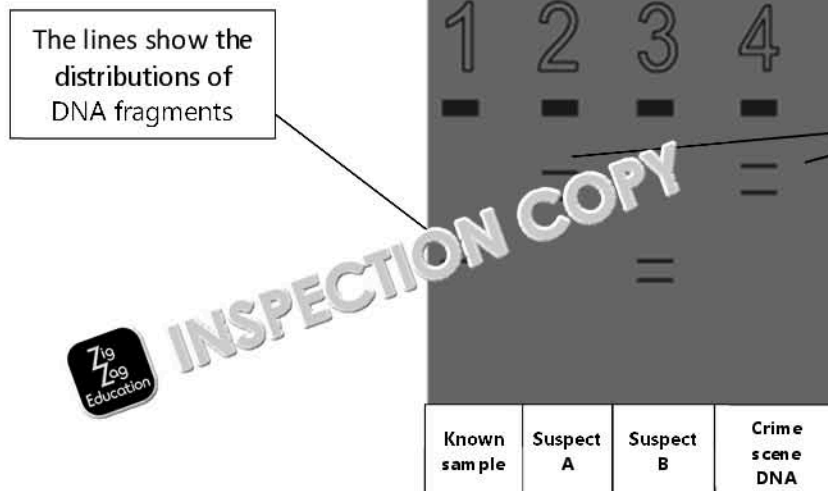


Figure 3.3 A line drawing of the results of DNA profiling of a known sample and that of two suspects

Forensic applications:

- Identifying suspects: DNA profiles from crime scene evidence can be compared to identify potential suspects.
- Exonerating the innocent: DNA evidence can prove the innocence of wrongly convicted individuals.
- Paternity testing: DNA profiles can establish or exclude biological relationships.
- Mass disaster identification: DNA profiling can help identify victims of disasters and natural disasters.
- Wildlife forensics: DNA analysis can help track endangered species and combat illegal trade.

Advantages:

- High accuracy: DNA evidence is highly reliable and can provide strong evidence in court.
- Sensitivity: DNA profiling can be performed on very small samples, even degraded or mixed samples.
- Individuality: DNA profiles are unique to each individual, except for identical twins.

X-rays and CT scans

X-rays and CT scans are indispensable tools in forensic investigations, providing crucial evidence in criminal cases.

X-rays are high-energy electromagnetic radiation that can penetrate objects and reveal internal structures. In forensics, X-rays are primarily used for:

- Examining skeletal remains: Determining age, sex, height, and identifying previous injuries.
- Investigating injuries: Revealing internal injuries, fractures, and foreign objects.
- Analysing evidence: Examining objects such as weapons, tools or documents for alterations.
- Identifying victims: Comparing dental records with X-rays of unidentified remains.

Computed tomography (CT) scans create detailed cross-sectional images of the body or objects from different angles. In forensics, they are used for greater detail and precision compared to X-rays.

- Examining injuries: Providing a comprehensive view of internal injuries, including internal bleeding.
- Reconstructing crime scenes: Visualising the position of victims and suspects.
- Analysing evidence: Examining complex objects such as firearms, explosives or hidden compartments.
- Identifying victims: Creating detailed digital models of facial features for comparison.

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Key applications of X-rays and CT scans in forensics include:

- Homicide investigations: Determining the cause and manner of death, identifying crime scenes.
- Assault cases: Documenting injuries, identifying weapons, and analysing the impact.
- Traffic accidents: Assessing injuries, determining the impact point, and reconstructing the accident.
- Archaeology and anthropology: Studying skeletal remains, analysing artefacts from ancient cultures.

Limitations and considerations:

- Radiation exposure: Both X-ray and CT scans involve exposure to ionising radiation, which must be used carefully.
- Cost: CT scans are generally more expensive than traditional X-rays.
- Expertise: Interpreting X-rays and CT scans requires specialised training and knowledge.

Presumptive tests

Presumptive tests are rapid, relatively inexpensive, and easy to perform.

Presumptive tests typically involve a chemical reaction that produces a visible colour change or other observable phenomenon in the presence of the target substance. For example, a test for blood might involve a colour change, while a test for drugs might produce a specific crystal formation.

Two common presumptive tests for blood use **luminol** or leucomalachite green.

Due to its sensitivity, luminol is widely used in forensic investigations to detect traces of blood that have been cleaned or otherwise obscured. The iron present in haemoglobin, a component of blood, acts as a catalyst for the oxidation of luminol. This reaction produces a blue glow that can be seen in low-light conditions.

Advantages of luminol

- Sensitivity: It can detect very small amounts of blood, even if it has been cleaned.
- Coverage: It can be sprayed over large areas quickly, making it efficient for crime scene investigation.
- Visual: The glowing blue light is dramatic and can be easily photographed.

Limitations of luminol

- False positives: Luminol can react with other substances, such as bleach, copper, and some plants, producing a false positive.
- DNA degradation: The chemicals in luminol can interfere with DNA analysis, so samples after luminol treatment must be handled carefully.
- Light sensitivity: The glow from luminol is relatively short-lived, requiring quick photography.

Leucomalachite green (LMG) is a common chemical reagent used in forensic science for the detection of blood. It is a sensitive and relatively specific test that can be easily performed.

Advantages of LMG test

- Sensitivity: It can detect even trace amounts of blood.
- Specificity: While not definitive, it is less prone to false positives compared to luminol.
- Ease of use: The test can be performed relatively quickly and easily.

Limitations

- Presumptive: A positive LMG test does not confirm the presence of blood. **Confirmatory** tests (e.g. immunochromatographic tests or DNA analysis) are necessary.
- False positives: While less common than with some other tests, false positives can occur due to the presence of certain chemicals or plant peroxidases.

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**Recall questions**

1. Describe the difference between presumptive tests and confirmatory tests.

Blood groups

Determination of a blood group is called **blood typing**. Blood typing has been a full part of forensic science for decades.

While DNA profiling has become common in recent years, blood group analysis remains useful in criminal investigations.

The ABO and Rhesus (Rh) systems

- **ABO system:** This is the most well known blood group system. It is based on the presence of antigens A and B on the surface of red blood cells. There are four blood types: A, B, AB, and O.
- **Rh system:** This system is based on the presence or absence of the Rh factor on red blood cells. People are either Rh positive (Rh+) or Rh negative (Rh-).

Forensic applications

- **Exclusion of suspects:** If the blood type found at a crime scene does not match a suspect, the suspect can be excluded as the source of the blood.
- **Inclusion of suspects:** While not as definitive as DNA, matching blood types can suggest a suspect is the source of the blood.
- **Population genetics:** Blood group frequencies vary among different populations and are used to assess the probability of finding a particular blood type in a specific population.
- **Historical investigations:** Blood group analysis can be used to identify remains.

Limitations of blood typing

- **Limited ability for identification:** Many people share the same blood type, making it difficult to identify a specific individual based on blood type alone.
- **Contamination:** Bloodstains can become contaminated, making it difficult to determine the source.
- **Degradation:** Blood evidence can degrade over time, affecting the accuracy of analysis.

Blood spatter analysis

Blood spatter analysis is a forensic technique that examines the distribution, shape, and size of bloodstains to determine the events that caused them. By understanding the physics of blood spatter, analysts can recreate the scene and identify the source of the bloodshed.

Applications in forensics

- **Crime scene reconstruction:** Determining the sequence of events.
- **Determining the position of the victim and attacker:** Reconstructing the crime scene.
- **Identifying the type of weapon used:** Analysing the shape and size of bloodstains.
- **Corroborating or refuting witness statements:** Comparing statements to the evidence.

Challenges and limitations

- **Cleaning or movement of the crime scene:** Can alter or destroy evidence.
- **Blood volume:** Small amounts of blood may not produce enough evidence for analysis.
- **Subjective interpretation:** Analysts' experience and judgement play a role in interpretation.

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Microscopy and electron micrographs

Microscopy is an indispensable tool in forensic biology. It allows for the detailed examination of materials that are often invisible to the naked eye. This microscopic analysis provides evidence linking suspects to crime scenes, identifying victims, and reconstructing crime events.

Applications of microscopy in forensic biology

- **Hair analysis:** Microscopes are used to compare hair samples from crime scenes and victims. Characteristics such as colour, scale pattern, and medulla type are examined.
- **Fibre analysis:** Microscopy is employed to compare fibres found at crime scenes with those from carpets, or other sources. Colour, diameter, and cross-sectional shape are key features.
- **Bloodstain analysis:** Microscopes help in identifying bloodstains, determining blood type, and analysing patterns to reconstruct crime scenes.
- **Sperm analysis:** Microscopy is used to identify and examine sperm cells, which can be crucial in sexual assault cases.
- **Diatom analysis:** Diatoms (microscopic algae) can be found in water and can identify a specific water source. Microscopy is used to identify and compare diatom species.
- **Pollen analysis:** Pollen grains can be used to determine the location and time of a crime. Microscopy is employed to identify and compare pollen types (see **Figure 3.4**).



Figure 3.4 An electron micrograph of pollen.

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Selection and justification of appropriate



Key points covered

- Light microscopes
- Stereo microscopes
- Electron microscopes
- Evidence from humans, animals, plants
- Cellular evidence
- Tissue evidence
- Organ evidence

Key features of microscopy (2.1.1)

There are three main types of light microscope used in forensic biology: **compound** (see Figure 3.5 and Table 3.1).

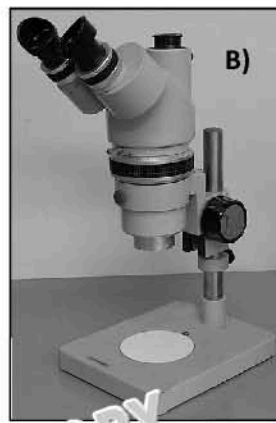
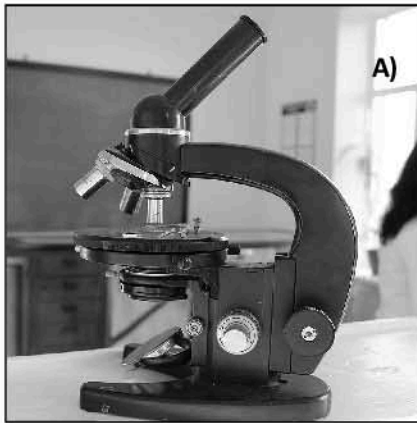


Figure 3.5 A comparison of three different types of light microscope: A) a compound light microscope, B) a stereo light microscope, and C) a phase contrast light microscope.

Table 3.1 A comparison of three different types of microscope

	Light microscope	Electron microscope
Description	A microscope that uses light to magnify a specimen to view it.	A microscope that uses beams of electrons to produce a magnified image of an object.
Use	Often used for initial and rapid examination of evidence. It is also suitable for examining larger biological samples and for comparing samples side-by-side.	Analysing extremely small particles, such as pollen grains and trace evidence. It is also used for detailed analysis of the structure of biological materials.
Advantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relatively inexpensive and readily available. • Simple to operate and maintain. • Portable so can be moved to crime scenes. • Can be used for live samples. • Colour images can be produced. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extremely high magnification and resolution. • Can be used to analyse the elemental composition of samples. • Can produce high-quality images of 3D structures.
Disadvantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lower magnification and resolution compared to electron microscopes. • Difficulty in visualising very small structures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expensive and complex equipment. • Samples must be prepared in a vacuum, which can damage or alter biological materials. • Black-and-white images.

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Choosing the correct mount for specimens

There are two ways to prepare specimens for viewing under a light microscope. The two ways are called **wet mounts** and **dry mounts**.

The choice between a wet mount and a dry mount in forensic microscopy largely depends on the nature of the evidence being examined.

Key considerations are:

- **Preservation:** If the evidence needs to be preserved for future analysis or court presentation, a dry mount is usually preferred.
- **Visibility:** For translucent or transparent samples, a wet mount is often necessary to allow light to pass through.
- **Sample integrity:** Some samples might be damaged or altered by a liquid medium, making a dry mount more suitable.
- **Time constraints:** Wet mounts are generally quicker to prepare but might not last as long.
- **Staining requirements:** Sometimes specific stains are required for wet mounts to enhance contrast.

<p>A wet mount is ideal for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examining organisms such as bacteria or protozoa (though less common in forensic science) • Observing specimens that require a liquid medium to maintain their structure or function • Analysing translucent or transparent samples where light needs to pass through 	<p>A dry mount is ideal for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examining solid, opaque samples • Preserving specimens for long-term storage • Analysing samples that might be distorted or damaged by liquid
<p>Examples of wet mounts in forensic science:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bloodstain analysis (to observe red blood cells and other cellular components) • Sperm analysis (to observe morphology and motility) • Examination of biological fluids (to identify components or contaminants) 	<p>Examples of dry mounts in forensic science:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hair analysis (to observe scale patterns and pigmentation) • Fibre analysis (to observe cross-sectional shape and refractive index) • Examination of soil particles • Analysis of gunshot residue

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Performing observational analysis



Key points covered

- Using microscopes

Use of light microscopes and stereo microscopes (2.1.2)

Light microscopes and stereo microscopes can both be used to make measurements. A micrometre is usually in micrometres. $1\ \mu\text{m}$ is $1 \times 10^{-6}\text{ m}$ or one thousandth of a millimetre.

Microscopes can be used to detect and identify microorganisms in or on evidence. This can be used to determine the cause of death, identify suspects, and link evidence.

The process

1. Calibration:

- Stage micrometer: This is a specialised slide with a calibrated scale etched on it, acting as a microscopic ruler, typically in micrometres, μm .
- Eyepiece graticule: This is a transparent scale placed in the microscope – it looks like a ruler with no numbers or units.
- Overlay the stage micrometer and eyepiece graticule by focusing the microscope on the micrometer and moving the slide on the stage. Determine the **conversion factor** between the two scales for each objective lens. For example, if a 2 mm object appeared to be 20 mm under the microscope, the scale of the microscope is 10 \times and the conversion factor would be 0.1. So, to convert a measurement from the microscope scale to the actual scale, you would multiply the measurement by the conversion factor, which in this example is 0.1.



2. Measurement:

- Remove the micrometer from the stage.
- Place the sample on the microscope stage.
- Use the eyepiece graticule to estimate the size of the object in eyepiece units.
- Apply the calibration factor to convert the eyepiece units to micrometres.

Key considerations

- Accuracy: The accuracy of measurements depends on the quality of the microscope, the accuracy and condition of the stage micrometer, and the user's ability to accurately align the scales.
- Magnification: The magnification of the objective lens affects the measurement. It is essential to calibrate the eyepiece graticule for each objective.
- Sample preparation: Proper sample preparation is crucial for accurate measurements. The sample should be well-illuminated, free of artefacts and focused for accurate measurement.

- Multiple measurements should be taken and averaged.
- This is to reduce the effect of random errors.
- Calibration should be done for each objective lens.
- Image analysis software can be used to allow for more accurate measurements.

A wet mount slide is made as follows:

- A drop of liquid is placed on the slide.
- The specimen is added to the liquid.
- A stain is sometimes added.
- A coverslip is carefully lowered over the specimen.

A dry mount is made as follows:

- The specimen is placed on the slide.
- A coverslip is placed over the specimen.

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Analysing observational analysis (4.1.2)

Saliva

For saliva, a visual examination should consider:

- Appearance: Saliva is typically clear, colourless and viscous. However, its appearance can be affected by contaminants such as blood, food particles, or other bodily fluids.
- Location: Where is the saliva found? Is it on a surface, an object or a person? This information can help to determine about the crime and how the saliva was deposited.
- Quantity: The amount of saliva present can influence the type of collection method used for DNA analysis.
- Distribution: How is the saliva distributed? Is it in a pool, droplets, or smears? This information can provide clues about the deposition method.
- Associated evidence: Are there other types of evidence present, such as fingerprints? This information can help to correlate the saliva with other aspects of the crime scene.

Blood

There are two presumptive tests for blood, as discussed on page 39. These can tell you if there is blood at a crime scene.

Luminol presumptive test procedure:

1. Preparation: Luminol solution is typically prepared in a dark room.
2. Application: The solution is sprayed onto the suspected area.
3. Observation: The area is observed for a blue glow, indicating the possible presence of blood.
4. Documentation: Any luminescence is photographed or recorded (see Figure 3.6).
5. Sample collection: If a positive result is obtained, blood samples are collected for further analysis.



Figure 3.6 Luminol was sprayed onto a floorboard. Although no blood was seen, a blue glow from luminol indicated the presence of blood.

Leucomalachite green (LMG) presumptive test procedure:

1. Colourless reagent: LMG is prepared and is initially colourless.
2. Oxidation: In the presence of blood and an oxidising agent (such as hydrogen peroxide), the reagent is oxidised.
3. Colour change: This oxidation process produces a distinct blue-green colour, indicating the presence of blood.

Blood characteristics:

- Colour: Is the blood fresh (red), or dried (dark brown)?
- Texture: Is the blood liquid, clotted or dried?
- Presence of other substances: Are there any other substances mixed with the blood?

The types of bloodstains are:


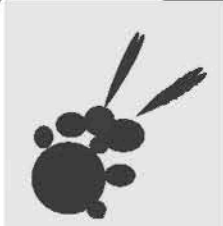
- Passive stains: Created by gravity, such as drops, flows and pools.
- Projected stains: Created by force, such as impact splatter, cast-off, and arterial spray.
- Transfer stains: Created by contact between a bloody object and a surface, such as smudges or prints.

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Blood spatter analysis

Blood Spatter Patterns		
	High Impact	Medium Impact
Droplet size	less than 1 mm	between 1 mm and 4 mm
Velocity	around 30 m s ⁻¹	around 7 m s ⁻¹
Example	gunshot	st. obj.
Image		

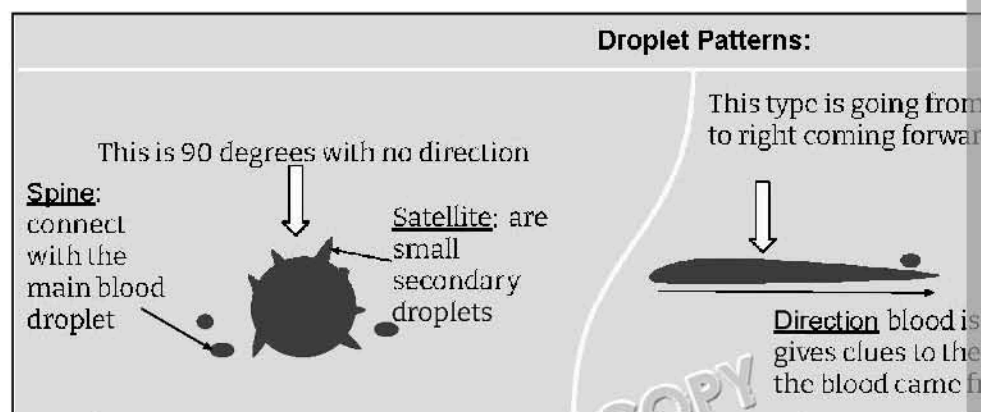


Figure 3.7 Examples of the types of blood spatter and droplet patterns from a crime scene

Blood is acted on by forces such as gravity, surface tension and air resistance when it is in motion. These influence the shape and size of the bloodstain as it lands on a surface (see Figure 3.7). Blood patterns to investigate include:

- The origin of the blood: Where did the blood come from?
- The direction of the impact: Where was the blood coming from?
- The angle of impact: At what angle did the blood hit the surface?
- The height of the origin: How high was the blood source?
- The number of blows: How many times was the victim struck?
- The movement of the victim and attacker: What were their positions?

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Fingerprints and footprints

Even at the initial observation stage, forensic experts look for specific characteristics

- Pattern type: Arches, loops or whorls.
- Minutiae: Unique ridge characteristics such as ridge endings, bifurcations, and comparisons of minutiae patterns, and **Figure 3.9** for a real print showing the
- General shape and size: Overall configuration of the print

These elements provide the basis for comparison and identification.

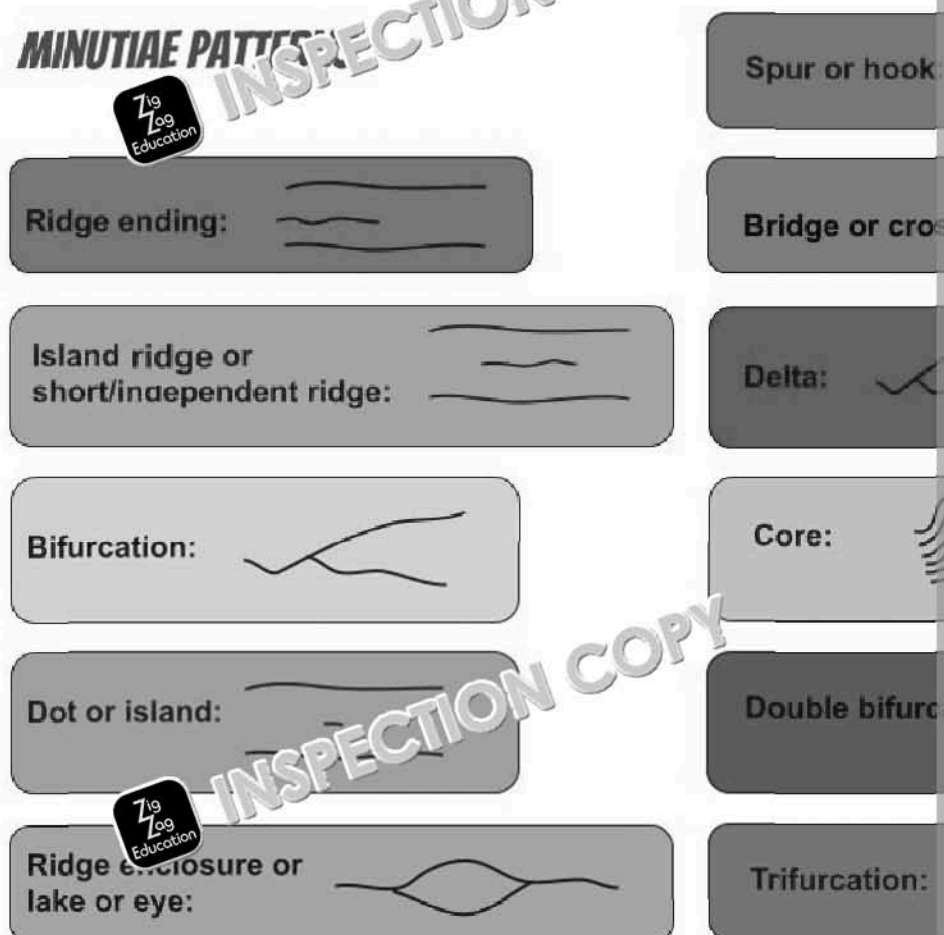


Figure 3.8 A comparison of the different types of minutiae patterns in a fingerprint



Figure 3.9 A fingerprint showing the different minutiae patterns

The initial observation of footprints at a crime scene is a crucial step in the forensic investigation. Footprints can provide valuable information about the number of individuals present, their movement, and potential points of entry or exit.

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Key aspects of initial observation

- Location:
 - Where are the footprints located in relation to the crime scene?
 - Are they indoors or outdoors?
 - Are they in a specific area, such as a point of entry or exit?
- Number:
 - How many different sets of footprints are present?
 - This can indicate the number of individuals involved.
- Type:
 - Are they barefoot, shoe, or a combination?
 - The type of shoe wear can provide clues about the suspect's occupation.
- Clarity:
 - How clear are the impressions?
 - Detailed impressions are more valuable for analysis.
- Direction:
 - What is the direction of the footprints?
 - This can help determine the sequence of events.
- Depth:
 - How deep are the impressions?
 - This can indicate the weight of the person who made them.
- Size:
 - What is the approximate size of the footprints?
 - This can help estimate the height and weight of the individual.
- Pattern:
 - Are there any unique patterns or characteristics in the footprints?
 - These can be used for comparison and identification.

Other types of prints

When encountering a lip print at a crime scene, forensic experts typically focus on

- Presence and location:
 - Is there a clear lip print?
 - Where is it located (e.g. glass, paper, skin)?
 - What is the surface condition (smooth, rough, porous)?
- Clarity and completeness:
 - How clear and defined is the print?
 - Is the entire lip print visible, or are parts missing?
- Colour and material:
 - What is the colour of the lip print (e.g. red lipstick, clear saliva)?
 - Is there any foreign material present (e.g. blood, dirt)?
- Pattern analysis:
 - Preliminary assessment of lip print patterns (linear, angular, or mixed).
 - Comparison with known lip print patterns for potential identification.
- Documentation:
 - Detailed photographs of the lip print from various angles.
 - Careful lifting or casting of the print, if possible.
 - Accurate recording of the crime scene location and conditions.

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Hair

Determining whether a hair sample is human or animal is a crucial first step in forensic analysis. Characteristics can be observed through microscopic examination which differentiates human from animal hair. Table 3.2 and Figure 3.10:

Table 3.2 Characteristics of animal and human hair.

	Human hair	Animal hair
Medulla	Generally thin, and often shapeless, and less than 1/3 the hair diameter.	Often thicker, and often interrupted, and more than 1/3 the hair diameter.
Scale pattern	Imbricate pattern (overlapping scales like roof shingles) (see the micrograph of a human hair in Figure 3.11).	More varied patterns (crown-like) and often more pronounced.
Root	Typically, club-shaped.	Highly variable across the species.
Pigmentation	Generally, evenly distributed pigment.	Pigment distribution concentrated at the root.
Other characteristics	Less variable hair shaft. Colour banding is less common.	More variable hair shaft. Colour banding is more common.

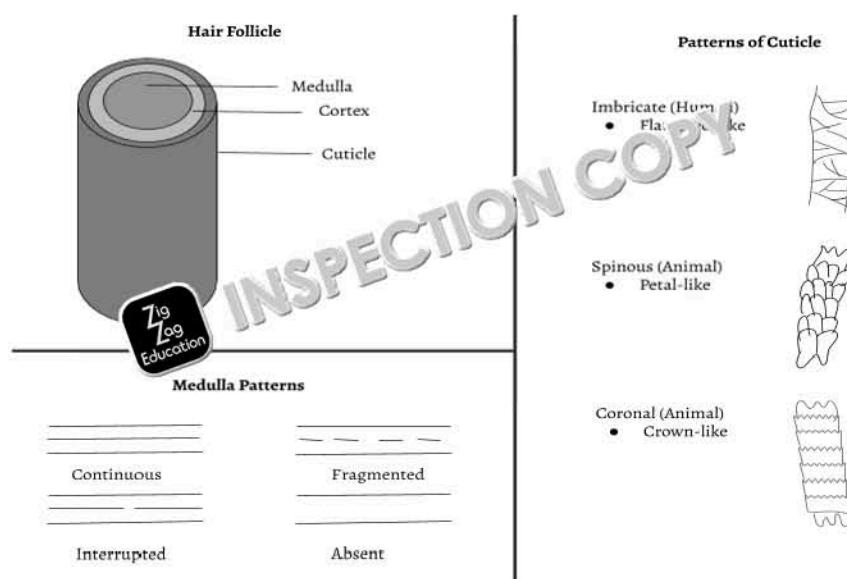


Figure 3.10 A diagram showing a labelled human hair strand, and the different medulla and cuticle patterns.

Formative discussion questions:

Read the scenario 'Who robbed the corner shop?' on page 2. What considerations must you make when using observational analytical techniques?

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Performing microbiological analysis



Key points covered

- Culturing microorganisms
- Types of microorganisms in evidence
- Detecting microorganisms in evidence
- Growing bacteria on agar
- Growing fungi
- Analysis of microorganisms
- Importance of diet
- Limitations in school

Preparing forensic evidence for microscopy (2.1.2.)

Staining in microscopy

Some samples, such as human skin cells or cheek cells, are transparent. That means that under a microscope, very little can be seen of the cells.

Common staining techniques include the use of:

1. Methylene blue:
 - This is a basic stain that binds to negatively charged components in the cell, such as **nucleic acids** (DNA and RNA).
 - It stains the **nucleus** of the cell a dark blue colour, making it easily visible (see **Figure 3.12**).
 - It is a simple and effective stain for observing basic cell structure.
 - Useful for skin cells, cheek cells, etc.
2. Crystal violet:
 - Similar to methylene blue, it's a basic stain that binds to negatively charged components in the cell.
 - Provides a darker and more intense stain than methylene blue.
 - Useful for skin cells, cheek cells, etc.
 - Often used in conjunction with other stains in more complex staining protocols.
3. Immunological stains:
 - These are prepared to detect certain proteins in samples such as human hair.
 - They are very specific and can identify hair from one particular individual.
 - They use **antibodies** attached to stains to bind to the hair proteins.

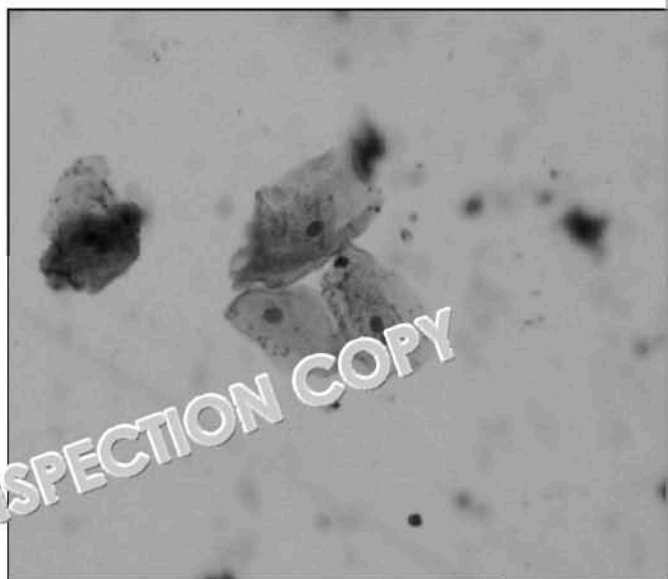


Figure 3.12 A micrograph of a group of four human cheek cells stained with methylene blue. The nucleus is visible as a darker blue dot inside the cell.

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Cell and tissue structure can be observed and measured from:

- Temporary slides – slides made for short time observations and are discarded
- **Figure 3.12.**
- Microscope drawings/photographs – line drawings or photographs that record structures, such as cells and tissues viewed under a microscope, as seen in Figure 3.12.
- Electron micrograph – a photo taken of an object or a specimen viewed under an electron microscope, as seen in **Figure 3.13A**.
- Generalised diagrams/photographs – photographs of a tissue not seen under a microscope, such as a diagram of a blood splatter.

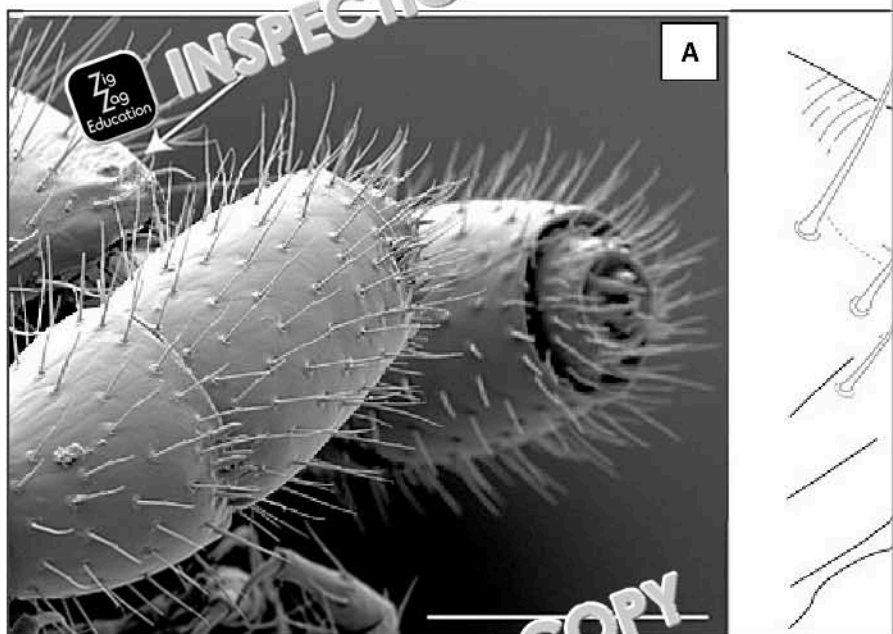


Figure 3.13 A) A scanning electron micrograph of the antennae of a millipede, showing fine hairs and sensory structures. A scale bar is visible in the bottom right corner. To the right of the micrograph is a corresponding line drawing of the antennae structure.

Microorganisms in evidence (4.2)

The field of forensic science has made good use of microorganisms. Bacteria, viruses and fungi are valuable tools in crime investigation.

Microbes

- Bacteria: such as those found in soil and in the gut; however, bacteria are also found on surfaces and in the environment.
- Fungi: such as those growing around plant roots and those that cause mildew.
 - Fungi play a significant role in decomposition, helping to estimate PMI.
 - Specific fungal species can indicate the environment where a body was found.
 - Fungal growth patterns can provide clues about the conditions at a crime scene.
- Algae: such as those found in rivers, lakes and canals and include the diatoms, which are called plankton.
 - Diatoms are microscopic algae found in water. If a person drowns, diatoms can be found in the lungs and other organs.
 - The type of diatoms present can indicate the water source where a person drowned.

Bacteria are discussed on page 17.

Apply your knowledge

Think of a situation in which bacteria, fungi or algae might be an important source of evidence.

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Viruses

These cannot survive for long outside an organism; most are associated with disease. Bacteriophages (bacteriophage) are found in the healthy gut and in the environment.

- Viral analysis can confirm or refute suspected diseases.
- Tracking the spread of viruses can aid in public health investigations.
- Identification of specific viral agents can be crucial in counterterrorism efforts.
- The presence of aquatic bacteriophage can indicate pollution.

The identification of bacteria and fungi (2.3.4)

The detection and analysis of microorganisms in forensic evidence is a rapidly evolving field. It involves a combination of traditional microbiological techniques and advanced molecular methods. **Isolation** and identification of microorganisms are fundamental processes in microbiology. Bacterial and fungal cultures from the crime scene can be compared to the cultures collected from the suspects/victims to see if there is a confirmed match. This can help to link individuals to the crime scene.

Several tools and techniques can be employed to isolate microorganisms.

A sample can be spread on **agar** to obtain isolated colonies which can then be picked off and cultured separately (as seen in **Figure 3.14**).



Figure 3.14 An enriched agar plate with **colonies** of microorganisms present.

Once isolated, microorganisms can be identified using a combination of methods, molecular tests and techniques based on observable characteristics (see **Figure 3.15**).

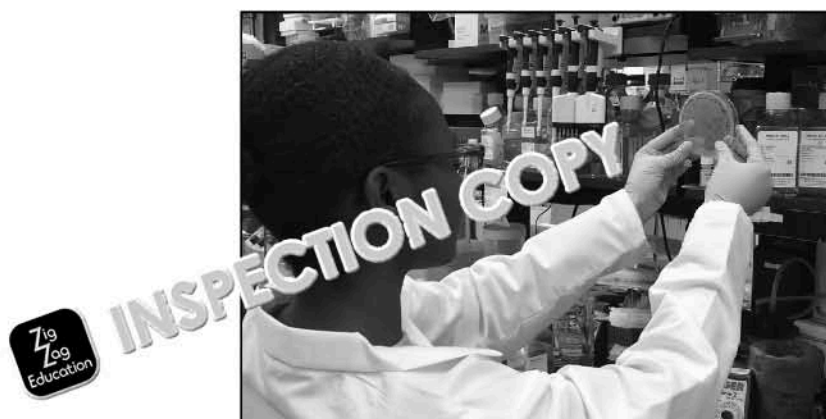


Figure 3.15 A scientist observing the colony appearance on culture.

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Bacteria

Traditional microbiological methods of detection:

- Culture-based methods: Involve isolating and growing microorganisms on specific media. While time-consuming, they can provide valuable information about the type of organism present.
- Microscopy: Used to examine the **morphology** of microorganisms, aiding in identification.

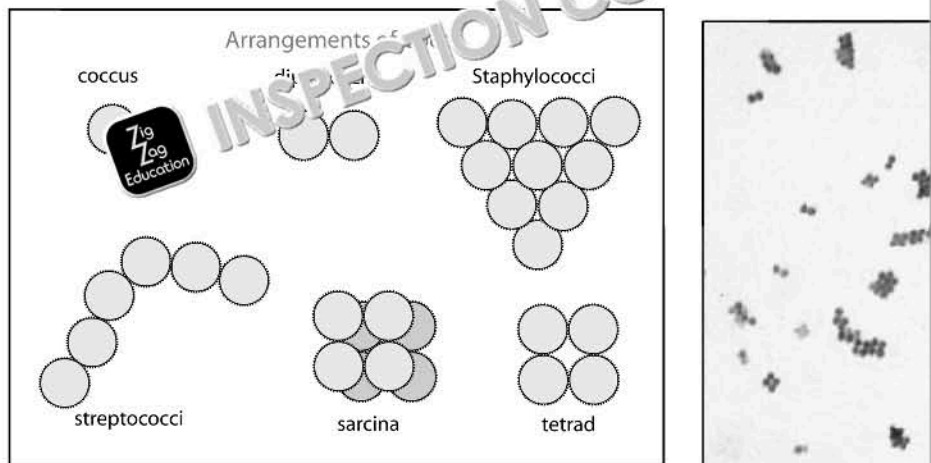


Figure 3.16 A diagram showing the morphology of the cocci bacteria (left) and a micrograph of cocci bacteria (right).

Molecular methods of detection, offering higher sensitivity and specificity:

- Polymerase chain reaction (PCR): Amplifies specific DNA sequences, enabling detection of small amounts of microbial DNA.
- Real-time PCR: Quantifies the amount of target DNA, providing information about the concentration of microorganisms.
- DNA sequencing: Determining the complete genetic sequence of a microorganism for identification and comparison.

Viruses

Viruses cannot be grown outside of living cells, so cannot be cultured on agar, like bacteria. They are identified by one or more of these techniques:

- Electron microscopy: This can narrow down the type of virus to one of a few possibilities.
- Immunological analysis: This uses antibodies labelled with dyes or stains specific to a virus.
- Nucleotide sequencing: The sequence of the virus genome and whether it is single or double stranded will identify the virus.

Fungi

Fungi are usually identified by macroscopic and microscopic methods:

- Colony morphology: Observing the appearance of fungal colonies on culture media, such as colour, texture and growth pattern.
- Microscopic examination: Studying the structure of fungal hyphae, spores, and reproductive structures using light microscopy.
- Physiological and biochemical tests: Assessing fungal growth on different media, their ability to utilize specific substrates, and their **metabolic** products.

These molecular techniques provide more precise and rapid identification:

- DNA sequencing: Determining the nucleotide sequence of specific fungal genes (e.g., the internal transcribed spacer, which is unique to each fungal type) region, for comparison with known sequences.
- Polymerase chain reaction (PCR): Amplifying specific DNA sequences for detection and identification.

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Diatoms

Diatoms are identified by either microscopic, morphological or molecular methods.

- **Microscopy:**
 - **Light microscopy:** The most common method, used to examine the morphology of cell walls (frustules), including shape, symmetry, and valve pattern.
 - **Electron microscopy:** Provides detailed images of cell wall (frustule) structure, revealing fine details often invisible under light microscopy.
- **Morphological analysis:**
 - **Comparison of observed features:** Compares observed features with reference materials and taxonomic keys.
 - **Detailed measurements:** Measures cell wall (frustule) dimensions and patterns.
- **Molecular techniques:**
 - **DNA sequencing:** Used for species-level identification and phylogenetic analysis.
 - **PCR:** Amplification of specific DNA regions for diatom detection and quantification.

Culturing microorganisms safely and effectively (2.3.2)

Culturing microorganisms comes with several risks, such as the potential to grow pathogens that can cause illness. However, it is safe provided some basic guidelines are followed.

General safety practices

- **Aseptic technique:** Use sterile equipment and maintain a sterile environment (e.g. wipe surfaces clean with disinfectant). This is incredibly important to prevent contamination.
- **Hand hygiene:** Always wash hands thoroughly with soap and water before and after handling microorganisms.
- **Personal protective equipment (PPE):** Wear lab coats, gloves, and safety glasses when working with microorganisms.
- **Biological safety cabinets (BSCs):** Use enclosed laboratory workspaces that are well ventilated. They are designed to protect people and the environment from hazardous materials (see **Figure 3.17**).
- **Work area disinfection:** Disinfect your work area before and after use with 70 % ethanol in water.
- **Waste disposal:** Properly dispose of all contaminated materials according to laboratory protocols. Use dedicated biohazard bins if appropriate.
- **Emergency procedures:** Familiarise yourself with emergency procedures, including fire safety and chemical spills.

Specific safety considerations

- **Biological containment:** Observe the containment regulations for the organism. Levels range from Level 1 for non-pathogenic organisms up to Level 4 for agents that pose a high risk of lethal infection through aerosol transmission, such as the Marburg virus.
- **Culture medium:** Prepare culture medium according to established protocols.
- **Incubation:** Incubate cultures at appropriate temperatures and for specified durations.
- **Contamination prevention:** Work near a Bunsen burner to create an upward current of air that helps reduce contamination.
- **Fumigation:** If a dedicated room is used for microbiology, then it should be periodically fumigated to kill any organisms that may have escaped.
- **Avoid mouth pipetting:** Use pipette bulbs or mechanical pipettes instead.
- **No eating or drinking:** Refrain from eating, drinking, or applying cosmetics in the laboratory.

- **Labelling:** Label all microorganism cultures.
- **Storage:** Store cultures in appropriate containers.
- **Risk assessment:** Assess the risk of contamination before identifying and controlling the microorganism.

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Culturing bacteria on agar plates (2.3.3)

Agar plates are a standard tool in microbiology for cultivating and studying bacteria. A Petri dish filled with a substrate gel called agar, which provides a solid growth medium. Various nutrients can be added to the agar according to the organisms being cultured.

The process

1. Preparation of agar plates:

- Prepare the desired agar medium based on the bacteria you want to culture.
- Dissolve solid agar and nutrients in tap water.
- Sterilise the medium in an autoclave at over 100 °C for about 15 minutes.
- Allow to cool to around 45 °C so it remains liquid but will not melt plastic.
- Pour the molten agar into sterilised Petri dishes.
- Allow the agar to solidify completely in a fridge or at room temperature.



2. Inoculation:

- Sterilise your inoculation tool (e.g. loop or swab) by passing it through the Bunsen burner for 10 seconds. Allow to cool for 15 seconds before use.
- Obtain a sample of bacteria from a non-pathogenic, approved source (e.g. soil, water, environment, or clinical specimen). Safety note: Do not collect samples from animal sources (e.g. pet cage) or bodily fluids (e.g. saliva) to minimise the risk of infection.
- Transfer a small amount of the sample to the agar plate using the sterile inoculation tool.
- Common inoculation techniques include streaking, spreading, and pour plating.



3. Incubation:

- Seal the agar plate to prevent contamination. Apply adhesive tape around the base of the plate and the lid. Leave a small gap in the sealing of plates in order to avoid moisture buildup.
- Place the plate upside down so the agar is uppermost. This prevents condensation from dripping onto the agar surface.
- Incubate the plate at the optimal temperature of 30 °C for bacterial growth.
- The incubation time varies depending on the bacteria being cultured, typically 24–48 hours.



4. Observation:

- After incubation, examine the agar plate for bacterial growth.
- Observe colony morphology (shape, size, colour, texture) to help identify the bacteria.
- Keep Petri dishes closed so cultured organisms do not enter the environment.
- If opened to pick colonies for regrowth, then do so under aseptic conditions.
- Dispose of cultures in sealed agar plates in a sharps hazard bin or in a sealed container.

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Ways of growing bacteria and fungi on agar plates

There are three main ways to grow bacteria or fungi on agar plates: streak plates,

Streak plates: Prepared by using a sterile loop to make streaks of culture into the agar. Each successive set of lines will have fewer organisms so more likely to form separate colonies.

1. Sterilise the inoculating loop: This is typically done by flaming the metal loop over a Bunsen burner flame, allowing it to cool.
2. Obtain a sample: Using the cooled loop, take a small amount of the bacterial culture.
3. Streak the first quadrant: Inoculate the first quadrant of the agar plate with the sample using a back-and-forth streaking motion.
4. Sterilise the loop: Flame the loop again.
5. Streak the second quadrant: Drag the loop through a small portion of the first quadrant to inoculate the second quadrant.
6. Repeat: Repeat the process for the third and fourth quadrants, sterilising the loop between each streak.

Lawn plates: So-called because the organisms cover the surface of the plate evenly, sometimes called spread plates.

1. Prepare your agar plate: Use a suitable nutrient agar for your bacterial species.
2. Prepare your bacterial culture: Ensure you have a liquid culture with a sufficient concentration of organisms.
3. Sterilise equipment: Use a sterile spreader (glass 'hockey stick') or cotton swab.
4. Inoculate the plate: Dip a sterile cotton swab into the bacterial culture and spread it evenly across the surface of the agar plate. Alternatively, use a dropping pipette to add one drop of the culture to the agar – this must be done in aseptic conditions as the bursting of the pipette creates an aerosol of organisms.
5. Spread the organisms: Use the sterile spreader to spread the culture all over the surface of the agar plate. Turn the plate to 90 degrees and use the end of the spreader to contact the edge of the agar and turn the plate to 180 degrees, working way out to the edge.
6. Incubate: Incubate the plate at the optimal temperature for bacterial growth.

Pour plates: Prepared because the organisms are mixed with the agar and poured into a Petri dish.

1. Prepare your agar plate: Use a suitable nutrient agar for your bacterial species.
2. Prepare your bacterial culture: Ensure you have a liquid culture with a sufficient concentration of organisms.
3. Mix with agar: Mix some of the liquid culture with the agar that has cooled but is still molten.
4. Pour: Pour the culture-agar mix into an empty sterile Petri dish.
5. Incubate: Incubate the plate at the optimal temperature for bacterial growth.

Identification of bacteria and fungi (2.3.4)

Bacteria are broadly classified by shape and by the way they take up a particular stain.

By shape, viewed under the microscope most bacteria are either:

- Rods: Also called bacilli, these look like microscopic sausage-shaped objects.
- Cocci: These are spherical and can exist in pairs, chains, tetrads or cubical packets.

By Gram stain, bacteria are either:

- Gram-positive: These have a thick cell wall, so retain crystal violet stain well when viewed under the microscope.
- Gram-negative: These have a thin cell wall, so lose the stain. They appear pink as they are counterstained with red safranin.

These descriptions are used together, so bacteria are described as, for example, Gram-positive rods.

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Gram stain procedure

The Gram stain is a crucial technique in microbiology used to differentiate bacteria into Gram-positive and Gram-negative. This classification is based on the differences in the structure of their cell walls.

Materials needed:

- Bacterial culture
- Clean glass slides
- Inoculation loop
- Crystal violet
- Gram's iodine
- Decolouriser (ethanol / acetone / propanone)
- Safranin
- Water
- Bunsen burner
- Microscope with oil immersion lens

Procedure:

1. Prepare the smear:
 - Sterilise the inoculation loop by passing it through a Bunsen burner flame.
 - Obtain a small amount of bacterial culture and spread it evenly on a clean glass slide.
 - Allow the smear to air dry completely.
 - Heat-fix the smear by passing the slide through a Bunsen burner flame.

2. Apply the primary stain:
 - Cover the smear with crystal violet for one minute.
 - Rinse the slide gently with water.

3. Apply the mordant:
 - Cover the smear with Gram's iodine for one minute.
 - Rinse the slide gently with water.

4. Decolourisation:
 - Rapidly decolourise the smear by washing it with ethanol or acetone.
 - This step is critical and should be timed correctly. Over-decolourisation will result in Gram-negative bacteria appearing Gram negative.

5. Counterstain:
 - Cover the smear with safranin for one minute.
 - Rinse the slide gently with water.

6. Air dry:
 - Allow the slide to air dry completely.

7. Microscopic examination:
 - Add a drop of oil immersion oil to the smear.
 - Place the slide under the oil immersion lens of a microscope.
 - The shape of the bacteria will also be evident: rods or cocci.

Results:

- Gram-positive bacteria will appear purple under the microscope.
- Gram-negative bacteria will appear pink or red under the microscope.

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Colony morphology

The appearance of bacterial and fungal colonies on an agar plate can also be used

Colony morphology is the visual appearance of bacterial and fungal colonies grown on agar. While it's not a definitive method, it can be a valuable initial step in bacterial and fungal identification to narrow down the possibilities.

Key characteristics of colony morphology are:

- Shape: Circular, irregular, punctiform, filamentous, rhizoid (root-like)
- Size: Diameter of the colony
- Edge (margin): Entire, undulate, lobate, filamentous, curled
- Elevation: Flat, raised, convex, umbonate (button-like), crateriform
- Colour: Pigmentation of the colony and surrounding medium
- Opacity: Transparent, translucent, opaque
- Surface: Smooth, rough, wrinkled, glistening, mucoid
- Consistency: Butyrous (butter-like), mucoid (sticky), dry, brittle

The morphology of a colony can be checked against reference samples or against

Selective and differential growth media

Selective and differential media are crucial tools in microbiology for isolating and

Selective media

Selective media inhibit the growth of certain microorganisms while allowing others to grow. This is achieved by incorporating specific inhibitory agents into the media.

- Examples of selective agents:
 - Bile salts: Inhibit Gram-positive bacteria
 - Crystal violet: Inhibit Gram-positive bacteria
 - Antibiotics: Inhibit specific bacteria
 - High salt concentration: Inhibits most bacteria except staphylococci
- Examples of selective media:
 - MacConkey agar: Selects for Gram-negative bacteria
 - Mannitol salt agar (MSA): Selects for Staphylococcus species
 - Eosin methylene blue (EMB) agar: Selects for Gram-negative bacteria

Differential media

Differential media allow the visual differentiation of microorganisms based on their metabolic characteristics. This is often achieved by incorporating specific substrates or indicators into the media.

- Examples of differential characteristics:
 - Lactose fermentation: Produces acid and sometimes gas
 - Haemolysis: Ability to lyse red blood cells
 - Hydrogen sulfide production
 - Urease production
- Examples of differential media:
 - MacConkey agar: Differentiates lactose fermenters from non-lactose fermenters
 - Mannitol salt agar (MSA): Differentiates mannitol fermenters (yellow colonies) from non-fermenters (red colonies)
 - Blood agar: Differentiates bacteria based on haemolytic patterns (alpha, beta, gamma)
 - Eosin methylene blue (EMB) agar: Differentiates lactose fermenters from non-fermenters

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DNA analysis

DNA analysis has revolutionised the field of microbiology, providing a rapid, accurate method for bacterial identification, but the technique is not available in all labs as it requires trained personnel.

Further your knowledge

16S rRNA gene sequencing is the standard method for bacterial identification. The 16S rRNA gene is a conserved region found in all bacteria. By sequencing the gene and comparing it to a database, it can be identified to the species level.

Limitations of working with microorganisms in schools

Microbiology is a vast and continually expanding subject that can be studied at a level for a period of 3–4 years full-time in dedicated laboratories. Therefore, carrying out microbiology in schools comes with certain limitations.

- Resource constraints
 - Equipment: Specialised equipment such as autoclaves, large incubators, and electron microscopes will be expensive and requires maintenance; electron microscopes will not be available in many schools.
 - Reagents and media: The cost of culture media, stains, and other reagents can be high in many schools.
 - Laboratory space: Dedicated microbiology laboratories with proper ventilation and safety often unavailable.
 - Biological containment: Labs and facilities within them are only suitable for certain categories of biological containment so restricting the types of organisms that can be studied.
 - Tissue culture: The routine culture of animal cells for growth of viruses is not usually done in schools.
 - DNA work: Techniques such as DNA sequencing and PCR will not usually be available in schools.
- Safety concerns
 - Pathogens: Working with potentially harmful microorganisms poses risks to students and staff.
 - Contamination: Preventing cross-contamination between experiments can be difficult in a school lab.
 - Waste disposal: The disposal of biological waste requires specific protocols and facilities.
- Time constraints
 - Curriculum pressure: Limited teaching time for science subjects often restricts the depth of microbiology studies.
 - Experiment duration: Many microbiological experiments require long incubation periods and checks, which can be impractical within a school timetable.
- Skill and knowledge gaps
 - Teacher expertise: Not all science teachers have specialised training in microbiology.
 - Student understanding: Basic concepts of biology and chemistry might be required before tackling microbiology topics.
 - Aseptic techniques: These may not be perfected to the level required to work safely in a lab.
- Ethical considerations
 - Animal experiments: Using animals in microbiological experiments raises ethical concerns and may not be licensed for such work.
 - Human samples: Obtaining and handling human samples for analysis can be sensitive and require ethical approval.

Despite these challenges, many schools incorporate microbiology into their curriculum through practical experiments, virtual labs, and external collaborations.

Your turn

Create a venn diagram comparing and contrasting the work which can be done in a school microbiology lab with that which would be done by professional forensic biologists. Think about how this affects the reliability and validity of any work you produce.

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Maintaining the integrity of the evidence



Key points covered

- Tampering with and destroying evidence
- Evaluating preservation of evidence
- Evaluating the chain of evidence

Tampering with physical evidence

Evidence is often transported between different laboratories and departments, providing an opportunity for a person to deliberately destroy, alter, conceal or remove evidence. A person is also guilty of tampering with physical evidence if they knowingly present or offer false physical evidence.

Evaluating the chain of evidence

It is important that the chain of evidence is regularly evaluated to determine its effectiveness in an investigation and to verify that the evidence is legally sound (see **Figure 3.18**). If there is any point, the evidence may be excluded from court.

Questions to ask and answer when evaluating the chain of evidence:

Collection:

Has the date, time, person collecting the evidence and location of collection been accurately recorded?
Has the evidence been handled by any unauthorised or undocumented persons?

Packaging:

Has a description of the packaging materials used and how the evidence was secured been accurately documented?
Was the evidence secured with tamper-evident seals?

Has an accurate record been kept of who analysed the evidence and the results of the analysis?

Is the evidence transported in a secure container?

Transportation:

Is there an accurate record of who transported the evidence, the date, time, and the mode of transportation?
Was the evidence secured somewhere where unauthorised persons could not gain access?

Storage:

Has the information about the location, access controls, and environmental conditions of the storage facility been documented accurately?
Was the evidence stored somewhere where unauthorised persons could not gain access?

Figure 3.18 Questions to ask and answer when evaluating the chain of evidence

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Effectiveness of preservation methods

Preserving the evidence from the point of recovery is vital for preventing contamination of the evidence.

It is important to evaluate the effectiveness of these methods to ensure the evidence is preserved.

Questions to ask and answer when evaluating:

- What preservation methods worked?
- Was any evidence contaminated or destroyed during any stage of the investigation?
- What was the cause of contamination or destruction?
- What would you do differently next time?

Recall questions

1. What should be included in the chain of evidence documentation?

Recording results



Key points covered

- Conclusions from evidence
- Possibility of bias in conclusions
- Quality of data
- Presentation of evidence

Independent variable – the variable that is changed in the investigation.

Dependent variable – the variable that changes in response to the independent variable and is the measured outcome.

Categorical data – data that is divided into groups using labels or names.

Continuous data – numerical data that can take any value.

Qualitative evidence

Photographs and videos

Used to capture and preserve visual evidence

Drawings

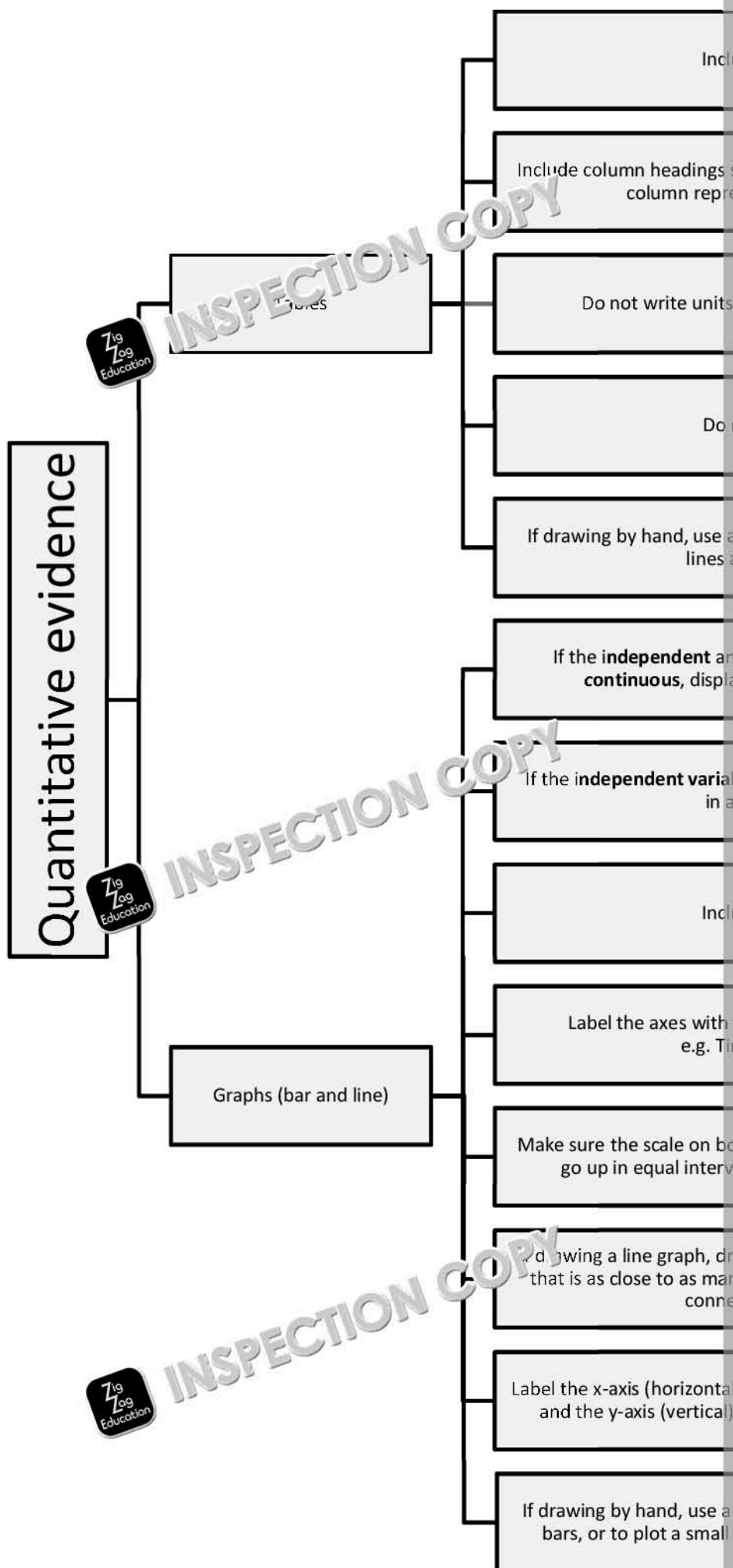
Create a visual representation of the crime scene to complement photographs

Crime scene notes

Serve as a detailed record of everything observed and done at the crime scene

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Section 4: Review the evidence

Identifying individuals from evidence



Key points covered

- Communicating results of analysis
- What a forensic biologist does

Communicating results of analysis (4.3.2)

Forensic biologists play a crucial role in the justice system, but their work is only effectively communicated. There are primarily two main channels for this communication.

- Written reports, which should:
 - Be detailed and comprehensive: These reports outline the methodology and conclusions drawn from the forensic analysis.
 - Be audience-specific: The level of detail and technical jargon can vary depending on the audience (law enforcement, lawyers, judges, or other scientists).
 - Adhere to legal requirements: Reports must adhere to specific legal and professional standards.
- Verbal testimony, which should:
 - Be clear and concise: Forensic scientists often testify in court, where they explain scientific concepts to a non-expert audience (jury).
 - Be persuasive: The ability to effectively communicate the significance of findings is crucial.
 - Stand up to cross-examination: Forensic scientists must be prepared to defend their conclusions under rigorous questioning.

Key considerations for effective communication:

- Clarity: Using plain language to explain complex concepts.
- Objectivity: Presenting findings without personal bias.
- Accuracy: Ensuring that information is correct and precise.
- Relevance: Focusing on information that is pertinent to the case.
- Visual aids: Using diagrams, charts, or photographs to enhance understanding.

What a forensic scientist does and does not make judgements on

Forensic biologists make crucial judgements based on the evidence they analyse. These judgements significantly impact legal proceedings. Here are some key areas where they make judgements:

- Evidence analysis and interpretation
 - Identification: Determining the nature of a substance (e.g. blood, saliva).
 - Comparison: Matching evidence to a known source (e.g. fingerprints, DNA).
 - Reconstruction: Determining the sequence of events based on evidence patterns.
- Evaluation of evidence quality
 - Reliability: Assessing the condition and integrity of evidence.
 - Sufficiency: Determining whether there is enough evidence to draw a conclusion.
 - Admissibility: Deciding whether the evidence meets legal standards for presentation.
- Estimation of time frames
 - Post-mortem interval: Determining the time since death based on factors like decomposition, insect activity, and rigor mortis.
 - Drugs and alcohol: Estimating the time of drug consumption based on drug levels in the body.
- Assessment of probability
 - Match probability: Calculating the likelihood of a random match for evidence.
 - Error rates: Estimating the potential for false positives or negatives in analysis.
- Testimony and communication
 - Clarity and objectivity: Presenting complex scientific information in understandable terms.
 - Defence against challenges: Responding to opposing counsel's questions and objections.

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These judgements are based on scientific knowledge, experience, and established procedures. They involve a degree of subjective interpretation, which is why the adversarial legal system includes cross-examination.

The role of a forensic scientist is to provide objective data and analysis. They do not determine guilt or innocence. Their job is to present the facts, and it is up to the legal system to decide the context of the case.

Specifically, forensic scientists do not:

- Determine guilt or innocence. This is the role of the judge or jury.
- Offer legal opinions. Their expertise is in science, not law.
- Make a decision about the case: They should base their findings solely on the evidence.



Formative questions:

Read the scenario 'Who robbed the corner shop' on page 2.

Select two pieces of evidence from the crime scene. Use this evidence to suggest which suspect is most likely to be the robber.

Suggest the relative importance of the results from the analytical techniques to the investigation.

Consider the following:

- The type of evidence: class evidence or individual evidence
- The relative importance of each type of evidence



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Validity and limitations of techniques



Key points covered

- Advantages and disadvantages of forensic techniques
- Evaluation of forensic techniques

Advantages and disadvantages of forensic techniques (2)

Forensic technique	Advantages	Disadvantages
Appropriate staining	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Makes it easier to observe the cells and their components under a microscope. Immunological stains can detect certain proteins and are very specific, useful in identifying hair from a particular individual. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some samples may be destroyed by the staining process.
Microscopy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It can help identify and compare pieces of evidence that are too small to be seen with the naked eye. Microscopes can identify pollen grains and spores, to determine specific locations or time frames. Microscopy enables evidence to be analysed in great detail. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interpretation of results is subjective.
Culturing microorganisms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comparing microorganisms cultured from the crime scene to cultures collected from the suspects can help link individuals to the crime scene. Culturing microorganisms can help determine the cause of death. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Culturing microorganisms takes time and requires specific conditions. It can be expensive. Requires various techniques for identification.
Colon morphology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is cheap. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is not a definitive test.
Selective and differential media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It can give results quickly. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It has low specificity and can produce more false positives. Requires additional techniques for confirmation.
Serology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Serology can be useful in establishing the sequence of events. It can be used to exonerate innocent suspects. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Serological tests can be contaminated. Biological markers can be made artificially. Often, only a small amount of evidence is available. The increase in the number of tests has reduced the reliability of the results.
DNA analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High specificity and sensitivity: Accurate identification of individuals or even strain level. Fast results: Faster than traditional culture-based methods. Detection of unculturable bacteria: Can identify bacteria that cannot be grown in the laboratory. Comprehensive information: Provides insights into antibiotic resistance, virulence factors, and other genetic traits. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> DNA can be found in the environment. DNA evidence can be degraded. Time-consuming. Sample size requirements.

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Evaluation of the quality of evidence (4.3)

The quality of evidence is assessed and evaluated in terms of its accuracy, validity

Accuracy, validity and **precision** are critical concepts in forensic science, ensuring legal proceedings.

Accuracy	Validity
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Definition: The extent to which a measurement or an observation conforms to the true value of the quantity being measured.Relevance: In forensics, it refers to the correctness of identifying a substance, a person, or an event.Example: A DNA profile accurately matching a suspect, or a blood type correctly identified.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Definition: The extent to which a test or measurement measures what it purports to measure.Relevance: In forensics, it ensures that the evidence collected and analysed is relevant to the case.Example: A DNA test designed to identify individuals is valid for that purpose, but not for determining blood type.

Interplay of accuracy and precision

- Accurate but not precise: A measurement can be close to the true value but
- Precise but not accurate: Measurements can be consistent but consistently
- Accurate and precise: The ideal situation where measurements are both
- Neither accurate nor precise: Measurements are both incorrect and inconsis

Accuracy, validity and precision can be maximised by:

- Standardisation: Adhering to established protocols and procedures.
- Quality control: Implementing measures to monitor and maintain data quality.
- Proficiency testing: Regularly assessing laboratory performance.
- Calibration: Ensuring equipment is accurate and precise.
- Chain of evidence: Maintaining rigorous control over evidence handling.
- Expert witness testimony: Providing clear and unbiased explanations of results.

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Limitations of a single piece of evidence (4.3.1)

A single piece of evidence, no matter how compelling it may seem, is rarely sufficient to prove a case beyond reasonable doubt. This is due to several inherent limitations:

1. Context-dependence:

- A single piece of evidence is often more meaningful when considered in context.
- The interpretation of a single piece of evidence can be subjective and

2. Potential for contamination and destruction:

- If a sample of evidence is broken or compromised, the reliability of the results may be affected.
- Over time, evidence can deteriorate, making it less useful or even inadmissible.
- Evidence might be tampered with, through planting false evidence, alteration or destruction of evidence.

3. False positives and negatives:

- Human error or technical issues can lead to incorrect results.
 - Even with advanced techniques, there is always a chance of a false positive or negative result.
- False positives and negatives can be minimised by using:
- Strict procedures for evidence handling, analysis and interpretation.
 - Using known samples to validate test results and identify potential errors.
 - Employing multiple independent tests to verify initial findings.
 - Calculating the probability of a random match using statistical analysis.
 - Utilising techniques with high detection limits to ensure evidence is not missed.
 - Adequate sample size: Collecting sufficient material for analysis.
 - Protecting evidence from degradation.
 - Relying on skilled professionals to interpret results accurately.

4. Lack of specificity:

- Some types of evidence, such as fingerprints or DNA, can be found in many locations.
- Without additional information, it can be difficult to link a piece of evidence to a specific person or event.

5. Subjectivity in interpretation:

- The interpretation of evidence can be influenced by the expert's own beliefs or biases.
- Jurors may misunderstand or overvalue a single piece of evidence.

For these reasons, forensic investigations typically gather and analyse multiple pieces of evidence to build a strong case. The corroboration of different types of evidence significantly increases the value of the overall findings.

Formative discussion questions:

Read the scenario 'Who robbed the corner shop' on page 2.

Select one piece of evidence from the 'corner shop robbery' and discuss the validity of the planned tests (refer to your earlier answers in the planning section).

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Glossary

Accuracy – the degree to which a measurement or an observation conforms to the value being measured.

Agar – a nutrient-rich gel-like substance also known as a culture medium, used to grow bacteria and fungi.

Antibody – a protein that helps the body fight infection.

Archaeology – the study of human remains to study human history.

Asphyxia – a condition where the body is deprived of oxygen.

Bindle – a piece of paper that is folded in a certain way to contain and transport evidence.

Biocrime – the use of microorganisms with the intention to cause harm to humans, often motivated by revenge or the desire for monetary gain.

Biological – relating to living beings.

Biosecurity – a comprehensive set of practices and procedures aimed at preventing the misuse, or intentional misuse of biological materials.

Bioterrorism – the use of microorganisms with the intention to cause harm to humans, often motivated by political, religious or ideological beliefs.

Categoric data – data that is organised into groups using labels or names.

Cause of death – identifying the specific injury or disease that led to death.

Cell wall (frustule) – the outer layer of a plant, bacterial or fungal cell that provides structural support.

Circumstantial evidence – indirect evidence that implies a fact but does not directly prove it.

Class evidence – general evidence that can narrow down a list of individuals or objects to a general class, but cannot be used to identify a specific individual.

Colony – a group of microorganisms that can be seen.

Confirmatory tests – definitively identify the type of bodily fluid.

Continuous data – numerical data that can take any value.

Conversion factor – a number used to change a measurement from one unit to another.

Cordon log – a document detailing the time, date, who enters the crime scene, and what they see.

Corroborate – to provide support to a statement or theory.

Dependent variable – the variable that changes in response to the independent variable, which is measured.

Direct evidence – first-hand evidence, such as eyewitness testimony.

DNA – a molecule that carries the genetic information of a person and almost all living organisms.

DNA profile – a pattern of DNA used to identify an individual or a sample of bodily fluid.

Double swabbing – a method which involves wet swabbing and dry swabbing to collect DNA evidence.

Dry mount – a preparation where a solid specimen is placed directly on a microscope slide with a coverslip.

Evidence – material or information collected to investigate and prove a crime was committed.

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Excavate – to dig out and remove from the ground.

Exonerate – free someone from blame.

Fingerprinting – the process of using unique characteristics to identify an organism.

Independent variable – the variable that is changed in the investigation.

Individual evidence – evidence that can narrow down the list to a single individual to identify a specific suspect.

Isolation – separating a single type of organism from a mixed population.

Liability – the legal responsibility for a criminal act.

Luminol – a chemical compound that emits a bright blue fluorescence when it comes in contact with iron.

Manner of death – classifying the death as homicide, suicide, accident, natural, or undetermined.

Metabolism – the chemical reactions that take place inside the body that release energy.

Microbial – relating to microorganisms.

Microbiome – a community of microorganisms in a specific environment.

Microorganism – a living thing that can only be seen through a microscope.

Morphology – studying the organism's shape, size and structure.

Necrobiome – the community of microorganisms on and around a decomposing body.

Nucleic acids – large biological molecules involved in storing and expressing genetic information.

Nucleotide – a building block of DNA.

Nucleus – an organelle that stores the cell's DNA.

Organisms – living things.

Pathogen – a microorganism that causes disease.

Perimortem – events that took place at the time of death.

Perpetrator – a person carrying out a criminal act.

Post-mortem interval (PMI) – determining how long the person has been dead for.

Precision – the degree to which repeated measurements or observations show the same result.

Presumptive tests – preliminary tests used to indicate the possible presence of a substance.

Probative – having the quality to provide proof.

Rigor mortis – when the body's muscles stiffen after death.

Scene of crime officer (SOCO) – an officer employed by the police who collects evidence from a crime scene.

Suspect – someone identified as a person who *might* have committed a crime.

Testify – to give a formal statement under oath to a judge or jury to help establish the facts of a case.

Testimony – a formal statement given in court.

Validity – the extent to which a test or measurement measures what it purports to measure.

Vial – a small container, typically made of glass and used to hold liquids.

Wet mount – a temporary preparation of a specimen in a liquid medium, usually on a slide and a coverslip.