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Body-worn camera perceptions of southwest Florida citizens and police officers

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**Nova Southeastern University
College of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences
Department of Justice and Human Services**

“Body-worn camera perceptions of southwest Florida citizens and police officers”

by

Anthony D. Skolarus

A Dissertation submitted to
the College of Arts, Humanities and Social Services
Department of Justice and Human Services
of Nova Southeastern University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
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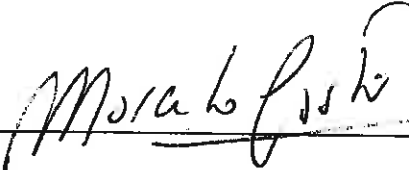
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Dedication

For my Family

Mom, Uncle John, Uncle Greg, Uncle Gary, Uncle Dwaine, Aunt Kei, Aunt Darryl, Aunt Sue, Camp Canjar, and Danielle

In memory of

Josephine Arnold (1926-2012) and Robert Arnold (1925-2008)

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

Law enforcement officers encounter citizens daily during the performance of their official duties. These interactions often occur when a citizen enters a police station to file a complaint, requests information over the phone, or is stopped because of a traffic infraction. Every encounter brings an expectation by the public that the police will promote trust and safety during each scenario. Officers are expected to effectively play multiple roles, including enforcer, social worker, marriage counselor, parent/disciplinarian, crowd-control manager, criminal investigator, and group facilitator (Lawrence & Rosenbaum, n.d.). Often wearing many “different hats,” the ability to communicate can prove a critical skill for an officer in effectively resolving contentious issues.

The communication process between two or more people requires solid listening and speaking skills to begin problem solving. Teaching officers how to enable their views and beliefs to coexist with the different views and beliefs of other citizens, and other officers, is one of the greatest challenges in law enforcement training (Haberfeld & Cerrah, 2008).

Resolving societal problems is not only challenging, but requires an officer to remain flexible, reasonable, and open-minded in their approach with the public. This especially holds true when dealing with individuals of different countries, languages, and diverse backgrounds. As no “one style” or method of policing will successfully remedy every citizen encounter, past experiences, teachings, and operational exposure to real-life conflict(s) can help improve relations between the police and community.

Background

The Fourth Amendment to the United States Constitution protects every citizen against unlawful intrusions of their residence, person, vehicles, property, and personal effects without voluntary consent. Included under this amendment's umbrella of protection are any item(s) or contraband illegally seized by an agent or authority of the government. This particular amendment is important to both citizens and the police alike. Law enforcement officers will be challenged daily in some aspect with overcoming the hurdles of the Fourth Amendment during their encounters with the public (Atkinson, 2012).

Recent events specifically demonstrated that a citizen's resistance to obey lawful direction by police has raised safety concerns between the police and the community. The deaths of Michael Brown, Freddie Gray, and Keith Lamont Scott have questioned the level at which police across the country deploy force. Because the death of a person in these scenarios is considered a "seizure," Fourth Amendment protections and concerns arise. In the *Garner* (Tennessee v. Garner) decision, it was established that the use of deadly force against a fleeing suspect, who was not armed nor posed a threat of danger, was a violation of the suspect's rights and constitutes an illegal seizure of the person (Ross, 2002).

Contrary to public perception, cases such as Michael Brown or Keith Lamont Scott are among the rare and extreme cases involving deadly force. In fact, approximately 40 million people will have law enforcement contact in the United States each year. Of those, less than 2% of them will be involved in a force-related incident in which they must be physically restrained, handcuffed, or even verbally threatened with force by

police (Landers, 2015). As these numbers demonstrate, public concerns are extremely low over threats an “unarmed” individual presents. These scenarios have presented the public a challenge in determining those split-second decisions made by officers navigating them.

Unarmed individuals can be just as deadly as that of an armed perpetrator. Over 90 percent of the law enforcement officers who are disarmed in the line of duty were murdered during that incident (Landers, 2015). This poses significant safety concern(s) to both police and citizens alike. The perception that an individual not in possession of a weapon or firearm is not dangerous at the time of a police-citizen encounter is often misunderstood by the public (Landers, 2015).

Police response to citizen resistance has been further explored in the literature review; however, it is necessary to highlight that anytime a lethal encounter occurs at the hands of police, a full inquiry and investigation into the facts and circumstances surrounding the death will immediately occur. Should criminal charges against an officer be warranted, the case will be challenged and decided in a courtroom by a jury of his or her peers. If the officer is not charged, the potential for civil litigation is not completely eliminated. The fact that the officer was acting in a law enforcement capacity does not necessarily negate all criminal or civil culpability.

One of the most important roles that citizens may be called upon to perform is the duty of a juror. The Sixth Amendment to the United States Constitution allows those persons being prosecuted criminally, the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury of the state and district where the crime was committed.

During the judicial process, the accused has several rights protecting them under the Ten Amendments to the Bill of Rights. These rights include, but are not limited to confronting any witnesses against him or her, being informed of the accusations against them, and the right to defense counsel even if they do not have the means to retain one on their own. It is after the police, or any government agency holding police powers, arrests someone that all formal proceedings take place inside the governing courtroom. The courtroom is primarily made up of the judge, prosecuting and defense counsel, bailiff, court reporter, and the jury. The public does have the right to sit in and observe the court in session; they are not allowed to intervene or influence the court at anytime unless allowed by the judge.

A criminal proceeding is not the only matter a juror may be subject to hear. One may be chosen to hear facts and testimony presented in a civil proceeding as well. Lawsuits fall into two main categories: *civil* cases and *criminal* cases. As the person being charged in each case is referred to as the defendant, those parties bringing the charges forward are different. The two are distinguished as follows:

1. *Criminal* Cases. The party bringing charges against the defendant in a criminal case is known as “The People.” A prosecuting or city attorney representing the government typically serves on behalf of The People (The 36th District Court, 2008).
2. *Civil* Cases. The party initiating charges against a defendant in a civil matter is known as “The Plaintiff.” Although the Plaintiff is not typically a prosecutor or city attorney (but could be), he or she is commonly an individual taking legal

action against another for an alleged wrongdoing other than a crime (The 36th District Court, 2008).

To find someone guilty of a civil or criminal wrongdoing, a “burden of proof” must be established. The burden of proof establishes that the elements of a crime have been proven beyond a reasonable doubt. In all criminal proceedings, the prosecutor has a burden of proving the elements of the crime, and that the defendant was the person who committed the alleged offense (Steffel, 2007). To find someone responsible in a civil matter, the plaintiff is not trying to prove his or her case beyond a reasonable doubt; rather, the plaintiff must prove their claim based on a “preponderance of the evidence,” which is lesser than reasonable doubt.

Significance of the Study

The shooting death of unarmed citizen Michael Brown at the hands of a Ferguson, Missouri police officer left Americans questioning police-community relations. Mr. Brown is not the only case of concern in current police-community relations, which has become a very complex issue facing communities in the United States. Several other incidents across the country have tested the existing sense of trust between law enforcement and the communities in which they serve. A sense of decline in trust is causing citizens and communities to question whether police-citizen contacts are being handled in fair and practical manners, along with debates about transparency in lethal force encounters.

Law enforcement has experienced intense scrutiny and community dissention in regards to contemporary tactics used by police officers today. Several incidents ranging from the Watts Riots in 1965 to current, are questioning interpretation of cases decided

(and currently being decided) when an officer is tasked with utilizing force necessary to control an individual.

Though law enforcement authorities are expected to respect and work within the protections of the Constitution, there are instances which challenge them in making split-second decisions. These decisions may challenge an armed officer to shoot an unarmed citizen in order to preserve their life or the life of another. However, this power should not and cannot be held without a high level of scrutiny when an officer decides to shoot in response to a citizen's non-compliance or active resistance. A citizen's resistance will often dictate an officer's counter response to their non-compliance. As police training levels, departmental policies, screening and selection of recruits require great emphasis, the body-worn camera has proved a valuable asset in enhancing police practices and addressing societal concerns.

Statement of the Problem

Recent concerns over the use of physical force, specifically lethal force by police, have questioned the public's view of fair and ethical policing practices. These highly publicized shootings have also contributed to an increased number of mass incidents leading to protests and looting in the towns of Ferguson, Missouri, Baltimore, Maryland, and Charlotte, North Carolina.

In addition to the death of Michael Brown in 2014, Eric Garner of New York City also died because of police use of force. The deaths of these individuals have simmered distrust between many police departments and communities. In both cases, a grand jury returned a decision not to indict either officer based on the level of force applied on the arrestee. These decisions proved to not only question the public's sense of trust toward

police, but also have called for oversight and review from the federal government as it pertains to lethal force.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study explored if police officers wearing body-worn cameras contributed to an increased perception of safety among community members. Further emphasis centered on community support of body-worn cameras, officers who deployed the technology, and perceived trust of citizens geared at improving relations between police and the community. The researcher lastly explored, by asking sworn officers, if their wearing of a body-worn camera contributed to their own feeling of personal safety during each duty tour.

Barriers and Issues

Considerations were given to the following barriers and issues, as they could interfere or impact the proposed study:

Understanding that not all individuals assume the same views; participants surveyed may have had a different view on what they perceived as “safe.” With respect to training, not all citizens had the same (or any) technical and formal instruction as that of a police officer having been trained pursuant to state mandated training.

For a citizen, trying to understand what tactics the police can, or cannot deploy in split second scenarios may be complicated. This is reasonable, as thorough understanding and retention surrounding use-of-force law (and its application within the law) can be of challenge to even the most senior/master police officer. Lastly, technology has allowed us as a society the ability to access news and information around the clock. Social and

mainstream media have shown to “polarize” use-of-force encounters between police and citizens prior to the completion of any internal or criminal investigation findings/results.

Although the aforementioned barriers can impede a citizen’s understanding of all the facts and circumstances surrounding a police-citizen encounter during the preliminary stage(s), public perception of police conduct is at the forefront when an officer may have to resort to using lethal force during his or her contact with an individual. Perception is a very critical process when looking at how law enforcement is viewed through the eyes of the general public. A misunderstanding of police training (combined with preliminary news reports), can slow investigative processes associated with an incident. Furthermore, efforts by police to maintain order while balancing their relationship with the community can be stalled.

Feasibility Statement

As incorporated in this study of both citizens and police officers, the researcher has considered both groups would need to be sampled for purposes of data collection. The researcher felt both of these groups would be easily accessible, with little or no foreseen complication in asking them to voluntarily participate in taking a survey. The researcher had planned out where he could approach these groups by locating two heavily populated public locations in which to sample his citizen group. The researcher has also determined the police officer group could also be approached in public when not engaged in their lawful duties.

Definition of Terms

Technical terms used in this research study are defined to provide clarity to the reader. The following definitions of terms are used operationally:

Body-worn camera (BWC). A body-worn camera is a video recording device worn by law enforcement officers during the performance of their duties.

Perception. Perception is an awareness of elements of the environment through physical sensation.

Juror. A juror is a member of a jury or jury panel.

Citizen. A citizen is any individual a law enforcement officer may encounter during the course of their duty/assignment.

Evidence. Evidence is any item(s) that includes testimony and recording, presented in a court case that establishes a point in question.

Reasonable belief. Reasonable belief is the fact or circumstance an officer has been presented with that cause an ordinary and prudent person to conduct oneself in a similar way under similar circumstances.

Criminal case. A criminal case is a proceeding brought about by a prosecutor employed by the federal, state, or local government that charges a person with the commission of a crime.

Forensic science. Forensic science as it relates to law.

Use-of-force. Use-of-force is the application of force considered and applied by a law enforcement officer to achieve compliance or custody through the use of a variety of approved techniques.

Use-of-force continuum. Use-of-force continuum is a model that illustrates an appropriate officer response for a specific level of subject resistance.

Summary

This chapter discussed current phenomena when contemporary policing intersects with public perception. Events surrounding the deaths of Michael Brown and Eric Garner caused members of various communities to question and challenge police procedure. It also discussed the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, definition of terms, and the study's significance. The relevant literature discussing police use-of-force, case law specific to force, selection and training, and the body-worn camera will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The use of technology in policing is not a new concept. Rapid advancements are providing citizens the availability to capture a picture or video instantaneously via their mobile devices. Several federal appellate courts have upheld a First Amendment right to record police in cases including *Glik v. Cunniffe*, in 2011, *Smith v. City of Cummings*, in 2000, and *Fordyce v. City of Seattle*, in 1995 (Kopan, 2013). Just as a citizen can photograph and record the police, the same holds true for the police to record their encounters with citizens.

Video recording is proving to be a valuable asset mainly because of the accurate, unbiased record of events and conversations captured through the eye of an objective lens. The evidentiary value from these recordings is proving invaluable in respect to identifying suspects, noticing articles or weapons used in an incident, and capturing statements. Recording can also document a police officer's interactions with the public. Often contentious in court, video has played a crucial role when determining the admissibility of a suspect's statement to the police. If a statement or confession is legally challenged, an officer's video recording can often highlight whether Miranda warnings were lawfully applied. Through continued staff in-service training, technological equipment, and advancements in forensic science, police are noticing an increase not only in the solvability of crimes reported, but the identification and successful prosecution of those persons responsible (Roane, 2005).

The value of video is not limited to the investigation of criminal cases. It has allowed law enforcement agencies to continuously evaluate the roles in which technology

can benefit their department. Often referred to as “the backbone” of a police department, the uniformed men and women on the front lines are the professional representatives of their agency. Their image is fundamental in developing relationships and forming bonds within the communities they serve. Community trust and confidence within police service is gained by a department’s ability to maintain accountability of its members, while respecting the Constitutional rights of all people to liberty, equality, and justice. Constitutional policing increases the public’s trust, ensures safety, and respects the rights of the city’s residents (U.S. Department of Justice [U.S. DOJ], 2014).

One way to ensure public confidence in the police could be implementation of the body-worn camera. Similar to the in-car recording system utilized by police today, the body-worn camera system is a small recording device that is versatile and moves with the officer. It is not limited like the in-car systems affixed in a stationary manner providing only a frontal view from the officer’s patrol cruiser. The body-worn system will successfully capture his or her interactions with the public from a first-hand perspective.

Through the Department of Justice, the International Association of Chief of Police (IACP) (2002) conducted a national study to measure the impact of in-car cameras on state police and highway patrol agencies. Race-based traffic stop allegations by patrol officers and backing from the courts, the In-Car Camera Incentive Program measured the value and impact of cameras in policing. During the study, areas measured included the following:

- Officer safety.
- Professionalism and performance.
- Complaints concerning police practices.

- Public opinion.
- Agency Leadership.
- Training.
- Homeland security (Westphal, 2004).

Results from 20 state police departments and police agencies with 500 in-car camera systems found great benefit in these areas based on officer and agency feedback. Police administrations welcomed the tools as a means to ensure accountability and integrity, public respondents of written surveys indicated they approved of vehicles equipped with a camera, and troopers found the system to be a valuable tool they could use to critique a variety of scenarios. According to the responses of more than 3,000 officers completing the written survey, the statistical data indicates 96.2 percent of the time, the recoding of the event exonerated the officer of an allegation or complaint. Only 3.8 percent of the time was a complaint sustained by video evidence (Westphal, 2004).

Analysis of events captured in real time can determine whether an encounter was handled lawfully, and according to protocol. An accurate account of events allows for a transparent vehicle visible by both police and public, while promoting a sense of integrity and accountability to everyone.

In the United States, municipal, county, and state police control order under a Para militaristic rule. Gaining and maintaining cooperation is particularly important during police-public contact to ensure officer and public safety (Gibbs & Ahlin, 2013). Balancing both officer and public safety will undoubtedly raise questions in contemporary policing. To answer these questions, this review of the literature begins

with an examination of historical policing methods that led to modern day procedural, technological, and training methods.

Policing History

The ability to act freely is a basic fundamental desire of every human that has existed since the beginning of time. Acting freely, however, can produce negative consequences as freedom exercised by one person may jeopardize the safety of another. Sense of security is considered an extremely important aspect to daily life. When an individual becomes part of a community, he effectively agrees to abide by a social contract in which he renounces some of his freedoms in exchange for assurances that safety, equality, and justice will be given to him and each person in the community. In meeting the objectives of the social contract, some people in the community will be designated as “watchmen” over others (Skolnick, 2011).

Beginning around 900 A.D., the role of law enforcement was placed in the hands of common, everyday citizens. Each citizen was held responsible for aiding neighbors who might be victims of outlaws and thieves (Uchida, 1997). Because no police officers existed, individuals used state-sanctioned force to maintain social control. Citizens were primarily responsible for their kin, which later slowly developed into a more formalized “communitarian,” or community-based police system (Uchida, 1997).

In the 1800’s, Sir Robert Peel emphasized that it was important for a community to establish a policing system that would ensure safety for its citizens, and at the same time, not violate or interfere with the inalienable rights afforded to all persons. He also believed that it was just as important that policemen be held accountable to the rule of law, as it was for them to enforce it (Skolnick, 2011). After convincing the English

Parliament about a need for police, the London Metropolitan Police Act established a full-time, uniformed police force with the primary purpose of patrolling the city (Uchida, 1997).

Similar to Peel's model, and dating back to 1631 in Boston, Massachusetts, origins of a Night Watch can be traced to the nation's oldest police force; the Boston Police Department (Wells, 2003). From 1631, until the official creation of BPD in 1854, both the Night Watch and Day Police were tasked with nightly patrol(s) and the response to crimes. Functioning more along the lines of a military guard, the watchman consisted of property-owning male citizens over the age of 16, required to take turns on duty (Wells, 2003).

In our modern day era, countries throughout the world have established policing systems that operate at one point on a continuum of democracy between a more centralized style form of policing, and the other extreme, a more decentralized form (Haberfield & Cerrah, 2008, p. 4). These policing systems vary in terms of freedoms they allow their citizens in exchange for keeping their citizens safe. Some countries have opted to keep its military and policing force as separate entities while others have opted to combine them. Combining police and military is not practiced in the United States. Some countries see a need for putting restraints on the power of police, while others do not. Ultimately, the challenge of any democratic society is figuring out how to keep its citizens safe and at the same time ensuring that individual liberties are preserved. If we cannot trust those sworn to protect our constitutional liberties, then essentially, who can we trust?

Perception

An individual's encounter with police can leave an everlasting impression on how they view law enforcement. As defined by Merriam-Webster, *perception* is an awareness of the elements of environment through physical sensation. As police are typically on the "front line" when called upon to handle societal problems, negative perception may prove detrimental in both gaining and maintaining public trust. Whether an individual finds themselves the subject of arrest or witness police effecting an arrest, the way they are treated, or they perceive what they witness will impact their view of equal application of law. In fact, the citizen's confidence in the police depends on their perception of a police officer's motives more than, on whether the outcome of a contact with an officer was favorable to the citizen (Westphal, 2004).

The Bureau of Justice Statistics (2008) published the Police Public Contact Survey (PPCS) of persons who had contact with police during the previous 12 months. Whether they were a driver in a traffic stop or had contact for some other reason, they were asked if the police officer(s) used or threatened to use force against them during the contact. Survey respondents, who reported more than one contact during the year, were asked about the use or threat of force by police during their most recent contact. It was interesting to see that an estimated 84% of individuals who experienced force or the threat of force felt that the police acted improperly. Of those who experienced the use or threat of force in 2008 and felt the police acted improperly, 14% filed a complaint against the police (Bureau of Justice, 2008).

Society's view of force exercised by police to maintain order can prove contentious. What is viewed "excessive" or "unacceptable" by societal standards, may be

on the lower end of the Use of Force continuum guiding police. With law and order a primary concern and function of police, the ability to keep social control over a situation is largely dependent on citizens' perceptions of their legitimacy (Gibbs & Ahlin, 2013). Police illegitimacy has many negative consequences for the police during face-to-face contact with the public, "When they are not viewed as legitimate, their actions are subject to challenge, their decisions are not accepted, and their directives are ignored" (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003, p. 517). Currently, the law enforcement community is experiencing the most intense scrutiny and community dissention since the Vietnam War between the late 1960's to the early 1970's (Atkinson, 2016). In hopes of better understanding relations between the police and community, it may be beneficial to reflect on some significant events of the past.

Significant Cases

Watts, Los Angeles, 1965. In August of 1965, Marquette Frye was pulled over for reckless driving and eventually taken into custody on suspicion of drunk driving after failing roadside sobriety tests (Queally, 2015). While taking Frye into custody, a California Highway Patrolman was battered by Frye's mother, who jumped on his back. As a mass of bystanders gathered, police reinforcements responded and the situation eventually grew out of control with police accused of making racial slurs in the predominately Black neighborhood. Citing the cause of the mass disturbance, later known as the "Watts Riots," was anger and distrust between Watt's residents, the police and city officials, which had been simmering for years (Queally, 2015). By the time it was concluded, about 75 people (including 13 officers) were injured and dozens of buildings burned (Queally, 2015).

Detroit, Michigan, 1967. In 1967, Detroit police responded to an after-hours club where soldiers back from Vietnam were celebrating their return. As primarily White officers ended up arresting Black patrons, mass violence erupted after disproportionate force was used during the arrests (Klein, 2012). In five days, 43 people were killed, more than 1,100 injured, and over 7,000 arrested. The aftermath resulted in approximately 2,500 stores being damaged by looting and arson, and hundreds of families were displaced (Abbey-Lambertz, 2017).

Eric Garner, 2014. In July of 2014, Eric Garner was taken into custody by two, New York Police Department (NYPD) plain-clothes police officers investigating the illegal sale of “loose” cigarettes. Their encounter with Mr. Garner, who was ultimately placed in a chokehold, died as a result of this encounter. With many questions surrounding his death, video captured by a bystander would prove crucial during the medical examiner’s investigation. Without the video of Mr. Garner’s struggle with police, his death may have attracted little notice or uproar and the world may not have known how he died (Baker, Goodman, & Mueller, 2015). The video images were later cited in the final autopsy report as one of the factors that led the city medical examiner to conclude that the chokehold and chest compression by the police caused Mr. Garner’s death (Baker et al., 2015).

Michael Brown, 2014. In August of 2014, 18 year-old Michael Brown was shot and killed by Officer Darren Wilson. Tensions between Ferguson police and citizens escalated after members of the community believed Wilson (a White male), unlawfully shot Wilson (an unarmed Black male). Investigation of the matter later proved Brown was not armed at the time of the incident and Wilson acted lawfully in his application of

lethal force. After a grand jury rendered no indictment of the Ferguson officer, controversy over the shooting sparked national debate on whether Officer Wilson acted lawfully in preserving his life. Those who felt the shooting was unlawful called upon civil rights leaders to amplify their voice in reevaluating the actions of police when dealing with citizens. With strong concerns making their way to The White House, strong support from the public urged police be outfitted with body cameras.

Baltimore, Maryland, 2015. Freddie Gray was taken into police custody by officers of the Baltimore Police Department (BPD) after fleeing from police. Forty-seven minutes after the encounter, paramedics were called to attend to an unresponsive Gray who was secured in the back of a Baltimore police transport van (Sung & Shoichet, 2016). Asserting six Baltimore police officers were responsible for Mr. Gray's death and pursuing the case as a homicide, Baltimore District Attorney Marilyn Mosby levied charges against the six officers ranging that ranged from second-degree assault to second-degree murder.

Because of Mr. Gray's death and the pending charges, citizens filled the streets of Baltimore in anti-police protests. Several police officers were injured and numerous stores looted and set afire. As the situation escalated, Maryland Governor Larry Hogan declared a state of emergency and activated the National Guard to "gain control of this situation" (Sung & Shoichet, 2016).

Charlotte, North Carolina, 2016. Keith Lamont Scott was shot and killed in a North Carolina apartment complex after being encountered by police actively searching for a subject wanted on a warrant. Scott, in a vehicle when encountered by police, was observed by at least three officers to be holding a gun. After failing to comply with police

commands to drop his weapon, Scott was shot four times by Charlotte-Mecklenburg Officer Brentley Vinson.

After a unanimous decision by North Carolina prosecutors, a two-month investigation determined the forced deployed by Officer Vinson was deemed lawful and he was not charged (Yan, Zenteno, & Todd, 2016). The shooting of Mr. Scott set off days of protests, some of it violent, by community members who demanded police release footage of both body-worn and dashboard recordings capturing the event (Baker et al., 2015). Despite public announcement by his family that Scott had suffered from a traumatic brain injury and was not armed during the event, police recovered a .380 caliber firearm that fell to ground and later showed to contain Scott's Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA) on the handle.

Case Law

Often, the decision of police to use force during the performance of their duties is dictated by the circumstances presented at the time of an encounter. Many of those encounters are introduced and discussed at the police academy during the high liability instructional block of training. Resistance to physical presence or verbal direction(s) by a citizen, at the authority of police, is the first resistance level when evaluating and understanding the Use-of-Force Continuum. When an officer feels it necessary to utilize or deploy forceful action on a citizen, factors such as reasonableness and the amount of force applied will later be evaluated and critiqued. Careful overview will determine whether the situation warranted force, if the force was reasonable, and if the officer acted accordingly based on their training, within their department policy, and within the four corners of state or federal law.

Two main decisions in determining Use-of-Force cases were both handed down by the United States Supreme Court. The following rulings were set in the 1980's and are the current legal standard in determining whether an officer used unnecessary, excessive, or even deadly force. These decisions are instrumental in guiding both police behavior and standard operating principles, or policy, at the agency level. The following two landmark decisions are referred to under the federal standard of law:

Tennessee v. Garner. Tennessee v. Garner – (Decided in 1985), was a ruling on the use of deadly force and commonly referred to as the “Fleeing Felon Rule.” A peace officer may use deadly force in defense of his/her life, defending another’s life, or in pursuit of a fleeing felon. The Court holds, “Where the officer has probable cause to believe that the suspect poses a threat or serious physical harm, either to the officer or others, it is not constitutionally unreasonable to prevent escape by using deadly force.” The use of deadly force must be reasonably necessary to prevent the suspect’s escape and alternative steps are not likely to lead to the safe control of the subject. Such force may not be used unless it is necessary to prevent the escape (Tennessee v. Garner, 1985). Some examples of the Tennessee v. Garner decision include a suspect threatening a subject with a weapon, or the officer having probable cause to believe the suspect has committed a crime involving the infliction or threatened infliction of serious harm.

Graham v. Connor. Graham v. Connor – (Decided in 1989), was a ruling where the United States Supreme Court applied the “reasonableness standard” to the Fourth Amendment to use of force actions by the police. Reasonableness is determined by balancing “the nature and quality of the intrusion” against “the countervailing governmental interests.” These factors include:

- The severity of the crime at issue.
- Whether the suspect poses an immediate threat to the safety of officers and others.
- Whether the suspect is actively resisting arrest or attempting to evade arrest by flight.

In judging reasonableness, it is “judged from the prospective of a reasonable officer on the scene, rather than with the 20/20 vision hindsight” (Graham v. Connor, 1989). The following two-prongs apply:

- The reasonableness standard must make an allowance for the fact that police officers are often forced to make split-second judgments in circumstances that are tense, uncertain, and rapidly evolving.
- An officer’s use of force will be judged at the moment the force is used (Michigan State Police, 2010).

As the above-described decisions govern the legality of using force, it is incumbent upon every law enforcement agency to have a Use-of-Force policy in place that formalizes standard conduct by its officers. General orders represent a central mechanism available to law enforcement leadership who confront recurring and potentially problematic enforcement issues, and nearly every American police department relies on them to some degree. The implicit hope is that by formalizing a department policy on a particular issue, officer conduct will be consistent and appropriate. However, that does not always happen (Grattet, 2004).

In general, police administrators well versed in the area, applicable techniques, regulations, and operating procedures of the department write policy. Once drafted, the

department's legal advisor or city attorney reviews it before a final review by the agency's police chief. By implementing procedures formed as departmental policy, guidelines provide each officer with a foundation of approved practices or methods within which to work. It is important to note that since no one scenario is the same and situations can evolve dynamically, deviation from department policy does not necessarily mean the officer was unjust in his or her actions. In addition to, and generally as part of an agency's policy, any use of force applied by an officer will require documentation of the steps and actions utilized to gain compliance from the subject. That information, documented in the officer's official report, is sent through the chain-of-command where it is first reviewed by their immediate supervisor. After the supervisor reviews the report of their subordinate, the supervisor completes a separate report, a Use-of-Force – Supervisor's Report, that accompanies the details of the officer's conduct up the chain for final review by the police chief. The chief determines if the officer acted within the law and department policy pertinent to his or her actions. The officer's conduct, demeanor, knowledge of the Use-of-Force Continuum, training, and experience are all considered in the totality of the circumstances to either sustain or reject protocol.

Use of Force

When a police officer is challenged to utilize force on an individual, he or she immediately resorts to their knowledge, training, and skill-set to successfully neutralize that encounter. What tactics he or she will use, and how they will be deployed, is often determined in a split-second decision making process with little or no knowledge of the person they are using force on. To gain a better understanding of when and why a police

officer would resort to using force, one has to appreciate what is referred to the Use of Force Continuum.

The primary objective in successfully taking a subject into custody or protecting the life of the officer (or another), is to do so using only the amount of force necessary to effect the arrest or neutralize the situation. From the first day of police training, to late in the officer's career, that officer must be able to quickly decide on an option of force from within the levels of the Continuum.

The Continuum is a theory structured around utilizing the proper escalation of force when an officer is confronted with specific types of resistance from a subject. The resistance of the subject, when lawfully being detained by an officer, is met with proportional use of force. Force can quickly escalate, or de-escalate, based on the totality of the circumstances. The following are examples of a subject action(s) on the Continuum:

- Inactive Resistance – Psychological intimidation, verbal resistance, blank stare, clenching of fist(s), etc.
- Passive Resistance – The subject is not attempting to defeat the officer's attempt to touch and control them, but will not voluntarily comply with the officer's demands. An example of this would be someone who becomes "dead weight," when an officer attempts to place them into their police cruiser.
- Active Resistance – This is any attempt by a subject to prevent an officer from gaining control of the subject. Examples include, pulling/pushing away from an officer while he/she attempts secure them into handcuffs, defeating any time of control hold, etc.

- Active Aggression – This includes physical/assaults against the officer or another person that are less than deadly force. An example may be a subject who is advancing toward an officer, punching, kicking, grabbing, or attempting to wrestle the officer.
- Deadly Force – Force used against an officer or another, which may result in great bodily harm or death. An example of this would be a subject who advances toward an officer or another with a knife or deadly weapon with the intention of inflicting great bodily harm or killing them.

As each level of resistance is presented to an officer, they are generally authorized to utilize one level of force higher on the continuum to protect human life and control a subject's actions. Below are the levels of control an officer may deploy in response to a subject's actions as above described:

- Officer Presence/Verbal Direction – This is the mere presence of the officer identifying their authority. An example of this would be an officer arriving at a scene in their uniform, via their fully marked patrol cruiser.
- Compliance Controls – This include soft empty hand techniques (a pressure point, joint lock, etc.) to control compliance of a subject through the use of temporary pain. An example of using this would include a subject who starts resisting verbal direction or tightened his/her muscles, not wanting to comply with the officer's verbal directions.
- Physical Controls – These controls are utilized when a subject action includes active resistance or active aggression. An example of this is the subject tries to defeat the officer's control or punches/kicks the officer.

- Intermediate Controls – These are impact weapons an officer carries on their duty belt such as an expandable baton, a flashlight, or Taser. An example of deploying this type of control would be for a subject who is displaying active aggression or other forms of empty hand control techniques have failed.
- Deadly Force – This is any force used by an officer that has a reasonable probability to cause death. Although most people would immediately think of an officer shooting another with his gun, examples could range from an officer striking a combatant in the head with his baton, to choking a combatant to death who was attempting to disarm him or had control of his weapon in a ground struggle.

Since any continuum has tremendous training and legal implications, officers and police administrators are always in the search for definitive and absolute guidelines in the application of force (PPCT Management Systems, 2005, 2-9). Sometimes it is not that easy. Situations involving the use of force can rapidly evolve in a direction where the officer is immediately faced with resorting to deadly force.

Much like looking for these guidelines, law enforcement agencies are also looking for ways to create and build trust between its officers and the public. If the citizens cannot trust those sworn to uphold the Constitution and protect them while guaranteeing their liberties, then who can they trust? If they feel the police are too “heavy handed,” they may resent or dismiss police authority. Extensive research by Tyler (2004) and his colleagues indicated that this public support and cooperation are undermined when the community does not view the police as legitimate. Conversely, the general goals of the

police department are best served if the law is not enforced so strictly as to generate resentment in the ordinary law-abiding citizen (Skolnik, 2011).

Selection & Training

An officer's training can often determine his/her ability to efficiently handle the everyday service request when called upon by public, as well as effectively minimizing and de-escalating situations that pose a potential to be hostile. A department's ability to recognize, institute, and promote good training practices, starts with upper lever administration. Many researchers and practitioners argue that good decision-making on the streets is at the core of good policing and good police administration (Cordner & Scarborough, 2010). Prior to any formal or specialized training, candidate selection and training should be highly scrutinized. Adopting and adhering to this sound philosophy, will allow for the hiring and retention of those best suited for policing.

Selection. After an agency has identified their staffing needs, the agency will begin the pre-employment phase of hiring. This area is a crucial part of the process, as screening and training of new police officers is time consuming and expensive (Allisey, Noblet, Lamontagne, & Hourmont, 2014). Estimations suggest it takes several years before police authorities can achieve effective returns on their investments in new officers (Allisey et al., 2014). Since the purpose of pre-employment screening of police applicants is to find the best candidates, the goal is twofold and involves screening out unsuitable applicants and selecting the best ones (Sanders, 2008). In order to accomplish this, those tasked with selecting and retaining valuable candidates should have a good bearing on the characteristics and traits paralleling this role.

Even the most “seasoned” background investigators and hiring officials face challenges in identifying those unfit for this profession. Research has provided limited guidance on how to select the most suitable recruits (Henson, Reynolds, Klahm, & Frank, 2010; Sanders, 2008). Despite numerous studies, it has been difficult to predict successful job performance among police officers (Asmodt, 2004). Reckless and irresponsible behaviors (e.g. inappropriate use of force, abusive language) both consume resources, in terms of greater supervision, dismissals, and poorer performance, but also risk harming others, undermine the public trust (e.g. by poor publicity), and decrease the trust among police officers (Sanders, 2008). Since the candidate will be a direct representative of the department or government agency they represent, their individual actions can impact civilian and officer safety, and more generally, public opinion of a department or of law enforcement as a whole (Decicco, 2000).

Background investigation. After preliminary selection and before attending a police academy, candidates undergo a thorough background investigation prior to starting employment. This background investigation delves into their education, employment history, known associates, personal history, and any past/present criminal history. Consistent past history of one’s poor decision making abilities, associating with a known criminal(s), or unsavory moral character may look unfavorably from within and outside (publicly) the respective organization. Overall, the candidate hired is someone who will have the power to arrest and the authority to use deadly force, engage in high-speed pursuits, and use judgment that courts may scrutinize (Bushway, 2004).

Police academy. After the recruitment and selection process of a law enforcement candidate, the recruit is sent to a formalized training academy where he/she will be

instructed on the areas of criminal law, procedure, and tactics, just to name a few. During an 18-week timeframe in Michigan for example, the recruit will also be exposed to several high liability areas an officer could commonly encounter. Commonplace in most departments, those areas of high liability include defensive/pursuit driving, firearms training, defensive tactics (using force), and first aid/CPR. With a high emphasis placed specifically in these areas, the recruit is given multiple tests and application scenarios, to test their ability in making split-second decisions based on their previous studies and information provided during the assessment.

After completing the formalized training academy, the recruit will take what is called a “state test” to determine their proficiency in all areas of their past 18-week training. If the recruit passes the academy, they will be recognized in their respective state as a “certifiable” candidate and ready to be employed and sworn in as a certified peace officer. After being sworn in by their respective employer, they will begin the formal process of field training. It is at this point where the recruit now begins his/her journey between what they have learned in the classroom and how to apply that learning in the field.

Field training phase. Field training is very important. Prior to 1970’s, there were no structured training programs for a rookie officer who joined a police department. The training standard varied from briefly partnering with a senior officer, to gaining knowledge and skills through one’s operational exposure and experience, on the job.

The San Jose Police Department (SJPD) utilized examples like those described above. SJPD had a policy for training, but that policy (drafted in the late 1960’s), only required all their officers to attend a certified academy, through California’s Police

Officer Standardized Training (P.O.S.T.) before working street duty. There was no training program to assist the rookie officer in exiting the academy and reporting to active duty (San Jose Police Department [S.J.P.D.], 2014).

After a year of review, in 1971 San Jose Police Department adopted a Recruit Training Management Program. In 1972, San Jose implemented the program that focused on arming the new recruits with the key ingredients necessary to perform at a professional and acceptable level of policing as a solo officer. After careful review of over 3,000 Daily Observation Reports (DOR) by experienced field training officers, SJPD identified 31 traits that were deemed necessary for a police officer's success. Identified today as "Standardized Evaluation Guidelines" or SEG's, 38 behavioral anchors are evaluated on a DOR (i.e., Handout A, Unit 3, Lesson 2, see Appendix A) (Florida Department of Law Enforcement, 2011).

After receiving national recognition from the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), the California Legislature adopted the program as the state standard. Many departments have standardized models similar to the San Jose Model, as numerous police agencies have across the United States. Departments modeling the San Jose Police Department's FTO Program institute the following objectives of the SJPD:

- To train and evaluate all recruit officers in preparation for solo patrol duty.
- To achieve a 90% success rate for all recruit officers trained.
- To train newly appointed field training officers and sergeants in preparation for their new duties.
- To provide information and training to outside agencies in the development of the San Jose Model of the Field Training and Evaluation Program (SJPD.org).

A model such as the San Jose Model discussed above allows police agencies to develop and train highly skilled professionals that will provide premium law enforcement services to citizens in the community. The future success of any agency begins with a good Field Training Officer (FTO) program. This success is built not only on having well trained field training officers and the tools they need to help staff become better professionals, but also on the support of everyone in the agency (Wagner, 2014).

Continued education. Attending a basic police academy and completion of a Field Training Program (FTP) will not complete the training of a new police officer. As this is merely “the beginning” of the formalized training, their training will continue through departmental in-service and education in specific societal problems requiring advanced and specialized instruction. Between both areas, officers will stay abreast of the latest updates in laws and procedures, high liability areas (to include defensive tactics and lethal encounters) and general orders relevant to department rules, regulation(s), and officer conduct.

The idea of advanced training is not a new concept. Former Police Chief August Vollmer introduced the idea that education could improve policing in the 1920’s (Gardiner, 2015). Society has significantly changed since then, and the need for continued education in policing should be constant. Research has consistently found that officers with college degrees perform better than officers without a college degree on specific measures of performances (Roberg & Bonn, 2004; Smith & Aamodt, 1997). College-educated officers also have fewer citizen complaints filed against them (Kappeler, Sapp, & Carter, 1992; Lersch & Kunzman, 2001; Manis, Archbold, & Hassell, 2008; Wilson, 1999), have fewer disciplinary actions taken against them (Cohen &

Chaiken, 1972), use less force than officers without a college degree (Chapman, 2012; Fyfe, 1988; Roberg & Bonn, 2004; Rydberg & Terrill, 2010) and overall, are less likely to become involved in an individual liability case (Carter, Sapp, & Stephens, 1989).

The Body-Worn Camera

Other than law, departmental policy, training, and ethics guiding the actions of police, the advent of the body-worn camera may shed a great deal of insight about police interactions with the public. This technology may provide first hand perspective of an event, use of force incident, or public encounter with the police officer wearing it.

Advantageous to the public and officer alike, the camera carries no animosity, prejudice, or personal influences when capturing an incident. An officer's behavior or demeanor when interacting with citizens or members of the public may also remind him or her of potential for review of the encounter.

Information provided by Taser International, provides specifications related to its "Axon Flex" camera system (see Appendix B). The operating camera itself is a small apparatus weighing approximately 15 grams (Taser, 2012). It is small, can be affixed to an officer's shirt pocket, hat, collar, shoulder, or a pair of specially designed eyeglasses that the officer wears. The unit displays full color and has several hours of battery life that can last approximately 12 hours (Taser, 2012). It is water resistant and can store hours of recording between police and the public. Ranging in price from \$150 - \$300 U.S.D. per unit, the camera itself does not appear to be unreasonable in price for the benefits it is capable of providing. This is strictly the costs associated with the camera itself and research on this topic finds that the software associated with operating the technology and storing what the camera records can be extremely costly.

Recorded interactions between police and the public have both positive and negative consequences. Recording an officer's daily activity allows any allegations of misconduct, mistreatment, or malfeasance by an officer to be internally reviewed. Review of the officer's body camera can quickly sustain, or substantiate the allegation(s) from the individual making the complaint.

Should a use of force encounter, such as a police involved shooting present itself, the evidence left behind at a crime scene can be extremely valuable to a forensic investigator by way of providing a fair representation of what transpired at the scene. This is also valuable in the sense that this evidence can be admitted into a court of law and allows a jury to independently view a crucial firsthand account. The body-worn camera can document the scene thoroughly and accurately by collecting all facts and audible evidence through the objective eye of the camera. The United States Supreme Court has long recognized the importance of scientific evidence especially when compared to other types of evidence commonly used in criminal trials such as eyewitness identifications, confessions, and informant testimony (Giannelli, 2005).

The body-worn camera can also be a means of managing force used by police. Several lines of research suggest that most species alter their behavior once aware that they are being observed (Ariel, Farrar, & Sutherland, 2015). An officer deploying a body-worn camera may be more cognitively and socially aware of his or her behavior because of the knowledge that someone else is watching. Particularly around crime and disorder, when consequences of apprehension are perceived as harsh (imprisonment, fines, etc.), people simply do not want to get caught (Ariel, Farrar, & Sutherland, 2015). Adhering to

this reasoning, one could presume the same would hold true in situations where the citizenry is aware police are recording them.

The body-worn camera can also have a downside. Those police-public interactions can now influence a citizen or witness to a crime to be hesitant in coming forward with information about a crime or incident they may have witnessed, been part of, or contain firsthand knowledge of. This could hamper the questioning of potential suspects and witnesses, on scene, where the flow of expeditious information may slow when an officer is trying to establish facts necessary to solve a criminal situation. Officers may also be hesitant to engage in certain lawful conduct or conversations between other officers or colleagues in fear that their conversations may be misinterpreted or taken wrongly if unexpectedly viewed or “spot checked” by first line supervisors and other police administrators.

According to a 2014 article published in *U.S. News and World Report*, when some members of the Rialto, California Police Force began wearing cameras in February of 2012, instances in which force was used dropped significantly, as did complaints of police misconduct. Using a control group, the Rialto study found the use of force was cut by half in shifts where cameras were employed, and that officers not wearing cameras received three times as many complaints as those with cameras (Sneed, 2014).

Summary

This chapter discussed relevant literature discussing police use-of-force, case law specific to force, selection and training, and the body-worn camera. Topics covering the research method, participants, instrumentation, procedure, and data collection for this study are examined in the next chapter.

Research Questions

Researcher surveys focused on answering the following research questions:

RQ #1 – What is the perception of a group of citizens with respect to their safety when police officers wear body-worn cameras?

RQ #2 – What is the perception of a group of police officers with respect to their support of body-worn cameras?

Chapter 3: Methodology

Research Method

The current study intended to be a descriptive survey designed to measure public and law-enforcement perception of body-worn police cameras. The researcher sought approval from the International Review Board (IRB) at Nova Southeastern University to author a survey that was used to collect data on this topic. The survey design consisted of a self-administered questionnaire, surveying participants (both the public and sworn officers) about their feelings on safety.

The survey was prepared by the author and used solely for purposes of this study. This survey method allowed multiple responses to be collected in a relatively short period. The sampling was non-probability sampling as the design and convenience sampling for the surveys that were administered. The sample sizes were single staged, using a non-random distribution of questionnaires to citizens of the Tampa, “Bay” area of Hillsborough and Pinellas counties in Florida. The goal was to obtain results from 200 perspective citizens and 200 sworn law enforcement officers. Data analysis was performed utilizing a One-Sample Binomial Test.

Participants

The participants from this study included a sample of one hundred and sixty-six citizens (n=166), and two hundred sworn law enforcement officers (n=200).

Citizens

All citizen participants were approached in a large, common, public area of either the International Mall or John F. Germany Public Library located in Tampa, Florida. Both venues provided the researcher an opportunity to easily approach citizens at random

and ask those individuals to voluntarily take a 10-question survey for the researcher. The age and gender of all residents included both males 43% (71 of 166), and females 57% (95 of 166), whom were adults beyond 18 years of age. Demographic data of respondents revealed 23% identified as Hispanic; 19% African American; 48% Caucasian; 4% Asian and 6% identifying as “Other.” In terms of age, 26% of respondents were between 18-25 years old; 36% 26-40; 20% 41-50 and 18% above 51 years. The researcher attempted to equally disseminate the surveys in hopes of obtaining 100 surveys from each gender. All residents surveyed were randomly selected while out in public, and only citizens of the Tampa Bay Area were included in the sampling.

Police Officers

Participants for this group included a sample of two hundred police officers (n=200) whom were identified and selected while in public. These participants were identified during their police patrols or citizen contacts, which provided the researcher a convenience in his sampling. The age and gender of all sworn officers included both males 60% (120 of 200), and females 40% (80 of 200), who were adults beyond 18 years of age. Demographic data of respondents revealed 20% identified as Hispanic; 29% African American; 35% Caucasian; 6% Asian and 10% identifying as “Other.” In terms of age, 14% of respondents were between 18-25 years old; 42% 26-40; 34% 41-50 and 10% above 51 years. Police officers were not currently engaged in an active scenario (actively investigating a crime, speaking with a citizen, etc.) and were asked if they would voluntarily complete a 10-question survey. Only those officers appearing to be on “down time,” or proactively conducting patrols were approached and asked for their voluntary participation.

Instrumentation

The author measured responses provided by the participants on their feelings concerning safety and body-worn cameras through two (2) self-constructed surveys. The first survey, (see Appendix C) was distributed to citizens of the Tampa Bay Area while the second survey, (see Appendix D) was distributed to only state certified police officers employed in the Tampa Bay Area. Both surveys did not currently exist and were produced specifically for use in this study. Questions contained in each survey were designed in a way that was clear and concise to the participant. The results were measured using a sample and comparison survey. Each participant received an informed consent form approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Nova Southeastern University (NSU). The informed consent form described the survey, and all possible risks and benefits associated with it. Participants were asked to read the informed consent form before completing the survey. The author's survey was only distributed to those individuals willing to participate. Respondents were informed they could withdrawal from the survey at any time, as the survey was voluntary. Respondents were asked to read each question thoroughly, and complete the survey individually. Participants were directed not to discuss their responses with anyone else. Each survey consisted of ten (10) mixed-questions that elicited "yes" or "no," and Lykert scale response focusing on (RQ #1) citizen perception with respect to their safety when police officers wear body-worn cameras, and (RQ #2) perception of police officers with respect to their support of body-worn cameras.

Survey questions asked of citizens (Appendix C) included, but were not limited to the following questions:

1. To what extent do you feel safe in your community when you are outside alone during the day?
2. Do you feel body-worn cameras will enhance safety between officers and the public while objectively documenting their encounters? Yes or No?

With respect to questions asked of police officers (Appendix D), the following questions included, but were not limited to the following:

1. Do you feel body-worn cameras are capable of improving documentation between police-citizen encounters?
2. Do you support police officers wearing body-worn cameras in the performance of assigned shifts? Yes or No?

Research Procedure

The study consisted of non-experimental research utilizing a survey approach with a cross-sectional design. The researcher's survey was distributed to citizens and officers within the Tampa Bay Area. The researcher made no attempt to persuade or influence anyone into participating in the survey. The participants were able to decide for themselves whether they would participate in the study and were advised they could stop the survey at any time. After reading the informed consent, a ten-question survey was distributed to each participant. Responses were limited to either yes or no responses. The participants were not required to provide their name or any identifying material, as the instrument would remain anonymous and confidential. A writing instrument (pen or pencil), along with a clipboard to write on was made available to each participant if they didn't have one of their own. The instructions on the survey were designed to be easy to understand. After completion of the surveys, the completed forms were placed in an

enclosed box and the participants were free to leave. Once the researcher reached his intended sampling totals, no additional sampling was conducted.

Data Analysis

This analysis consisted mostly, as is customary in survey research, of descriptive statistics. The data from the surveys and the equipment used for analysis was that of a Hewlett Packard; Pavilion; “g7” series; laptop computer. The researcher utilized the Statistical Package for The Social Sciences (SPSS) V-22 software, specifically chosen for all data collected. The researcher expected and identified limitations to the study.

Data Collection

On April 25, 2017, the researcher prepared and submitted an application requesting agency permission from the Institutional Review Board at Nova Southeastern University to begin data collection on his research project. The application included a detailed narrative of the research, along with two, individually authored, 10-question surveys each preceded by an informed consent form. The first survey was geared specifically at sampling Tampa Bay Area citizens (Appendix C), while the other (Appendix D) focused on sampling only sworn Florida police officers working in Tampa Bay.

On May 20, 2017, the researcher was granted approval by the IRB to begin data collection as principal investigator on his study. With a goal to obtain results from 200 perspective citizens (n=200) and 200 law enforcement officers (n=200), the researcher commenced survey distribution for his data collection. Beginning on May 21, 2017, and over the course of four weeks, the researcher distributed his self-authored surveys amongst the two respective groups. Two predetermined sites (International Mall and John

F. Germany Public Library) were chosen as sampling venues, as each location allowed convenient access to a vast amount of pedestrian foot traffic traversing a large public area. As individuals walked past the researcher, they were approached and asked if they would voluntarily participate in a 10-question survey for his final PhD. Dissertation Study.

Individuals whom agreed to voluntarily participate in the study were asked if they were a Florida citizen (over 18 years) or certified Florida law enforcement officer prior to receiving a survey. Depending on each response, participants were handed either a citizen or police officer survey. Each participant was asked to complete the survey in its entirety and return it directly to the researcher prior to leaving the area. Writing utensils (pen or pencil) and a clipboard were provided with each survey distributed. The participants were not required to fill in their name or any identifying material, as this was an anonymous and confidential survey. The instructions on the survey were designed to be easy to understand. All returned surveys were placed directly into a large manila envelope designated as "Survey Responses." To ensure a chain-of-custody, the manila envelope remained in the care and custody of the researcher.

After a period of four weeks, a total of 166 citizen surveys and 200 police surveys were collected from each respective population. All surveys were checked to ensure all questions were thoroughly answered and no spoiled surveys existed. Survey data was totaled and correlated according to the participant's response. "Yes" responses were coded numerically as 1, and "No" responses were coded numerically as 2.

Summary

This chapter discussed the research method, participants, instrumentation, procedure, and data collection. The study's hypothesis, research questions, and results are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: Results

Amid the recent wake of police shootings around the country, public concerns have emerged regarding the amount of force used by law enforcement. Surrounding those shootings is the public's trust of law enforcement in regards to their safety while interacting with police. Though a low number of citizens are involved in force-related incidents with police, their perception of safety and trust with law enforcement needs to remain high. Same holds true for those professionals policing society. It is for this reason, the researcher decided to examine whether 21st Century technology; specifically police body-worn cameras, contributed to those perceptions. Examination of this topic has led the researcher to answer the following research questions:

Analysis

A statistical analysis was performed using a One-Sample Binomial Test to determine the perceptions of both citizens and police officers relevant to body-worn cameras. After all data was collected, the researcher performed this test via the IBM, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program. The data compared the proportions and assessed the strength of the difference in terms of signal-to-noise ratio. The preference of confidence interval was that of 95% (the boundary of the error range).

Results – Citizens

One hundred and sixty-six citizens answered, and completed, one hundred percent of the following responses. In this sample, the researcher determined the samples were enough to allow the normal distribution to serve as an approximation of the binomial distribution. The two-tailed P-Value was determined to be .000 which is significantly

less than 0.05. Based on the P-Value being less than .05, there was sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

RQ #1

A total of 25% of respondents had been victims of assault, robbery, battery, domestic violence, stalking or harassment in their lifetimes; however, only 56% reported their victimization to law enforcement. When asked about their contact with law enforcement in the past 12 months for non-emergency calls, 63% reported no contact with law enforcement officers in their community, 31% reported having 1-2 contacts, 3% reported having 3- 4 contacts, 1% reported having 5-6 contacts and 2% reported 7 or more contacts with law enforcement. Thirty-four (34) percent of respondents reported feeling safe “to a great extent” in their respective communities during the daytime, while 39% reported feeling safe “a lot.” Only 19% of respondents felt “somewhat” safe during the day, while 8% felt “a little” safe during daytime hours. In contrast, 10% of the same respondents reported feeling safe to a “great extent” during the nighttime, while 33% felt safe “a lot.” Thirty-six (36) percent viewed nighttime hours in their communities as “somewhat” safe while 17% felt “a little” safe. Those whom reported feeling “not at all” safe totaled 4%.

The researcher looked at how citizens perceived their law enforcement agency when it came to proactively preventing crime. Nine (9) percent felt police were proactively preventing crime “to a great extent,” while 45% felt police were effective “a lot.” Whereas 36% perceived the police to be “somewhat” effective, only 8% agreed they were “a little” effective. The remaining 2% felt police were not effective at all.

When asked if body-worn cameras were affixed to police officers serving their neighborhoods, 16% reported officers deployed them. Ten (10) percent revealed officers in their neighborhoods did not deploy a body-worn camera while 74% didn't know if the technology was deployed. Respondents were asked their level of satisfaction during their encounters with police. A total of 23% reported feeling "very satisfied," while 45% felt "satisfied." Twenty-five (25) percent felt "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" whereas 5% felt "dissatisfied." Only 1% reported their interactions with police as "very dissatisfied."

A total of 91% of the respondents felt cameras would enhance safety between officers and the public while objectively documenting police-citizen encounters opposed to 9% whom disagreed. While 87% of respondents felt body worn cameras would have a direct impact on an officer's behavior, the remaining 13% of those surveyed felt it would not.

Lastly, respondents were asked if they support the use of body-worn cameras by law enforcement. A total of 96% favored use whereas 4% did not. Of similar support, 93% feels police agencies should adopt body-worn cameras for all front line (uniformed patrol) officers with only 7% in disagreement.

Results – Police

In this sample, the researcher determined the samples were enough to allow the normal distribution to serve as an approximation of the binomial distribution. The two-tailed P-Value was determined to be .000 which is significantly less than 0.05. Based on the P-Value being less than .05, there was sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

RQ #2

A total of 100% of respondents accounted for being employed as a state certified police officer in the Tampa Bay Area. The median years of police service for 42% of these officers ranged between 5 and 15 years of full-time; sworn police experience. Thirty-four (34) percent possessed between 15 to 25 years of experience; 12% held over 25 years of experience; 10% held between 1 to 5 years of experience, and 2% had less than 1 year of experience. When asked how they would rate police crime solving abilities depicted on crime-related television shows, 15% answered “very high,” 15% answered “high,” 18% rated the abilities as “average,” 20% felt they were “low,” 10% yielded a “very low” response, 1% “didn’t know,” and 21% didn’t view these types of programs.

When asked about physically using force to overcome an unruly or combative subject actively resisting arrest in the past 3 months, 55% percent reported they did physically engage a resistive subject, while 45% stated they had not. In respect to respondents being summoned for court appearances, 12% reported having appeared “very often,” 30% “somewhat often,” 57% “somewhat seldom” appeared, and 1% “didn’t know.”

Only 1% of respondents reported body-worn technology as not currently being deployed in their respective agencies whereas the remaining 99% confirmed they were. Only 12% percent of respondents accounted for wearing a body-worn camera during the performance of their law enforcement duties as they were currently assigned to a front line, uniformed position. The 88% of respondents not deploying the camera cited their current position (12% plain clothes; 21% detective; 23% special assignment; 32% “other”) for non-use. A total of 63% of sworn officers feel police agencies should not

adopt body-worn cameras for first line (uniformed) responders where as 37% disagreed. A total of 58% of the respondents “agreed” (43% “agreed,” 15% “strongly agreed”) that body-worn cameras are capable of improving documentation between police-citizen encounters whereas 25% “didn’t agree nor disagreed.” Those whom “disagreed” accounted for 12% of total respondents followed by 5% whom “strongly disagreed.” Overall, when asked if they support police officers wearing body-worn camera in the performance of assigned shifts, 65% of respondents were supportive whereas 35% were not.

Summary

This chapter discussed the analysis from both instruments (citizen and police surveys) that were conducted and the results were presented. The next chapter will explore the study’s findings from comparing the two independent sample proportions (One-Sample Binomial Test), discussion of the findings, future research directions, limitations, and final recommendations.

Chapter 5: Findings

Discussion of Findings

The current study set out to provide an evaluation of police body-worn cameras and their perceived safety impact on citizens. The study was not limited to citizens (n=166) and included sworn police officers (n=200) in the sampling. Relying on data provided by each group via a self-authored instrument presented by the researcher, a number of key findings emerged and are highlighted below.

In examining citizen perception of law enforcement proactively addressing crime and interacting with the public, the researcher found many aspects of the study to be of interest. Seventy-four (74) percent of citizens reported feeling safe either “a lot,” or “to a great extent” in their communities during the day, and 43% felt the same during the nighttime. Despite a 31% disparity in the two, the possibility of nighttime itself may have contributed to those responses. Further, it should be noted that neither the crime rate(s) nor security measures surrounding respondent residences or respective communities were measured.

How an agency polices their community also contributes to how they are perceived in the community. As evidenced in both Watts, Los Angeles and Detroit, Michigan, civil unrest prevailed after members of the predominately black neighborhoods felt disrespect and unfair application of force at the hands of predominately white officers. Community outrage was equivalent in the New York, Ferguson, Baltimore and Charlotte cases, where white officers responded to resistance presented by black male arrestees. Although the researcher did not uncover enough information specific to use-of-force for Watts and Detroit, the latter cities did present significant findings. Despite

public perception of the officers of New York, Ferguson, Baltimore and Charlotte, investigations (to include federal Department of Justice examination) cleared all officers from exercising excessive force. Results of these investigations revealed the officers were justified in their actions based on a totality of all facts, evidence, and circumstances presented to investigators. Neither the race of the suspect or officer held any influence in the decisions of these investigations; rather whether or not the officer responded appropriately to the scenario(s) they faced based on their training and use-of-force training.

The philosophy of keeping the community safe while addressing crime is a delicate balance that is challenging, but attainable. Here, more than half (54%) of the same citizen group felt police in their respective communities were effective “a lot,” or “to a great extent” when it came to their police department’s crime fighting initiative.

Since a crime or request for police service can occur day or night, the decision to report an incident ultimately rests with the citizen making report. The first step of this exchange will involve some type of interaction between the individual, and “first line” or uniform police officer assigned to handle the matter. When asked about satisfaction levels pertaining to their encounters with law enforcement, 68% of citizen respondents reported a feeling of “satisfied” or “very satisfied.” Though 63% of citizens sampled over the past 12 months have not reported having contact with police, the remaining 37% have reported at least one or more interactions.

So why is this relevant? As the majority of citizens surveyed haven’t interacted with police in the past year (and unknown if they’ve had prior contact), the possibility of police interaction exists in the future. One’s first interaction (or for the 37% who have)

can stamp an everlasting impression guiding their view(s) of police over time. Coinciding with Westphal (Chp. 2), the citizen's confidence in the police depends on their perception of a police officer's motive more than, on whether the outcome of a contact with an officer was favorable to the citizen.

As public safety remains a focal point; specifically police and community relations, answers to the research questions previously stated proved fruitful when investigating both groups. Though 74% of citizen respondents were unsure if officers in their neighborhoods deployed body cameras, society appears to be subscribing to technology as a means of objective transparency while advocating for safety in policing. Analysis specific to body-worn cameras conducted via the One-Sample Binomial Test provided the answer. There is a significant statistical difference when it comes to citizens believing body-worn camera technology will enhance their safety during police encounters.

Same presents for citizen support of first line (uniform) officers donning the cameras. Belief that safety will be enhanced between both sides, while encounters are objectively documented is evidenced from the 91% of those citizens answering "yes." To that end, 93% of citizens support the cameras being adopted for front line officers by police agencies.

As for police officers, there is a statistical difference as it relates to supporting body-worn cameras. With over half of the police respondents acknowledging they were physically involved with a combative subject within the last 3 months, 65% still supported wearing cameras in the performance of their duties. Whether an officer was challenged and ultimately resorted to the using of force, support for the camera remained.

One could assume some officers may be reluctant to have a use-of-force scenario documented because of future critique, but this proved not the case. Of equal relevance were the responses (from officers) regarding body-worn cameras capable of improving documentation between encounters with citizens. Fifty-eight (58) percent of officers sampled either “agree,” or “strongly” agreed with this concept.

Most intriguing during the study were the number of officers against agency adoption. The data suggests that while participants agree with the usefulness of body-worn cameras, support for the camera is lower as evidenced by the 63% of officers feeling agencies should not adopt them. Although speculative, responses generated from non-supporters could have been captured from officers assigned to assignments other than patrol or holding an administrative position. In order to gain further knowledge in this area, greater research is warranted.

Future Research Directions

As discussed, one of the most critical involvements with police is that interaction with the citizenry. As body-worn cameras still appear a relatively emerging concept, some consideration into future research and their capabilities exists.

While maintaining public trust, law enforcement agencies must exercise a fair and acceptable approach when deploying cameras into their communities. With strong belief from citizens that cameras have a direct impact on an officer’s behavior, agencies should consider how the stimulus not only affects their officers, but the public as well. Depending on the circumstances, these cameras may influence crime victims (or witnesses) to be reluctant in cooperating or providing a statement during a police

investigation. Body-worn cameras that provide a more covert or slim line appearance in nature may need to be explored.

Limited to geographical region, sample characteristics with respect to the population was not explored in this study and must be considered moving forward. As the Tampa Bay Area currently stands at nearly 3 million people, significant differences may exist when comparing this area of the country to more rural or less populated geographic region. Exploration into generational differences, ethnic makeup, and an individual's experience and comfort level with technology must be visited.

Significant differences related to years of operational experience held from officer respondents presented in the study. This could lend explanation into officers showing overall support for the cameras, while opposing their view(s) on agency adoption. Although this study did not investigate further into why support for body-worn cameras (both citizens and police) would be higher or lower, this area must be considered and explored in greater detail.

Of similar interests are those 63% of respondents whom reported no contact or interaction with police over the past 12 months. The perception amongst those individuals towards law enforcement present the possibility of prejudice; specifically if they develop any opinions based solely on interactions with family/friends, social media, etc.

Camera Pros

Agencies deploying the technology proved advantageous for police and the relationships within their communities as evidenced from this study. The eye of an objective lens permits events and interactions to be captured and recorded (with audio) in

an objective manner, while instilling and maintaining the public's trust. Improved behavior from both the public and police could prevent, or even de-escalate contentious scenarios during contact(s). A sense of safety and trust from the technology could be inferred from both perspectives.

Cases or statements provided to police with the camera(s) have the unique ability to be held and tagged as evidence for purposes of court. A clear picture capturing a particular incident or series of events could save both time and future court costs. Should the incident go to court, a jury may have a clearer understanding of viewing the footage first hand and from the officer's perspective. Evidence such as this would aid in ensuring not only police procedure and rule of law was followed, but decrease any potential mistrial(s) or not guilty findings of career or violent criminals.

The same objectivity authorizes police agencies to hold their rank and file accountable in scenarios found unacceptable, while also clearing them when allegations are found to be false. A great benefit, agencies can integrate this into the professional standards division of their organization to aid with the handling of internal matters or citizen complaints.

The camera(s) can also prove valuable as it relates to liability, time, money, and resources devoted to investigating officers challenged by a combative subject. Internal investigations that are often time consuming and have the potential to go to civil litigation, could be resolved in a rather short amount of time and effort.

The training of current and future police officers in today's law enforcement agencies stands in high regard of upper level police administrators. Events captured on an officer's body-worn camera are unique to law enforcement, as they have the ability to

show duty encounters from a first hand perspective. From an instructional aspect, the trainer can slowly and methodically dissect events (positive and negative) and present footage in an illustrative fashion rather than just through discussion. It would also be recommended an exploratory training study extend to head trainers of police agencies and academies across the country.

Camera Cons

Great legal research into the operating requirements of these cameras must not be taken lightly or overlooked. As agents of the government, officers have authority and jurisdiction to investigate matters while doing so in a lawful and official capacity.

Though he or she may be lawful in terms of jurisdiction, there are areas that may prohibit camera use (i.e. hospitals, doctor's offices, religious institutions etc.). The drafting of state and federal legislation is still ongoing in respect to laws surrounding the use of body-worn cameras and their deployment by police. Court challenges currently preside over issues surrounding evidence, recorded statements, and several other events relevant to a defendant's rights during a criminal proceeding.

The costs associated with purchasing body-worn cameras up front may not be in the budget for all law enforcement agencies. As the camera itself is not the only expense, software and storage options to support the technology can be extremely pricey. This is of special concern for smaller agencies with limited budgets and annual funding.

With over 18,000 law enforcement agencies currently in the United States, the age, experience and training within each department's personnel may not be the same. Introducing relatively new technology to agencies that may not be as technologically advanced or practicing contemporary policing practices may be of challenge. To be

effective, change must be instituted slow and gradually. Getting officers to subscribe to these cameras systems may be met with resistance to change.

Limitations

The study was limited to the following:

1. The subjects of this study were limited to citizens and sworn officers of the Tampa Bay (Pinellas and Hillsborough County) Area.
2. Geographic area/venue was limited to only those citizens who reside, and those sworn officers employed in the Pinellas or Hillsborough County.
3. A goal of 200 citizen responses and 200 officer responses limited the sampling size of the study.
4. Survey questions only captured responses from the researcher's 10-question, self-authored instrument.
5. The level of support for body-worn cameras was limited and did not include any reasons same would be higher or lower.
6. The subjects of the study were limited only to residents of Pinellas or Hillsborough County who agreed to participate in the study.

Concluding Remarks and Final Recommendations

The uniform patrol or "street" officer is typically the first representative of law enforcement a victim will encounter when reporting a crime or requesting police service. To the contrary, the same holds true for any person encountered by police suspected of, or questioned over a criminal wrongdoing. For this reason, a police officer is the most important figure in the criminal justice system. He or she holds a profusion of power that now only allows them to deprive a citizen of their freedom, but in some cases their life.

This level of authority requires police professionals to make educated and purposeful decisions while protecting the public.

As discovered from this study, it is not uncommon that officers actively encounter combative or resistive subjects during their work assignments. As body-worn cameras may be one way increase safety between the police and public, it must be recognized that it is a synthetic tool being used to assist in understanding and influencing humanistic perception(s).

This study clearly fits into a larger progression of research. It would be recommended that a separate, qualitative (or mixed-methods approach) study examine officers making arrests of resistive subjects after having an opportunity to review footage of the recorded event. Feedback from those officers studied could measure the effectiveness of tactics or future approaches used to diminish escalating or inflammatory encounters.

Due to the sample size of only 166 citizen participants and 200 police participants, it would be recommended the sampling frame of both groups be increased substantially. Those sampled most definitely show there is a need to continue research by way of future studies.

The demographics of those who participated in the study were only representative of a specific region of the country; specifically, southwest Florida. Incorporating surrounding states outside the targeted region may capture respondents of more diversity. The more information obtained would help provide for a more detailed and accurate study. Lastly, there was no data for the researcher to use in the study; therefore, the survey was developed by the researcher alone.

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Appendix A

Handout A

XYZ Police Department
Daily Observation Report

DOR NUMBER

Date _____ Phase _____ Shift _____

Recruit _____ ID _____

FTO _____ ID _____

INSTRUCTIONS
RATE OBSERVED BEHAVIOR USING THE 1-7 SCALE BELOW. CHECK "N.O." FOR "NOT OBSERVED" OR "N.R.T." FOR "NOT RESPONDING TO TRAINING." THE "MOST ACCEPTABLE PERFORMANCE" NARRATIVE IS REQUIRED DAILY. THE "LEAST ACCEPTABLE PERFORMANCE" NARRATIVE IS REQUIRED ONLY IF A "1," "2," OR "3" RATING IS GIVEN AND IS LEFT BLANK FOR SHIFTS WHEN ALL EARNED RATINGS ARE "4" OR HIGHER. COMMENT ON ALL RATINGS OF "2" OR LESS, "6" OR MORE, "REMEDIAL TRAINING" AND "N.R.T." YOU ARE ENCOURAGED TO COMMENT ON ANY OTHER BEHAVIOR YOU WISH.

ASSIGNMENT OR REASON FOR NO EVALUATION	RATING SCALE							TEAM
	NOT ACCEPTABLE	MINIMUM ACCEPTABLE					EXCEEDS MINIMUM ACCEPTABLE	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

CHART								N.O.	N.R.T.	TIME
CRITICAL PERFORMANCE TASKS										
1	DRIVING SKILL: STRESS CONDITION	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
2	ORIENTATION SKILL: STRESS CONDITIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
3	FIELD PERFORMANCE: STRESS CONDITIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
4	OFFICER SAFETY: GENERAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
5	OFFICER SAFETY: SUSPICIOUS PERSONS & PRISONERS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
6	CONTROL OF CONFLICT: VOICE COMMAND	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
7	CONTROL OF CONFLICT: PHYSICAL SKILL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
8	USE OF FORCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
FREQUENT PERFORMANCE TASKS										
9	DRIVING SKILL: NON-STRESS CONDITIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
10	ORIENTATION SKILL: NON-STRESS CONDITIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
11	FIELD PERFORMANCE: NON-STRESS CONDITIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
12	PROBLEM SOLVING & DECISION MAKING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
13	SELF-INITIATED FIELD ACTIVITY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
14	PATROL PROCEDURES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
15	INVESTIGATIVE PROCEDURES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
16	INTERVIEW & INTERROGATION SKILLS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
17	TECHNOLOGY: Computer, Radar, In-Car Camera, Breath Testing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
18	REPORT WRITING: PROPER FORM SELECTION.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
19	REPORT WRITING: ORGANIZATION & DETAIL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
20	REPORT WRITING: Grammar, Neatness, Spelling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
21	REPORT WRITING: APPROPRIATE TIME USED	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
22	RADIO: USE OF COMMUNICATION CODES & PROCEDURE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
23	RADIO: HEARS & COMPREHENDS TRANSMISSIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
24	RADIO: ARTICULATION OF TRANSMISSIONS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
KNOWLEDGE										
<i>DEPARTMENT POLICY & PROCEDURE</i>										
25	REFLECTED IN FIELD PERFORMANCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
26	REFLECTED BY VERBAL/WRITTEN/SIMULATED TESTING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
<i>CRIMINAL STATUTES</i>										
27	REFLECTED IN FIELD PERFORMANCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
28	REFLECTED BY VERBAL/WRITTEN/SIMULATED TESTING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
<i>RESOURCES & ALTERNATIVES</i>										
29	REFLECTED IN FIELD PERFORMANCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
30	REFLECTED BY VERBAL/WRITTEN/SIMULATED TESTING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
<i>TRAFFIC STATUTES</i>										
31	REFLECTED IN FIELD PERFORMANCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
32	REFLECTED BY VERBAL/WRITTEN/SIMULATED TESTING	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
ATTITUDE & RELATIONS										
33	ACCEPTANCE OF FEEDBACK: FTO & FTO PROGRAM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
34	ATTITUDE TOWARD JOB	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
35	RELATIONSHIPS: CITIZENS IN GENERAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
36	RELATIONSHIPS: SUPERVISORS & CO-WORKERS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
37	RELATIONSHIPS: ETHNIC GROUPS OTHER THAN OWN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
APPEARANCE										
38	GENERAL APPEARANCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Use the Standardized Guidelines

The most acceptable area of performance today was in category number _____

A specific incident which demonstrates today's performance in this area is: *(Mandatory Daily)*

The least acceptable area of performance today was in category number _____

A specific incident that demonstrates today's performance in this area is: *(Mandatory if a 1, 2, or 3 are earned. Leave blank on shifts when all ratings are 4 or higher)*

Documentation of performance and comments: *(Narrative documentation is required for ratings of 1, 2, 6, 7, Remedial Training and N.R.T.)*

Category Number	Narrative Comments
--------------------	-----------------------

↓	↓
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Proceed to the Narrative Continuation Form

Trainee Signature & Date

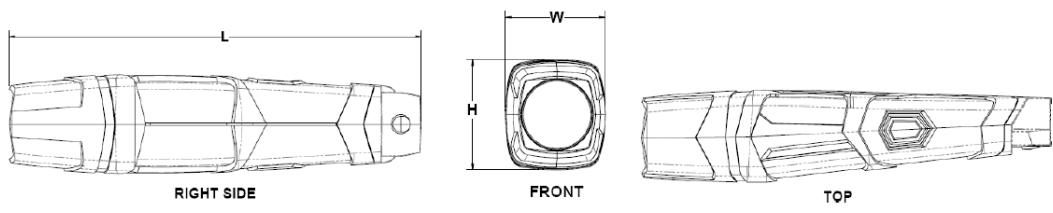
FTO Signature & Date

Supervisor Signature & Date

FTO Administrator Signature & Date


Appendix B

Title: AXON Flex™ Camera Specifications
Department: Research and Development
Version: 3.0
Release Date: 12/19/2012

AXON Flex™ Camera Models			
Model	Model No.	Color	
AXON Flex Camera ¹	73000 series	Black	
Specifications		Features	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Operating temperature range: -4 °F to 122 °F [-20 °C to 50 °C] Storage temperature range:² -4 °F to 95 °F [-20 °C to 35 °C] 75° field of view camera lens Humidity: 80 percent non-condensing, when cable is attached 30-second pre-event video buffer. Buffer does not include audio. Note: Buffer time can change depending on device state. Up to 30 frames per second. 640 x 480 VGA video resolution Up to 8 GB non-removable, solid state storage³ Approximately 4 hours video storage under highest quality recording settings; up to 9 hours storage under medium quality recording settings; and up to 13 hours storage available at lowest quality recording setting. Rechargeable Lithium-Ion Battery⁴ 		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Ambidextrous design for left- or right-side mounting. Multiple attachment options available, including: Oakley Flak Jacket® eyewear mount; Low Rider headband; Collar mount; Epaulette/shoulder mount; and Helmet mount. Playback via the AXON™ Mobile smart phone application or EVIDENCE Sync software. Several cable styles and cable lengths are available.⁵ Configurable bit rate (multiple settings to optimize file size and upload speed) Full color audiovisual camera Retina Low-Light capability less than 1 lux Constructed from impact resistant polymer Data is protected by TASER proprietary security features and can be viewed and downloaded with EVIDENCE.com services through the AXON Flex Evidence Transfer Manager (ETM)⁶ and EVIDENCE Sync software. Data download to personal computer through EVIDENCE Sync software is also available. GPS tagging and streaming capability available through Android™ and iPhone® AXON™ Mobile applications. 	
Physical Characteristics ^{7,8}			
Dimensions			
Length (L)	Height (H)	Width (W)	Weight
3.2 in [8.1 cm]	0.8 in [2.0 cm]	0.7 in [1.8 cm]	0.53 oz (15 g)
			

- Requires a cable connection to the AXON Flex Controller (model number 73001) to function.
- Less than 1 month at the high temperature. Long-term storage should be in a climate-controlled environment.
- Multi-Level Cell flash memory is rated for approximately 10,000 write cycles. The current technology along with normal usage, which includes recording and buffering and ETM sync processes, typically gives memory components a useful life of 4 to 5 years. A portion of the memory is reserved for the operating system.
- The AXON Flex camera contains a non-replaceable Lithium-Ion battery. Rechargeable Lithium-Ion batteries have a limited life of approximately 2 years, and will gradually lose their capacity to hold a charge. This loss of capacity (aging) is irreversible. As the battery loses capacity, the length of time it will power your device (run time) decreases. Additionally, Lithium-Ion batteries continue to slowly discharge (self-discharge) when not in use or while in storage. It is advised that you routinely check the battery's charge status. The device should be recharged regularly to maintain the internal chemistry of the battery. TASER product user manuals summarize how to check battery status as well as battery charging instructions. The latest product manuals are available at www.TASER.com
- While all TASER products are thoroughly tested to ensure product reliability, all usage conditions cannot be anticipated. User checks are recommended to ensure connections remain snug and performance is unaffected. AXON Flex cables should be replaced at the first sign of wear or breakdown to ensure reliable function and use.
- User account and subscription required.
- Product specification may change without notice; actual product may vary from picture.
- Dimensions and weights are for reference only.



TASER International reserves the right to change this specification without notice.
 Android™ is a trademark of Google, Inc. iPhone® is a registered trademark of Apple, Inc., registered in the U.S. and other countries. Flak Jacket® is a registered trademark of Oakley, Inc.
 AXON Flex™ and AXON™ Mobile are trademarks of TASER International, Inc., and TASER® and  are registered trademarks of TASER International, Inc. registered in the U.S. © 2012 TASER International, Inc. All rights reserved.

Appendix C

Appendix C

“Body-worn camera perceptions of southwest Florida citizens and police officers”

Instructions:

Thank you for taking your time to complete the following survey questions. Please read each question and indicate your response to each item by selecting the appropriate answer based on your feelings, opinions, and experiences.

Citizen Survey

- 1). Have you ever been the victim of one of the following crimes: *assault, robbery, battery, domestic violence, stalking or harassment*? Yes____No____
 - a). If yes, did you make a police report with law enforcement Yes____No____

- 2). How many times in the past 12 months have you had contact with your law enforcement agency for *non-emergency* calls (e.g., to report a crime or suspicious activity)?
 1. 0 times
 2. 1-2 times
 3. 3-4 times
 4. 5-6 times
 5. 7 or more times

- 3). To what extent do you feel safe in your community when you are outside alone during the day?
 1. Not at all
 2. A little
 3. Somewhat

4. A lot
5. To a great extent

4). To what extent do you feel safe in your community when you are outside alone during the night?

1. Not at all
2. A little
3. Somewhat
4. A lot
5. To a great extent

5). To what extent is your law enforcement agency effective at proactively preventing crime?

1. Not at all
2. A little
3. Somewhat
4. A lot
5. To a great extent

6). Do officers in your community wear body-worn cameras?

Yes _____

No _____

Don't know _____

7a). To what extent are you satisfied with your interaction(s) with your law enforcement agency during police-citizen encounters?

1. Very dissatisfied
2. Dissatisfied
3. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
4. Satisfied
5. Very satisfied

7b). Do you believe body-worn cameras will enhance safety between officers and the public while objectively documenting their encounters? Yes____ No____

8). Do you feel body-worn cameras would have a direct impact on an officers behavior? Yes____No____

9). Do you support the use of body-worn cameras by law enforcement? Yes____No____

10). Should police agencies adopt body-worn cameras for all front line (uniform patrol) officers? Yes____No____

Demographic Characteristics (Please circle one)

Race/Ethnicity

1. White
2. Black
3. Hispanic
4. Asian
5. Other

Sex

1. Male
2. Female

Please fill in your Age/Year of Birth_____

Appendix D

Appendix D

“Body-worn camera perceptions of southwest Florida citizens and police officers”

Instructions:

Thank you for taking your time to complete the following survey questions. Please read each question and indicate your response to each item by selecting the appropriate answer based on your feelings, opinions, and experiences. If you answer “Yes” to question #4, please place an “X” in the appropriate box for the position you are assigned.

Officer Survey

1). Are you currently employed as a state certified police officer in Florida?

Yes ____ No ____

2). How many years of experience do you hold as a certified police officer?

1. 1 year or less
2. 1 to 5 years
3. 5 to 15 years
4. 15 to 25 years
5. Over 25 years

3). How would you rate police crime solving abilities depicted on crime-related television programs?

1. Very high
2. High

3. Average
4. Low
5. Very low
6. Don't know
7. I don't watch crime-related television programs
8. Refuse to answer

4). If you answered "yes" to Question #1, do you currently wear a body-worn camera?

Yes____ No____

a). What is your current position or assignment?

- Uniformed patrol _____
- Plain-clothes _____
- Detective _____
- Other (explain) _____

5). In the past 3 months, have you had to physically overcome (or assist a fellow officer with) an unruly or combative subject resisting arrest? Yes____ No____

a). If yes, was the incident captured on body-worn camera? Yes____No____

6). How often are you requested in court for hearings, depositions, or trial?

1. Very often
2. Somewhat often
3. Somewhat seldom
4. Don't know
5. No answer

7). Do you feel body-worn cameras are capable of improving documentation between police-citizen encounters?

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Don't agree nor disagree

- 4. Disagree
- 5. Strongly disagree

8). Are body-worn cameras deployed by officers in your current law enforcement agency? Yes____No____

9). Do you feel police agencies should adopt body-worn cameras for all front line (uniform patrol) officers? Yes____No____

10). Do you support police officers wearing body-worn cameras in the performance of assigned shifts? Yes____No____

Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics (Please circle one)

Race/Ethnicity

- 6. White
- 7. Black
- 8. Hispanic
- 9. Asian
- 10. Other

Sex

- 3. Male
- 4. Female

Please fill in your Age/Year of Birth_____