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Effects of Cell Phone Cameras on Police Working Behavior

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Abstract

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Recording police officers can result in distraction, fear, and false perceptions of law enforcement personnel when citizens upload the videos to social media, though little is understood about police perceptions of this phenomenon. Using evaluation apprehension theory, emotional labor theory, and emotional intelligence as the foundation, the purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore the feelings and experiences of police officers recorded by citizens with cell phone cameras while working. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with 10 police officers in the State of Indiana who were recorded with cell phone cameras. The data were transcribed, inductively coded, and then subjected to descriptive 7 steps, thematic, and cross-case analysis procedures. Key findings suggest officers experienced feelings of disengagement from duties when recorded by citizens. Results revealed concerns of professional appearance, self-reputation, and self-esteem. However, the study also indicated that the application of emotional intelligence and emotional labor from leadership could be used to assist officers in managing such disengagement. The implications for social change provided by this study include the development of training materials for law enforcement professionals who work through emotional intelligence while fostering opportunities for community engagement. For the public, this study provides an educational opportunity for the community to understand the feelings and significances of police officers who are recorded.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my late family members, grandparents Willie and Mary Williams, my aunt Marie Foster, and my mother Sharon Moore. During different stages in my life each have served as a source of love and inspiration. Finally, yet importantly, I dedicate this study to past, present, and future police officers who served the profession and community through justice, integrity, and courage.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

Chapter 1: Introduction to Study

According to Sandhu and Haggerty (2017), the police profession and its

operations are "highly visible" to the public (p. 79). In the 1960s, news cameras

recorded police officers abusing protesters during the Civil Right era (Brasell, 2004). In

the 1970s, popular television shows perpetuated police officers as streetwise individuals

who would go to extremes to arrest criminals (Placide & LaFrance, 2014). During the

late 1980s, the video camera became more portable, which made it possible for

individuals to record the actions of others undetected. In 1989, Barbour and Langley

produced the first television police drama reality series called *Cops.* The *Cops* series

portrayed police officers as professional and in control. However, 2 years later, this

persona was replaced by news headlines reporting the abuse of a citizen by police

officers (Chagnon, Chesney-Lind, & Johnson, 2016). In 1991, a citizen with a handheld

video camera recorded the infamous beating of Rodney King by members of the Los

Angeles Police Department (Stuart, 2011).

Since 1990, citizens have continued to use video cameras to record police

officers. Technological advancements in the 2000s allowed citizens the ability to record

videos using cell phone cameras. Studies have reported that 95% of citizens in the

United States own cell phones (Pew Research Center, 2018). Young and Ready (2014)

estimated that 80% of these cell phones could take pictures and record videos.

Videos from cell phone cameras have been instrumental in revealing unlawful

acts committed by police officers (Ly, 2014). Incidents that involved victims such as

Oscar Grant, Walter Scott, and Philando Castile are examples of police officer

negligence, misconduct, and preconceived racial beliefs. All three victims were black and killed by police officers. Oscar Grant was handcuffed and laying down when he was shot in the back by a BART Transit Officer. A police officer shot Walter Scott in the back as he fled from police during a traffic stop. Philando Castile was a passenger in an automobile and was shot after he informed an officer that he had a handgun on his person (Berman, 2016). However, other incidents have been recorded where the unexpected actions and behaviors of citizens have led to troubling results. For example, confrontations involving Michael Brown, Eric Gardner, and Alton Sterling ignited controversial debates among citizens, scholars, and law enforcement regarding who is right and wrong (Carney, 2016).

Despite negative media attention on the law enforcement profession, it is important to understand the feelings of police officers. Due to negative public opinion and social distrust toward police officers in general, nonviolating officers are regarded the same as those officers who abuse public trust. Therefore, it is essential that scholars and police administrators discover methods by which to educate the public about nonviolating police officers and the problems that come with recording them.

Background

Since the availability of portable video cameras, people have recorded the actions of police officers (Stuart, 2011). As a result, nonviolating officers have become apprehensive about answering calls that may develop into verbal or physical altercations (Kay, 2014; Noble, 2015). This study's identified gap in research is the lack of data that describes those experiences of officers who were recorded while working.

In the 1960s, news camera operators recorded and revealed video footage of police officers beating protestors during peaceful demonstrations (Brasell, 2004). This behavior occurred at a time when Jim Crow laws and other forms of discrimination used against Black citizens were common. State and local governments not only tolerated this behavior but also ordered law enforcement leaders to confront behavior interpreted as threatening to the social norm (Brasell, 2004).

Today, state and local government leaders have distanced themselves from the past practices of abusing citizens. Political figures who once supported abusive treatment toward citizens now call for investigations into police agencies that violate public trust (Marenin, 2016). Although the practices of abuse are no longer openly tolerated, the memories are etched into the minds of the victims. Due to such recollections, the public's perception of police officers remains unfavorable (Nair, Luqman, Vadeveloo, Marimuthu, & Shanmuggam, 2012). As such, citizens feel that their only defense against abusive police officers is to record them with a cell phone camera (Papadopoulos, 2014).

Videos from cell phone cameras have been effective in several incidents involving police misconduct (Ly, 2014). However, some citizens record nonviolating police officers in order to taunt and embarrass them (Valencia, 2015). Citizens upload cell phone camera recordings to social media sites, allowing viewers to scrutinize the officers' actions in the comment sections (Noble, 2015).

The phenomenon of citizens recording police officers with cell phone cameras may have triggered an emerging phenomenon of officers avoiding calls due

to fear of scrutiny (Valencia, 2015). Studies have shown that individuals will become noncompliant and aggressive with officers when spectators with cell phone cameras are present (Young & Ready, 2014). As tension increases between police and citizens, the United States Department of Justice has applied philosophies, such as community-oriented policing (COP) and procedural justice, to stop further problems. However, researchers have not conducted many studies on these approaches to policing when officers are engaged with aggressive and noncompliant individuals (Mastrofski, Jonathan-Zamir, Moyal, & Willis, 2016). Because police officers provide various services for the public, understanding how police officers view their work environment is important. A review of the literature has revealed that nonviolating officers may become withdrawn if the public heavily scrutinizes their actions with the use of cell phone cameras and social media sites.

Problem Statement

Police officers across the United States are experiencing a decrease in job duty engagement and an increase in job withdrawal (Roberts, 2015). Research has revealed that televised videos on social media will validate the beliefs of preexisting biases of its viewers. According to Placide and LaFrance (2014), the cultivation theory states that images can influence cognitive processes; thus, viewing reoccurring images on film and television can influence viewers' perceptions of reality. This misplaced reality can lead to biased generalizations against one group by another. Such images could reinforce the perception that all officers are abusive or all members of an ethic group are dangerous.

Researchers have shown that problems occur when recording police officers with cell phone cameras as they work (Kopak, 2014). For example, the presence of cell phone cameras can distract officers. According to Kay (2014), officers might feel more concern regarding how viewers will judge them and less concern regarding their safety. Although many police organizations across the United States have trained their officers in methods of bridge building and eliminating tension (Myhill & Bradford, 2012), Mastrofski et al. (2016) indicated that these philosophies are ineffective when citizens are in disputes with each other or the police. According to Mastrofski et al. civil control becomes difficult in a crowd, as there is a greater risk of problems arising if members of a crowd are aggressive, drunk, or mentally impaired.

Officers fear citizens will intentionally provoke a negative reaction so as to record the reaction and spread it through social media. Noble (2015) interviewed several law enforcement professionals and discovered that recording police officers while they work leaves them in an emotionally vulnerable position. Officers feel personally attacked when citizens upload misrepresenting cell phone camera footage to social media sites. In an interview with Noble, a police lieutenant stated that officers' view being recorded as "death by media." In the same article, a member of the Austin Police Association Political Action Committee stated that he believed that officers did not fear being videotaped, but, instead, feared the recorded footage circulating on social media. It was further stated that recording officers while they work has resulted in increased stress and low morale (Noble, 2015).

National news stations have investigated incidents of police officers

severely injured on the job as they second-guessed their actions because of recording cameras. Elgas (2016) reported that a female Chicago police officer was beaten because she refused to shoot a combative suspect. The incident was recorded on a dash camera on a police car. The officer was concerned about citizens scrutinizing her actions on social media. The officer suffered serious injuries and needed hospital care for 2 weeks. In another example, Valencia (2015) stated that a suspect overpowered and pistol-whipped a detective during a traffic stop. The detective, who wanted to remain anonymous, stated that he did not use force because he did not want people to judge him on social media for killing an unarmed man. During the beating, people recorded the incident with their cell phone cameras. After the incident, the footage was uploaded to social media sites where people made harsh and derogatory remarks towards the officer (Valencia, 2015).

Currently, no research literatures exist on the phenomenon of citizens recording police officers with cell phone cameras. In this study, interviews and field notes served as a source of limited data on the feelings and experiences of officers whom people have recorded. It was envisioned that the results of this study would be used to help build better relationships between police officers and citizens.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to explore, capture, and understand the lived experiences of police officers who have been video recorded as they work. This phenomenon has benefited society by exposing the actions of police officers who have abused their powers but has also condemned thousands of others. It is important to

understand the feelings and experiences of honest officers who endure hostile situations, as such encounters can produce increased levels of stress for the officers. When recording cell phone cameras are present, officers may become reluctant to perform their duties.

In this study, I used three framing theories (i.e., evaluation apprehension, emotional intelligence, and emotional labor) in order to gain an understanding of officers' experiences when confronted with evaluating audiences. This study produced findings that can inform the public and law enforcement professionals about the emotional reactions of officers who are recorded.

Research Questions

The research questions for this phenomenological research study are as follows:

Research Question 1 (RQ1): What are the experiences of police officers when engaged in possible hostile situations during which citizens are recording the officers' actions with cell phone cameras?

Research Question 2 (RQ2): What legal and social concerns do police officers have due to being video recorded during possible hostile encounters?

Research Question 3 (RQ3): How do police officers perceive that they modify their behaviors when engaged in possible hostile situations as citizens record them?

Theoretical Framework

The focus of the theoretical framework of this study was on the evaluation apprehension theory. Although the evaluation apprehension theory is the main

component of this study's theoretical framework, theories such as emotional intelligence and emotional labor also framed this study. The selected theories presented in this study assisted me in the examination and understanding of the lived experiences of police officers who are video recorded by cell phone cameras as they work.

Evolution of Social Facilitation Theory to Evaluation Apprehension Theory

Cottrell, Sekerak, Wack, and Rittle (1968) noted that people become distracted and experience apprehension while under the observation of others. In order to understand the feelings of police officers whom citizens have recorded, the evaluation apprehension theory served as the main framing theory. Researchers discovered this phenomenon by using the dominant responses of their participants (Zajonc, 1965). In 1965, Zajonc discovered that an audience would trigger natural dominant responses in individuals. The dominant response is an individual's natural reaction to social situations. The theory used to examine this phenomenon in the 1960s was social facilitation.

Several pioneer researchers discovered contradictions as they examined the phenomenon of social facilitation (Zajonc & Sales, 1966). For example, tests administered by Allport (1924), Dashiell (1930), Travis (1925), and Bergum and Lehr (1963; as cited in Zajonc, 1965) revealed that the presence of spectators positively increased the performance of test subjects. However, Pessin (1933), Husband (1931), and Gates and Allee (1933; as cited in Zajonc & Sales, 1966) discovered that the presence of an audience had adverse effects on behavior and performance.

Cottrell et al. (1968) studied the social facilitation theory; however,

different from their colleagues, they explored the influence of an evaluative

audience. They discovered that an evaluative audience influenced the task

completion actions of the test participants but that the participants showed no signs

of anxiety if the researchers blindfolded the audience. The results of the study

indicated that an evaluative audience does influence the drive of individuals. It was

decided that rewards, punishments, and the existence of an evaluative audience

were all significant to the evaluation apprehension theory (Hollifield, 1982).

Emotional Intelligence Theory

Emotional intelligence can be used to work through the concerns of an

evaluative audience. Thorndike (1936) conducted research on human intelligence, built

a platform to introduce emotional intelligence, and described social intelligence as

understanding the social experiences of people within a society and culture. Thorndike

theorized that intelligence contains several parts: abstractions, mechanics, and social

culture. In the 1980s, Gardner (1983; as cited in Aremu, Pakes, and Johnston, 2011)

contributed a vast amount of research to social intelligence, nonintellective behavior,

and intrapersonal skills in multiple intelligences. Albrecht (2006) summarized social

intelligence as an individual's "ability to "get along well with others and get them to

cooperate with you (p. 3). Payne (1985) originated the term *emotional intelligence* and

incorporated it into his doctoral dissertation. The name gained wide recognition after

Goleman published a book in 1995 titled *Emotional Intelligence*.

The Goleman emotional intelligence model was suitable for this study because

of its four domains of self-awareness, self-management, empathy, and skilled

relationships. Self-awareness refers to an understanding of self through inner reflection. Individuals who have self-awareness can navigate through their feelings in times of duress (Goleman, 1995). Self-management is helpful to those individuals who can control and display proper feelings during challenging or socially conflicting times. Self-managers uphold their social environments by resisting sudden urges that involve anxiety, stress, and anger (Goleman, 1995). Empathy refers to recognizing, assessing, and understanding the emotions of others. Skilled relationships are made up of individuals able to use the above domains at the proper moments to foster positive results during stressful situations (Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 2012).

Police officers must be able to project suitable emotions at the proper times in unknown and extreme situations, as other members of the public may be watching. In this study, I focused on whether recording police officers with cell phone cameras can induce stressful experiences. Recording police officers could result in feelings of frustration in both citizens and officers. If police personnel cannot regulate their emotions under stressful situations, their uncontrollable actions may have adverse results to the law enforcement profession (Nathawat & Dadarwal, 2013). Police officers and citizens could use emotional intelligence to reroute anger to a place of mutual respect and understanding.

Emotional Labor Theory

People use facial expressions and body language to send and interpret messages. Nonverbal communications can influence the attitudes and emotions of people and are important in regard to understanding the interpretations of police and citizen

interactions. The emotional labor theory, pioneered by Hochschild (1983), is a form of emotion regulation.

Professions that involve emotional labor are those that require (a) close and personal contact with the public, (b) personal engagement that changes behaviors in others, (c) and the ability to control one's behavior and emotions through professional restrictions (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) created two strategies within emotional labor: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting involves suppressing inner feelings and emotions in order to respond to an organization's rule or policy. Deep acting is an individual's ability to change his or her emotions to fit an employment situation or an organizational rule (Hochschild, 1983).

Nature of the Study

This study included a qualitative, phenomenological design that was used to explore the lived experiences of police officers who were video recorded while performing their duties. Although quantitative and mixed-method approaches received consideration for this study, both lacked the exploratory concepts of the qualitative approach. The phenomenological design was the best to capture the descriptive feelings of police officers who have experienced the phenomenon of being video recorded (see Creswell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994). Exploring the experiences of participants through retrospective reflection is instrumental in understanding their emotional and psychological involvement with a phenomenon (see Patton, 2002).

The purposeful/criterion and snowball sampling strategies were suitable for this study. The data collection included interviews, field notes, and supporting documents

(see Creswell, 2013). According to Moustakas (1994), purposeful/criterion sampling is most effective when all of the participants experience a phenomenon in a similar matter. The snowball sampling strategy allows data from participants who were referred by other participants (see Patton, 2002). I manually coded common themes from the data compiled from the participants.

A qualitative data analysis involves analyzing and exploring fresh data to gain a deeper understanding of the participant's experience with the phenomenon. A line-by-line analysis of field notes and interview transcripts revealed data that was coded into emerging themes (see Sharp, 2017). I transcribed words and phrases into descriptively explained themes (see Finfgeld-Connett, 2014). The results from such findings revealed the commonality of how the participants experienced the phenomenon (see Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009).

Definitions

The following words accompanied by their definitions are used clarify their meaning throughout this study.

Bracketing: The removal of any information or knowledge about a previous experience while exploring the details of a new experience (Chan, Fung, & Chien, 2013).

Camera witnessing: A term used by those individuals who record the actions of police officers (Papadopoulos, 2014).

Epoché: The intentional separation of the biases and presumptions of a researcher. The focus of this method is on exploring data as first-time information

(Moustakas, 1994).

Modes of appearing: Anything that produces several different perspectives among individuals (Bevan, 2014).

Natural attitude: The ordinary, unreflective manner in which individuals engage their internal and external environments (Bevan, 2014).

Phenomenological attitude: A researcher's approach to intercepting information in a manner that does not interfere with the overall external physical environment (Bevan, 2014).

Assumptions

Due to the structure and information provided in this study, it is important to consider associated assumptions, limitations, and the scope and delimitations. The assumptions of this study are as follows:

1. Police officers experience stress, anxiety, and distractions when people record them using cell phone cameras as they work.

2. Police officers would participate in this study to voice their opinions about the phenomenon of people recording them using cell phone cameras.

3. The research questions were appropriate for gathering data on the participants' lived experiences.

4. The phenomenological approach was most suitable for this study.

5. Using the results of this study can promote positive social change.

Scope and Delimitations

In this study, I examined and described the experiences of police officers who have been recorded by citizens with cell phone cameras as they work. The data were collected from 10 participants through face-to-face interviews, news videos, and field notes.

The participant selection met the qualifying standards of the sample criterion. The first sample criterion was that the participants should have at least 1 year of service as a police officer at a municipal police department. Second, the participants must work in the patrol division of their departments. Third, the participants must have experienced the phenomenon of someone recording them with a cell phone camera as they worked. Excluded from this study were officers outside the State of Indiana, officers assigned to departments other than the patrol division, and officers with less than 1 year of experience in law enforcement.

The lead framing theory for this study was the evaluation apprehension theory; however, the induced blindness theory also received consideration. The induced blindness theory supports using a stimulus to distract individuals. Dixon et al. (2013) noted that while an individual's cognitive process is working to decide the threat of one stimulus, another incoming stimulus could pass by unnoticed and leave the officer in a dangerous position. Chapter 2 includes a detailed description of why the evaluation apprehension theory was a suitable framework theory for this study.

Recording the essential stages of the study serves to manage transferability. Transferability in a qualitative study helps to increase the validity of the data

(Cope, 2014). Consistency is necessary when analyzing data to report results

(Sousa, 2014). As there were geographical limits on the participants, this study

may reveal conflicting results in transferability.

Limitations

Limitations in academic research are necessary in order to identify research

boundaries (see Simon & Goes, 2013). The first identified research boundary is

understanding that transferability may not produce the same results in geographical

locations different from the original study site. A second identified research boundary

is research bias. Research bias is a challenge experienced by all researchers (see

Patton, 2002). Managing research bias in this study involved using the methods of

approaching the study with a phenomenological attitude of epoché and bracketing.

Epoché is the intentional separation of the biases and presumptions of a researcher.

The focus of this method is on exploring data as first-time information (see Moustakas,

1994). The use of bracketing is necessary because it removes any information or

knowledge about the phenomenon consciously while exploring the new experience.

Researchers perform the bracketing method so that they can accept all information as

fresh and new experiences from the views of the participants (Chan et al., 2013). For

an accurate analysis, it is important that the data come only from the opinions and

experiences of the participants.

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Significance of the Study

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According to Noble (2015), problems have emerged from cell phone video

recordings of police officers. The purpose of this study is not to stop the recordings

but to understand the experiences and feelings of nonviolating officers who are recorded as they work. Cell phone video recordings have been instrumental in identifying and bringing to justice abusive, violating officers. Although exposing immoral officers is a step toward social change, the public needs to consider that the majority of officers are law abiding. Ali and Fahmy (2013) noted that citizens who record the actions of officers and run news stations on social media do not have the same publishing standards as the mainstream media. Citizens are not obligated to obey gatekeeping practices and will report stories based on their biased positions (Ali & Fahmy, 2013).

A possible result of such media reporting has given life to the anecdotal Ferguson Effect (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). The origin of the Ferguson Effect stems from the 2014 police shooting of Michael Brown of Ferguson, Missouri. The theory supporting the Ferguson Effect suggests that negative publicity is the reason that officers have become reluctant to perform proactive law enforcement duties (Wolfe & Nix, 2016).

According to Wolfe and Nix (2016), police officers fear being accused of misconduct and racial profiling. Morin, Parker, Stepler, and Mercer (2017) revealed that three quarters of law enforcement officers in the United States are hesitant to use necessary force on combative persons because of increased scrutiny. It was reported that 72% of the police respondents stated that they were reluctant to engage suspicious persons (Madhani, 2017). It is suspected that this method of de-policing has led to upsurges in crime in urban communities (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Although this

assumption is based on empirical or anecdotal observations, people react to what they see in the media (Placide & LaFrance, 2014).

Placide and LaFrance (2014) reported that media can shape the perceptions of the public. Media of crime genres especially has the ability to affect the perceptions of viewers by lowering their social trust and overestimating what viewers consider to be wrongdoing (Placide & LaFrance, 2014). To further complicate issues of video recording police officers, the American Civil Liberties Union has developed a recording app for cell phones. The California Chapter of the ACLU has made available to the public a cell phone app that is used to record police officers as they work. The app will send video recording to the servers of the ACLU. The name of the app is "Mobile Justice CA." The executive director of the California Chapter, Hector Villagra, stated that the app is presently targeted at individuals in high population areas, but is expected to expand (as cited in Dobuzinski, 2015).

Due to the public's distrust, nonviolating officers and police administrators are seeking methods to correct the problem. Body cameras are a popular choice among law enforcement leaders and the public. However, some body camera programs have left police leaders with dilemmas that can adversely affect their organizations. According to Miller and Toliver (2014), there is more to reflect on than just imposing a body camera program. Legal issues regarding what and when to record are a concern to the public. Consent to record in areas believed private will be a challenge for law enforcement if citizens deny consent and situations turns hostile.

According to Miller and Toliver (2014), the biggest drawback in carrying out a

body camera program is the cost related to buying the equipment, maintenance, licenses, and storage. The average cost for each body camera is $150 to $2,000. Some law enforcement leaders refer to the cost of storage as crippling and a depletion of an already limited budget (Police Executive Research Forum, 2014).

Until law enforcement leadership commits to buying body cameras, patrol officers will continue to make decisions that citizens will record using cell phone cameras. As the public scrutinizes police officers, many officers are choosing to neglect safety and avoid making arrests in order to look favorable on camera (Kay, 2014). This behavior is the result of using the framing theory of evaluation apprehension, where officers may experience stress and anxiety because of an evaluative audience. Chapter 2 includes a discussion of literature associated with this theory.

Identifying the benefits of social change through this study is important. The law enforcement profession is under great scrutiny because of the various actions of police officers. Insights from this study might aid readers in understanding the fears and cognitive processes of officers recorded during potentially hostile calls. The public should not generalize interactions with law enforcement officers but should examine them on an individual basis. Diplomatic communication and transparency from officers could be a means of increasing social change to create a better understanding between law enforcement officers and the public.

Summary

Video recordings of police officers have been available to the public since the

1960s. As time has passed, the complexity of and the reasons for such recordings have increased. Exchanges of personal opinions have led to distrust between police officers and citizens. Due to this distrust, citizens are arming themselves with cell phone cameras and recording the actions of police officers as they perform their duties. However, due to the potential reach of social media, police officers fear negative evaluations and scrutiny of cell phone camera recordings.

Despite the reoccurring negative content of national news and social media, not all images viewed reflect police misconduct. In this qualitative study, I focused on the feelings and experiences of police officers recorded by cell phone cameras. Chapter 2 includes a thorough and comprehensive explanation of this study. In this study, I used the framing theories of evaluation apprehension, emotional intelligence, and emotional labor to increase the understanding of police officers' reactions to the phenomenon of recording officers with cell phone cameras. It is important to understand the theoretical and practical contents of this study, as I sought to fill gaps in research and advance social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to fill the gap in research regarding a new phenomenon of citizens using their privately owned cell phone cameras to record the actions of police officers. Young and Ready (2014) discovered that 91% of adults and 78% of teenagers use a cell phone daily. Anderson &Jiang (2018) indicated that 95% of teens have access to cell phones that could take pictures and recorded video. Anderson and Jiang also stated that 45% of those teens frequently use their cell phones on social media sites. Recording the actions of police officers has both advantages and disadvantages. An advantage is that the video footage can disclose information as it occurs. Video recordings have been useful in clearing up accusations of police misconduct or confirming that a violation of misconduct took place. The disadvantages are that social media and technology can unfairly influence public opinion.

Wilson and Serisier (2010) noted that individuals who record the actions of police officers have the ability to alter and manipulate recorded video using background music, biased narration, and scene slicing. Due to these issues, officers fear that altered videos may deliver a false impression of them. As such, officers are showing signs of discomfort and apprehension as they perform their duties in the presence of spectators who are recording their actions with cell phone cameras (Kopak, 2014).

Some individuals use social media sites and blogs to bring unwanted and embarrassing attention to the law enforcement profession. As a result, officers avoid citizen contact when possible. Researchers have attributed the evasion of unpleasant

encounters to avoidance learning (Sheynin et al., 2013; Zajonc, 1965). Another

documented problem that cell phone cameras impose on law enforcement officers is the

possibility of distraction. According to Kay (2014), officers will base their actions on

the recorded contents of a cell phone camera instead of properly handling the problem

before them. According to Roberts (2015), James Comey, the former director of the

Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), expressed concerns about what distracts officers

and the extent officers will go to in order to avoid confrontations with the public. At the

University of Chicago, Comey stated that police officers feel that people intentionally

provoke them into altercations so they can record their actions and post them on social

media (as cited in Roberts, 2015). In situations that require strict attention, distractions

can create apprehension. As anxiety levels increase, so do distractions, thus making it

difficult to focus on goal-directed information (Renden et al., 2014).

Camera witnessing is a term used by those individuals who record the actions of

police officers (Papadopoulos, 2014). According to Papadopoulos (2014), many

individuals who record the actions of police officers feel as if they are trying to create a

virtual movement of social change. The idea could be comparable to the 1960s civil

rights movement and its effect on national news networks (Brasell, 2004). During those

historic and turbulent times of race relations and the struggle for equality, attacks by

police officers on Blacks in the United States were common (Brasell, 2004). Although

the origin of this common practice existed prior to the 20th century, the first televised

images available for public viewing existed in 1963 (Brasell, 2004).

On March 7, 1963, in Birmingham, Alabama, national news media revealed

to the world the seriousness of the racial division that existed in the United States

(Brasell, 2004). Televised video footage of police officers beating peaceful

protesters caught the attention of the world as national political leadership searched

for resolutions to the crisis (Brasell, 2004). According to Garrow (1978), political

leadership in the United States opposed the inhumane treatment of Black people

only after national news stations televised the images of abuse. Due to such negative

political exposure, the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Bill became certain (see

Garrow, 1978).

About 28 years after the first televised images of police brutality emerged, the

controversial Rodney King video propelled similar feelings, as the public once again

witnessed government abuse toward U.S. citizens (Stuart, 2011). Advances in

technology have enabled citizens to record the actions of police officers as they interact

with people. On New Year's Day 2009, Bay Area Rapid Transit police officer John

Mehserle shot and killed unarmed Oscar Grant as he lay face down on the ground with

his hands behind his back (Taylor, 2013). Several commuters witnessed the incident and

recorded the confrontation with their cell phone cameras. Due to advances in

technology, people can not only record videos but quickly upload them to YouTube and

other social media sites for public viewing and evaluation (Taylor, 2013).

Capturing the illicit actions of police officers on video can assist in using social

media to bring awareness to one social problem; however, another social problem may

be forming in its place. People who view video footage will internalize the information.

Placide and LaFrance (2014) noted that individuals who view the contents of crime

could develop lower levels of social trust.

The purpose of this phenomenological research study was to provide deeper insight into the feelings and experiences of police officers recorded by citizen-owned cell phone cameras. However, a shared emphasis on the historic reasons for citizens' distrust of police officers and the modern influence of social media on citizen–police relations is necessary. The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows: literature search strategy, theoretical foundation, information related to subsections of police culture and social media, and a summary.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature search strategy for this study consisted of exploring various databases accessible by the Walden University library, including EBSCO, Sage, JSTOR, Google Scholar, Emerald, and Thoreau Multi Database Search. The terms and keywords used in this literature search strategy included *cell phone, police, surveillance, police culture, social media, stress, police misconduct, evaluation apprehension, social facilitation, emotional intelligence, emotional labor,* and *anger aggression.* Other information sources searched included subject-related websites, YouTube videos, and referencing articles.

Theoretical Foundation

The purpose of this study was to examine and understand the lived experiences of police officers recorded by citizen-owned cell phone cameras. The phenomenological approach used is suitable to exploring and capturing the essences of the human characteristics of thinking, feeling, and acting (see Bansal & Corley,

2012). The focus of the theoretical framework of this study was on the social

facilitation theory and its evolution to the evaluation apprehension theory. Although

the evaluation apprehension theory supported the premise of the theoretical

framework, theories such as emotional intelligence and emotional labor was also

used to frame this study.

Social Facilitation Theory and Evaluation Apprehension Theory

Cottrell et al. (1968) noted that people become distracted and experience

apprehension while under the observation of others. To understand the feelings of

police officers whom citizens have recorded, the evaluation apprehension theory served

as the framing theory for this study. Several researchers discovered this phenomenon

using the dominant responses of their participants (Zajonc, 1965). In 1965, Zajonc

discovered that a stimulus would trigger natural dominant responses in individuals. The

dominant response is an individual's natural reaction to social situations. The theory

used to investigate this phenomenon in the 1960s was social facilitation.

Social facilitation is the oldest experimental study in social psychology

(Zajonc, 1965) and has served as a point of origin for many relevant studies (Cottrell

et al., 1968). Several pioneer researchers discovered contradictions as they examined

the phenomenon of social facilitation (Zajonc & Sales, 1966). For example, tests

administered by researchers Allport, Dashiell, Travis, and Bergum and Lehr revealed

that the presence of spectators positively increased the performance of test subjects

(Zajonc, 1965). However, Pessin (1933), Husband (1933), and Gates and Allee (1933)

discovered that the presence of an audience had adverse effects on behavior and

performance (as cited in Zajonc & Sales, 1966).

Cottrell et al. (1968) studied the social facilitation theory; however, different from their colleagues, they explored the influence of an evaluative audience. An evaluative audience influenced the task completion actions of test participants, but participants showed no signs of anxiety if the researchers blindfolded the audience (Cottrell et al., 1968). The results of the study indicated that an evaluative audience does influence the drive of individuals. The experiences of rewards, punishment, and an evaluative audience are all significant to the evaluation apprehension theory (Hollifield, 1982).

Research Applications of the Evaluation Apprehension Theory

Leary, Barnes, Gribel, Mason, and McCormack (1987) explored how individuals managed their behavioral responses to social and self-esteems threats. The social self is sensitive to threats involving public image and reputation, while the private self handles threats to values, morals, and personal achievements (Leary et al., 1987). The results of Leary et al.'s study showed that unfavorable information about the self (ego) could cause individuals to become apprehensive about leaving a negative impression on an evaluative audience.

Leary et al. (1987) discovered that separate threats to one's social self or self-esteem led to increased apprehension. However, simultaneous threats to both esteems resulted in no change in apprehension. This finding indicated that threats influence the social self and self-esteem separately. The importance of the threat depends on the personality of the individual (VanDellen, Campbell, Hoyle, & Bradfield, 2011). Leary

et al. (1987) noted, "When both ego threats are present, individuals may respond more to one than the other" (p. 309).

Threats to people with high, but unstable esteem will increase apprehension and aggression (Kernis, 2005). Leary et al. (1987) determined that threats to a single esteem produced maximum apprehension. The measured single-esteem threat produced anxiety so high that no significant changes existed when performing conjoint tests.

Video recording police officers with cell phone cameras as they work is a new phenomenon to society and the law enforcement profession. The identified threat in this study is recording police officers with citizen-owned cell phone cameras (see Kopak, 2014). Kassin, Kukucka, Lawson, and DeCarlo (2014) discovered that officers experience anxiety and a sense of accountability when recorded. Although the experience is awkward for police officers, many professionals in the judicial system support recording police officers as a legal right (Kitzmueller, 2014).

The duties of police officers include interacting with dangerous people in dangerous situations (Webster, 2013). Police officers are in constant fear of lawsuits, personal injury, or worse by citizens with opposing views that conflict with the law (Kopak, 2014). Due to this fear, researchers have revealed that police officers often view citizens who record police officers as threating (Morin et al., 2017). This shared social behavior among police officers is indicative of how they view society through their work-related experiences (Brunson & Weitzer, 2011).

Young and Ready (2014) discovered that officers display apprehension when

individuals display disorderly behavior toward them while bystanders record the situation. Suspects often show aggressive and noncompliant behavior toward police in the presence of an audience that they would not otherwise display. Officers will continue to display levels of evaluation apprehension because of the systemic belief of a public threat toward police (Kopak, 2014).

Physical, virtual, and televised audiences all affect the influence of a person's dominant response. Miyazaki (2015) discovered that virtual and televised audiences produce similar results to physical audiences. Miyazaki examined the task performance of individuals who were responsible for identifying prohibited items in an artificial baggage screening. The experimenter told the participants that a camera was videotaping their behaviors (Miyazaki, 2015). The results of the study revealed that the participants carefully searched for items when the camera was on. Years earlier, Harkins (2006) noted cameras increased motivation, which resulted in an increase in dominant response.

In a study referencing televised audiences, Goold (2003) conducted a qualitative study to decide how closed-circuit television (CCTV) affected the behavior of police officers. In this analysis, police participants responded to questions that asked if CCTV had any effect on how they performed their duties. Most of the participants felt that the camera did not influence their performances; however, when asked if the camera affected their inner feelings, most of the participants responded affirmatively and noted that officers should exercise caution while working under a camera. The study revealed that undeveloped and inexperienced officers reported feelings of apprehension, stress,

and discomfort when being recorded. Further investigation indicated that stories of officers who had to prove or defend their actions when captured on camera fueled their feelings. According to Goold (2003), added stress could have come from supervisors who repeatedly cautioned subordinates about their conscious and unconscious conduct on camera.

CCTV has aided in supervising police and its effect on lessening the opportunities for police misconduct has been significant (Goold, 2003). Many would consider this a successful situation for all involved, but Goold revealed that, because of CCTV, officers were beginning to second-guess their actions when involved in potentially dangerous situations with combative individuals. Officers have also tried to avoid the camera as much as possible by avoiding contact with citizens (Kopak, 2014).

Kassin et al. (2014) researched the idea of video cameras influencing police behavior during interrogations. The findings indicated that police officers used common investigative techniques during mock interrogations. The study consisted of two participant groups: individuals told of the cameras and individuals unaware of the cameras. The informed police participants where cautious in following interview policies and guidelines as well as focusing on key cues of the suspects' guilt or innocence. Past research has indicated that accountability increases in the presence of a camera, which prompts a sense of evaluation in self-awareness (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Duval & Wicklund, 1972). Consistent with the evaluation apprehension theory, the participants experienced increased levels of apprehension when their dominant responses were under evaluation (Kassin et al., 2014).

The FBI has cautioned that video recording law enforcement officers will produce adverse effects in rapport building between the police and public (Roberts, 2015). Such adverse effects have resulted in police disengaging from their duties to avoid contact with the public that could possibly lead to altercations. Kopak (2014) warned that video recordings will continue to work against police and community relations as police will further display feelings of distrust and apprehension toward those individuals who record them.

Emotional Intelligence Theory

Researchers have credited the development of Binet and Simon's Intelligence Scale as key in measuring intelligence. Its origin was in classifying the ages of children (Kamin, 1995; Siegler, 1992). Stern (2010) refuted the scale's accuracy and made revisions by creating a mathematical equation (mental quotient = mental age / chronological age). Terman, Otis, Dickson, Hubbard, Norton, Howard and Cassingham (1917) introduced a revised Binet and Simon's Intelligence Scale, called the Sanford and Binet Intelligence Scale. The change from Stern's scale consisted of multiplying the mental quotient by 100. The Sanford and Binet scale remains in use to measure intelligence in individuals (Cravens, 1992).

Thorndike (1936) studied human intelligence in order to build a platform to introduce emotional intelligence. Thorndike described social intelligence as understanding the social experiences of people within a society and culture. Thorndike also theorized that intelligence consists of abstractions, mechanics, and social culture. In the 1980s, Gardner (1983) contributed a vast amount of research on not only social

intelligence, but also non-intellective behavior and intrapersonal skills in multiple

intelligences (Aremu et al., 2011). Albrecht (2006) summarized social intelligence as an

individual's ability to "get along with people" (p. 3). Payne (1985) originated the term

emotional intelligence and incorporated it into his doctoral dissertation; however, the

name did not gain wide recognition until after Goleman published a book in 1995 titled

Emotional Intelligence. The book became a bestseller among scholars in social science

(Ramesar, Koortzen, & Oosthuizen, 2009; Seal, Sass, Bailey, & Liao-Troth, 2009).

Although scholars consider emotional intelligence to be a new theory, its potential

is far greater than researchers had expected (Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, & Weissberg,

2006). The Goleman emotional intelligence model was suitable for this study because of

its research knowledge in controlling and managing feelings. This model consists of four

domains: self-awareness, self-management, empathy, and skilled relationships. Self-

awareness refers to the ability to understand self through inner reflection. Individuals

who have self-awareness can navigate through their feelings in times of duress (Goleman,

1995). Self-management is helpful to those who can control and display proper feelings

during challenging or socially conflicting times. Self-managers uphold their social

environment by resisting sudden urges that involve anxiety, stress, and anger (Goleman,

1995).

Empathy refers to recognizing emotions in others. Empathic individuals are

capable of assessing and understanding the emotions of others. Skilled relationships are

individuals able to use the above domains at the proper moments to foster positive

results and outcomes during stressful encounters (Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 2012).

Police officers take social science courses, such as human behavior and psychology, but many are unaware of the problem-solving benefits of emotional intelligence.

Police officers must be able to project suitable emotions at the proper times in unknown and extreme situations, as other members of the public may be watching. This study involved examining whether recording police officers with cell phone cameras can induce stressful experiences. Recording police officers could result in feelings of frustration in both citizens and officers. If police personnel cannot regulate their emotions under stressful situations, their uncontrollable actions may have adverse results in the community and law enforcement profession (see Nathawat & Dadarwal, 2013). Under such circumstances, individuals in both parties could use emotional intelligence to reroute their anger to a place of mutual respect and understanding.

Research Applications of Emotional Intelligence

Nathawat and Dadarwal (2013) studied the influence of emotional intelligence on negative emotional stress. The study took place in Rajasthan, India, where researchers rated police personnel on how well they performed their jobs under stress. The results of the study revealed that officers who rated high on emotional intelligence experienced low levels of emotional stress. Darolia and Darolia (2005) noted that police officers who have emotional intelligence can resist emotional urges, such as apprehension, anger, and stress, while channeling energy toward a positive result. Oginska-Bulik (2005), Matthews et al. (2006), Montes-Berges and Augusto (2007), and Naidoo and Pau (2008) provided supportive data that indicated emotional intelligence could assist police officers in coping with stressful workplace situations that might

otherwise become negative.

Officers who have high emotional intelligence have the ability to identify

threating stimuli. Darolia and Darolia (2005) indicated that emotional intelligence

improves the psychological and cognitive skills of police officers who face

stressful situations. As the public continues to record police officers with cell

phone cameras, officers must learn to maintain control of themselves as well as the

call for service (see Nathawat & Dadarwal, 2013).

Police administrators are not free from stress and problems associated with the

profession of law enforcement. Although the duties of the police administrator are

beyond those duties of patrol officers, administrators' behaviors must reflect those

behaviors of role models, as administrators hold themselves accountable for their

officers' actions (see White & Robinson, 2015).

Johar, Shah, and Bakar (2012) conducted a study on the significant impact of

leader personality on the self-esteem of subordinates. The findings revealed that leaders

with high emotional intelligence effectively and positively influenced the behavior of

their subordinates. Caruso and Salovey (2004) asserted that the influence of a leader

who has high emotional intelligence has the ability to change negative behavior within

the workplace. Johar et al. noted that leaders encounter individuals displaying

extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism personalities and must manage those

situations using emotional intelligence.

Leaders who display confidence through emotional intelligence can help boost

the self-esteem of subordinates (see Johar et al., 2012). Emulating a leader with high

emotional intelligence can change the culture of an organization through its subordinates (Johar et al., 2012). Leaders who display a positive attitude at the workplace often serve as a model for subordinates. Ajai and Avinash (2010) discovered that leaders with high emotional intelligence can provide confidence to employees while building human capital for the organization.

Ramchunder and Martins (2014) explored the association between emotional intelligence and the self-efficacy of effectiveness leadership. Their findings revealed that emotional intelligence has a positive influence on leadership effectiveness. George (2000) indicated that emotional intelligence is a significant element in leadership success and that the positive personality traits of such leaders can raise the level of commitment to the organization by the employees. Momeni (2009) also concurred that leaders with high emotional intelligence can use their personalities to shape their organization by increasing the emotional intelligence levels of their subordinates.

Self-efficacy and emotional intelligence have a positive influence on various effective leadership styles, except for laissez-faire, which is a hands-off approach to management (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). Coetzee and Schaap (2005) discovered a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. The findings in Coetzee and Schaap's study revealed emotional intelligence has a profound influence in decision making that strengthens relationships and promotes positive leadership.

Abiola and Salako (2014) researched the strained relationship between the people and police in Nigeria. Accusations of abuse, shakedowns, and other forms of

misconduct by police have stopped all forms of diplomatic communication between the police and citizens (Abiola & Salako, 2014). After a series of failed attempts to restore communication between the police and citizens, Nigerian authorities adapted the Community Oriented Police philosophy.

The COP strategy helps to build a bridge between the police and citizens while fostering a partnership involving communication, transparency, and a respect for one another. In the United States, this philosophy has yield great results in communities, as police and the public join efforts to find solutions to social problems. The police of Nigeria combined COP with emotional intelligence to reestablish trust among the public while addressing social issues (Abiola & Salako, 2014). Abiola and Salako (2014) revealed that carrying out the COP philosophy with emotional intelligence and organizational incentives has produced self-efficacy and increased performance among the police.

In Nigeria, Aremu et al. (2011) explored the impact of emotional intelligence on police corruption. Different from the above case, Aremu et al. incorporated emotional intelligence and counseling to officers as a method by which to ease social tension. The effectiveness of emotional intelligence emerged, as the results indicated that counseling and emotional intelligence can be used as a treatment for police corruption. The influences of emotional intelligence on corrective counseling can improve integrity-based policing and change psychological behavior through transformational leadership (Aremu et al., 2011).

Emotional Labor Theory

The emotional labor theory pioneered by Hochschild (1983) is a form of emotion regulation. Emotional labor is the suppression of an employee's true feelings which is exchanged for workplace behavior. Professions that involve emotional labor are those that require (a) close and personal contact with the public, (b) personal engagement that changes behaviors in others, (c) and the ability to control behavior and emotions through professional restrictions (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild created two strategies within emotional labor: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting involves suppressing inner feelings and emotions related to responding to an organization's rule or policy. Deep acting is an individual's ability to change their emotions to fit an employment situation or an organizational rule (Hochschild, 1983).

Morris and Feldman (1996) contended that emotional labor refers to planning, controlling, and displaying emotions during business interactions. They stated there are four active parts of emotional labor: (a) frequency of proper emotions displayed, (b) range of emotions, (c) an understanding of organizational conduct display rules, and (d) surface acting as it relates to controlling false emotions. In addition, researchers have stated that the effects of emotional labor on surface acting could result in negative emotions due to individuals' separations from their true feelings (Morris & Feldman, 1997).

Research Applications for Emotional Labor

Emotional labor is an important part of how hospitality and social service organizations perform. Lee, Ok, and Hwang (2016) analyzed how customer orientation and job satisfaction in the service industry relate to emotional labor.

Policies and rules require employees of service professions to govern themselves in a polite and engaging manner when interacting with customers (Lee et al., 2016). As mentioned above, the two strategies used in emotional labor are surface acting and deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) discovered that surface acting was counterproductive, as employees hid their true emotions while displaying false personas. The negative impact on customer orientation and job satisfaction had a direct link to the burnout feelings of surface acting (Lee et al., 2016). However, deep acting had a reverse effect on customer orientation and job satisfaction. Through deep acting, individuals can change their emotions to fit the demands of the situation before them, which, in return, promotes feelings of authenticity for the employee.

Officers in law enforcement must hide their emotions when confronted with volatile and dangerous situations. Such situations may involve angry citizens yelling obscenities and being violent while someone records the actions of the police officers. Due to the nature of such encounters, officers must project a calm and controlled image, despite what is happening (Policante, 2011).

Bhowmick and Mulla (2016) analyzed the influence and management of emotional labor on negative emotions. Proper management of emotions reduced or removed issues related to employees' behaviors for the benefit of their respective organizations (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016). Bhowmick and Mulla discovered that the display and proper application of negative emotions could reduce stress and burnout in individuals, depending on the circumstances and settings. Displaying negative emotions is favorable to police conducting criminal investigations. For example, authentic and

sincere displays of negative emotions from police officers have induced stress in defendants, which have resulted in the completion of open cases (see Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016).

Randolph and Dahling (2013) studied whether proactive personalities enhance the relationships between organizational display rules and emotional labor strategy outcomes. The results of the study indicated that responsiveness to workplace situations is a key factor of determining emotional labor strategies within organizations. Deep acting combined with proactive personality traits had positive effects on customer contact workers. However, if proactive personality employees discovered that the rules of the organization required them to hide or suppress their true negative emotions, then they would conform to surface acting (see Randolph & Dahling, 2013).

Supportive research from Pugh, Hennig-Thurau, and Groth (2011) explored the influence and affect of faking emotions on employee well-being. Surface acting created emotional issues that adversely affected employee well-being and work performance. Restricting expressions of true and genuine feelings when necessary will result in employee stress (Pugh et al., 2011). Consistent with prior research from Grandey (2003) and Judge, Woolf, and Hurst (2009), expressing false emotions can produce duress and unfavorable outcomes in the workplace. Judge et al. conducted a research study on emotional labor and its influence on personality traits. They discovered that people with the introvert personality type had difficulty working through emotional labor compared to people with the extrovert personality type.

Hsieh (2012) investigated the relationship between emotional labor and stress-induced burnout and argued that emotional labor does not always result in stress, but, when it does, the causes could relate to the physical and emotional exhaustion of resources as a negative display of rules creates emotional exhaustion in employees. Although emotional labor is not a direct result of stress, external sources of stress can influence how individuals interpret and process stimuli. The suppression of authentic feelings produces emotional exhaustion, as employees begin to sense that their feelings are less important to the organization (Hsieh, 2012).

Santin and Kelly (2015) explored how policy changes within the airline industry affected emotional labor and autonomy. The focus of the study was on how displaying negative feelings through emotional labor and surface acting resulted in positive outcomes. Like the law enforcement profession, employees in the airline industry need to be courteous, polite, and service-oriented when interacting with customers. According to Santin and Kelly, after the hijacking tragedy of September 11, 2001, airline administrators changed their rules on customer service. Although airline employees remain courteous, they also received training to detect uncivil behaviors in customers. Airline employees no longer serve as only emotional labor. Through policy changes, they gained the responsibility to embrace a new security-conscious culture by revealing their authentic feelings (see Santin & Kelly, 2015).

Sloan (2014) explored the effects of emotional labor and surface acting on public service workers. Public service workers must meet the expectations of customers by being polite and respectful. Although customers may not reciprocate the

treatment, employees must refrain from displaying authentic feelings that may conflict with workplace policy. Guy, Mastracci, and Newman (2014) studied how faking emotions could result in organizational burnout and poor job performance. However, a suggested alternative to burnout is giving employees the freedom to become emotionally involved in their jobs (Guy et al., 2014; Hsieh & Hsieh, 2014; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Giving employees an opportunity to demonstrate self-efficacy will result in high esteem building and workplace commitment.

Santin and Kelly (2015) discovered that unrestrictive changes in policies provided employees with the ability to address unreasonable and disrespectful behaviors by customers. Law enforcement is a profession where victims and suspects alike will exhibit unreasonable behaviors toward officers. However, despite such treatment from the public, officers are expected to use emotional labor with or without a change in policy. In addition, Santin and Kelly determined that a change in policy reflected a change in how to use emotional labor, which resulted in a decline of stress in employees.

Police Culture

The law enforcement profession is one of the most stressful professions in the world (Anshel, 2000). Police officers encounter random situations of heightened stress throughout their shifts. Unlike other professions, officers face situations that are threatening to their physical and mental well-being (Anderson, Litzenberger, & Plecas, 2002).

Enforcing the law and combating crimes can be physically demanding and

mentally exhausting to police officers. This shared experience among members of the professions creates a culture. *Culture* is a set of shared experiences, values, and norms that members of an organization follow to meet objectives (Brough, Chataway, & Biggs, 2016). Although this definition can apply to any organization, few workplaces share the experiences of the law enforcement profession. Many police agencies work within subcultures that have existed since the establishment of the organization. Subcultures are positive when they succeed in meeting organizational goals, but some police subcultures are negative and damaging, as accusations of abuse remain a problem for public trust (Weitzer, 2015).

Current events of alleged misconduct and abuse toward citizens have caused police officers throughout the United States to reflect on and reexamine how they interact with the public. Many scholars have researched police culture and have found that officers are reserved and apprehensive when dealing with the public (Kassin et al., 2014). Citizens and officers video record each other on traffic stops and calls for services. Some officers have gone as far as to avoid calls for service or provide substandard service to avoid possible confrontations with the public (Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

Clear issues of distrust exist with citizens and among officers. Attitudes of suspicion are a part of the police culture. Officers often use their hunches to solve crimes and save lives, but, recently, officers have been suspicious of each other for multiple reasons (Brough et al., 2016). The distrust in communities and departments has created cynical behaviors in police officers that affect their personnel and social

lives as they seek isolation from others (Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

Despite the problems that may exist between officers and how they feel about coworkers or their department, the subculture that remains the strongest is police solidarity. An expectation exists that officers will remain silent on issues concerning abuse, policy violations, and internal investigations. However, researchers have addressed the subject of changing this culture through the proper application of leadership (Myhill & Bradford, 2012). Police leaders must answer questions relating to problems that exist in their departments, and unlike in the past, people record many of the problems and forward them to national news networks and social media outlets.

According to Nair et al. (2012), the public's opinion of police officers influences citizen cooperation. The strongest opinion that influences public perception is the way that policing authorities address internal situations involving the abuse of and misconduct toward citizens. White and Robinson (2015) noted that change is evident. Police leaders must introduce change to the members of the organization so that they feel secure about addressing police misconduct as it impacts the future of their employment.

Social Media

Social media has provided mass communication to millions of users. Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, and Silvestre (2011) defined social media as mobile and web-based technologies used to create interactive platforms through which individuals and communities can share, co-create, discuss, and modify user-generated content (p. 241).

Kietzmann et al. (2011) separated social media into presence, relationship, reputation, groups, identity, sharing, and conversation. Presence is defined as whether a group can communicate effectively. A username indicate whether a group member is available for communication. Relationship is defined as the personal connection that individuals share with each other. Reputation is the public image and subculture of the group's purpose. For example, the business brand for LinkedIn is providing business networking opportunities for members and business organizations. Groups consist of members' abilities to form communities that promote their images. Members use the identity component of social media to reveal themselves through usernames and taglines. The last two parts are the most popular among social media users. Sharing is the ability to give and receive material and conversation is the way that the members communicate with one another (Kietzmann et al., 2011).

Integrating social media into the daily lives of individuals has made private and public moments accessible to almost anyone. Although positive content exists on social media, some individuals upload content that is harmful to the images and reputations of others. The law enforcement profession is not free from social media scrutiny. As noted in Chapter 1, individuals who record police officers are uploading content on social media sites, such as Facebook and YouTube, where people praise or criticize the officers for their actions.

Social media reporters post videos and information similar to news networks, and are able to use methods of gatekeeping as they decide what to upload. As a result

of these unrestricted gatekeeping practices, the spreading of information could be biasedly motived (Sveningsson, 2015). Sveningsson (2015) discovered that social media users refer to nontraditional sources for their news and that, because of personal interests, people prefer genre-based news reporting.

In addition, Sveningsson (2015) noted that individuals feel dissatisfied with traditional mainstream media and find satisfaction with social media news outlets. Mainstream news focuses on a strict delivery format, while social media outlets use videos, pictures, blogs, and opinions from interactive audiences. Cell phone video footage is popular in social media. Content from cell phone cameras has captured the attention of audience members under the age of 30 (see Marchi, 2012). Marchi (2012) discovered that social media outlets are the primary sources of news for individuals under age 30, and 80% of those viewers do not use conventional news sources.

Marchi (2012) stated that social media lacks objectivity. Participants in Sveningsson's (2015) study revealed that they based their judgments on the opinions of others rather than looking at the facts. Sveningsson stated: "Young people have been found to prefer opinionated rather that objective news, this being a reason why they appreciate social media as a news source" (p. 7). A large population of uninformed individuals could alter future relationships between the police and their communities. Until transparency exists, police and citizens will continue to see each other as a threat.

Summary

Recording police officers with citizen-owned cell phone cameras as the officers work has become a popular phenomenon. In 1963, the world witnessed its first

recording of governmental abuse through the actions of police officers. With many incidents to follow and advancements in modern technology, the cell phone camera has become an important tool. The theories of evaluation apprehension, emotional intelligence, and emotional labor, along with subsections on police culture and social media, were used to frame this study.

The purpose for choosing the three above theories were to provide a theoretical explanation of how officers experience people recording them while the officers are working. This study involved the evaluation apprehension theory to explain the feelings of officers recorded by the use of cell phone cameras. The emotional intelligence theory indicated how police officers processed their feelings of people recording them while they are working. Finally, the emotional labor theory rationalized the reasons and issues related to changing facial expressions and body language when engaged in stressful encounters.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

In this research study, I explored the influence of citizen-owned cell phone cameras on police officers' working behaviors. The purpose of this study was to fill the gap in the research related to the experiences of officers who are video recorded while at work. In Chapter 3, I introduce the research design and methodological procedures that produced the data for this study. In the subsequent sections, I explain the procedures of the research methodology and the rationale for its selection. The following section on the research design provides an explanation of the use of the data collection instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis. In the concluding section, I discuss the role of the researcher, the credibility and trustworthiness of the collected data, and ethical concerns that are applicable to this research study.

Selection of the Methodology

Understanding the experiences of others through research can be a great benefit for those individuals who are inquiring. The qualitative methodology is the standard approach to gathering, describing, and/or interpreting data based on the experiences of individuals. The qualitative methodology for this study focused on the descriptive particulars of an individual's experience with a phenomenon. Through in-depth, open-ended questions, qualitative researchers are able to elicit rich, hidden information about the experience in question.

The description of such rich, hidden information resulted in a comprehensive understanding of how the phenomenon was experienced by participants. The

exchange of open-ended communication between the researcher and participants allows a flow of unrestricted information to be used as data for the research topic. Qualitative data collection procedures involve interviews, observations, document analyses, and focus groups. Thus, the use of the qualitative methodology, design, and collection procedures provided this study with the necessary tools to gather and describe rich, hidden data that can be analyzed.

Research Approach and Tradition

A phenomenological approach was used to investigate the experiences of police officers who were recorded by cell phone cameras as they worked. Mathematician and German philosopher Edmund Husserl modeled the research perspective of phenomenology (Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). Husserl (1931) defined phenomenology as an analysis of how people describe the details within their experiences. Perception and personal meaning are instrumental in interpreting experiences. Researchers explore a phenomenon while actively investigating the experiences of those involved. The purpose of exploring a phenomenon is to make sense of its influence on the world (Patton, 2002). Husserl (1970) noted that personal bias has an effect on the human experience. Thus, personal bias can prevent people from understanding their state of true consciousness. Researching a phenomenon through the lived experiences of others can lead to a clear transmission of data from the object of research to the researcher (Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). The successful transmission of data involves a researcher actively engaging participants by listening attentively (Husserl, 1970).

Another part in the phenomenological research tradition is understanding

Husserl's (1970) method of transcendental subjectivity. Transcendental subjectivity

refers to a researcher's ability to abandon his or her prior knowledge and experiences

of a research topic. Moustakas (1994) studied Husserl's approach of transcendental

subjectivity and developed a four-step process that researchers could use to achieve a

fresh, unbiased perspective on a phenomenon under investigation: (a) epoché, (b)

phenomenological reduction, (c) imaginative variation, and (d) synthesis. Epoché is the

intentional separation of the biases and presumptions of the researcher. The focus of

this method is on exploring data as first-time information (Moustakas, 1994).

Bracketing is an alternative name for epoché. Its purpose is to remove any information

or knowledge about the phenomenon consciously while exploring the new experience.

Phenomenological reduction is the application of textual descriptions and

perceptions used to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. Textual and

structural descriptions are important parts of phenomenological reduction (Creswell,

2013). A researcher can use textual descriptions to develop data on what a participant

has experienced. Structural descriptions provide details of the conditions, situations, and

external environments related to how a participant has experienced a phenomenon.

Imaginative variation refers to moving beyond the basic knowledge and

understanding of a phenomenon. Phenomenological researchers must seek the

complicated meanings and issues related to a phenomenon. Creswell (2013) noted that

researchers must fully understand the experiences of the participants. Thus, a researcher

must identify complex themes through attentive listening.

The final step is synthesis, which involves compiling the data collected by the

researcher. The data provide a rich description of the participants' involvement with the phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994). Researchers must immerse themselves in their study and be able to share the contents of the participants' experiences with an audience. Researchers must not only explore the phenomenon but also understand the participants' experiences in great depth (see Moustakas, 1994).

Rationale for Research Approach

The phenomenological approach explores the complicated experiences of individuals involved in a phenomenon. Finlay (2012) discovered that researchers can use a combination of five conjointly supported steps to complete a phenomenological process: (a) exploring with the phenomenological attitude, (b) entering the life world (through descriptions of experiences), (c) dwelling with horizons of implicit meanings, (d) explicating the phenomenon holistically, and (e) integrating frames of reference.

Approaching a topic with a phenomenological attitude requires the researcher to accept intercepted information in a noninterference manner. The researcher must be attentive to not only to what is being said, but to the overall external physical environment. The phenomenological attitude demands that the researcher become part of the experience while fully understanding the experience (Husserl, 2013). When engaging the life of participants, researchers must also explore their personal world and how they process life. Through detailed descriptions, phenomenological researchers must understand the lived experiences of their participants and their inner-subjectivities.

Entering the open and unfolded life of a participant requires the researcher to view the opportunity as discovering a dynamic process rather than an inquiry (Finlay,

2012). Dwelling with horizons of meaning is how researchers analyze the content of gathered information. The process of analysis is complex due its interpretation of ambiguous information.

As information becomes clear to the researcher, it is ready to be separated into themes. Explicating the phenomenon holistically enables researchers to further seek rich, hidden data by unwrapping layers of information that would otherwise remain unknown. One method of explicating a phenomenon is through reflecting on how and why the world is intertwined with the participant (Finlay, 2012). As phenomenological writing requires deep descriptions of details, researchers must be attentive in recognizing deep, rich, hidden information and its influence on the life of the participant.

The last part of the phenomenological research approach is integrating frames of reference. Integrating frames of reference could produce an opportunity for researchers to raise further questions while analyzing descriptive data from similar or related theories. Since the purpose of this study was to explore the influence of recording cell phone cameras on police officers' working behaviors, the phenomenological approach was best-suited as it was designed to understand the deep, rich, hidden experiences of research participants.

Research Setting

Brayda and Boyce (2014) stated that researchers should set up a research site where participants will feel comfortable speaking about their experiences with the phenomenon. The research sites used in this study were public or university libraries

nearest to the homes of the participants. All of the in-depth, face-to-face interviews took place in a private interview room in the library. As confidentially is of high priority, access to the interview room was granted only to me and the participants.

The face-to-face interviews were the only data collection method for this study. If an unforeseen circumstance arose that prohibited a participant from attending a scheduled appointment, then an appropriate alternative date was offered. While studies have revealed that telephone interviews yield rich descriptive data based on the experiences of participants (Drabble, Trocki, Salcedo, Walker, & Korcha, 2016), monitoring and assuring the needed interview privacy for this study would be difficult via telephone. As such, no telephone interviews were used.

Target Population

The participants of this study were individuals employed as police officers in Indiana. Because the participants were interviewed only about their personal experiences with the phenomenon, permission from agency administrators was not necessary. The recruitment of participants began by speaking with officers who matched the following criteria: 1 or more years of service, assigned to the patrol division, and have experienced the phenomenon of people recording him or her while working. The invitation to participate was a verbal request from me. If the participant agreed to partake in the study, an exchange of phone numbers and e-mail addresses commenced so that the interview dates and times could be scheduled.

The Rationale of Sampling Size

The sample size and strategy of qualitative research is determined by the

purpose of the inquiry, participants, research sites, and saturation (Jones, 2002). The

purpose of this inquiry was to explore and understand the experiences of police officers

who were recorded by citizens with cell phone cameras as they performed their duties.

To fathom such an experience, a researcher must proceed through a series of steps,

bringing fourth the lived experiences of those individuals involved in the phenomenon.

Gilgun and Abrams (2002) stated that sampling logic is directed by the assumptions of

the researcher. Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014) suggested that the overall

sampling strategy should produce and maintain relevance to the framework and

questions as addressed by the topic. It was also stated that exploration of the study

should generate deep, rich information; the analytical boundaries must be enhanced

through generalizability; gathered information should be descriptive and believable;

and samples should be ethical and feasible (see Miles et al., 2014).

Obtaining a proper sample size for a qualitative study may depend on many

factors. According to Patton (2002), sample sizes that are too small could cause flaws

in a study by producing limited results on the participants' perceptions. Sample sizes

that are too large could run the risk of losing data through preparation and

interpretation (Koerber & McMichael, 2008).

Creswell (2013) noted that the number of participants in a phenomenological

study should range from five to 25. Dukes (1984) recommended three to 10

participants. Morse (2008) suggested that six participants was a proper sample size for

a phenomenological study. Ritchie, Lewis, and Elam (2003) discovered that a sample

size of 50 participants achieved saturation in qualitative studies. Although no definite

number of participants exists for a qualitative study, the number of selected

participants must provide a deep understanding of the phenomenon, resulting in

saturation of the data (Moustakas, 1994). If saturation does not occur, then additional

participant interviews should continue until saturation is met. The objective of a proper

sample size is to achieve reliable and fresh data and, therefore, saturation (Marshall,

Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013; O'Reilly & Parker, 2012; Robinson, 2014). Using

the information provided above, I used 10 police officers as the research participants.

Data collection continued until this topic produced redundancy and saturation.

Sampling Strategy

This study used the sampling strategies of purposeful/criterion and snowball

sampling to meet the sampling requirements. The purposeful/criterion strategy is

appropriate for this study because of its ability to draw a sample from a narrow range

sample. This selected sampling strategy provided a researcher with an opportunity to

select participants based on selected criteria (Creswell, 2013). Guest, MacQueen, and

Namey (2012) stated that the purposeful/criterion strategy eliminated subjects that

were not suitable for a study.

According to Creswell (2013), criterion sampling is most effective when all of

the participants experience a phenomenon in a similar matter. Patton (2002) stated the

criterion sampling strategy is best in understanding cases of individuals who experience

a phenomenon containing hidden, rich information. He also stated that the criterion

sampling strategy can be an important component to management. Deep, rich

information gathered from an analysis can determine an organization's strengths or

weaknesses. The sampling criteria for this study was (a) individuals who experienced the phenomenon, (b) years of service, and (c) work assignment.

The snowball sampling strategy delivers deep, lived-in data by asking the participants to recommend other individuals to the study who have experienced the phenomenon of interest. According to Patton (2002), the snowball sampling method begins by asking the participants if they know of any other individuals who would be suitable for the study. As the number of recommended participants increases, so do the possibilities of acquiring deep, rich data (Patton, 2002).

Snowball sampling is different from any other sampling strategy. It is often used to enlist hard to reach populations. Achieving the proper sample size depends on the relationship built with each participant. In snowball sampling, it is the participant who serves as the gatekeeper for the recruiting. It is the word and reputation of the participant that convinces others to partake in in a study (Ellard-Gray, Jeffrey, Choubak, & Crann, 2015).

Data Collection Rationale

The data gathering method for this study was in-depth interviewing. According to Kvale (2008), in-depth interviewing allows a researcher an opportunity to collect the lived experiences of the participants through one-on-one interactions. Brayda and Boyce (2014) stated that researchers should define and understand the type of interview used for answering questions. Cohen, Phillips, and Palos (2001) cautioned researchers about possible language barriers that may exist when interviewing participants from various ethnic groups. According to Patton (2002), it is recommended and acceptable to ask

interview questions in a particular order. Silverman (2013) indicated that interview questions should be probing in order to allow a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. In addition, researchers should make observations about the participant's body language, facial expressions, and verbal tones in order to ensure that the researcher has an opportunity to make adjustments to avoid participant discomfort and boredom.

Phenomenological Interviewing

The method of interviewing is the most prevalent method for collecting data in phenomenological research (Bevan, 2014). During a phenomenological interview, the researcher gathers information related to an individual's lived experience with a phenomenon. After the collection of the data, the researcher must interpret and understand the experience as it was lived by the participant. Husserl's (1970) descriptive perspective of phenomenology focused on how researchers examine a phenomenon by understanding the natural attitude and lifeworld of the participants. The natural attitude is the ordinary, unreflective manner in which individuals engage their internal and external environments. The lifeworld is described as an individuals' awareness of their selves and the world (Bevan, 2014). As phenomenological research involves the deep exploration of the natural attitudes and lifeworlds of the participants, researchers must approach the study with a phenomenological attitude (see Finlay, 2012; Giorgi, 1997).

According to Bevan (2014), natural attitude allows individuals to experience phenomena in multiple ways. The scientific term for this encounter is *modes of appearing*. A modes of appearing is anything that produces several different

perspectives among individuals. Failure to investigate a phenomenon without a phenomenological attitude could result in inaccuracies in the analysis due to insufficient systematic examination. Systematic interviewing assists researchers in identifying modes of appearing.

Interviews that successfully acquire targeted information are designed in clarifying concerns of the research questions and purpose. The design of this phenomenological study was derived from Bevan's three domains (2014): contextualization (i.e., natural attitude and lifeworld), apprehending the phenomenon (i.e., modes of appearing, natural world), and clarifying the phenomenon (i.e., imaginative variation and meaning) (p. 138). Contextualization is a researcher's ability to investigate the meaning and content of the participant's experience. Through descriptive questioning, the content of the participant's experiences will become rich and well-defined. As the description reveals the involvedness of the participant and the experience, the researcher can examine the relationship to the phenomenon and discover its constitution.

The next phase of Bevan's (2014) approach to phenomenological interviewing is apprehending the phenomenon. This places an emphasis on the researcher's interest in the experience and his or her approach to using descriptive questions to gather data. Phenomenological research uncovers modes of appearing among various individuals. A group of participants could experience the same phenomenon in many ways. Therefore, researchers must avoid just interviewing one participant or asking one question. The outcome could result in an inadequate collection of data, causing the inability to

systematically exam the data. The researcher should encourage the participants to use a form of narrative storytelling to provide descriptive content information. As such, the researcher must get the participants to elaborate on their experiences. The use of open-ended, probing questions to retrieve deep, hidden information from participants is effective in phenomenological research. The information must be descriptive in detail as it reflects personal experiences (Seidman, 2013).

Clarifying the phenomenon encompasses implementing imaginative variations as working components of evaluating and explaining the acquired data. Although the use of imaginative variation is common in analyzing the data from interviews (Giorgi, 1985), Bevan (2014) employed its purpose for examining the experiences and modes of appearing of the participants during the interview. In addition, Bevan stated that imaginative variation eliminates inapplicable data while preserving the original context of the study. Turley, Monro, and King (2016) agreed that researchers use imaginative variation in phenomenological analysis to clarify data. Also, according to Turley, Monro, and King, gathered data through imaginative variation interviews produce highly descriptive and rich information. This technique assists researchers in clarifying information of sensitive and difficult topics.

Collecting data requires researchers to use unbiased methods, such as phenomenological reduction. Phenomenological reduction is the researcher's separation of their personal knowledge and beliefs pertaining to the research topic. The methods of phenomenological reduction used in this study were epoché and bracketing. Epoché is the phenomenological attitude that researchers must use

to explore the participant's experience during an interview. Switching from natural attitude to epochè enables a researcher to elicit deep, hidden information from a participant's natural attitude, lifeworld, and modes of appearing. Bracketing is effective when researchers can disregard and remove their personal natural attitudes and lifeworld experiences from the study and rely solely on the hidden, deep information from the interview.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process began as soon as the Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved 12-21-17-0419547 for this study. After receiving the notice of approval, I engaged potential candidates in order to solicit interest in participating in the study. I got 10 eligible candidates for this study. Variation in the participants' years of experience, gender, and race was important for this data collection process. The targeted population for this study was police officers employed with one or more years of service, assigned to their patrol division, and who have experienced the phenomenon of people recording them while encountering possible hostile situations. I explained to each potential participant the details related to the topic and purpose of the study, his or her role in the study, the risks and benefits of the study, the structure of the interview, the interview methods that would be used, and the dates and locations available for the interviews. If the candidate agreed to become a participant in the study, then phones numbers and email addresses were exchanged. A completed biographical sketch questionnaire (see Appendix A) determined which candidates were suitable for the study.

After receiving the completed biographical sketch questionnaire via email, I

reviewed it to determine the respondent's eligibility for the study. Once a list of

eligible respondents was complied, I contacted each respondent by email with a

schedule confirming the date, time, and location of his or her interview. The

respondents not selected received a letter of appreciation thanking them for their

interest in the study. The data-collecting interviews convened for approximately 35

minutes per participant. The length of the entire interview process took

approximately two weeks.

The data collection method for this study consisted of semistructured, open-

ended, face-to-face interviews. According to Vogl (2013), most qualitative interviews

are conducted through face-to-face interviews. Face-to-face interviews were the only

interview method for this study. If an unforeseen circumstance prohibited a participant

from attending a scheduled interview, an appropriate alternative date was offered. The

face-to-face interviews began with an introduction of myself and the purpose of this

study. I engaged in a brief ice breaking conversation about the law enforcement

profession and then explained the outlined agenda of the interview, in accordance with

the interview guide (see Appendix A). The steps outlined in the interview guide were

followed: general purpose of the study and interview, purpose and presence of the

recording equipment, explanation of the general rules and interview guidelines, and

importance of confidentiality. According to Jacob and Furgerson (2012), the interview

guide helps to ensure that the format is the same for each interview.

The interview guide includes the interview questions. A field test was conducted

on the interview questions to determine if they could achieve content validity. Field

tests are administrated before submitting a complete proposal to a committee for

review. The field test was reviewed and approved by the members of an expert panel of

five Ph.D. instructors. The researcher created the expert panel based on the members'

practical law enforcement experiences and knowledge of phenomenological research.

All of the members are criminal justice instructors and experienced in

phenomenological research. Two of the five members are retired police officers. The

members of the expert panel reviewed and reflected on the questions from their

personal law enforcement and academic experiences. The expert panel concluded that

the interview questions would produce the desired results of gathering deep, rich data.

After reviewing the interview guide with each participant, I presented each with

a consent form for his or her signature. I audio recorded of the all interviews. The

participants were encouraged to disclose full details about their experience related to

people video recording them while working. The audio recording prevented a loss of

data through failed memory, mistakes in note-taking, and miscommunication (Patton,

2002).

While collecting data, I used field notes to support the phenomenological

reduction and bracketing. Researchers use notes to suspend personal judgment while

documenting the lived experiences of participants and conducting interviews

(Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002). The notes should reflect what both the participants

and researchers see, hear, and feel. According to Patton (2002), the notes should be

descriptive and include the time, date, physical environment, and dialogue of the

interviews. Researchers also use notes to recall facts and details about the interviews and surroundings.

After the interviews were complete, a professional transcriber transcribed the recordings for maximum accuracy. However, before releasing the recordings to the transcriber, the transcriber signed a confidentiality agreement (see Appendix C). After completing the transcription process, each of the participants received copies of the transcribed interviews for member checking. Member checking is a method used in qualitative research to ensure data accuracy. According to Harper and Cole (2012), member checking involves the participants reviewing the questions and answers in order to correct mistakes and approve their responses. The participants checked their responses in the presence of the researcher. If an answer is changed, then the correction will take place in the presence of the participant and researcher. After the member check cleared the transcribed data of mistakes, the participants received thank you letters for their participation in this study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the method of understanding gathered information for making sense of an individual's experience (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). The data collection method for this study consisted of open-ended, face-to-face interviews and field notes. After completing the data collection process, a thematic analysis was employed in order to further examine the information from the interviews. A thematic analysis is used to recognize repeated patterns in qualitative studies (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The patterns provided a descriptive account of the themes that

appear during an examination (Guest et al., 2012). I reviewed and compared the transcripts in order to reflect on the data, emerging patterns, themes, and categories. The emerging patterns and themes were hand-coded with the use of color markers. Once the themes were identified, they were placed in categories for further examination.

The reexamination of the themes and categories was conducted through a quasi-interpretative phenomenological analysis. Smith et al. (2009) stated that this process contains seven steps:

1. Reading and re-reading: While suspending the researcher's natural attitude, carefully read and reread the transcripts of the interview with a phenomenological attitude. The researcher must absorb self in the data.

2. Initial noting: As the contents of the transcript become visible, the researcher must record the findings as field notes.

3. Developing emergent themes: Search the transcript and field notes for emerging data that can be analyzed and converted into themes.

4. Searching for connections across emergent themes: Locating interconnecting themes for further analysis.

5. Moving to the next case: Working through each case with the phenomenological attitude (epochè) while bracketing previous themes.

6. Looking for patterns across cases: Discovering shared commonalities and qualities in cases by reading, reflecting, and continuing to note emerging themes.

7. Taking interpretations to deeper levels: While deeply analyzing the

themes, import other related theories as a source of supporting data.

The data analysis continued until the emerging themes and categories were

exhausted (Patton, 2002).

Role of the Researcher

For this study, I served as the research observer and instrument through which

all data was collected in an ethical manner. This study involved a triangulation

strategy of compiling and cross-checking the data through interviews and field notes.

In order to successfully collect interview data, researchers must appropriately interact

with the participants. The researcher should be mindful in regard to creating a relaxed

interview environment for the participants.

Establishing trust, respect, and the appreciation of different worldviews will

open communication between the researcher and participants. This includes

understanding and monitoring the research setting, focusing on the participant's

experience through attentive listening and comprehension, displaying concern and

empathy for the participant's experience, expressing interest in the experience and

phenomenon, and being attuned to any noticeable discomforts that the participant

may be experiencing. The interview questions should be probing, but not leading (see

Creswell, 2013).

Although the purpose of each question is to uncover data from the experiences

of the participants, data that is misinterpreted, intentionally altered, or one-sided will

result in a biased study (see Patton, 2002; Janesick, 2011). As such, it is important for

researchers to remain unbiased throughout their studies (Chan et al., 2013). Occasions

exist when researchers may have prior experiences with the researched phenomenon. In

order to ensure that the researcher meets the conditions of an impartial investigation, all

of the researchers' prior judgments and knowledge must be suspended. To this end, for

this study, the researcher incorporated the phenomenological attitude of epoché and the

suspension of prior experience through bracketing.

Issues of Trustworthiness

The validity and reliability of qualitative data are important to the

trustworthiness of a study. Researchers must reflect on the data in order to ensure that

their sources present an accurate depiction of the research phenomenon (Guba &

Lincoln, 2005). According to Stenbacka (2001), Davies and Dodd (2002), and Guba

and Lincoln (2005), research sources should produce results that are dependable,

credible, confirmable, and transferable. The purpose of validity and reliability in a

qualitative study is to reduce researcher bias. This study included several approaches in

order to increase trustworthiness and obtain dependable, credible, confirmable, and

transferable findings. In order to ensure dependability, the following was provided: a

detailed description of the research design (Patton, 2002), an outline of the data

collection procedures (Yin, 2003), and the descriptive structure of the research process

for the replication and audit of the study (Yin, 2003).

In order to gain credibility, researchers must explain the source of the data, how

the data was obtained, and whether the collected data was an accurate representation of

the participant's experience (Merriam, 2009). The structure of the research design is

another way of achieving creditability. By examining comparable studies, researchers are capable of ascertaining methods that result in data saturation (Onwegbuzie & Leech, 2007). The creditability of the content validity determines whether the pilot testing materials are suitable for research (Creswell, 2013). An expert panel of evaluators examined the interview questions and decided that they all were fitting for this study.

The last method used in this study to confirm trustworthiness through creditability was the member check approach. The member check approach provides the participants with an opportunity to reflect on the interview answers and make corrections as needed. The purpose of this approach is to validate the deep, rich data through the eyes of the participants (Creswell, 2013).

The aim of confirmability is to explore and understand the true experiences of the participants. Researchers must abandon their own biases and embrace the lived experiences of the individuals involved with the phenomenon. This study achieved trustworthiness through confirmability by using the method of triangulation. Moustakas (1994) noted that a researcher using the method of triangulation should have three data collection points in order to achieve trustworthiness: interviews, peer-reviewed articles, and field notes.

Transferability enables researchers to generalize their findings from one study to another. This study achieved transferability by providing descriptive details of the research assumptions, context, and replication strategy used within the study. As transferability rests on the beliefs of the person being generalized (Trochim, 2006), the

reading audience will decide whether the descriptive details of this study will produce similar findings in other settings.

Ethical Procedures

Ethical procedures were followed throughout the study. In preparing to begin the data collection process, I completed the certification training for the National Institutes of Health on Protecting Human Research Participants. I obtained IRB approval before interviewing the participants. After receiving approval, all of the participants received a consent form explaining their rights as participants in this study. Any of the participants who wished to withdraw from the study were allowed to. If a participant is experiencing stressful or adverse emotions during the interview, the interview will stop immediately.

In order to protect the identities of the participants, the interviews took place in a secure room at the public or university libraries nearest to the homes of the participants. In order to increase confidentiality, the researcher assigned each of the participants and his or her corresponding audio recordings, notes, and transcriptions with a code consisting of the numbers one to 10. All of the documents and materials related to the study will remain in a locked cabinet in the researcher's home office for five years. After the five year period, I will destroy all documents, materials, and recordings related to the study.

<p align="center">**Summary**</p>

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to understand the influence of cell phone camera recordings on police officers' working behaviors. The

focus of this chapter was on the methodological aspects of the study. The topics included in this chapter were research traditions, rationales, the role of the researcher, the participant selection criteria and process, sampling strategy, data analysis, the validity and reliability of the data, and the ethical procedures used in the study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to fill the gap in the existing research related to the experiences of police officers who are video recorded while at work. In Chapter 3, I introduced the research design and methodological procedures that produced the data for this study. In this chapter, the data collected from semistructured interviews were used to answer the study's three research questions: (a) What are the experiences of police officers when engaged in possible hostile situations that citizens are video recording, (b) What legal and social concerns do police officers express due to being video recorded during possible hostile encounters, and (c) How do police officers perceive that they modify their behavior when engaged in possible hostile situations as citizens record them?

The following interview questions were also used to develop the research investigation: (a) How do you feel when citizens record you with cell phone cameras? (b) What does it feel like to be distracted while on a call? (c) What are your feelings towards people who record officers while working? (d) How do you feel when cell phone recordings of police are uploaded onto social media sites? (e) Do you believe that cell phone camera recordings influence the behavior of the viewer? (f) What are your concerns regarding the social and legal issues of being recorded? (g) How do you prevent your true feelings from surfacing while being recorded under stressful situations?

This chapter contains five sections. Section 1 provides a description of the

demographic features of the participants and the setting of the research site. The second section addresses the process used to collect the data. In Section 3, the collected data are analyzed, organized, and decoded using methodological procedures. In Section 4, the procedures for increasing research rigor through trustworthiness is described. Finally, in Section 5, I describe the findings of the research study, which answers the research problem and significant research questions through the collected data. The conclusion of this chapter is a summary of the research findings and merging theories.

Research Participants

Through purposive/criterion and snowball sampling, 10 participants were recruited for this study. The sampling strategies targeted officers in Indiana who had experienced the phenomenon of being recorded with cell phone cameras as they worked. The selection of the participants was based on the expectation that they would provide deep, rich information (Patton, 2002). This sampling strategy was important to this study as the results from the collected data identified emerging trends and patterns during the data analysis process.

Demographic Features of the Participants

Table one explains detailed demographics of the participants. All of the research participants were officers employed with police departments in Indiana. The biographical sketch questionnaire confirmed that each participant met the criteria for this research study. The sample was comprised of 10 participants. Nine of the participants were male, while one was female. Their ages ranged from 26 to 57. Of the participants, six were Black and four were White. For the purposes of confidentiality,

each participant was assigned a number ranging from 1 to 10.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Identifier	Race	Gender	Age	Rank	Years in patrol	Years in law enforcement
Participant 1	White	Male	42	Corporal	16	16
Participant 2	Black	Male	34	Patrolman	10	10
Participant 3	Black	Male	29	Patrolman	7	9
Participant 4	Black	Male	29	Patrolman	3	5
Participant 5	White	Female	40	Sergeant	11	16 ½
Participant 6	Black	Male	26	Patrolman	2 ½	3
Participant 7	White	Male	32	Patrolman	3 ½	7 ½
Participant 8	Black	Male	22	Patrolman	1 ½	1
Participant 9	Black	Male	19	Lieutenant	18	19
Participant 10	White	Male	47	Sergeant	8	18 ½

The Research Setting

The interviews took place in private rooms at the public libraries closest to the homes of the participants. As confidentially was of high priority, access to the interview rooms was granted only to the participants and me. This location was chosen so that the participants could feel comfortable speaking about their experience with the phenomenon (Brayda & Boyce, 2014). I conducted 10 face-to-face interviews with the

participants at the agreed upon scheduled times. The face-to-face technique was favorable because it allowed me to capture deep, rich data along with nonverbal expressions from the participants (see Wengraf, 2001).

The face-to-face interview technique was the only interview data collection method for this study. Researchers have revealed that alternative techniques, such as telephone interviews, would also yield rich descriptive data based on the experiences of the participants (see Drabble et al., 2016); however, assuring privacy would have been difficult via telephone.

Data Collection

The data collection method used to capture the descriptive experiences of the participants consisted of semistructured interviews. Once the participants declared their participation in this study, each was given a participant identification number ranging from 1 to 10. The participant identification numbers were used throughout this study to identify and separate each case file. An interview guide was used to organize the details of the interview timetable (Kvale, 2008; See Appendix A). The interview guide contained questions that were presented to each participant in the same wording and order. The interview guide was used to reduce possible random questioning and interview bias from the researcher (see Gall, Borg, & Gall, 2003). Prior to using the interview guide, a field test was conducted on the interview questions in order to determine whether they could achieve content validity. A five member expert panel reviewed the questions and made corrective recommendations. Once the corrections were met, the field test was reviewed and approved by the expert panel.

Before the start of each interview, I reviewed the interview guide with each participant. This process was completed in order to ensure that each participant understood the research process and their rights as participants in this study. The setting of the interview was informal. I began the conversation with a humorous icebreaker to increase comfort and then began the interview.

At the start of the interview, I quickly reflected on my position as a phenomenological researcher. As suggested by Bevan (2014), I had to embrace the phenomenological attitude along with the phenomenological method of interviewing. With the use of the interview guide, I asked clear questions that were free from assumptions and personal bias (see Patton, 2002). Each question prompted detail responses of the participants. I listened attentively to each participant to gain a deeper understanding of the study through their perspectives (see Kvale, 2008).

During the interviews, the participants were given ample time to reflect on their experiences in detail. The interview questions were structured in such a way as to obtain additional responses through the method of probing (see Silverman, 2013). As the participants explained their feelings toward their experiences, I carefully took detailed notes (see Janesick, 2011). At the end of each interview, I asked the participants to assist in member checking their responses at a later date (see Kvale, 2008).

The following morning, I hired a transcriber. The transcriber received and signed a confidentiality agreement (Appendix C) via email. After received the signed confidentiality agreement, I provided the transcriber with an audio file that contained

the interviews for transcription. While waiting for the transcription, I reflected on the data collecting experience and reviewed field notes from the interviews.

Member Checking Procedure

After receiving an email from the transcriber containing the transcripts, I checked each document for accuracy. The review of the transcripts revealed that all 10 documents were free of error. A printed copy of each interview was prepared for participant review. Participants were contacted via telephone for their date and time of availability. Once a schedule had been confirmed listing the day and time of each meeting, I personally delivered a printed copy of the interview to the participants. The furthest distance to meet a participant was a 2-hour automobile drive. All 10 member check meetings were met without incident or rescheduling. The entire member checking procedure lasted approximately two weeks from the time the transcripts was received from the transcriber. A last review was made of each transcript before incorporating them into the study. As the member checking procedure concluded, I immediately began analyzing the transcribed data for codes and themes based the perceptions of the participants. At the completion of the member check process, it was discovered that no changes were made to the transcripts.

Manual Coding

Table 2 illustrates the codes and categories that emerged during the examination of the transcript's raw data from the interviews with participants. The table explains emerged codes, perceptions of the participants, and the participant's response to the code.

Table 2

Meaning of Coded Data

Code	Perceptions of participant	Participant's supporting response to code
Apprehensive	Participants expressed concerns about being video recorded.	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P7, P8
Unsafe	Distraction is dangerous in hostile situations	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P7, P8, P9,
Negative	Negative intentions are why citizens record officers	P1, P5, P8, P9,
Misleading	Cell phone videos and social media are misleading.	All
Biased/ Influenced	Social media influences the views of citizens	All
Negative	Does not trust video recordings on social issues.	P1, P2, P5
Self-control	Officers must us self-control at all times.	All

The chosen method of coding was the posteriori, inductive, context-sensitive scheme.

The posteriori, inductive, context-sensitive scheme allowed careful examination of raw

data while generating codes from the responses of the participants (see Saldana, 2013).

As codes began to emerge and categories created, I reexamined the transcripts of the

participants for language content and detailed meaning. Each coded category was

separated and identified by color markers. I reexamined and refined the meaning of

emerging codes and categories until exhausted. Once exhaustion occurred, I further

analyzed the codes and transcripts for developing themes and categories.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the method of examining and understanding gathered

information in order to make sense of an individual's phenomenal experience

(Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). After receiving the interview transcripts from the

transcribing vendor, I manually coded the data using a preliminary analysis by

examining it's content for in-depth themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). I applied the

method of phenomenological reduction while examining and comparing the transcripts

and field notes. Phenomenological reduction allows the researcher to be separate from

the study while engaging epoché and bracketing (Bevan, 2014). The method of thematic

analysis was employed to further examine the information from the interviews (Braun

& Clarke, 2006).

Throughout this examination, I replicated the descriptive seven-step analysis

presented by Smith et al. (2009) by listening to each interview audio recording while

reviewing the transcripts and field notes. I conducted a microanalysis of the gathered

data by repeatedly reliving the interview experience by rereading each sentence of the

transcript. During this process, proto themes became apparent and then were evaluated

based on their definitions and meanings. The emerging proto themes were crossed

referenced and made identifiable by color codes. I carefully continued to examine the

proto themes as they visually appeared.

The coded data from the interview was entered into a password protected

Microsoft file on my computer (see Creswell, 2013). The coded data was entered into

the computer by question number and corresponding theme (see Guest et al., 2012). The

conclusion of the thematic analysis consisted of carefully interpreting the descriptive

data from the emerging themes. The detailed findings from the emerging patterns and

themes generated the needed data sets and research conclusions for this study. An

evaluation of this study's analysis was conducted as the 10 participants were invited to a

second meeting to review how their responses formed the analytical categories for

which their shared perceptions influenced my preliminary interpretation (see Guba &

Lincoln, 2005). I met with each participant separately to share the findings of the

analysis. All participants concurred with the preliminary findings of the examination.

The second phase of the data analysis process consisted of a context analysis

(contextualization; Bevan, 2014). This technique was used to understand and identify

the context patterns associated with the participant's experience. I continued to search

further and deeper for emergent themes, comparing the similarities and differences

between the participants' behaviors (see Smith et al., 2009).

The third and final step of this data analysis was the cross-case analysis. The

search continued for patterns across the cases: discovering shared commonalities and

qualities. The objective was to read, reflect, and continue to note emerging themes on

each separate case (see Patton, 2002). The examination of data and emerging themes ended when new data was no longer produced. The search for new data discontinued as a result of saturation. Saturation occurred when there was an absence of new data, which was replaced by the reappearance of repeated results (see Fusch & Ness, 2015)

Two peer reviewers were used to evaluate the emerged data sets from this study. The selection of peer reviewers was based on their 25 years of law enforcement experience and their current assignments as crime analysis investigators. Both peer reviewers are criminal justice instructors with research experience. After the examination of the data sets, the peer reviewers agreed that the captured themes and patterns supported the findings of the study. It was determined that this theoretical analysis established that cell phone cameras could influence police officers' working behaviors.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

This study established trustworthiness by achieving credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. The method used to reach credibility was the face-to-face interviews. The openly discussed issues related to the phenomenon resulted in the collection of data from the shared experiences of the participants. After all of the interviews were completed and transcribed, the credibility process continued as the participants reviewed their answers for accuracy through a member check. According to Ravitch and Carl (2016) the member check approach is used to increase credibility. There were no changes in procedures from Chapter 3.

Transferability was established by the continuous use of note taking.

Detailed descriptions and replication were methods used in this study's transferability. I compared multiple results of case studies and literature to determine if data could be transferred to other settings. Ravitch and Carl (2016) affirm that descriptions and replications are approaches used to increase transferability. There were no changes in procedures from Chapter 3.

Establishing dependability consisted of working within the parameters of the outlined data collection procedures. The outlined data collection procedures consisted of reviewing field notes, audio recorded interviews, and transcriptions. It is important that researchers document the processes within the study. It not only aids in an appropriate data collection strategy, but also enable future researchers to replicate the study. The collection of data for this study was objectively obtained. The last approach to achieving trustworthiness is confirmability. Confirmability was reached when triangulation was used as a method to corroborate the findings from interviews, peer reviewed articles, and field notes (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). There were no changes in the procedures of dependability and confirmability from Chapter 3.

Results

The purpose of this study was to explore the feelings and experiences of police officers who had been recorded by citizens with cell phone cameras while working. This section answered the seven interview questions, the emerging themes and the three research questions.

Interview Question 1

How do you feel when citizens record you with cell phone cameras?

This question was the first question that I asked the participants. From a total of 10 participants, seven expressed feelings that were coded as vulnerable, apprehensive, and defensive. The codes from the remaining three participants were identified as secure.

Theme 1

Theme 1: When recorded, officers experience feelings of apprehension that ranges from fear of the unknown to fight or flight. This theme is the most significant as it drives the focus of the study. Participant 1 stated that he was greatly concerned about being recorded by citizens with cell phone cameras while working:

It's an uneasy feeling. I don't necessarily have a problem with it; the only issue that most of us have a problem with is ... one, I don't understand why they do it, but just the main one is that when you're dealing with somebody and you got a friend of theirs recording you, they usually get what I like to call "cell phone recording muscles" They become loud and obnoxious and you're dealing with this person, but their friend is also running their mouth, so now you have to pay attention to this person and that person at the same time. It's hard…especially if it's just one officer. I have a huge issue with that, because I'm trying to deal with this guy, and then I've got his buddy over here recording me, so trying to pay attention both of them is a problem.   (personal communication, March 25, 2018).

Participant 2 concurred that the experience made him initially slightly apprehensive.

"Because I don't know what their purpose is, what their reasoning is for it. But now I

guess a lot more comfortable with them doing it" (personal communication, March 25,

2018).

Interview Question 2

What does it feel like to be distracted while on a call?

The responses from nine of the participants were coded as "unsafe." The

one remaining response was coded as focus. The participants stated that the

presence of hostile bystanders created feelings of fear and uncertainty. Research

from Renden et al. (2014) showed that distractions can create apprehension,

making it difficult to focus on goal directed information.

Theme 2: Officer safety and public image is a concern of officers when videotaped.

Collectively, the participants corroborated their experiences of distraction as

uncomfortable, negative, and unsafe. Participant 3 described the experience as nerve

wrecking:

It could be ... It's nerve-wracking. It's very nerve-wracking because you can be

dealing with one subject; someone else comes over that has nothing to do with

what you're doing. You don't know if those two people are involved with each

other and possibly plotting to do something to you because you're stuck in the

middle trying to get one person away for a minute while you deal with

something else, but they're being impatient on the side causing you to look

away from what you're initially there for, which could be deadly. In any

situation, it could be deadly. I feel as if I tell younger officers "anytime you feel

as if there is someone that's distracting you from doing what you're supposed to be do, you need to call for backup immediately" (personal communication, March 25, 2018).

Participants 5 stated,

It sucks. It's nerve-wracking because you're looking over your shoulder, you see somebody videotaping you, or somebody walking up or stopping and parking their car, and you're watching them and you're trying to focus on your call. And you can't do both. And it actually putting us in a dangerous position, because we don't know what this other person's coming up and doing, that, like I said, is that might be stopping their car and getting out and videotaping, or walking up, we have to keep our eye on both them and the situation at hand. And it distracts our attention from what we really need to be focusing on (personal communication, March 31, 2018).

Participant 8 shared similar feelings:

To be distracted on a call is not a good feeling. Safety is the main thing when we go to calls, and a cell phone can definitely distract you and take you away. And as you know, being a police officer, it just takes a split second for something bad to happen. And whether that be as tragic as you get shot, or somebody come at you with a knife, you never know. And like you say, with somebody recording you, that can definitely throw you off and take you off your game (personal communication, April 7, 2018).

Interview Question 3

What are your feelings toward people who record officers while working?

This question was asked in order to determine how the participants perceived those individuals who recorded them while working. Four common codes were discovered during the analysis: perception, negative, positive, and mixed. During the analysis, it was discovered that four of the participants perceived the intentions of the people who recorded them as negative. The police culture is often cynical and suspicious towards citizens. This cynicism often occurs after an officer encounters a series of stressful and dangerous situations involving the public (Brough et al., 2016). However, three of the participants perceived the intentions of those individuals who recorded them as positive. The participants expressed feelings of vindication resulting from the recordings of officers and citizens in cases where both were falsely accused of wrongdoing. The remaining three participants had mixed feelings. During the analysis, this interview question produced three themes: (a) The officers perceived being recorded by the public as a form of harassment (b) The officers expressed empathy for citizens concerned about police misconduct and (c) Confusion and uncertainty exists about the execution of job-related duties when interacting with the public.

Theme 3: The officers perceived being recorded by the public as a form of harassment.

Participant 1 revealed feelings of confusion and questions as to why the public records police officers as they work:

I mean, my feelings toward them are like "Why?" I don't understand why everybody's got to whip out the camera. How about the officer that's

wrestling with this guy over here on the ground, and everybody wants to

grab their video cameras instead of helping that officer? I have a real issue

with people doing that. I just don't understand why they want to do that

(personal communication, March 25, 2018).

Participant 5 concurred,

A lot of times, I think that they have a vendetta against the police, and they're

looking for a reason to get us in trouble or to put us on social media, or to

criticize us and say we're not doing our job, or we're doing our job wrong, we're

not doing it enough. I feel that it's just the odds are stacked against us when these

people are coming up (personal communication, March 31, 2018).

Participant 8 stated that

I don't think there's any reason behind it but to piss an officer off, or to take him

off his game, or to get him to feel a certain way, get upset, kind of force him to

do something that he wouldn't normally do. Because they record me, they got me

on camera, so now I'm gonna get mad, and I'm gonna try to come at them. And

they may think that by recording me, that I'm gonna try to take the camera away,

I'm gonna take them to jail, I'm gonna find something else extra, you know what

I mean. So, I just think citizens do it just to prove a point (personal

communication, April 7, 2018).

Theme 3(a): The officers expressed empathy for citizens concerned about police

misconduct.

Positive perceptions were expressed from participants who appeared to have

answered the interview questions not only from their personal experiences, but also from the involvements of the citizens that recorded them. For example, according to Participant 6,

> There's some people that just doesn't have a lot of trust in police officers. There's a lot of people who are also just scared, just scared of officers, and you've got to kind of make them comfortable, not come off as aggressive. You can kind of limit the recording and the distrust by being calm, being understanding, letting them know, "Hey, this is the reason why I stopped you" or "This is the reason why we're here on this call." That's pretty much what I see, in my opinion (personal communication, April 4, 2018).

Participant 10 agreed,

> I had no ill will toward any of 'em. Again, it's frustrating that they're taking time and my attention off of what I'm doing while they're making a scene. Some people do it peacefully and some people do it again, aggressive, yelling, making a spectacle. But as far as my opinion toward them, doesn't change, I don't think they're bad people, just recording (personal communication, April 10, 2018).

Theme 3 (b): Confusion and uncertainty exists about the execution of job-related duties when interacting with the public.

According to Participant 2,

> There are mixed feelings. On one hand, you don't know if they're doing it for the sake of just getting whatever's happening on film because they think it's interesting. You don't know if they have the intent of "I kinda hate the police and

you guys out there giving us a hard time." So, I've got mixed feelings. I'm not a big fan of it (personal communication, March 25, 2018).

Participant 5 stated,

I still go by the professionalism that I have to show. Still professional about it, but on the inside, I'm thinking… actually, I leave the scene worrying and wondering, replaying back in my mind what did I do on this call? Did I do anything that can get me in trouble? Did I do everything by the book? Did I do anything that's going to make us look bad? Oh my God! If this gets put on Facebook, what are people going to say? My family is going to see this. can get me in trouble? So there's that external and there's that internal. And they kind of conflict with each other sometimes, because your mind is saying one thing your mind is going and going, and you're thinking. (personal communication, March 31, 2018).

Interview Question 4

How do you feel when cell phone recordings of police are uploaded onto social media sites?

Theme 4: Cell phone videos and social media sites do not fully depict actual encounters.

This question prompted a unanimous coded response of "misleading." Sveningsson (2015) noted that individuals prefer social media outlets for their news and information of interest, while Marchi (2012) reported that social media lacks objectivity and facts. This method of uniformed communication has further damage

the relationship between the police and the public.

Participant 3 stated,

> I feel like, when those videos get uploaded, that the entire story is not there.
> The initial contact is never a part of that video. If the video has the initial
> contact that leads to a possible altercation that may take place, that's fine. If it's
> a video that's picked up in the middle because all the videos always seem to
> pick up when the officer is doing his job or is depicted not doing his job
> correctly and then the comments that come along with that basically persuade
> you to believe that he's doing wrong. It's not ... I don't like the fact that people
> never catch the beginning and you're quick to judge what happened right then
> and forward instead of what happened leading up to that point (personal
> communication, March 25, 2018).

Participant 7 agreed,

> My answer would probably mimic many law-enforcement officers, "Let's show
> the whole story." Most people tend to edit what they want. They'll only show
> part of the scene, the action, if you will, the shocking portions. Because the fact
> of the matter is, force, whether that is verbal or physical on the part of the
> police, never looks pretty, never sounds pretty. This is a free society. They don't
> like being told what to do. So when you show that, an officer having to take
> charge, there's a camp that's always going to go "that's the officer's job." And
> there's another camp that's gonna say "there's all sorts of civil liberty issues
> here" and whatnot, when, in actuality, the law has written what you can and

can't do (personal communication, April 4, 2018).

According to Participant 9,

> You have to kind of take them as a partial truth because, until you get all the video footage or you get anything from the information from the witnesses and citizens and compile all that information, you can't just base everything off of that one section of footage from the officer. Like I was saying earlier for the other question, you usually don't catch the whole situation, so if you base everything off of what you see, and you've only recorded 50% of the incident, you're not going to get a true representation of what actually happened (personal communication, April 7, 2018).

Participant 10 felt in a similar manner:

> That aggravates me. That's a little bit more frustrating, 'cause you never see the whole story, how it began from beginning to end, the whole clip of what goes on. You usually see the negative aspect of it. You may see the clip of the officer fighting with somebody and arresting somebody. You don't see what that person did prior to the officer having to put hands on or trying to take the person into custody. You never see the whole story. I'd feel better if, like I said, if you could see the whole from beginning to end, the whole thing to conclusion (personal communication, April 10, 2018).

Interview Question 5

Do you believe that cell phone camera recordings influence the behavior of

the viewer?

Theme 5: Cell phone videos and social media sites do not fully depict the actual encounter.

Similar to question 4, the responses from the participants yielded the unanimous code of "viewer influenced." Wilson and Serisier (2010) discovered that some individuals who record police officers also have the ability to manipulate the video through scene slicing and bias narration. Placide and LaFrance (2014) indicated that images and film will influence the cognitive process through the cultivation theory. The cultivation theory states that reoccurring images and video scenes influence the perception of the viewer.

Participant 9 agreed with this theory:

> Yes, I believe it does and that's the reason why a lot of incidents occur. We've had prior history of different states where one piece of footage is released and it outrages the community and that community wants to take all this action and then the police department immediately releases the body camera footage and it shows the total opposite of what was released and it changes the mood of the citizens and that's ... I think the biggest thing about that is how quickly it sways the community when the public releases something in comparison to the police department releasing something (personal communication, April 7, 2018).

Participant 2 also agreed:

> If I feed you enough influence on something, if I tell you something's a certain way enough and you see enough behind it, if I keep telling you that the sky is

green, the sky is green, the sky is green, and I feed that to you long enough, then

you'll believe it. So, if people see these videos of cell phone recordings of partial

situations, then they start to believe that's how all law enforcement encounters go.

So, it gives a negative view of us. It gives a very bad view of us because those are

very small portions of an entire incident (personal communication, March 25,

2018).

Participant 10 believed that theory to be true:

Yes, yes. Again, 'cause they're not seeing the entire recording, what led up to

that point that they're actually witnessing. That might get them outraged upset

over what they're seeing without knowing the whole story. So, now they're

vocal, yelling, fighting, wanting to protest without knowing the true facts of the

story (personal communication, April 10, 2018).

Interview Question 6

What are your concerns regarding the social and legal issues of being recorded?

The participants produced data that reflected on their feelings concerning

the social subject of race relations among the police and the minority members of

the community. The emerging themes for this question are consistent with the two

primary codes of positive and negative. It was discovered that three out 10

participants have negative concerns regarding social issues of being recorded.

However, nine out of 10 are positive with possible legal issues of being recorded.

The participants appeared to be more concerned with the social aspects of being

recorded rather than the legal aspects.

Theme 6: The officers revealed their concerns about the division between race and law enforcement.

Participant 1 stated that

> Well, one instance where we had stopped a girl for driving suspended. It was a female watching with a cell phone. I was extremely angry to the point where I went up that hill and had a little chat with that woman because the female that we stopped was a black female, I'm a white male in uniform, female watching was White, and her husband was Indian. They both started screaming derogatory comments at us, telling me that I'm only stopping her because of the color of her skin. I marched up there, and I got on her butt a little bit. I was pretty pissed off. I cannot stand when people say that. It pisses me off. It's like "You don't know me. You don't know why I stopped her." I was very angry on that one, and I calmed myself down, and basically told her she needs to go somewhere. It's hard. It's hard to control your feelings when people start making accusations against you that you know aren't true (personal communication, March 25, 2018).

According to Participant 6,

> Socially, White and Black Officers are attacked racially. The reason I say that is because, from looking at social media, you're mostly seeing a lot of these situations where people are stopped by white officers. The white officers are accused of bullying the minority. People are saying "You pulled me over, you're racist. Whereas a black officer, in a predominantly Black area, will still

get recorded and called Uncle Tom. Legally, if the officer is doing everything he's supposed to do, then he should be good, he should be okay. (personal communication, April 6, 2018).

Theme 6 (a): Officers are aware of the variations in the social and legal issues associated with public cell phone recordings.

Participant 2 stated that

Socially, it kinda shows that stigma of "look at these guys out here, they're just giving us a hard time. They are doing what they want with nothing behind it." Legally, I'm not overly concerned. It's like 'perception is reality,' so there is some concern there because if you see something and it's a bad look, then that's always a issue for us. Legally, though because it's kind of an edited shot, I feel a little bit better with that because it doesn't give the whole picture, typically 20 or 30 seconds of something that went on for a lot more time than that. But, it's still a concern (personal communication, March 25, 2018).

Participant 10 agreed:

Socially, I think it's more of …, in my opinion, a hindrance a little bit, but I believe it's everybody's right. I have no problem with it really, socially. I have no problem with cameras. I think that's actually a good idea. It keeps everybody honest on the same page if you got corrupt, bad cops. It's needed to show the bad cops, but it's nice to show some of the good cops, the good stuff we do instead of just bad stuff all the time, legally. I'm not sure all of the legalities of everything as far as recording and stuff. I have nothing against it, I'm

supportive (personal communication, April 10, 2018).

Interview Question 7

How do you prevent your true feelings from surfacing while being recorded in stressful situations?

This question revealed codes such as self-control, emotion suppression, training, calming techniques, and empathy. Self-control was the unanimous code among participant's perceptions. Hochschild (1983) created two separate strategies within emotional labor: surface acting and deep acting. Surfacing acting is the suppressing of emotions and feelings while functioning within the needs of the organization (Hochschild, 1983). Deep acting is the ability to change one's emotions to fit an employment situation or organizational rule (Hochschild, 1983).

Theme 7: Controlling internal stress and suppressing emotions while managing a hostile external environment is difficult for police officers.

According to Participant 1, "I focus on the reason I'm there, which is to handle whatever call comes out and whatever's going on with that situation and not on the fact that someone's recording or why they're recording." Participant 7 agreed:

> You can't. That's probably the best answer. It causes a level of stress, and after an eight- or twelve-hour shift of potentially dealing with critical incidents, like I said before, over and over, the humanity leaks out of you. We are not robots. You're going to have your own opinions. It's our passion to serve that makes us great. Now, that passion can go one way or the other too far, and you gotta kind of be "hey, check yourself, or step out." And you'd hope that your fellow

brothers and sisters of law enforcement would help you find that. (personal

communication, April 4, 2018).

Participant 4 disagreed:

Under stressful situations, I'm a mild person. I kind of know how to hold back

my true inner feelings. Sometimes certain people, they can say the most evilest,

dirtiest stuff in the world to you being a cop, but you have to learn how to not

take it personal. And even people that I arrest, I tell them like "this is nothing

personal, man. It's nothing against you. I have nothing against you." And they

understand that and they respect that, that I'm just doing my job (personal

communication, March 30, 2018).

Participant 9 also disagreed:

Training. You don't take the job personal. You train, and you train, and you

train. In stressful situations, your body reverts to the training so if … during

training you're not cursing out anybody, you're saying sir, asking a subject to

comply, that stuff is going to come out during a stressful situation, but if you're

playing around and joking and not taking your training seriously, all of those

little bad nuances will rise to the surface. So, if you have a good training

instructor, with a outstanding program to go through and show these steps that

you take ... and don't take it that this person is mad at you, they're mad at your

uniform (personal communication, April 9, 2018).

Conclusion

Based on the responses from the 10 participants of this study, it was determined

that the three primary research questions were answered. The responses from the participants were corroborated with the research data from Chapter 2 literature review. The answer to (RQ1) indicates that officers experience apprehension, distraction, disengagement, and vulnerability when being recorded while working. Interview question 1 revealed that seven out of the 10 participants unanimously agreed that they personally have experienced the above behaviors. Interview question 2 confirmed the participants' feelings about officer safety when being recorded. The collected data showed that nine of the 10 participants experienced feelings of being unsafe. Interview question 3 provided insight about the participants' feelings related to those individuals who actually recorded them while working. The participants' experienced disparities in feelings that were positive, negative, and mixed.

RQ2 addresses the legal and social concerns of officers as they relate to social media. Interview questions four and five show that all of the participants agree that the contents of social media sites are misleading and biased as they place a negative stigma on law enforcement officers. It was discovered through interview question 6 that all of the officers were concerned about how they are viewed socially. The division between race and law enforcement was an issue for three of the participants. However, none of the officers identified any concerns related to legal repercussions that may possibly result from their actions on video.

The findings from RQ3 implied that the participants focused on emotion suppression calming techniques, training, and properly applying methods of surface and deep acting. It was discovered through interview question 7 that the participants

practiced tactics that resulted in self-controlling behaviors.

Summary

This chapter provided a comprehensive analysis of the research problem and three primary research questions. The analysis resulted in the outcome of gaining a deeper and richer understanding of the experiences of police officers who were recorded while performing their duties. The researcher explained the procedures used to collect and analyze the data as themes began to develop. The findings of the study were drawn from the responses of face-to-face interviews with the participants. The findings were then used to address the three research questions and research problem. The first finding determined that police officers experience a range of feelings consisting of apprehension, fear, and distraction. The second finding determined that police officers have various concerns related to social ramification if their job performance is negatively interpreted. However, the participants were trusting of the legal system and any possible outcomes that may result from being recorded. It was also discovered that social media has an influence on its viewers. The third finding revealed that police officers are vulnerable to stress stemming from the suppression of their feelings as they follow organization rules and policies.

In chapter five, the researcher discussed the results of the analysis and highlight the meaning of each theme and its relationship to the primary research questions.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand the experiences and feelings of police officers who were recorded while working. The three primary research questions addressed issues involving several empirical reasons why police officers experience apprehension, distraction, and disengagement from their duties. I acquired the responses for this study by conducting in-depth, semistructured interviews with police officers. These interviews allowed me to explore and describe the emotional perceptions of the 10 participants who were recorded while working. Data from current news articles and videos have been added to provide a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and the results from the interviews. In this chapter, I discuss the results of the analysis and the meaning of each theme and its relationship to the primary research questions. In addition, in this chapter, I describe the data that emerged from the analysis, recommendations for future research, implications for social change, and the limitations of this study.

Key Findings

The discovered key findings are listed below:

1. Police officers experience apprehension and uncertainty when being video recorded.

2. Police officers are distracted when being video recorded.

3. Police officers are concerned for their safety when being distracted by video recordings.

4. Police officers believe that citizens will react to them based on negative

information that is shared on social media.

5. Police officers feel that social media videos do not depict the entire facts of police/citizen interactions.

6. Police officers experience high levels of stress during surface acting.

7. Police officers acknowledge that a negative police culture exists within the profession.

8. The emerging data supports the PEW's research on the Ferguson Effect.

Summary

The final analysis of this study revealed that a comprehensive effort of mutual understanding and respect between law enforcement officers and citizens must be met. This may require the sharing of unpleasant experiences concerning law enforcement officers and the public as a method of seeking common ground. The key findings of this study specify issues that are of great concern to police officers. The sharing of such experiences will assist the public, stakeholders, and policy-makers in understanding the complexity of this social issue.

Discussion of the Findings

Table 3 explains how the three research theories support the descriptive behaviors of the participants and their feelings of being recorded with cell phone cameras as they work.

Table 3

Results From Research Theories

Research theory	Descriptive behavior/attribute	Seven interview questions relating to theory
Evaluation apprehension	Avoids evaluative audiences	1, 2, 3
Emotional intelligence	Becomes self-aware and manages emotions	4, 5, 6
Emotional labor	Suppresses authentic emotions	7

RQ1. What are the experiences of police officers when engaged in possible hostile situations that citizens are video recording?

The shared experiences of the respondents indicated that recording police officers with cell phone cameras as they work could alter their behaviors and work performances. The data and themes that emerged from the analysis corroborated the data from the literature review. The compiled data from this study's literature review and participant interviews supported a relationship between distraction and apprehension. Kassin et al. (2014) stated that police officers experience anxiety when recorded. Such signs of anxiety have led to the disengagement and apprehension of police work-related duties by police officers. Renden et al. (2014) suggested that encounters that require a police officer's full attention might become risky as increased anxiety levels create distractions that result in apprehension. Kay (2014) reported that police officers are distracted from their duties as they focus on the recorded contents of cell phone cameras. This has been identified as a safety issue for law enforcement officers. Examples of such documented

encounters are Elgas's (2016) report of the beating of a female Chicago police officer by a combative suspect. The officer refused to shoot the suspect in fear of social media scrutiny. Valencia (2015) reported a similar situation involving a detective who was pistol-whipped with his department issued weapon during a traffic stop. The suspect overpowered the officer and used his weapon against him. During the investigation, it was discovered that the officer did not want the public to judge his actions on social media for killing an unarmed man and, as such, did not shoot him.

An examination of the research conducted by Leary et al. (1987) revealed how a threat to one's social reputation and self-esteem affects the natural response of individuals. The researchers concluded that individuals who display a high concern for their social reputation and self-esteem are sensitive to negative impressions on their characters. Leary et al. discovered that simultaneous threats to both social reputation and self-esteem did not create apprehension; however, when attacked separately, each resulted in apprehension. VanDellen et al. (2011) stated that threats to one's social reputation and self-esteem depend on the personality of the individual.

In a study conducted by the FBI Office of Partner Engagement (2016), it was discovered that approximately 10 years prior to the phenomenon of private citizens recording police officers with their cell phones, suspects would flee or comply with an officer's orders. Since the recording of police activity, subjects have become noncompliant and aggressive. This change is contributed to the empirical new norm among law violators that police officers are only going to go so far in doing their jobs. The FBI Office of Partner Engagement also concluded in a report that officers fear the

scrutiny of the aftermath of physical confrontations and shootings. The results from the report have caused police officers to "become scared and demoralized" and avoid the community when possible (Federal Bureau of Investigation Office of Partner Engagement, 2016, n.p.).

The transcribed data from the interviews revealed that seven of the 10 participants experienced feelings of vulnerability and apprehension when asked, "How do you feel when citizens record you with cell phone cameras?" The remaining three participants stated feelings of being secure. However, they admitted that they were careful in their actions and dialogue.

When asked "What does it feel like to be distracted while on a call?" nine of the 10 participants stated that they felt unsafe. Many of the responses referred to the recording parties or one of the many bystanders as a possible threat. The participants reported feelings of extreme discomfort when answering calls involving combative subjects because such calls produce the most stress; officers are apprehensive about arresting an individual who may become combative. The participants agreed that distractions can also come from worrying about the consequences of a call that has gone wrong.

The last question related to RQ1 was "What are your feelings toward people who record officers while working?" This question produced an array of mixed feelings among the participants. It was discovered that four of the participants perceived the intentions of the people who recorded them as negative. However, three of the participants perceived the intentions of those individuals as positive. The positive

perceptions were associated with feelings of vindication when both the officers and citizens were falsely accused of wrongdoing. The remaining three participants had mixed feelings that did not support neither of the above positions.

RQ 2. What legal and social concerns do police officers express due to being video recorded during possible hostile encounters?

Placide and LaFrance (2014) stated that reoccurring images from videos could influence the judgment of the viewing public. Research from the FBI Office of Partner Engagement (2016) showed that individuals admitted to developing hatred toward law enforcement officers when watching videos of police confronting suspects on social media. From the data collected from this study, it can be assumed that not only can the public be influenced by reoccurring images from videos but police officers can also be influenced by these images.

Noble (2015) stated that officers are in fear of being provoked into displaying negative reactions on camera. A police officer referred to the experience as "death by media."(Noble, 2015, n.p) Noble also noted that officers experienced increased stress and low morale as an association to being featured on social media sites.

As stated in the answers to RQ1, officers become apprehensive when there is a present threat to their social reputations or self-esteem (Leary et al., 1987). Kernis (2005) stated that individuals with high but unstable self-esteem would experience increased apprehension and aggression. As no gatekeeping practices exist for disseminating information or content on social media, officers who are featured on such sites and feel that their reputations or self-esteem are compromised will become defensive and

withdrawn in their actions (Valencia, 2015). The FBI Office of Partner Engagement (2016) stated that video clips of perceived police misconduct are recorded and uploaded to social media sites before the facts are known. As a result, singular narrative reporting of wrongdoing and misconduct often comes from the family and friends of the individual(s) confronted by police officers.

The Ferguson Effect is an anecdotal theory used by the media, academia, and police professionals to rationalize the reasons for de-policing and disengagement of duties by police officers. Morin et al. (2017) of the Pew Research Center conducted a study on 8,000 law enforcement officers and found that three quarters of the officers, who were located throughout the United States, were hesitant to use necessary force on combative persons because of increased scrutiny. It was reported that 72% of the police respondents stated that they were reluctant to engage suspicious persons. The study reported that 93% of the police officers were concerned about their safety (Morin et al., 2017).

The appearance of the Ferguson Effect has created a paradigm change not only in how police officers perform their duties, but on how it's viewed among local and national politicians. Former director of the FBI Comey stated that police officers feel that people intentionally provoke them into altercations so that they can record their actions and post them on social media (see Roberts, 2015). US Attorney General Jeff Sessions shared his sentiments about the Ferguson Effect as he stated that officers were "reluctant to get out of their squad cars." He criticized negative public opinion, social media videos, and the "target killing of police" (see Dewan, 2017, n.p.). Chicago Mayor Emanuel described

this concern of officer disengagement from duties as "fetal". He further states that "they don't want to be a news story themselves; they don't want their career ended early, and its having an impact" (see MacDonald, 2016, n.p.).

The transcribed data from the interviews for this study revealed that the respondents unanimously agreed that social media's influence on the public is of a great concern to them. The negative social climate of police distrust by the public has resulted in heighten apprehension and disengagement from officers. The participants were asked two questions related to this topic: (a) How did they feel when cell phone recordings of police were uploaded on social media sites? (b) What are your concerns regarding social and legal issues of being recorded? All of the participants agreed that the contents of the videos could be misleading and biased. It was also agreed that the participants could not make a determination of an officer's guilt or innocence until the completion of the investigation. Some of the participants revealed experiencing feelings of frustration when viewing negative images of police on uploaded videos. It was discovered that the participants did not trust the videos and thought of them as "biased clips" to be used against the officers.

The topic of race relations among the police and the public was sparingly discussed during the interview. It was not presented in the interview questions because some of the participants resided in rural areas, which limited their involvement with minorities. However, data from Morin et al. (2017) and the volunteer information from the interviews were concurrent. Morin et al. reported that national incidents involving blacks and the police have made the jobs of officers difficult. The participants divulged

feelings of concern and aggravated tensions when responding to calls for service involving blacks. The participants stated feelings of social rejection as they tried to remain professional on calls.

Morin et al. (2017) further stated that 42% of officers have serious concerns of being attacked while responding to calls. The report explained that male officers are more likely to be involved in physical confrontations then their female counterparts. However, white male officers are more likely to be confronted with violence then their black counterparts. The participants revealed details of situations where spectators became verbally abusive while recording them.

When asked whether they believed that cell phone camera recording influenced the behavior of the viewer. The results to this question revealed that all of the participants agreed that, socially, people are influenced by the contents on videos. The participants expressed their feelings concerning how the viewing of video material could negatively and socially influence behavior. The participants all agreed that they feared that people would react and judge them based on what has been witnessed on video. According to Placide and LaFrance (2014), the Cultivation Theory is the viewing and internalization of televised material, which produces a change in viewer behavior by constructing the televised contents as reality. The participants suggested that videos of positive community interactions with the public are needed to give a different perspective of law enforcement officers.

RQ 3. How do police officers perceive that they modify their behavior when engaged in possible hostile situation as citizens record them?

Law enforcement officers are frequently exposed to situations that can instantly become aggressive without provocation. As such, officers must manage their feelings and emotions in order to achieve appropriate outcomes. The actions and behaviors of police officers are under close observation and scrutiny by the public. According to Hochschild (1983), police officers must suppress their true feelings and modify them as needed. For example, police officers are expected to comply with the social demands of the public by being "nicer than nicer" (Guy et al., 2014, p. 3) and "tougher than tougher" (Guy et al., 2014, p. 69).

Hochschild identified two separate strategies for managing feelings: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting is the suppression of feelings and emotions that are not align with the rules and policies of the organization. Deep acting is the ability to change personal emotions through the understanding of a conflicting perspective to fit the requirements of the organization. It was discovered that surface acting creates stress among the practicing individuals, whereas practicing deep acting has been conducive to the individual and organization.

Bhowmick and Mulla (2016) suggested that displaying authenticity (via positive or negative emotions) through deep acting helps achieve organizational tasks. The display of negative emotions in the law enforcement profession has yielded great results. The adversarial relationship between police officers and criminals produces an exchange of natural negative emotions. The negative emotions of anxiety experienced by criminals have been used to assist law enforcement officers in active investigations. Bhowmick and Mulla also stated that "anger, no doubt, has a positive impact on the criminal

investigation" (p. 56). Within this study, the results showed that anger, when used genuinely and within the guidelines of policy, can be an effective driving tool for law enforcement.

Studies have discovered that working within the frame of deep acting while displaying authentic emotions can prevent burnout (Hochschild, 1983). For example, police officers who engage in their duties as defenders and protectors of the community will actively go after individuals viewed as threats to public peace. This experience is intrinsically satisfying to police officers who interpret their own actions as appropriate for the public good. However, when a constant threat exists of replacing authentic emotions with policy-channeled emotions, the inauthenticity will produce burnout (Wharton, 1993).

Maslach's (1982) similar study on emotional labor consisted of significant measurements of emotional exhaustion (EE) and depersonalization (DP). It was discovered that emotional exhaustion is caused by the strenuous demands placed on an individual's mental and social being. Depersonalization occurs when individuals are met with repeated negative social interactions as these interactions cause emotional exhaustion and separation from the source. Change in emotional behavior consisting of EE or DP will produce difficulty in meeting professional and personal objectives.

The transcribed data from the interviews revealed that self-control, emotion suppression, empathy, compassion, training, and calming techniques were used to manage and modify the behavior of the participants during stressful encounters with the public. When asked to answer "how do you prevent your true feelings from surfacing

while being recorded under stressful situations," the responses revealed a range of common perspectives. Nine of the 10 participants felt that self-control was instrumental in managing and modifying their behaviors. However, it was not decided whether self-control alone constituted surface acting or deep acting. Seven of the 10 participants agreed that they learned to suppress their authentic feelings when faced with situations that may conflict with a workplace rule or policy. It was discovered that those individuals who experienced stress while suppressing their authentic feelings were surface acting. Lee et al. (2016) stated that surface acting is a direct link to burnout if a negative customer relationship is present.

As stated above, the data from the interview revealed self-control as the dominant response of the participants related to this question. It was reported that six out of the 10 participants used deep acting while engaging individuals. The analysis revealed that self-control was combined with codes of professionalism, empathy, compassion, training, and calming techniques. Schaible and Six (2016) described deep acting as an effort to understand and embrace the feelings of an opposing party in spite of the difference of views. Bhowmick and Mulla (2016) stated that those individuals who engage with deep acting achieve increased self-efficacy and reduced feelings of emotional exhaustion. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) described deep acting as good faith feelings associated with positive well-being. The participants who worked through possible hostile situations with the use of deep acting expressed genuine feelings of concern for those individuals with who, they came into contact.

This section of the study concurs with the existing literature presented in Chapter

2 as well as the three theoretical frameworks previously described: Evaluation

Apprehension Theory, Emotional Intelligence Theory, and Emotional Labor Theory. The

investigation of these theories was pivotal in regard to addressing the research questions.

The evaluation apprehension theory revealed that police officers could experience

apprehension and disengagement from their duties while being recorded by cell phone

cameras. Research from Cottrell et al. (1968) discovered that individuals became

distracted and experienced apprehension as spectators watched them. It was discovered

that apprehension is not only limited to a physical audience, but also a virtual audience.

During the interviews, the participants disclosed their feelings and fears about being

featured on social media channels.

The Goleman model of emotional intelligence theory provided data on how

officers and police leadership could avoid possible obstacles associated with evaluation

apprehension and emotional labor. The Goleman emotional intelligence model could

assist police officers in controlling and managing their feelings in hostile situations. This

model consist of four domains: self-awareness, self-management, empathy, and skilled

relationships. Self-awareness refers to the ability of the individual to understand his or

her self through inner reflection. Individuals who have self-awareness can navigate their

feelings in times of duress (Goleman, 1995). Self-management is helpful to those

individuals who can control and display proper feelings during challenging or socially

conflicting times. Self-managers uphold their social environments by resisting sudden

urges that involve anxiety, stress, and anger (Goleman, 1995). Empathy refers to

recognizing emotions in others. Empathic individuals are capable of assessing and

understanding the emotions of others. Skilled relationships occur when individuals are able to use the above domains at the proper moments to foster positive results and outcomes during stressful encounters (Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 2012).

The emotional labor theory established by Hochschild (1983) is a method of emotion management. Emotional labor is the suppression of authentic emotions that are replaced by feelings that are required by the workplace. Hochschild created two strategies within emotional labor: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting involves suppressing inner feelings and emotions in order to respond to an organization's rule or policy. Deep acting is an individual's ability to change his or her emotions to fit an employment situation or an organizational rule. It is imperative for police officer to suppress their authentic negative feelings to achieve desired outcomes. However, in using surface acting, officers may be susceptible to additional stress. According to Bhowmick and Mulla (2016), displaying authenticity (via positive or negative emotions) through deep acting would help in the achievement of workplace objectives.

Limitations of the Study

As discussed in Chapter 1, limitations in academic research are necessary in order to identify research boundaries (see Simon & Goes, 2013). The participants used for this study were from various locations throughout Indiana. The first identified research boundary is transferability to other geographic locations. Although saturation was achieved for this study, different locations could possibly produce different results.

The second identified research boundary was discovered by reviewing the biographical questionnaires of the participants. After carefully analyzing the data, it was

determined that gender could be a limitation for this study. A snowball sample was used to create the participant pool and, out of the 10 participants, only one participant was female. As such, the collected data may not provide a true representation of the perceptions of female officers in law enforcement.

A third identified research boundary was research bias. Research bias is a challenge experienced by all researchers (see Patton, 2002). Research bias in this study was managed by using the phenomenological attitude methods of epoché and bracketing. Epoché was used to gather the data and process it as first-time information (Moustakas, 1994). Bracketing was used to remove any previous information or knowledge about the phenomenon. This approach made it possible to collect the data and process it from the viewpoints of the participants (Chan et al., 2013). Based on the opinions and experiences of the participants, the data depicted an accurate analysis of the literature review's existing data.

Recommendations

The recommendations for this study arose from data that was noted in the limitations section. First, it is recommended that future studies consider increasing the participant sample and expand the geographic locations from the original test site. These changes will achieve a broader perspective of experiences from participants from various geographic locations. Second, an assembly of participants of various cultural backgrounds, races, and genders will help in uncovering further in-depth data.

Third, alternative methodologies could be useful in gaining a deeper assessment and analysis of this study. Through a quantitative approach, a much greater sample size

of participants could be drawn, increasing the desired perspectives through variable comparisons. For example, a second sample may consist of data gathered from members of the public. The mix-method approach could provide future researchers with an opportunity to gain a deeper perspective through larger sample sizes, variable comparison, interviews, and qualitative data analyses.

Social Change Implications

The social change implications for this study were based on understanding the experiences and feelings of police officers who had been recorded with cell phone cameras while working. Police officers perform job-related duties that are often complex and dangerous. Situations consisting of both complexity and danger are interconnected to the emotions, actions, and feelings of the public that they serve. I discovered that police officers are currently experiencing emotions of fear, anger, and confusion. The results of such feelings are causing officers to disengage from their duties and the public. It is with intention that this study provides insight and understanding to the reader about issues facing the police and the public when cell phones cameras are present and recording.

The results of the study uncovered issues of police officers feeling uncomfortable about being recorded while working. It was also revealed that police officers have a great concern about being featured on social media sites. Placide and LaFrance (2014) confirmed through the Cultivation Theory that individuals who consistently view videos or televised material will eventually make them part of their realities. The behavior of such individuals will be influenced not by reason, but by what they have viewed. Many social media sites contain anti-police videos of alleged misconduct; however, as I

searched the social media site YouTube, I discovered countless videos of positive police and citizen interactions. Some videos featured police officers skillfully deescalating dangerous situations, while others contained footage of officers assisting people in need or playing with children.

At the organizational level, this study could assist police supervisors and administrators in refining their leadership skills to manage crisis level incidents. As stated in Chapter 2, administrators must demonstrate the behavior that they desire in their subordinates (White & Robinson, 2015). Previous studies have shown that the personality of the leader has a significant impact on the self-esteem of the subordinates (Johar et al., 2012). Caruso and Salovey (2004) reported that leaders who have high emotional intelligence possess the ability to change negative behavior within the workplace. This is useful for supervisors and administrators who have the charge of bringing back officers who have disengaged from their duties.

This study is not intended to prohibit the public from recording. The surfacing of recorded misconduct has been instrumental in exposing the actions of abusive officers. At the individual level, citizens and police officers could reach a place of mutual respect by understanding the various perspectives of others. It is important that the public understand the reasons for officer disengagement and the effects it could have on the community. It is equally important that officers understand the genuine and justified concerns that citizens have due to interacting with abusive officers.

At the societal level, it is crucial that self-examinations be made of the values and norms that shape our worldviews and cultures. Brough et al. (2016) stated that culture is a

set of shared experiences, values, and norms among individuals. Although our communities are divided by subcultures and beliefs, it is the primary principles of peace and respect that motivate our societal commonalties.

Conclusion

The complexities of police and public relations have steadily increased since the early 1960s. The 1960s were times of war and governmental abuse on its citizens. The government used the police profession to elevate any behavior or persons viewed as undesirable. As a result, citizens protested against anything that was viewed as a threat to this country's democracy. Today, many citizens continue to wear the emotional scars of past turbulent times as new ones are created for a modern generation. Although the frequent use of fire hoses and police dogs are no longer inflicted on citizens, video footage of past and current negative police and citizen encounters serves as a reminder.

The purpose of this study was to explore, capture, and understand the lived experiences of police officers who have been video recorded as they work. The data gathered during this study covered issues affecting the social, psychological, and physiological well-being of police officers. Despite mainstream news and social media videos, the majority of police officers are performing at professional peak levels. Individuals who view social media sites often form their opinions about police officers from incomplete investigations, altered video clips, and the common beliefs of their peers. An overwhelming negative social attitude about "all police officers" participating in misconduct has resulted in police officers' disengagement from their duties and the public. This anecdotal theory is referred to as the Ferguson Effect. The Ferguson Effect is

the avoidance of subjects by police officer whose confrontation may lead to public scrutiny. Data gathered from this study's literature review and participant interviews showed that race generated protests from Black Lives Matter have been instrumental in the reduction of proactive police activity. Researchers and police professionals have credited the Ferguson Effect with the increase in crime.

Through this study, it was discovered that police leadership and supervision has an important role in how officers process their fears and concerns of being recorded and featured on social media channels. Due to this new phenomenon and the uncertainties that accompany it, police officers are seeking guidance and support from police supervisors and leadership. The participants in this study stated that support from the public was equally gratifying. The participants agreed that, despite the negative social and cultural attitudes toward proactive policing, they are committed to serving the law-abiding citizens as professionals.

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Appendix A: Biographical Sketch of Officer Questionnaire

(Demographics)

Name_____

Current work assignment_____

Number of years in law enforcement (total) _____

Number of years on patrol _____

Have you been recorded by a cell phone camera while working on patrol?

Race _____

Age _____

Gender_____

Rank _____

Self-described level of confidence with police equipment technology (body cams, dash

cams)_____

Contact email_____

Appendix B: Interview Guide

1.   Welcome the participant and introduce myself.

2.   Explain the general purpose of the interview and why the participant was chosen.

3.   Explain the presence and purpose of the recording equipment.

4.   Explain the general ground rules and interview guidelines in order to

ensure that the interview topics can be covered in the time allotted.

5.   Review the break schedule and where the restrooms are located (for

face-to-face interviews).

6.   Address the importance of confidentiality.

7.   Explain withdrawal from study.

8.   Inform the participant that the information discussed is going to be analyzed

as a whole and that the participant names will not be disclosed in the analysis of the

interview data.

Interview Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative research study is to explore and understand the

feelings and experiences of police officers who were recorded while working.

Interview Questions

1.   How do you feel when citizens record you with cell phone cameras?

2.   What does it feel like to be distracted while on a call? Probe: How does

being distracted make you feel?

3.   What are your feelings toward people who record officers while they are working?

4.   How do you feel when cell phone recordings of police are uploaded to social

media sites?

5.   Do you believe that cell phone camera recordings influence the behavior of the

viewer? Why or why not?

6.   In your own words, please tell me about your concerns regarding the social

and legal issues of being recorded?

7.   How do you prevent your true feelings from surfacing while being recorded

during stressful situations?

Conclusion

That was the final question and concludes our interview. Do you have any questions? I

would like to remind you that once the interview recording has been transcribed, I will

contact you so that you can review the transcription for accuracy. If any changes are

needed, you can let me know at that time. I thank you for your participation in this

very important research study

Appendix C: Confidentiality Agreement Transcriber

Confidentiality Agreement (Transcription Service)

Name of Signer: Ian Parker, PhD, President

This is a Non-Disclosure Agreement (the "NDA") between <u>Michael Mallett</u> (the "Client") and <u>FUDOSHIN CONSULTING CORP</u> (the "Company") that is entered into between the Client and the Company in consideration of the Client retaining the Company for the performance of services (Audio Transcription) for the benefit of the client. The Client and the Company, each separately, is a party (a "party") to this NDA and collectively is herein referred to as the parties (the "Parties").

During the course of the activity of the Company in transcribing data for the following research project: "**The Effects of Cell Phone Cameras On Police Working Behavior,**" the Company will have access to information, which is confidential and should not be disclosed. The Company acknowledges that the information must remain confidential, and that improper disclosure of the confidential information can be damaging to the participant.

By signing this Confidentiality Agreement, the Company acknowledges and agrees that:

1. The Company will not disclose or discuss any confidential information with others, including friends or family.

2. The Company will not in any way divulge, copy, release, sell, loan, alter, or destroy any confidential information, except as properly authorized.

3.   The Company will not discuss confidential information where others can overhear the conversation. The Company understands that it is not acceptable to discuss confidential information even if the participant's name is not used.

4.   The Company will not make any unauthorized transmissions, inquiries, modifications, or purging of confidential information.

5.   The Company agrees that its obligations under this agreement will continue after the termination of the work that it will perform.

6.   The Company understands that a violation of this agreement will have legal implications.

7.   The Company shall only access or use systems or devices that the Company is officially authorized to access and utilize and the Company will not demonstrate the operation or function of these systems or devices to unauthorized individuals.

By signing this document, the signer acknowledges that he/she has read the agreement and that the Company agrees to comply with all the terms and conditions stated above.

Signature: _____ Date: _____