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The Socialization of Female Hostage Negotiators: Their Voices, Perspectives, &
Experiences

by

Lieutenant Superville

A Dissertation Presented to the
College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences of Nova Southeastern University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Nova Southeastern University
2018

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May 2018

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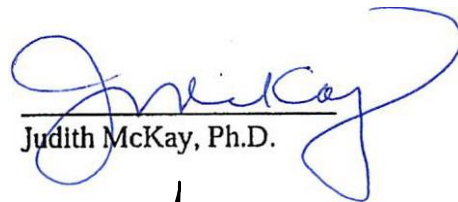
This dissertation was submitted by Lieutenant Superville under the direction of the chair of the dissertation committee listed below. It was submitted to the College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences and approved in partial fulfillment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Conflict Analysis and Resolution at Nova Southeastern University.

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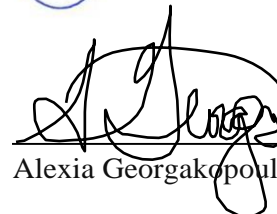
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Chair

Dedication

This is for you mom, for believing in me and saying all along I could. Hearing you say you were proud of me was more than enough for me to keep going and I thank you.

To all the female hostage negotiators, here is your voice. I thank you for your time and contribution in filling this hole in the literature.

Acknowledgements

In finally achieving one of my most challenging but rewarding life goals, I would like to thank my Chairperson Dr. Marcia Sweedler. I could not have completed this journey without your encouraging words of wisdom, guidance, and support. Thank you for believing in me through this process; without your patience, this rewarding experience would not have been possible.

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Abstract

In its fifth annual study, the National Center for Women and Policing reported that women continue to face widespread bias in police hiring and are under-represented because of biased selection practices and recruitment policies that keep their number artificially low. Once hired, women face discrimination, harassment, intimidation, and are maliciously thwarted as they move up the ranks. With respect to gender and organizational culture, the NCWP study failed to capture and describe the perceptions and socialization experiences of those who moved up into the specialized units, particularly female hostage negotiators. For this reason, the current study was designed to examine the lived experiences of 24 female hostage negotiators located in south Florida's tri-county area. Through Moustakas' transcendental phenomenological methodology, this investigation reveals and explains how women are socialized in hostage negotiations. The principal investigator used comprehensive descriptions and interpretation of the women's experiences to highlight their socialization process. This investigation provides valuable insight about who these women really are, while providing a channel for their voices, their perceptions, and the feelings they experience as hostage negotiators, thereby proving valuable insight for selecting, training, and retaining future female hostage negotiators. Directions for future research as well as implications of the findings are offered.

Chapter 1: Introduction

I am interested in the experience of women in law enforcement who are female hostage negotiators. I am not solely interested in women who are law enforcement officers or females who happen to be hostage negotiators. What captures my interest is their socialization process in dominant male culture. I want to know what it is like for a female hostage negotiator to work in a dominant male workforce. How does she perceive her law enforcement years and hostage negotiation years concerning gender experience, socialization, culture, and perception of self? I entered this investigation ungrounded.

My interest stems from my background as a forensic psychiatric nurse working in a dominant male workplace. As I work in a culture where women are often under-represented and characterized as caregivers, I become socialized as “other” in an androcentric environment. As a researcher, my motivation stems from my subconsciousness in finding meaning in this socialization process. As I disentangled myself from what has become a natural phenomenon, I hoped to discover meaning in the connections I thought were only a matter of processes.

The influences, perceptions, and feelings of my own experience lay concealed. It is from my own experience as a forensic psychiatric nurse that I not only began to explore my sense of meaning from experience, but I began to wonder what it is like for them. The questions that uncover purpose and the nature of the experience underneath will not only inform me but others who are interested in women law enforcement officers as female hostage negotiators.

In this dissertation, I examined the socialization process of 24 female hostage negotiators in a dominant male culture. The research questions that guided my study were

related to the socialization process of women in law enforcement as hostage negotiators. I ask how female hostage negotiators perceive their socialization process in the specialized unit of hostage negotiations.

A pursuit of meaning within this phenomenon has taken form in my research questions.

- How do female hostage negotiators perceive their socialization process in the specialized unit of hostage negotiations?
- How do female hostage negotiators perceive their law enforcement years with respect to perception of self in a gendered organization?
- How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years with respect to perception of self in a gendered organization?
- How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years with respect to the organizational culture?

These questions informed my interest and guided my research. I embarked on this study to learn more about their socialization experience in a gendered culture.

Statement of the Problem

In its fifth annual study, the National Center for Women and Policing (NCWP, 2001, 2002B) reported that women continue to face widespread bias in police hiring, are under-represented because biased selection practices and recruitment policies keep their numbers artificially low. Once hired, women face discrimination, harassment, intimidation, and maliciously thwarted as they move up the ranks.

The NCWP study failed to capture and describe the experiences, feelings, opinions, and knowledge of those who move up into the specialized units, particularly

female hostage negotiators. For this reason, this study examined the lived experiences of 24 female hostage negotiators. The purpose of this study was to provide insight about who these women are while creating a channel for their voices, their views, expression, and the feelings they experience as hostage negotiators, thereby providing valuable information for selecting, training, and retaining future female hostage negotiators.

The goals of this study were to:

1. Serve as a vessel that carries the voice, feelings, thoughts, intentions, expression, and views of female hostage negotiators based on their experiences through their perceptions on how they are socialized as hostage negotiators.
2. Provide data to law enforcement agencies (e.g., local and state police department recruiters), hostage negotiation teams, and private companies interested in hiring hostage negotiators on the challenges women face from their personal experiences and perceptions and perhaps help inspire or influence other females to become hostage negotiators.
3. Add to the conflict analysis and resolution studies and hostage negotiation literature because not much has been written about this population, specifically from the insight and mind-set of a female.
4. Broaden the database for researchers in conflict and resolution studies particularly those in feminist theory.
5. Provide the public with an accurate perspective of the everyday life of the hostage negotiator as opposed to the Hollywood version.

Overview of the Chapters

In chapter one, I provided an introduction and statement of the problem based on the findings from a study conducted by the NCWP (2001, 2002B). The study revealed that women in law enforcement continue to face widespread bias in police hiring, the under-representation of women in law enforcement because of biased selection practices, and the recruitment policies that keep their number artificially low. I also explained that that once hired, the women face discrimination, harassment, intimidation, and maliciously thwarted as they move up the ranks.

The problem I identified with the study is that the NCWP study failed to capture and describe the experiences, feelings, opinions, and knowledge of those who move up into the specialized units, particularly female hostage negotiators. I explained the purpose of the study in that it would provide valuable insight as to who these women are while providing a channel for their voices, their views, expression, and the feelings they experience as hostage negotiators, thereby providing valuable insight for selecting, training, and retaining future female hostage negotiators.

I included in the purpose, the importance of the data for law enforcement agencies (e.g., local and state police department recruiters), hostage negotiation teams, and private companies interested in hiring hostage negotiators on the challenge's women face from their personal experiences and perceptions and perhaps help inspire or influence other females to become hostage negotiators. Also, I shared its contribution to the conflict analysis and resolution studies and hostage negotiation literature due to its absence about this population, specifically from the insight and mindset of a female.

In chapter two, I carefully review and present the literature review on women in law enforcement and the theoretical perspectives that inform this study in two sections. The first section includes a discussion of the history of women in law enforcement, their roles, role differences, inequalities, and other issues they face. I also present the issues associated with recruitment and promotion. This section also includes a discussion of the history of hostage negotiations — its models and two dominant approaches. Because of insufficient of studies, I focused on the two research studies available in this area. I also researched and examined various related journal articles.

The literature review also introduces the factors that influence gendering in a dominant male workplace. I reveal that gender shapes women through organizational structure, culture, and agency. I also share that gender, through culture, focuses on the construction of images, symbols, and ideologies that justify, explain, and give legitimacy to gender. The review also includes a discussion role of sexual division of labor and the persistent, overwhelming proportion of women in jobs that reflect the caring, nurturing, and ancillary roles that have been deemed appropriate for women. Finally, a discussion on the role women have been allowed to play in specialized units.

The second section includes a discussion of the theoretical perspectives that informed the study. I define and discuss the socialization theory and the process of how men and women are taught the ways of society or their cultural group for him or her to function within it. I define and explain biological determinism and differential socialization concerning difference and inequality. I define gender concerning its social construction and where social construction takes place. In doing so, I introduce the theory of gendered organization to look at the underlying reasons why gender is an issue within

law enforcement by first looking at the structure and then the culture and agents who create the differences that lead to inequalities.

Chapter 3 includes a detailed explanation of the phenomenological research approach used to study the lived experience of a group of females who share the same phenomenon. In this chapter, I provided the rationale for using this method and defined phenomenology. I also give a brief overview of the alternate and methodological explanations of phenomenology. Finally, this chapter includes a discussion of the role of the researcher, the research participants, data collection, and analysis.

Chapter 4 includes an explanation of the textures and structures of my research findings. The compositions provide a detailed story, using the research participants' own words, of their experience and the structured composite reveals the underlying dynamics of the experience. In this study, I discovered that the female hostage negotiators' experiences were varied. Those with more than 15 years of service as police officers experienced rejection, the need to prove themselves, and gender distinctions. However, those with less than 15 years shared that they felt respected and included and did not experience gender distinctions or biases. As hostage negotiators, all the participants shared that they were respected, encouraged, and felt included in an environment that promoted diversity and cooperation.

In Chapter 5, the final chapter of my dissertation, I summarize what I have discovered about the experience of the female hostage negotiators who participated in this study and the relevance of the findings to the field of conflict and analysis, as well as gender theory and law enforcement. I also discuss the limitations and advantages of my research design and methodology including what one could do differently in future

research studies. Finally, I also contrast my findings to those introduced in the literature review.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

In its fifth annual study, the NCWP (2001) reported that women continue to face widespread bias in police hiring and are under-represented because of biased selection practices and recruitment policies that keep their number artificially low. Once hired, women face discrimination, harassment, intimidation, and are maliciously thwarted as they move up the ranks.

The NCWP (1997, 2000, 2001, 2002A, 2002B) study as well as other studies (e.g., Daum, 1994) failed to capture and describe the experiences, feelings, opinions, and knowledge of those who moved up into the specialized units, particularly female hostage negotiators. For this reason, this study examines the lived experiences of 24 female hostage negotiators. The study provides valuable insight as to who these women really are while providing a channel for their voices, their views, expression, and the feelings they experience as hostage negotiators, thereby providing valuable insight for selecting, training, and retaining future female hostage negotiators.

The purpose of this chapter is to clarify and define the contextual and theoretical frameworks in which this study of female hostage negotiation in law enforcement is examined. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section provides an overview of the history of women in law enforcement, including the challenges women face in law enforcement and an overview of hostage negotiation. The second section includes a discussion of the theories that inform this study. These theories are socialization theory, gender theory, symbolic interactionism theory and human needs theory.

Context

Women's History in Law Enforcement

The socialization of women in law enforcement begins with a historical perspective of their entry into the force, their role as an officer and their experiences with the gender differences and the inequalities that they face.

The history of women in law enforcement begins in 1932 after an 1828 passage of a law requiring county prisons in New York to separate female and male inmates (Horne, 1980; Schulz, 1995, Flanagan, 2009). The first hiring of women into law enforcement was that of prison matrons for the city of New York. From 1870 to 1880, the use of prison matrons became common in publicly controlled institutions such as police and institutions for the insane (Flanagan, 2009, Nicholas, 2012).

Laws passed in Massachusetts and New in 1888 that made it mandatory for cities to hire police matrons to care for female prisoners (Horne, 1975). The police matrons hired were women with social work backgrounds. "Their duties, mostly preventive in nature, dealt with such areas as juvenile delinquency, female criminality, missing persons and aiding and interviewing victims of sex offenses" (Horne, 1975, p. 30).

Although the history of police matrons in law enforcement was comprised mostly of social service functions, the primary function of police matrons was to supervise women and children (Poleski, 2016). The appointment of police matrons marks the first official recognition that women prisoners should be cared for by women (Bell, 1982; Horne, 1975; Owings, 1969, Flanagan, 2009, Nicholas, 2012).

The police matrons often surpassed male officers in educational qualifications, they received less pay, were restricted to a special unit or bureau, and assigned to clerical,

guard duty, juvenile and vice work (Price, 1996). As police matrons, these women did not receive recognition as police officers nor were they assigned police officer duties (Horne, 1975, Nicholas, 2012).

By the end of the nineteenth century, law enforcement agencies began to allow women to enter actual law enforcement due to the pressure from women rights groups and courts (Pagon & Lobnikar, 1996, Smith, 2015). National groups such as the Federation of Women's Clubs, the National League of Women Voters, local clubs, and social agencies supported the movement for policewomen until equal opportunity laws declared discrimination based on gender an unlawful employment practice (Horne, 1975, Poleski, 2016).

The first female police officer. By 1905, Portland, Oregon was the first city to grant a female officer more authoritative police powers to deal with problems involving young girls and women during their state exposition (Horne, 1975; Owings, 1969, Smith, 2015, Poleski, 2016). "The women workers were known as workers or operatives rather than police" (Owings, 1969, p. 101) officers. In 1910 the classification of a police matron changed to a policewoman in Los Angeles, California. The Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) hired Alice Stebbins Wells as their first policewoman (Smith, 2015, Franklin, 2005).

Mrs. Wells, a graduate theological student, and social worker believed that women and children would achieve better social results if women exercised police powers (Horne, 1975; Melchionne, 1974; Owings, 1969, Lee, 2005). Her function as a policewoman was to monitor billboard displays, locate missing persons, and maintain a

general information section for women seeking advice on matters within the scope of the police department (Higgins, 1951; Horne, 1975; Owings, 1969).

Mrs. Wells enforced laws concerning dance halls, skating rings, penny arcades, movie theaters, and other places frequented by women and children (Schulz, 1995). She was the first president of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) (Lee, 2005), and was instrumental in spreading the policewomen's movement to many other cities. The organization contributed to the wellbeing of policewomen through its constant research for better standards and its concern for the improvement in the role of policewomen. Today, the IACP (1998, 2019) continues to evolve and improve the effectiveness of women in law enforcement through education, training for men and women and professional support.

The role of the female officer. Although women achieved the right to work in law enforcement, their gender limited in their positions. Women, assigned to work with juvenile and female offenders, also worked cases such as missing persons, abused children and victims of sexual abuse (Pagon & Lobnikar, 1996; Sulton & Townsey, 1981, Osibanjo, 2013).) or other duties thought to be appropriate for women (Lee, 2005).

The number of women performing police roles increased because of the entry of the US into World War I, (Horne, 1980; Schulz, 1995, Lee, 2005). Their function was to keep prostitutes away from the military training camps, return runaway women and girls to their homes and supervise commercial amusements near the camps. Acceptance of policewomen providing social services as part of police function stemmed from work done by women under the Law Enforcement Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities set up by the federal government during the war (Fosdick, 1819).

The commissions' purpose was to keep the military camp free of venereal disease, prostitution, and female promiscuity. The threat of prostitutes and the spread of venereal disease and young girls who became involved with military personnel later became the responsibility of female protective officers. Female protective officers, many of whom were social workers with no police powers, emerged from a commission established for protecting girls. Although they did not have police powers, they were empowered to undertake enforcement duties. World War I raised the profile of policewomen. Many realized that the police played a significant role in dealing with social problems, more so than the courts and private agencies (Fosdick, 1819; Schulz, 1995, Lee, 2005).

The reinforcement of traditional roles. Women's outstanding work as policewomen convinced other cities to try women in their police departments until the stock market crash of 1929 (Higgins, 1951; Horne, 1975; Owings, 1969) and the almost total collapse of the policewomen's movement by the Great Depression (Horne, 1975). The Great Depression meant cuts for the ranks of policewomen. It brought its effects on the hiring of women to a standstill (Horne, 1975). Schulz, (1995), writes "As the nation struggled through the depression, women's entry into the job market was viewed differently than in more prosperous times; the Depression reinforced traditional roles" (Schulz, 1995, p. 79).

The roles women were expected to play are consistent with Bem's (1993) definition of biological essentialism. Bem defined biological essentialism as the biological difference between men and women sexually. Those differences seemed to influence our culture the most and support the argument that they must play distinct roles in reinforcing how society is structured while strengthening the social reproduction of

male power. The strengthening and social reproduction of male dominance made it clear during the Great Depression where women were encouraged to limit their aspirations to husband, family, and domesticity; work outside the home (Ware, 1982 p.13-14, Poleski, 2016).

Role differences. According to Horne (1975), women reentered law enforcement during World War II as women auxiliary police. After the war, they were no longer needed and terminated (Horne, 1975, Lee, 2005). Schulz (1995) wrote that this is an incomplete explanation. She conveys that the hiring of the female auxiliary police was due to wartime workforce shortages and that their roles were different from traditional policewomen. Their functions were more limited than those of the male auxiliaries, who were hired to increase weakened patrol capabilities due to large numbers of male police officers serving in the armed forces.

Schulz (1995) also explained that these wartime auxiliaries were men who could not serve in the military and although they performed regular police duties with limited training, they were temporary employees whose jobs ended when the police officers returned from the war. Women auxiliaries did not replace men in the same way. According to Schulz (1995), women auxiliaries were used in some cities to inspect dance halls and nightclubs where they functioned more like chaperones than police officers, while the vast majority served as dispatchers and traffic control agents. After the war, many performed duties associated with school crossing guards.

Although some women auxiliaries were called policewomen, allowed to wear uniforms, and given permission to issue parking tickets, they rarely had police powers or met the true definition of police (Schulz, 1995). Schulz (1995) reiterated that women

police officers were expected to work in a social work capacity by rendering services to women and children, while women, in general, were allowed to fill jobs that had been exclusively held by men. While World War II did not change the gender-specific role policewomen played in law enforcement, it did, however, result in the breakdown of some workplace gender stereotypes and had an impact on the role of the policewoman (Lee, 2005).

Another role policewomen held was that of safeguarding moral standards. Schulz (1995) wrote on one evening while patrolling a train station, the policewomen stopped a group of young girls and made them remove the make-up from their faces. There were also times where policewomen also had to safeguard their morals. Schulz (1995) gave an account of two policewomen working in New York who encountered a tailor accused of insulting women arrested him for assaulting them.

By the second war, there were fewer policewomen hired; and for those hired, they had full police powers, but with limited opportunity to use them (Lee, 2005, Franklin, 2005). Policewomen experienced unequal pay in salaries with no advancement for promotions (Schulz, 1995). There are many challenges women face in law enforcement. Today women face some of those same barriers including inequality in representation and slow advancement (Marshall, 2013, Morabito, and Shelley, 2018, Powell, 2018).

Gender inequality in law enforcement. According to a report written by the NCWP (2001), women accounted for only 12.7% of all sworn law enforcement positions in agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel in 2000. Women of color held 4.8% of these positions. Other findings of inequality included a slow increase in the representation of women police officers, fewer women in top command positions with

reporting of no women of color in their highest ranks (NCWP, 2001) and the removal of women as high as those as federal agents. Although the perception of Lenore Houston and two of her colleagues performed up to standards, they were dismissed to clean house after the appointment of Director Edgar Hoover into office. Houston was rehired and later asked to resign in 1928 (Federal Bureau of Investigation; FBI, n.d.) thereby suggesting women in law enforcement have always faced inequality.

Britton (2003) explained how gender shapes women who work in prisons and their day-to-day work experiences and the factors that influence gendering in a dominant male workplace. She wrote that gender shapes women who work in correctional facilities through organizational structure, culture, and agency. According to Britton, organizations are not only gendered at the level of structure but build on and reproduce a division of labor between the public and private spheres, between production and reproduction. Britton provided an example of the employer providing benefits such as childcare or maternity leave and the benefits it affords women who are primarily responsible for domestic task and childcare as opposed to men. Men, on the other hand, prefer to be free from the spillover of their duties in the private realm and lead in careers that require extraordinary hours per week.

Another example gendering in a dominant male workplace is both in the military (Miller, 1998, Boldry et al., 2001) and for those women who work in fire science (Perrott, 2016). Women in the fire science experience gendering within the culture of fire science. The image of fire science depicts hyper-masculine and one of being strong and brace. This image is in contrast with the feminine trait associated with nurturing and kindness. Women who are in the military face similar experiences despite policies that deny

gendered attitudes and stereotypes towards women exist (Miller, 1998, Burns & Mahalik, 2011, Boldry, Woody & Kashy, 2001). Males in the military are thought to have better leadership skills than women while military women like those in law enforcement are believed to hinder job performance. Both the military (Miller, 1998, Boldry et al., 2001) and fire science (Perrott, 2016) construct gender through perceptions and the division of labor.

The next level where gender shapes women are through culture. Gender through culture focuses on the construction of images, symbols, and ideologies that justify, explain, and give legitimacy. According to Britton, the role culture plays begins with how we perceive, think, or represent organizations in gendered ways. Thus, the construction of gender is created and justified by institutions and the social interactions that occur within them (Ore, 2000) as workers.

Finally, the last level of gendering is through the agency or at the micro-level of gendering in the organization (e.g., the worker or the employee). Britton (2003), said it includes “all the interaction in which workers are involved that intentionally or not invoke gender or reproduce gender inequality, as well as processes of identity construction through which individuals come to see themselves “appropriately” gendered through their work” (p.15).

Gendering through the agency is essential at the individual level because “workers bring their own identities, interest, and desires to organizations, and gender shapes all of these in powerful ways” (Britton, 2003, p. 15). Gender, like culture, is the human production of everyone performing gender (Ore, 2000; West & Zimmerman, 1987). Women who work in male-dominated jobs can perform gender by emphasizing

parts of the jobs that conform to the requisites of femininity such as being a physician who is a pediatric doctor or an attorney whose practice involves family law or public defense. They use gender to their advantage of working in male-dominated jobs.

Therefore, women perform gender by accentuating their difference from male coworkers by emphasizing their unique contribution such as their communication and nurturing skills and providing emotional support, tolerance, and patience. Men's way of performing gender is functioning in male-dominated jobs confirming their masculinity and being satisfied. Women, on the other hand, may perform gender, in feminine jobs but the consequence of doing femininity, differ from those of doing masculinity. If women perform masculinity, it confirms dominance whereas performing femininity usually enacts submission and subordination (Britton, 2003) thereby reinforcing gender inequality.

Kyprianou (1996) wrote that the most obvious measure of gender inequality in male-dominated industries is numbers and the fact that women are not as attracted to the culture of policing or the legal professions as men are. She echoed the same findings as the NCWP (2001) study in that inequality is worse at the higher levels of the profession and explains that the reason for the failure of women to achieve promotion is cultural. It is the shared beliefs and the social interactions that occur within the organization that perpetuates inequality.

Given the history of women in law enforcement and the roles they have typically held, "the sexual division of labor still finds an overwhelming proportion of women in jobs which reflect the caring, personal support, and ancillary roles that have been deemed appropriate for women" (Kyprianou & Coward, 1996). Kyprianou and Coward (1996), stated,

Just like in the legal profession the allocation of family cases in family law or domestic conveyance to women, women in law enforcement must deal with victims of sexual abuse or child welfare cases. So far, the literature reveals that regardless if you are a lawyer (Kyprianou & Coward, 1996), a firefighter, in the military (Miller, 1998, Boldry et al., 2001), a law enforcement (NCWP, 2001) or correctional officer (Britton, 2003), women face gender inequality in male-dominated workplaces.

Underrepresentation of women in law enforcement. The literature revealed that women police officers are not only few in numbers and of sworn ranks but also few in specialized units, including hostage negotiations. In addition to the less than 13% of women in sworn law enforcement positions, the NCWP (2001, Prenzler, 2002) report also revealed that the representation of women in law enforcement is less than 4% higher than it was in 1990 when women comprised 9% of sworn officers. These combine figures indicate women represent 8.1% of all sworn law enforcement personnel in the U.S. Today, 18 years later women account for less than 15% (Wedell, 2017) or an increase of 4% in the whole labor force at 46.5% (NCWP, 2001).

The NCWP, (2001) report showed that the gains for women in law enforcement are so slow that with the current rate of growth, it will and has taken several generations for women to match equal representation or have gender balance in law enforcement agencies. The report also showed that women currently hold 7.3% of sworn top command law enforcement positions, 9.6% of supervisory positions and 13.5% of line operation positions. At the time of the report, Women of color held 1.67% of sworn top command law enforcement positions (NCWP, 2001). The report showed that women were

disproportionately represented in the lower tiers of sworn law enforcement when compared to men. They continued to hold most lower-paid civilian jobs that often offer little or no chance of upward mobility. These numbers are also lower than the 2000 NCWP report.

Also, the NCWP (2000, 2001) report reveals that women police officers are denied equality due to "widespread bias in police hiring, selection practices, and recruitment policies and that the agencies' aggressive and authoritarian image, an image based on the outdated paramilitary model of law enforcement that NCWP, 2001, p. 3," Cowper, 2000; Cruickshank, 2013; Potter, n.d.,) continues today in most agencies, discourages some women from applying. Once on the job women faced issues of inequalities such as discrimination, harassment, and intimidation, and are maliciously thwarted as they attempt to move up the ranks (NCWP, 2000, 2001).

Entry and recruitment. Despite these inequalities, women continue to enter law enforcement. Reasons women are motivated to become police officers include financial security (this is twice as true for Black women), and family's or friends' encouragement, although this is truer for White than Black women (Price, 1996). Shores (1997) wrote that women are drawn to this line of work because some want to help the good while putting away the bad guys where others are looking for a profession that is exciting and personally challenging or feel it is their civic duty.

More importantly, Shores (1997) wrote, "the things that draw people to police work are not gender-biased." She explained that both male and female look for jobs; they think they will like not giving much thought to their gender predetermining their marketability. Therefore, feeling free to pursue whatever line of work that best suits

them. Shores (1997) report that some women are seeking a profession that is exciting and personally challenging; others do it because it is their civic duty or a family affair.

According to the NCWP (n.d.), other women enter law enforcement because they have brothers, fathers, and husbands in police work. Additional reasons women entered law enforcement include job security, desirable pay, career options, and the challenges associated with the job and excellent benefits. Although the reasons given are excellent marketing tools, the number of women entering law enforcement has remained small, and the pace for increasing their numbers are slow due to the historical neglect of women in the recruiting process.

Historically recruitment policies have always favored men because law enforcement agencies typically use military bases, security agencies, and male-oriented sporting events as a source for recruitment. These unbalanced populated areas where men are most often recruited leave women at a disadvantage (NCWP, 2000 p. 125). Instead of using military bases, security agencies and male-oriented sporting events as a source for recruitment, the NCWP (2002) report stated that agencies would find that community colleges, childcare centers, elementary school faculty, and social service departments are some of the best places to recruit women. The NCWP (n.d.) believes that law enforcement agencies may want to form partnerships with community-based groups, particularly those promoting career opportunities for women (NCWP, 1997, 2000, 2001).

In addition to researching communities to identify and target women in female-dominated occupations, the NCWP (2001) report suggested that recruiting women in civilian positions such as the crime lab, 911 operators, data processing technicians, and other support positions can also be a potential source for sworn female officers. Another

possible source for recruitment would include identifying target locations frequented by women such as women-owned businesses, grocery stores, malls, and Laundromats and women's only health clubs. Finding sources of women recruits for selecting qualified candidates is just as essential to recognizing the advantages their presence will bring into the field of law enforcement (NCWP, 1997, 2000, 2001).

According to the NCWP (1997, 2000, 2001, 2002B), there are advantages for recruiting women in law enforcement. They include but are not limited to the fact that studies have shown that female officers are as competent as their male counterparts are. And that there are no consistent differences in the quality of men's and women's performance on the street (Bloch & Anderson, 1974; Brown, 1994; Martin & Jurik, 1996; Morash & Green, 1986; Sherman, 1975; Worden, 1993, Nicolas, 2012). Also, the NCWP (1997, 2000, 2001, Flanagan, 2009) reported that female officers are less likely to be involved in the use of both deadly and excessive force. Finally, research shows that women are better at defusing and de-escalating potentially violent confrontations with citizens.

Therefore, by increasing, the presence of female officers within a department would not only improve law enforcement's response to violence against women, but it could also help implement community-oriented policing. Acknowledging the advantages women bring to the field of law enforcement for recruiting is equally important as retaining and training. Bias or lack of training will influence the slow growth of women in law enforcement (NCWP, 1997, 2000, 2001, 2002B).

Training. Once accepted as candidates for the police department, the training began and is considered essential for the selected candidate to develop into a fully

qualified police officer (Greenstone, 2003). Before 1980, women received separate training from the male recruits. Most policewomen in law enforcement (as opposed to clerical work) were immediately assigned to work with juveniles. Osibanjo, (2013) writes that the roles of women were quite limited and they were typically assigned to work with the victims of sexual crimes, female offenders, missing persons and abused children. Unlike their male counterparts, women were not required to begin their law enforcement careers on patrol. Police departments would justify this special treatment toward women, by gearing their recruitment and selection process toward finding women who were interested in dealing with juveniles (Milton, 1972).

For example, women in the Philadelphia police department were given an exam that emphasized youth work and was trained separately from men (Milton, 1972). The training of female officers individually from men justified the department in saving money and time by not preparing the female officers on the use of firearms or self-defense classes if women were to work in a juvenile or secretarial capacity (Horne, 1975). Horne (1980) believed that this separate and indifferent training of female officers perpetuated the limitations of their roles within the police agency. Mr. Horne (1975) supported the idea that women and men train together. The issue that arose from women training separately from men resulted in poor performance and their male partner feeling the need to protect them from the harm of the assignment.

Mr. Horne (1980) wrote that men and women should be in the same class learning the same subjects and doing the same physical and firearms exercises. After going through a police officer academy, himself, Mr. Horne acknowledged the importance of

how being trained together fosters teamwork and respect for the others person's ability, male or female. He says that this respect carries over into the field after training.

Female officers once trained were able to feel a sense of pride that they could hold their own with male officers in physical training, on the firing range, and in the academic field. Also, male officers were able to see that women officers could not only perform and function under the same types of stress they endured in training but were capable. According to Horne (1975), men training with the female officers changed some of their skeptical attitudes toward women. Horne saw the benefits derived from male and female officers training together as immeasurable and therefore imperative that both officers train together (Horne, 1980).

Today women are trained in sexually integrated classes yet continue to face inequality issues such as barriers in training which include entry exams that over-emphasize upper body strength, (NCWP, 1997, 2000, 2001, 2002B) the ability to meet firearm proficiency (More, 2002, History in Blue, 2009), and having to wear uniforms (including body armor) not designed to fit women (Johnson, 1998, History in Blue, 2009).

Albuquerque New Mexico police department increased their women recruits by hiring physical trainers to help women pass physical conditioning tests. The department also switched to weapons that were better suited for a woman's small hand and found a body armor manufacturer willing to tailor bulletproof vest to conform to women's breast size. Albuquerque's police department is the exception rather than the rule for what women usually experience among the nation's police departments.

In addition to biased entry tests, other experiences include ostracism or non-acceptance by their male colleagues (Daum, 1994; Price, 1996, Powell, 2016), widespread discrimination on the job, sexual harassment, outdated models of policing (NCWP, 1997, 2000, 2001; Williams & Kleiner, 2001) and gender bias (Johnson, 1998). A study conducted by the NCWP (2003) revealed that the adverse impact of physical agility testing is often used to keep women out of law enforcement jobs (NCWP, 2003).

The NWCP researchers surveyed sixty -two police agencies regarding their physical agility testing protocol and representation of female law enforcement officers. The results revealed that the vast majority (89%) utilize some form of physical agility testing for entry-level selection. Agencies that did not require a physical agility test had 45% more sworn female officers than those who needed the test. Also, the report revealed that there is no consensus on the types of physical test that one should use. The physical test focuses on upper body, lower body, agility, balance and miscellaneous (NCWP, 2003).

Shores (1977), voiced her opinion regarding the standardization of the test. She writes that the only distinction is the one that would reflect the physical fitness standards as the natural physical distinction between men and women determined by Mother Nature. However, she argued that since there is no such distinction in the intellectual areas, none should exist. Therefore, police departments should avoid lowering entrance and promotional tests to hire and promote women. The only exceptions should be for those who are injured or pregnant (Shores, 1977).

Shores (1977) continued by stating police officers who cannot perform on the street should not be entitled to light duty or desk assignments. Besides, if they cannot

meet the standard of performance during the probationary period, it should not be extended, nor should the rules be bent. “In policing those who have not ‘paid their dues’ on the street lack credibility with the operational level employees in the organization” (p. 288). The hiring and promotions criteria should only include one's qualifications and not their gender.

Women’s Experiences in Law Enforcement Today

Gender bias and sexual harassment. In what IACP (2001) describes as the most comprehensive analysis of women in policing, women are routine targets of gender bias and sexual harassment. Officer Deedy Smith, an Albuquerque patrolwoman gave an account of what she experienced as a police officer associated with the preference and accessibility of men's uniforms to that of women officers.

For a long time, they tried their best to squeeze us into men’s uniforms, the vest, and the whole thing. Becoming a police officer has always been a ‘man’s job’ expresses the 46-year-old officer who patrols one of the city’s toughest beats on Albuquerque’s south side. (Johnson, 1998, pp. 01A)

Horne (1975) validates Officer Smith’s experiences by defining how law enforcement perceives female officers. He writes, “Historically and traditionally; law enforcement has been viewed as a crime suppressive task performed by men and today, many law enforcement officers still view the police role as suppressive in nature and therefore a man’s job” (Horne, 1975, p. 31).

Almost twenty-seven years later, this same perception found in Daum’s (1994) study exist. He wrote, “Police work remains a predominantly male occupation, and there is still a remnant of the traditional belief that assertiveness, aggressiveness, physical

capability, and emotional toughness are male characteristics necessary to perform competently as a police officer” (Daum ’s, 1994, p. 46, Prenzler, 2002). Today women play an important role in policing. Over the last decade Archbold and Schulz, (2012) write the emphasis on community policing contribute to similarities among male and female officers thereby reshaping the role of police officers. What has been the traditional model of policing based on the image of masculine traits or officers acting in the role of “crime fighters" has supposedly quelled by community policing the crime fighting-image.

According to Horne (1975), in most of the nations' police departments, the opportunity for promotions are limited to women. Women held fewer positions in supervisory positions than they do today. The reason, Horne explains, is that some departments did not permit policewomen to take or even apply for promotional exams while other departments would allow women to take promotional exams only in positions traditionally held by women. Moreover, since women were assigned to work in service-oriented units such as the juvenile division, secretarial pools, and female prisoner areas, this limited their opportunities for promotions (Milton, 1972).

Today women in police remain less than equal to the status of men in law enforcement (NCWP, 2002) and supervisory roles (Archbold and Schulz, 2012, Hyland, and Whyde, 2016, NCWP, 2000). While female police officers not only perform routine or light police task, they also perform the operational functions and carry out patrol activities (Fitim, 2016), yet the advancement of women in police remains slow and has not kept up with the hiring or promotion of women in policing. Sworn female police officers remain at less than 15 % in the workforce and hold only 7.3 percent of top command positions (chiefs, assistant chiefs, commanders, and captains), 9.6 percent of

supervisory positions (lieutenants and sergeants), and 13.5 percent of line operation positions (detectives and patrol officers) (Archbold and Schulz, 2012, Hyland, and Whyde, 2016, NCWP, 2000).

The Statistics Portal (2017) reports females represents 26.8% of law enforcement employees, 12.5% of sworn officers and 60.49% are civilians or non-sworn officers. There are more non-sworn female officers than those sworn. Another nationwide survey (Stepler, 2017) reports out of 7,917 police departments with at least 100 officers, 46% of the female officers responded saying men in their department are treated better than women when it comes to assignments and promotions compared to 6% of the males who responded in contrast. It is clear there is a disconnect in the perception of women police officers.

Historically this perception has been shared in most police departments and often perpetuated in the attitudes of male officers as evidenced by the hostile environments (More, 2002), sexual harassment and gender discrimination they impose on women (NCWP 1999; Price, 1996; Williams & Kleiner, 2001). As reported by the NCWP (2001), “women police often encounter hostile workplaces, facing daily discrimination and sexual harassment on the job” (p. 3). Today female officers continue to face gender discriminations and sexual harassment.

A new form of gender discrimination that has emerged is pregnancy discrimination. The issue with gender is the impact pregnancy has on careers or childcare issues (Sousa & Gauthier, 2008). Pregnancy has been an ongoing issue for women in law enforcement and has not addressed until recently. Women police officers often delayed having a family because of the impact it would have on their career. Female officers

today who become pregnant share their chiefs are telling them they must go on unpaid leave and cannot take a desk job as those officers are who are injured and offered reasonable accommodations.

Like sexual harassment lawsuits, women are filing lawsuits for pregnancy discrimination and winning (Peck, 2017). Discrimination in the form of sexual harassment is still an issue for women in law enforcement (Hassell et al., 2011). Studies show that 44% of women and 19% of men have reported sexual harassment problems in the United States (Haas et al., 2009). In Dowler and Ari (2008) that number was higher at 61%. in a study conducted by Dowler & Arai (2008).

In Broudeur's (2018) study it was found that while the women in this study admitted that they had not experienced quid pro quo harassment but had experienced environmental harassment during their law enforcement career. They shared they encountered hostility more so than bullying which was sexual with gender-related comments or jokes. Although the jokes are not "unwanted," they participated in them because it is part of the police culture. A culture that because of their sex negatively targets them. Celona writes that hostility towards female officers still exists and women remain subjective to exposure to sexual content, pornography, emails with sexually explicit material (Celona, 2012).

Today sexual harassment, in the world of law enforcement, is not only an increasing problem within the department (Williams & Kleiner, 2001, Fitim, 2016, Celona, 2012) it has become both commonplace and a common experience for women in law enforcement within the police departments. For example, sexual harassment and discrimination against female officers within the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD)

have increased for harassments and assaults costing the city since 2011 8 million in sexual harassments claims (Mendelson, Plummer, 2018).

In their latest case, a captain filed a sexual harassment suit against LAPD alleging they did not stop the distribution of a nude sexually explicit photo purpose of her. It has been shared and reproduced through electronic means by on-duty LAPD employs including officers, sergeants, detectives, and lieutenants, of which they made derogatory comments about her (Blankstein, 2019). LAPD paid 1.8 million to another officer who alleges that the lieutenant of internal affairs had invited her on vacations to Cabo San Lucas, Mexico, and during those conversations "his eyes traveled up and down from her face to her breasts." The female officer also reported that "he looked up and down her body in a sexual manner" when they passed each other in hallways or spoke in his office (Queally, 2018).

In another law suit, a former police officer in Pennsylvania who had worked five years on the Telford Borough police department filed a lawsuit against the borough alleging she was asked to perform sexual acts, wear short dresses, bend over and repeatedly harassed by her police chief and her colleagues. When she refused, her supervisor began to "hyper scrutinize and challenge" her work on routine police duties while undermining her cases in front of her male coworkers (Celona, 2012). As evidenced by these incidents, sexual harassment today remains within the law enforcement environment.

Literature reveals that supervisors displayed little motivation to eliminate sexual harassment and discrimination (Williams & Kleiner, 2001; Woosley, 2010, Celona, 2012, Blankstein, 2019, Shjarback & Todak, 2019, Queally, 2018). These negative types of

attitudes men have toward women in law enforcement have been the most significant factor in hindering the advancement of policewomen (Horne, 1975 Shjarback & Todak, 2019). The positions of supervisors and colleagues remain constant within some police departments today (Balkin, 1988; Daum, 1994; NCWP, 1998, Fitim, 2016 Celona, 2012, Blankstein, 2019, Queally, 2018) as evidenced in the rise of sexual harassment complaints within police departments today.

A report from the NCWP (2001, 2002) and Woolsey's (2010) article on the challenge's women face as officers is that in addition to the sexual harassment and widespread job discrimination, the single most significant barrier for increasing female police officers within a department is the attitudes and behaviors of their male colleagues (Morabito, and Shelley, 2018). Nationwide studies consistently show that discrimination and sexual harassment are pervasive in police departments and supervisors and commanders not only tolerate such practices by others but are frequently perpetrators themselves (NCWP, 1998, Fitim, 2016 Celona, 2012, Blankstein, 2019, Queally, 2018).

Not dealing with gender equality and sexual harassment issues increases the likelihood that an uncomfortable status quo will occur (Williams & Kleiner, 2001) as women continue to face unfair treatment. Unfair treatment expressed as not being accepted as a member of the male social network (Daum, 1994) or accepted with reservations (Rabe-Hemp,2008). Shjarback & Todak, 2019 writes that prospective officers can anticipate these challenges surrounding policing as long as it characterized by decreased police legitimacy.

Women not easily accepted. Research reveals that male police officers, supervisors and police departments do not readily accept women in policing (Price,

1996). Price writes that although women have been doing police work for over a century and that studies show that women police officers are just as capable as men (e.g., Bloch & Anderson, 1974; Price, 1996; Townsey, 1982); their male colleagues view women with skepticism or worse.

Although recent literature and has shown progression, female officers perceive discrimination in law enforcement today (Alexandria, 2005) Women still face acts of discrimination when applying for jobs that are considered a male-dominated line of work (Celona, 2012, Blankstein, 2019, Shjarback & Todak, 2019, Queally, 2018). Even though women have increased their presence in law enforcement (Archbold & Schulz, 2012, Smith, 2015, Marshall, 2013), they have yet to find total acceptance in such a male-dominated field (Rabe-Hemp, 2008, Dodge et al. 2011).

One reason given that women officers fail is that “male officers anticipate women failing (Brookshire, 1980, as cited in Price, 1996, Parker, Griffin, Parker, & Griffin, 2002, Powell, 2016), and doubt women can equal men in most job skills” (Bell, 1982; Bloch & Anderson, 1974). Furthermore, “they perpetuate myths about women’s lack of emotional fitness” (Bell, 1982). Other reasons included personal factors such as family responsibilities, poor shift assignment, daycare issues and organizational factors such as lack of training, negative job experiences, perception of bias and married to a police officer i.e. nepotism in the department (Archbold, Hassell, & Stichman, 2010, Krimmel, & Gormley, 2003).

Daum’s (1994) study, looks at how the police organization and community affect the female officer. It allows women police officers to talk about their experiences from their perspective. Daum (1994) asked the female officers who participated in the study

whether they felt accepted by their fellow officers. The data showed that 42% of the female police officers did not feel accepted by the male officers. They expressed that “they sensed some degree of ostracism from the male social network” (p.49).

Shores (1997 as cited in Villa & Morris, 1999) responded that women want to feel included. She argued that the inclusion of women should be in every aspect of the organization (Conant, 2011). Shores (1997) suggested that her colleagues look around and ask themselves the questions, “Are there any women in the Honor Guard in your department? Do women in your agency work in homicide or armed robbery? Are any of your operational command-level employee’s women?” (p. 287). According to Shores (1997, as cited in Villa & Morris, 1999), “they” (women) want to be part of the “we” (p. 287).

The feeling of inclusion also holds for women in other male-dominant work environments. For example, women in fire science have also experienced exclusion until they repeatedly prove that they are as capable as their colleagues. And even then, they find it difficult to be fully accepted because of one's gender (Perrott, 2016). As in law enforcement, fire science is often depicted as macho, strong and brave characteristics as opposed to the empathic, caring and nurturing side of those working in EMS (Khan et al., (2017). Another example of females working in a predominantly male workforce is those who serve in the military (Burns & Mahalik, 2011).

Burns & Mahalik, (2011) examined the increased risk of suicide within the military and found it remains dominated by masculinity. Women in the military like those in law enforcement face high rates of sexual harassment, negative male attitudes and are under-represented (Spillar, 2015, Burns & Mahalik, (2011) with similar statistics.

Women in the military comprised 15% of 1.4 million active duty military personnel (Women stats Project, 2012) and sworn female police officers remain at less than 15 % in the workforce (Archbold and Schulz, 2012, LEMAS, 2016, NCWP, 2000). Regardless of the setting, it is apparent that women working in a male-dominant work setting may encounter rejection before acceptance. Women Who Code (2016), women entering a predominately male work environment can associate negative performances to lack of inclusion of not being part of the group.

In Daum's (1994) study, fifty-five percent of the women expressed that their male supervisors did not accept them and that they had experienced "some form of sexual harassment from both co-workers and supervisors" (p. 48). They also reported that they did not feel that they received equal credit for their job performance. "More than two thirds (68 percent) of the female officers surveyed felt that they had to do a lot more work to receive the same credit as their male counterparts" (p. 46). Despite the obstacles they face, the study revealed that 80 percent of the female officers stated that they plan to work for the department until retirement while 56% intended to work toward promotion (Daum, 1994).

Wilson's (2016) study that exams the perceptions and lived experiences of female officers and the impact on their careers today. Her findings were that women who entered law enforcement did so for the same reason they perceived as men and that the perceived intentional institutional barriers had no effect on their job satisfaction. Wilson's (2016) study as Daum's (1994) study suggests that despite obstacles the female officers face they pledged to continue to work as a police officer despite any institutional barriers.

Advancement and promotions. Most research has concluded that it is the males' attitudes and behaviors toward women that is the major obstacle that impedes the progress of policewomen in this country (Horne, 1975; NCWP, 1998, 1999). Harrington (2001) identified two key factors that interfere with the promotion of women in law enforcement. The first is the bias of the promotional process and promotional criteria. According to Harrington (2001), the promotional system is biased against women in many ways.

The first identified is the use of seniority and prior military experience as a desirable factor which may put women at a disadvantage. Other biases include the promotability ratings or performance evaluations which may be gender biased (Archbold & Schulz, 2012, Archbold, Hassell, & Stichman), the use of oral interviews and the selection of officers for temporary positions when an acting sergeant is needed to fill a regular sergeant's vacation. For the most part, women do not receive these opportunities. Possible reasons included the large senior officer pool; that the candidate had not acted in the capacity before; or the candidate has not received a specific type of training (Harrington, 2001, Archbold & Schulz, 2012, Archbold, Hassell, & Stichman, 2010, Krimmel, & Gormley, 2003).

The second key factor regarding the promotion of women is that in many law enforcement agencies, women do not apply for promotion. The reasons provided were that women felt that they would need to continue to prove their capability, change their shifts or days off which often accompany new promotions, and they don't apply because of the environment is not supportive enough for them to seek promotion (Archbold & Schulz, 2012, Archbold, Hassell, & Stichman, 2010).

Another issue for women is that many are primary family caregivers and changing shifts hurts the family. A change in shift or day off can affect the quality of time spent with the child and or finding adequate childcare. Another issue for women is that they also look at the fairness of the promotional system and choose not to seek promotions because they are happy with their current positions. However, the real reason qualified women with the desire to be promoted decide not to is that they perceive the goal as unattainable (Harrington, 2001, Archbold & Schulz, 2012, Archbold, Hassell, & Stichman, 2010). Still, the following questions remain — what are the perceptions of female hostage negotiators regarding promotions in law enforcement? Do they face the same issues stated above?

Specializations. While women police officers historically were not promoted to work in traditional specialized areas, they were assigned to assist male detectives with the processing of female criminals (Horne, 1980). Women officers were assigned to work with them only when a female gang was involved or in any other decoy process (Poleski, 2016). Their assigned duties to specialized units involved providing clerical support to the male detectives in cases involving women and children and female offenders (Price & Gavin, 1982; Worden, 1993). These assignments were primarily quasi-police functions and not representative of police responsibilities (Vastola, 1977, p. 62). The quasi-police functions gave women some exposure and experience in working in specialized units.

Specialized units are job assignments that are considered prestige promotions by most police departments (Harrington, 2001). Assignments to specialty units not only provide new challenges and duties, but they also help broaden an officer's experience and help enhance promotional opportunities. Women, however, are less represented in

specialized units such as K-9, Robbery, and hostage negotiations than they are in police work in general.

The specialized units that hired women were related to more traditional caregiving roles such as secretarial, clerical duties, positions working with female and juvenile offenders (Poleski, 2016). The fact that women were better educated (most had some college but not necessarily a degree) made it easier for police administrators to assign women to these specialized jobs, thus breaking the tradition that all personnel should start on patrol before they receive the chance to enter the more specialized fields (Milton, 1972).

Historically, women rarely received consideration or opportunity to specialize in jobs where they could do as well as men. While men received their promotions to specialized units based on experience or merit, women were assigned to the service-oriented units because they were women (Milton, 1972). In 1950, the assignment of the first woman in plainclothes was a detective in Miami, Florida (Rogers, 2004; Poleski, 2016). It is unclear how female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years concerning gendered experiences.

While there are no longer bureaus to establish career path guidelines permitting women to perform all police functions (Bell, 1982), and women continue to choose law enforcement as a career, statistics and studies show that women police officers still have not been fully integrated within the traditional male specialized units (NCWP, 1998, 1999, 2000). Women frequently report that they have not been allowed to transfer to prestigious units such as narcotics, gangs; SWAT (special weapons and tactics), motorcycles, canine and horse patrol (Harrington, 2001).

Women, on the other hand, report they continue to receive transfers to units that are more service-oriented representing issues in child abuse, community relations, crime prevention, and domestic violence” (Harrington, 2001). Male officers see many of these caregiving roles or service-oriented units, as less desirable and promotional boards typically do not value the experience gained from these service units as acceptable for the more traditional units (Milton, 1972).

Sousa & Gauthier (2008) conducted a study that question whether female officers had faced barriers in terms of career advancement. The results revealed that there were a few differences in the opinions shared by both male and female officers, both were positive in their response on being pleased with their careers and job assignment and positively rating the workplace environment. However, the study reports that female officers from an internal perspective are more likely to say they have experienced unfair behavior based on gender about transfers or having access to supervisory roles, promotion, and representation in senior positions and special units. The study also revealed that women are more likely than men to report for they must work harder if they want their colleagues to see them as equals within the organization, that their colleagues have lower expectations and less respect for them (Sousa & Gauthier, 2008). This data suggests barriers to promotions still exist, and the perception of male officers differ from those of female officers (Novak, Brown, Frank, 2011).

As stated earlier, women in some agencies did not receive the opportunity to acquire a good foundation in patrol experience because of their assignment to the traditional female role assignments. Milton (1972) stated the lack of experience for women police officers would limit both the range of their experience and the scope of

their job assignments. Twenty-eight years later the NCWP shared the same perception and reported that “keeping women in patrol and denying them other assignments or moving them too quickly out of patrol limits their experience and can adversely impact their ability to be promoted” (Harrington, 2001).

While assignments and promotions can be an area where discrimination occurs against women, women have proven that they are just as capable of performing as well as their male colleagues (Bloch & Anderson, 1974; Martin & Jurik, 1996; Morash & Green, 1986; Sherman, 1973, 1975, Chen 2015, Spillar, 2015). Research has shown that women police perform better than their male counterparts at defusing potentially violent situations (Bloch & Anderson, 1974; Martin & Jurik, 1996; Morash & Green, 1986; Sherman, 1975, Chen 2015, Spillar, 2015), possess better communication skills (Harrington, 2003a; Lonsway, 2003) and they tend to be more effective in relationship building (McDowell, 1992; Tannen, 1990) than their male colleagues. In the tri-county South Florida area where this study takes place, the female hostage negotiators are under-represented.

So far, literature has shown that women are not only few in numbers but also under-represented in areas of supervisory positions, top sworn command positions, and specialized units (Chen 2015, Spillar, 2015). The following section defines and discusses hostage negotiations including the role of a hostage negotiator as a crisis negotiator while providing an overview of key concepts needed to understand the hostage negotiation process.

Hostage Negotiations

Defining the term “hostage negotiator” presents a challenge as it is not found in the dictionary unless the two words are separated. In the American Heritage Dictionary (2018) hostage is defined as, “A person held as a security for the fulfillment of certain terms.” In Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (2018) negotiate is defined as “to confer with another to arrive at the settlement of some matter.”

Hostage negotiation is a specialized unit where members of this elite team are specially trained officers who have the difficult task of rescuing hostages from their captors without bloodshed or violence. This task is hardly easy because persons holding hostages are found to be nervous, desperate and such situations requires a cool, calm, and logical actions on the part to each officer (Lanceley, 1999).

Cornetta (2001) defined hostage negotiations in the typical law enforcement situation as the process of dealing with individuals who are holding individuals against their will, and usually require the meeting of specific demands. In other words, a hostage negotiator is someone who tries to bring a peaceful resolution to a tough situation without the use of force, by talking to a hostage taker.

It is important to understand that hostage negotiators are law enforcement or police officers first. Therefore, the socialization process of a female (or male) hostage negotiator will also involve the profile of a police officer. For this investigation, I am defining a hostage negotiator as an individual who is a police or law enforcement officer (LEO) that has been specially trained to communicate using negotiating and bargaining skills in a barricade, crisis, or a hostage incident.

A hostage incident is, “any incident in which people are being held by another person or persons against their will, usually by force or coercion, with the hostage taker is making demands” (McMains & Mullins, 1996, p. 23). It is equally important to know that the use of a hostage negotiator is not limited to hostage incidents, but has found to be useful in domestic, barricaded, and suicidal situations (Gist & Perry, 1985; McMains & Mullins, 1996).

Hostage negotiators, who are sometimes called upon to manage the above crisis type of incidents, are also trained and referred to as crisis negotiators. They are taught to use crisis intervention skills rather than negotiating and bargaining skills (McMains & Mullins, 1996). Hostage negotiations, in the typical law enforcement situation, are crisis interventions. Few law agencies encounter true hostage situations. A true hostage situation is composed of crisis intervention plus bargaining, and most police departments do very little if any bargaining.

If bargaining takes place, it is over relatively minor issues such as telephone calls, cigarettes, pizza, etc. (Lanceley, 1999). “If a negotiation team is not bargaining during a typical incident, it is almost certainly not a hostage situation” (Lanceley, 1999, p. 1). Thus, if the removal of bargaining from the situation occurs, the hostage negotiators become crisis interveners. Part of their crisis intervention involves dealing with suicidal persons.

Hostage negotiators encounter many suicidal individuals. For example, hostage negotiators have been forced to interact with desperate people who were sitting in their cars with guns in their mouths or would be jumpers who have climbed to the top of a bridge. Although some of the individuals they have encountered were very serious about

going through with the suicide act, some suicide threats are gestures to gain attention to personal pain (Lanceley, 1999).

Hostage negotiators also work in many domestic situations. They deal with spontaneous hostage situations, such as those involved in convenience store robberies that have gone wrong and others are known as suicide-by-cop (Lanceley, 1999). Suicide-by-cop occurs when a suicidal person is willing to do something provocative to force the police to kill him or her (Lanceley, 1999; McMains & Mullins, 1996, Dewey, et al. 2013, Miller, 2006).

Other crises have involved high schools where a teenage gunman has walked into a classroom, captured some of his classmates and typically demanded pizzas, cokes, and cigarettes. And some are barricaded subject incidents (Lanceley, 1999). Barricaded subject incidents are situations in which a person has isolated himself in a protected position, has a weapon that can harm others and is threatening to use it (Call, 2003, Mohandie and Meloy, 2010).

While some are criminals, interrupted during the commission of a crime, the majority are individuals who are in an emotional crisis. For example, individuals who have experienced recent losses and are threatening suicide frequently barricade themselves. They threaten others as a way of gaining attention or getting the police to kill them. According to McMains and Mullins (1996), barricaded subjects do not take hostages. They are in crisis because of their loss.

The definition of a hostage is being held and threatened by another person in an attempt to force the fulfillment of substantive demands on a third party (Muhammad, 2009). Lanceley (1999) wrote that both the media and law enforcement use the term very

loosely. The word often means that someone is being held against his will and surrounded by the police.

To illustrate, Lanceley (1999) wrote, “if law enforcement is working a domestic situation, the media often reports the incident as a hostage situation” (Lanceley, 1999, p. 4). Although the wife or girlfriend in that situation does not meet the true definition of a hostage, Lanceley (1999) stated that no word in the dictionary describes someone who is about to be murdered but not murdered. Therefore, she becomes a victim, but not a hostage. A substantive demand must exist to have a hostage situation (Lanceley, 1999).

The goals of law enforcement in a hostage-taking or barricade incident, are to resolve the conflict without loss of life or injury and to arrest the perpetrator. This goal is based on the principles of a hostage negotiator’s ability to “contain and negotiate” (McMains & Mullins, 1996, p. 10). Lanceley (1999) added isolating as a third approach. He states that the negotiator wants the perpetrator contained in the smallest possible area and while isolated from the outside world.

The perpetrator isolated in that he has no dialogue with anyone outside the siege location unless the crisis or hostage negotiation team agrees to that contact. The hostage negotiation team, on the other hand, welcomes contact from the perpetrator in traditional kidnappings for ransoms. A ransom is the request of payment for the release of someone or something from captivity, which forbidden by federal statutes is illegal and not honored (Wilson, 2018).

Federal kidnapping statute, 18 U.S. Code § 1201, reads, “Whoever unlawfully seizes, confines, inveigles, decoys, kidnaps, abducts, or carries away or holds for ransom or reward or otherwise any person...shall be punished by imprisonment for any term of

years or life” (18 U.S. Code § 1201). The kidnapping statutes on both federal and state levels are very broad.

Holding a person against his or her will is a crime that is generally prosecutable as a kidnapping regardless of the subjects’ intent. Therefore, in this study, the term kidnapping will be used in a broad sense and not just in the sense of kidnapping for a ransom. Kidnappings divided into two types, an unknown location and a known location (Lanceley, 1999).

Kidnappings in an unknown location are when the subject captures an innocent individual and takes him or her to an unknown location. If the person makes a substantive demand upon the family, government, or corporation, we have a hostage situation. A substantive request is something the subject feels he cannot achieve by any other means. Usually, the substantive demand is for money, goods, or political or social exchange. Lanceley (1999) wrote that no one takes another individual off the street to an unknown location for obtaining pizza, cokes, or cigarettes.

Kidnapping in a known location is when the subject is holding someone against his or her will and the authorities know where they have the person contained. The subject in this situation is not only making demands similar to those in kidnappings in an unknown location but now adds an escape demand. He must not only get his substantive demands met but also get out of there with them. If there is no escape demand, other possibilities considered are suicide or assault (Lanceley, 1999).

This section defined hostage negotiations while providing an overview of the role of a hostage negotiator and, critical concepts of hostage negotiations. The following section presents the history of hostage negotiations through two different perspectives

(e.g., Greek mythology and law enforcement) and the development of hostage negotiations in the context of police work.

History of hostage negotiations. The history of hostage negotiations depends upon the perspective from which one sees it. From a Greek mythology perspective, a hostage situation occurred between Persephone, Demeter, and Hades. A Greek mythologist may see the kidnap of Persephone, daughter of the goddess Demeter by Hades, king of the underworld, as the first documented hostage negotiation.

According to ancient mythology, Persephone taken by Hades, the lord of the dark underworld to become his wife. Demeter, the mother of Persephone, became so distraught, she caused all the crops to die. Zeus, the god of the sky, sent his son Hermes to go down to the underworld to bid his brother to let his wife go back to Demeter. Following the negotiations, Hades allowed his wife Persephone to return to earth each year during the spring. Demeter conceded and allowed the earth's crops to grow when Persephone returned, but then caused them to die in the fall when she returned to the underworld (Hamilton, 1942; Morford & Lenardon, 1977).

From the perspective of law enforcement, hostage negotiations developed after prisoners in an upstate prison called Attica seized 39 hostages, and within the same year, a group of Palestinian terrorists abducted a dozen Israeli athletes at the 1972 Munich Olympics. Both incidents ended in bloody police assaults (Bolz, 1979). In 1972, 13 Arabs invaded the Israeli Olympic compound in Munich. They demanded the release of 200 Arab prisoners from Israeli prisons and transportation to the airport, from which they would fly to Egypt.

Even though the Israeli government refused to release the prisoners, Germany also refused Israeli offers of help in rescuing the hostages, and the Egyptian government was unwilling to allow the Arabs or their hostages to land on Egyptian soil. The police then decided to confront the terrorists at the airport. They opened fire while the terrorists were moving back and forth between their helicopter and the plane they had ordered. Although the police captured the three surviving terrorists, 10 Arabs, 11 Israelis, and one police officer died in the incident along with the killing of 2 athletics (Schreiber, 1973 as cited in McMains & Mullins, 1996).

The Attica prison incident that occurred in Upstate New York on September 9, 1971, involved a group of inmates who overpowered the correctional officers by breaking a broken door separating their cellblock from the keep lock area and unlocked all the cellblocks. Within minutes, inmates had taken control of the entire prison holding 42 correctional officers and civilians' hostage.

The inmates moved their hostages to the yard and presented a list of 32 demands to prison and state authorities. The substantive demands of many included the replacement of the prison superintendent, administrative and legal amnesty to all prisoners involved in the prison takeover, better food, and more recreational time. Prison and state officials negotiated for 72 hours making little progress. On September 13, the correctional commissioner with the governor of New York ordered the New York State Police to regain control of the prison (McMains & Mullins, 1996).

The state police and correctional officers stormed the wall surrounding the yard firing their weapons at anything that moved. After a 15-minute gunfight, the officials killed 39 people and wounded 80 others. Eleven of the dead and 33 of the injured were

correctional personnel. Inmates killed one officer and three inmates during the siege. Seriously injured were several inmates in retaliation by officials upon regaining control of the prison (McMains & Mullins, 1996).

These incidents stimulated the New York City Police Department to evaluate the effectiveness and the value of forceful confrontation in hostage incident management (McMains & Mullins, 1996). Frank Bolz (Bolz & Hershey, 1979), a New York City police detective, and Dr. Harvey Schlossberg (1979), a clinical psychologist, are credited with establishing the viability of negotiation as a primary non-tactical option for resolving crises for the New York City Police Department (Bolz, 1979; Rogan, Hammer, & Van Zandt, 1997).

The events of Attica also brought about numerous changes and reforms in prisons and jails in the United States. Included in those reforms were mandates to develop tactical response teams trained in prison uprising and to train hostage negotiators conversant in penal situations (McMains & Mullins, 1996).

It is important to discuss the history of hostage negotiations development to understand it in the context of police work. According to Walker (1942), before the 1970's most of America's law enforcement did not have to deal with hostage situations as an act of political gain or economic power. Criminals took hostages to force compliance with demands or to express their emotional needs. Police officers responded using one of three methods (Wilson, 2018, McMains & Mullins 1996; Russel & Beigel, 1979):

- They would rely upon their verbal skills as an officer.
- They would walk away.

- They would call for backup and demand that the subjects release the hostages and surrender. The initiation of an assault occurred if the subjects fail to comply within a reasonable amount of time.

Before 1973, the training of police in hostage negotiations, crisis management or abnormal behavior did not occur in the police departments. For the most part, police departments dealt with issues of police safety when involved in a hostage incident. A typical event would include a domestic call or disturbance at a residence to which police would respond and find both the husband and wife barricaded in the house with the husband holding the wife at gunpoint to keep her from leaving after an argument had occurred.

The skills they used to handle these types of crises depended upon the skills they brought to the job. Some officers would see it as a domestic dispute with no authority. Others would call for backup, contain the situation, and demand surrender (McMains & Mullins, 1996). The approach to hostage negotiations depended upon the type of model or process trained to use.

Hostage negotiation models and processes. From a law enforcement perspective, hostage negotiation processes evolve from practical experience and include key negotiation processes (Donohue, Ramesh, Kaufman, & Smith, 1991; Holmes, 1997). These practitioner processes use terminology specific to law enforcement goals. They tend to focus on relational or task processes and generally do not offer an integrated treatment of the two in the process (Holmes, 1997).

An example of a relational model may include a relational development that describes a four-stage progression of introduction, establishing contact, relationship

building problem negotiation, and resolution (Rogan, 1990; Rogan & Hammer, 1995, Madrigal, Bowman, and McClain, 2009) whereas a task process may include a stage of introduction, negotiations of demands, impasse, and suicide threat, and surrender (Abbott, 1986; Holmes, 1997, Madrigal, Bowman, and McClain, (2009). Some police departments will use a relational model, e.g., the Michigan State Police, (Holmes, 1997; Rogan, 1990; Rogan & Hammer, 1995) while others use a model that focuses on a task process (Abbott, 1986).

According to Holmes (1997), an ideal model should incorporate information exchange, relationship development, and task processes. Gulliver (1979) and Poole and Doelger (1986, as cited in Holmes, 1997) have shown that these three elements tend to be both a consistent and important process in conflict and negotiation. An ideal model should also include terminology that is neutral. In other words, it should provide a vocabulary that can describe a negotiation from many different perspectives. A model general model is ideal for applying to multiple types of hostage situations. The Gulliver (1979) model of negotiation process meets the criteria for an ideal model (Holmes, 1997, Olekalns and Weingart, 2004).

Gulliver's (1979) model involves three processes, the information exchange, relational development, and bargaining task. Gulliver contends that the information exchange is the engine that drives the negotiation. The parties exchange information to make their demands known and to influence the other's needs. Accomplishing information exchange is through conversational sequences. These ordered talks are the fundamental building blocks of the negotiation process. A breakdown in conversation halts the negotiation process. Although continued conversation does not guarantee the

progression of a negotiation, it does serve as a building block in relationship development and bargaining task (Gulliver, 1979).

While hostage negotiation begins in a state of intense conflict and if successful concludes in a state of resolve or manage conflict, the function of the relational development process is to help parties move from working against one another to parties working together. Gulliver (1979) wrote, “the relational process alternates between antagonism and coordination in approximate alignment with progression through stages in the bargaining task process” (Holmes, 1997, pp. 83). In other words, the parties move back and forth from working against one another to working together through the bargaining task process.

The bargaining task is the process where the parties’ bargain, “they exchange demands, responses, and counter demands to make their positions known” (p. 83). While exchanging information relationships are formed, the bargaining process is fundamental to a hostage negotiation (Holmes, 1997). Therefore, the relational process is a continuous process rather than one that is fragmented.

Two dominant negotiation model approaches. A bargaining process is an approach the parties use to exchange demands, responses, and counter demands to make their positions known (Holmes, 1997). This process is a component of a two-part system comprised of instrumental and expressive acts (Hammer & Rogan, 1997; Miron & Goldstein, 1979; Schlossberg, 1979). An instrumental behavior is the act or interactions between the negotiator and the perpetrator in their attempt to facilitate a substantive demand.

The expressive act symbolizes behaviors that serve to communicate some form of power or significance of the individual and his emotional state. This two-part system has not only served as a general guide that allows the negotiators to determine the type of crisis negotiations situation they are facing (DiVasto, Lanceley, & Gruys, 1992; Fuselier, 1986; Rogan & Hammer, 1995), it has also given rise to the two dominant negotiation approaches, the bargaining negotiation approach, and the expressive negotiation approach (Rogan et al., 1997).

The benefit of the negotiation approach is the advantage it offers negotiators to see the bargaining of substantive and non-substantive wants or demands in similar terms. For example, the negotiator can bargain with the hostage-takers regarding non-substantive demands by suggesting that he will arrange for a pizza delivery if they release one or two hostages. Using this type of strategy not only buys time to collect more information, but it also serves interests. The disadvantages of this approach are that it is static and one-dimensional; it ignores emotions and relationships unlike the 2nd part of the two-part system, the expressive approach (Hammer & Rogan, 1997; Lanceley, 1999; McMains & Mullins 1996).

The expressive negotiation approach focuses on the impact of emotion and relationship of a crisis. Here the hostage taker uses the police and other bystanders as an audience so that he can ventilate to his anger. This model owes its conception to psychology, particularly psychotherapy, as well as human relations theory (Lanceley, 1999; Rogan et al., 1997; Schlossberg, 1979).

The advantage of this approach is that it not only focuses on relationships, but it also allows the hostage taker the time to be heard and understood. The disadvantage like

the instrumental approach is that it too is static and one-dimensional. It differs in that it sees the hostage as of no instrumental value. In other words, the hostage taker is not trying to exchange the individual held in return for some other object or commodity. He wants to express his feelings (Hammer & Rogan, 1997; Lanceley, 1999; McMains & Mullins, 1996; Rogan et al., 1997).

Engendering hostage negotiations. Upon careful review of the literature in search for a percentage or data on the number of hostage negotiators that exist, specifically females, law enforcement websites (Hyland, (2018), Hyland, and Whyde, (2016), FDLE, (n.d.) did not provide any statistical information on specialized units. Information regarding the number the police departments that have hostage negotiation teams, its number of members and the number of those that may be females was not provided. Websites of local departments, i.e., Broward Sheriff Office (BSO), (n.d.), Miami Dade, (n.d.), West Palm Beach (WPB) (n.d.) noted that the special units might exist however they do not provide any statistical information about their specialized unit teams. One department's website, the Jupiter police department (n.d.) shares it has 12 hostage negotiation members on their team but does report how many of those are females. Several hostage negotiation studies (Grubb, Brown, Hall, & Bowen, (2019), Johnson, Thompson, Hall, & Meyer, (2018), Jupiter PD (n.d.) provided information on the number of hostage negotiators who participated in their studies but did not report a percentage or statically details on how many exist nationally, or any statistical data regarding the number of female hostage negotiators who participated in the study.

An assumption that underrepresentation of women officers in the tri-county section of South Florida in this study can be made based on the number and percentage of

women on each hostage negotiation team. A significant contribution of this study is to provide and disseminate information about the experiences and perceptions of women hostage negotiators. Therefore, one aim of this investigation is to address the question of how many female hostage negotiators are there within the tri-county area of Broward, Miami-Dade, and Palm Beach counties.

Theoretical Framework

“For women...their subordination in justice occupations reflects larger inequalities that pervade social life because the jobs they are often consistent with their sex category.” (Martin & Jurik, 2006, p. 22).

The theory that guides this research is phenomenology. While the theory of gendered organization, socialization theory, and feminist theory are discussed here, because of their relevance to the discussion and survey of the literature, they will not guide this study as phenomenology has no guiding theories other than itself.

What is Phenomenology?

Phenomenology

Maykut & Morehouse (1997) wrote that phenomenology is an analysis of qualitative data to provide an understanding of a concept from the participants' perspective (p. 101). Phenomenology is a science in which the purpose is to describe a particular phenomenon as a lived experience. Merleau-Ponty (1962) defined phenomenology in the preface of his book *Phenomenology of Perception*. He describes the thought process associated with phenomenological thinking:

Phenomenology is the study of essences; and according to it, all problems amount to finding definitions of essences: the essence of perception, or the essence of

consciousness, for example. However, phenomenology is also a philosophy, which put essences back into existence, and does not expect to arrive at an understanding of man and the world from any starting point other than that of 'facticity.' It is a transcendental philosophy which places in abeyance the assertions arising out of the natural attitude, the better to understand them; but it is also a philosophy for which the world is always 'already there' before reflection begins-as 'an inalienable presence; and all its efforts are concentrated upon re-achieving a direct and primitive contact with the world and endowing that contact with a philosophical status. It is the search for a philosophy, which shall be a 'rigorous science,' but it also offers an account of space, time, and the world as we 'live' them. It tries to give a direct description of our experience as it is, without taking account of its psychological origin and the causal explanations which the scientist, the historian (Merleau-Ponty, 1962, p. vii).

Van Manen (1990) added that phenomenological research is the study of essences. It is not concerned with the factual status of an occurrence, whether a something happened or how often it happens; it is concerned with the nature or essence of the experience in order to better understand what the experience is like for this particular group of people or persons. "Phenomenology is discovery-oriented; it attempts to find out what a certain phenomenon means and how it is experienced" (p. 29).

Phenomenology examines the meaning of a group of people experiencing the same phenomenon. Moustakas (1994) explained that:

The word phenomenology comes from the Greek *phaenesthai*, to flare up, to show itself, to appear. Constructed from *phaino*, phenomenon means to bring to light, to

place in brightness, to show itself, in itself, the totality of what lies before us in the light of day What appears in the consciousness is the phenomenon. (p. 26)

Wagner (1983) describes phenomenology as a way of seeing ourselves, others, and everything we meet in life. He writes that,

Phenomenology is a system of interpretation that helps us perceive and conceive ourselves, our contacts and interchanges with others, and everything else in the realm of experience in a variety of ways including to describe a method as well as a philosophy or way of thinking. (Wagner, 1983, p. 8).

Given the definitions provided, we find that phenomenology is not only about the study of essences, it is also a system of interpretation, in that it allows us to share our perceptions and experiences. It is the study of ‘phenomena’ appearances of things or things as they appear in our experiences. Also, it is discovery-oriented in that it attempts to find out what a specific phenomenon means and how it is experienced. It is for this reason this investigation is an appropriate topic for this type of qualitative inquiry.

The following theories explain the socialization process of women within an androcentric environment using feminist theory to describe their differences and inequalities within a gendered organization. Britton (2003) saw gender as a process that can be carried out both at the micro level (by the individual actor) and the macro level (social institutions, policies, and practices). This study presents the perspectives of women in hostage negotiation at the micro level, against the background of culture and legal institutions at the macro level. The purpose of the first section is to explain women’s differences within the context of family, school, and culture. This explanation begins with a definition of socialization and the associated process. The second section

provides a summary of women's inequality experience within a gendered organization. The last section includes a discussion of why women are treated differently followed by the gender inequalities they experience within gendered organizations.

Socialization Theory

Socialization defined. Socialization defined. Johnson (2000) defines socialization as, "the process through which people are prepared to participate in social systems" (p. 267). This concept includes having some understanding of symbol, language and idea systems, and the relationships that make up social systems. When considering this definition, several points need emphasizing. The first point is that every role human takes on requires socialization, regardless of its function in the system. Second, is that generally humans are not socialized to understand systems as systems or analyze how they work and their consequences. Third, is that humans are socialized to accept systems as a taken-for-granted reality that is as it seems to be. Finally, what is generally not included is any sociological awareness is what it is we are participating in and how we are participating in it (Johnson, 2000).

We take for granted our world of everyday routines, interactions, and events as to what society is with very little attention given to that of the individual experience (Johnson, 2000). It is here where women in law enforcement, mainly female hostage negotiators will have the opportunity to express and share their individual experiences in their life world of everyday routines, interactions, and events in the world of hostage negotiations. The current study showed how they develop as female hostage negotiators from their perspective. Socialization is both a development and a process. According to

Clausen (1968), socialization focuses on the development of the individual as a social being and a participant in society.

As a process, socialization entails a continuing interaction between the individual and those who seek to influence him; it an interaction that undergoes many phases and changes (Clausen, 1968). Elkin (1960) defined the socialization process by which the individual learns the ways of a given group well enough so that he can function within it. Trocchia and Berkowitz (1999) wrote that Danziger (1971) defined socialization as “the process by which an individual becomes a participating member of the organization to which she or he aspires” (p.748). For this investigation, “The best way to understand the socialization process is to consider the experiences of the persons who have...a broad social vision and understanding” (Bogardus, 1924, p. XX). This definition comes closest to the focus of this investigation: The intent is to capture the experiences of female hostage negotiators’ socialization process and their gendered experiences from their perspective. This perspective leads to the first research question.

RQ#1

How do female hostage negotiators perceive their socialization process in the specialized unit of hostage negotiations?

The socialization processes. The socialization process is the process by which men and women learn the ways of a given society or social group well enough so that he or she can function within it (Clausen, 1968 p.3). The major institutions of society such as the family, the culture and the educational institution are important agents of the socialization process. Each agent has a purposeful responsibility for ensuring the socialization process. The family is far more the most significant agent of socialization

that influences gender roles (Lindsey, 1995). Gender socialization refers to the learning of behavior and attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex.

Gender socialization begins at birth and continues throughout our lives. From the moment, a girl is born and wrapped in a pink blanket and boy in a blue, gender role development begins. It begins with parents acquired a set of gender-specific ideas about what their children need based on how they were socialized. Through child-rearing manuals, old wives' tales, family and friends, parents have developed the construct of a boy or girl child and the different expectations for each. The schools, media and childhood play created and reinforced gender difference and inequality (Kimmel, 2000).

As children grow, other cultural artifacts will assure that this distinction remains intact. In early childhood, girls are given dolls to diaper and tiny stoves to make believe meals while boys receive miniature tools to construct buildings and toy guns and tanks to wage war (Lindsey, 1995). Gender role theory suggests that this type of childhood learning process instill different occupational goals in men and women. Boys are encouraged to develop competence and competition whereas the girls' socialization process fosters nurturance and focuses on appearance (Martin & Jurik, 2006).

The role of the family lays the groundwork for the next principal agent of secondary and continuing socialization, which is the educational institution. The education gendering process begins the moment we start school. The educational institutions' responsibility is to teach children the ways of the society so that they can assume the positions necessary for the maintenance of society. Unbeknownst to children, they learn sex-segregated play at school. This process takes place through different

sports, different rules through different playground activities for boys and girls (Jakubowska, and Byczkowska-Owczarek, 2018).

The roles that men and women have learned during their gendered childhood prepare them for their adult professional role. While family and school socialization focus on infancy and childhood, occupational socialization focus is on the adult position within our modern-day society. Occupational socialization is a social construct, and its performance is a social role or set of tasks that adults perform. This social role does not mean that only adult socialization is involved because socialization is an ongoing process that continues well into the mature years of life where the viewing of functions is seen as a development process (Goslin, 1971, Jakubowska, and Byczkowska-Owczarek, 2018).

Children typically say that they want to have an adult occupation that appears to be glamorous and sometimes includes those roles in their play. Their influences come by way of TV media, peers, or other agents of socialization such as religion or work environment as to which occupation they rehearse for future positions. Children sometimes choose their future profession based on their parents' occupations because their exposure may be limited or exposed to much else. Goslin (1971) wrote that there is always an adult role model to follow whether it is a teacher, parent, or school guidance counselors.

Women are taught based on the gender they have defined roles they are expected to play. The purpose of this background information is to explain why women's, experiences have been different and unequal from those of men in general, but particularly in law enforcement. The differences and inequalities begin with their socialization processes in the family, school, and cultural environment.

Socialization processes teach us that family, school, and our culture are our most significant agents in preparing us to participate in social systems. They also introduce us to what gender means in terms of what behaviors and attitudes and are appropriate for a specific sex. As we continue our discussion on the difference, we begin by defining what gender means, how one may interpret it through the lens of biological determinism and differential socialization perspective or nature vs. nurture and its social construction.

Feminist Theory

Gender defined. Women are treated differently because of their gender (Turban, Freeman, and Waber, 2017). Defining gender is around cultural ideas about female and male behavior tendencies and personality traits that take the form of opposites (Lorber, 1994). Not based on one's sex but gender, the characteristics associated with being a male or female is the socially define roles expected of males and females. Although the use of sex and gender are interchangeable, the terms sex and gender have different meanings. The traditional meaning of gender typically focuses on the difference between women and men. Gender is the personal, social, and cultural assignment of being male or female. It is the study of socially constructed male and female roles, relations, and identities (Acker, 1992). Sex, on the other hand, refers to one's internal and external sexual organs. There is no social or cultural assignment to sex. Sex falls under biology or anatomy whereas the association of gender is with sociology and psychology (Lorber, 1994).

Gender is not just about the difference but also power, inequality, and social structure. Kimmel (2000) noted that "gender is not simply a system of classification by which biological males and females are sorted, separated and socialized into equivalent sex roles" (p. 1). He wrote, "Gender expresses the universal inequality between males

and females. Kimmel (2000) and Bem (1993) suggested we begin the explanation with two questions. One, why does every society differentiate people based on gender and why is gender the bases for the division of labor? Two, why is a society based on male dominance and divide social, economic, and political resources unequally between genders? To explain gender difference and gender inequality we begin by explaining biological determinism or nature side of the equation.

Biological determinism. Literature reveals that most arguments about gender difference begin with biology (Bem, 1993; Kimmel, 2000). Biologically speaking men and women are different in their masculine structure, their hormonal levels, and the reproductive anatomies. While the function of the reproduction system determines our sex, meanings that are attached to differences within our culture define gender. The physical difference between men and women are the anatomical, hormonal, and chemical or as social scientist calls them sex differences. Acker (1992) described sex as representing the essential and unchanging physical difference in human reproduction and gender within a social or cultural context is a variable and subject to change yet recognizing there is an implicit link between gender and sex. Although we know from a hormonal perspective, men and women are biologically different; we also know they possess and share some of the same hormonal characteristics.

Historically, men and women have always had different roles because of their biological differences. The hormonal cycles of men and women are different because a woman's body is designed to produce babies and a man is not. Testosterone, a male hormone also known as androgen, plays an important physiological and psychological role in women. The production of testosterone is through the ovaries and adrenal glands

of women. Like in men, it also influences a woman's sexual feelings and behavior.

Besides the sexual benefits of both male and female, testosterone also acts on the brain, muscles, bones, liver, and blood vessels. Estrogen is present in both men and women but primarily present in women. In women, it is responsible for promoting the development of female secondary sex characteristic such as breast and involved in the thickening of the endometrium for regulating the menstrual cycle. The small amount of estrogen in men regulates specific functions of the reproductive system that is important to the maturation of the sperm.

In a social, historical context, the role of women is primarily to bear and raise children. Men were assigned the task of defending and protecting the group. They were responsible for hunting because of their size and physical strength and because they did not have the responsibility of taking care of the children, which would have limited their mobility. This role assignment leads warrior-males to see themselves and to be seen by others as the most important and influential member of the group putting them in the position to take control over the decisions of the group regarding issues with safety and security (Bem, 1993). The section that follows explains the nurture side of the equation.

Differential socialization. Differential socialization explains that men and women are different because we are taught to be different. We acquire the traits, behaviors, attitudes of what is masculine and what is feminine from our culture (Kimmel, 2000). Kimmel (2000) wrote we are not necessarily born different but that we become different through the process of socialization. During this process, we learn the acceptable roles for male and female and the acceptable behaviors associated with them. The assignment of women to a role is because of their cultural conditioning. The process

of cultural conditioning and gender role or differential socialization reveals that attitudes and behaviors are not defined by sex but by gender (Kimmel, 2000).

Kimmel (2000) writes that inequality is from the outcome of the distinct cultural valuing of men's and women's experiences and not found on our chromosomes. The attitudes and behaviors we learn within our culture determine how we define gender. Gender, unlike sex, is based on labels that people apply to themselves and that others place on them (Klein, 1992, p. 94). For example, when people accept labels such as being masculine or feminine, they are accepting the culture's norm regarding the characteristics of male and female behaviors. That is, when women identify themselves as women, they accept the attributes associated with being feminine, while men accept those characteristics associated with masculinity (Kimmel, 2000; Lorber, 1994; Plante & Maurer, 2018).

Gender role socialization endorses different occupational goal and capabilities in men and women (Martin & Jurik, 2006). Before women entering law enforcement they were socialized to be wives, mothers, school guards, teachers, or secretaries. The perpetuation of gender difference continued once they entered law enforcement. Women were hired to become matrons' before their socialization as police officers (Poleski, 2016). Men, on the other hand, were recruited and socialized to become police officers even though they required less education, had better opportunities for advancement and more income (Horne, 1975).

The socialization explanation provided here comes from the belief that gender differences emerge from the different roles that women and men are taught to play (socialization) or simply come to play (institutional; Ritzer, 2013). The primary

determinant of difference is thought to be the sexual division of labor, which links women to the functions of a mother, wife, and household worker and with lifelong events and experiences very different from those of men (Lorber, 1998).

The Social Construction of Gender

The viewing of gender is socially constructed within major institutions. Lorber and Farrell (1991) and Fausto-Sterling (2000) explained that gender is constructed and justified by institutions. Lorber (1994) writes that the building of gender divisions and gender roles in the major institutions of society occurs within institutions of the economy, family, culture, and law through the social processes of gendering. These social institutions influence who we are as individuals and the roles we adopt that shapes our cultural attitudes through differential socialization.

The social construction of gender is created and re-created out of social interaction (Ore, 2000). West and Zimmerman (1987) argued that gender is presumed to reflect the natural difference rooted in biology. Differences accomplished by individuals in routine interactions with others. This interaction process begins with categorizing infants by chromosome type before birth or by genitalia after birth. "In our daily social interactions, we rely on social signs of sex category by hairstyle, dress and physical appearance. The placement of individuals in a category follows the viewing of their behavior through the lens of sex category to which they naturally belong. The observer's role in defining the behavior as masculine or feminine is forgotten" (p. 28-29). Gender, like culture, is the human production of everyone performing gender (Ore, 2000; West & Zimmerman, 1987). According to Lorber, (1994) everyone is 'doing gender.' She

described doing gender as our day-to-day practice of successfully placing individuals in gender status. 'Doing gender' was the basis of the second research question.

RQ #2

How do female hostage negotiators perceive their law enforcement years concerning the perception of self in a gendered organization?

Men and women do gender in social interactions in the workplace. Interactions in tandem emerge from, reproduce, and sometimes challenge existing social structural divisions of labor, power, and culture hierarchies. Acker (1991), Stainback, Kleiner, and Skaggs, (2016), stressed the importance of the production of gender in social institutions such as work organizations. While other social institutions such as family, state and labor markets impinge on the production of gender in work organization, the focus of this section is to address the issues of inequalities that exist and that women face. Gender analyzed in the workplace is an ongoing social production. The subordination of gender is interwoven in race and class and with all social institutions including family and work

Theory of Gendered Organization

Looking at the historical overview of women in law enforcement every attempt has been made to create gender distinctions in law enforcement. The hiring of women first as matrons (Garcia, 2003; Grennan, 1987; Horne, 1975, Leavitt, 2006), then assigning them to caregiving jobs working with women and children (Schulz, 1995). Finally, there was an attempt to make them equal by giving them full police powers (Schulz, 1995). Women in law enforcement particularly in hostage negotiation are under-represented as a gendered organization.

The theory of gendered organization emerges from an established history of research in gender, organization, and occupational studies (Britton, 2003). Most research begins with the same empirical problem of the salaries between men and women, the purpose of discussing gendered organization in this study is to look at the underlying reasons why gender is an issue within law enforcement by first looking at the structure and then the culture and agents who create the differences that lead to inequalities. This information formed the basis of the third research question.

RQ #3

How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years concerning the perception of self in a gendered organization?

A Quasi-Military Structure

From the beginning, police recruited many of its first officers from army corps or militia and adopted a military model for its uniform, promotional structure, and culture (Niland, 1996). Throughout history, the military and the police have often exchanged or shared power. “This close association and the idea that police are waging war against crime lends to the idea of using military structure and command as the accepted formula for police organizations” (Simon, 2013). Its structure evolves from a quasi-military structure.

One reason gender is an issue within law enforcement can best be understood through the examination of its structure, the culture of law enforcement and the actors who participate within it. First, we look at the structure of law enforcement. Policing is one of the most masculinized occupations in our society. This type of quasi-military structure has made it difficult for women to enter law enforcement and receive equal

treatment. Another reason, according to Millett (1969), is that every avenue of power such as technology, industry, science, the military, and the coercive force of the police rest entirely in the hands of males. Rich (1995) noted that through tradition, law, customs and the division of labor, men determine what part women will or will not play within a patriarchal society and that woman only have access to as much privilege as men are willing to endorse.

Patriarchy and Law Enforcement

The society of which we live in is patriarchal and found within the institutions of military, universities, science, politics, and finance (Millett, 1969). Every avenue of power within our society including the coercive force of the police rest in the hands of males (Millett, 1990). Rich (1995) defined patriarchy as the power of “the fathers: a familial-social, ideological, political system in which men by force, direct pressure, or through ritual, tradition, law and language, customs, etiquette, education, and the division of labor determine what part women shall or shall not play and in which the female is everywhere subsumed under the male” (p. 40-41). In other words, she explained that under patriarchy regardless of what position, status or situation women possess, women can only have as much power, privilege, or influence that the patriarchy is willing to give and have it for as long as women are willing to pay the price of male approval.

In law enforcement, women receive limited powers, as evidenced by their underrepresentation in law enforcement in general, their small numbers in top command positions, and the perpetuation of the barriers they face in policing (NCWP, 1997, 2000, 2001). Women are underrepresented among patrol officers and are virtually absent from the decision-making ranks and positions of authority in police departments across the

country. The price women are willing to pay for their male colleagues' approval is their perseverance in the pursuit of equality they denied to them.

Androcentrism in Law Enforcement

In addition to our patriarchal society, there is “the privileging of male experience and the “otherizing” of female experience” (Bem, 1993, p. 41) or androcentrism. Bem (1993) explained that androcentrism is the privileging of male experience and the ““otherizing” of female experience; that is male and male experience are treated as neutral normal for the culture as a whole, and females and female experience as treated as sex-specific deviation from that allegedly universal standard” (p. 41). She wrote that unlike the presentation sexism, which holds power in society, androcentrism goes beyond telling who is in power or how the reproduction of power occurs in both culturally and psychologically. Perkins-Gilman (1989) was the first to introduce the concept of androcentrism. She explained that while men are held as the human type, the woman is his accessory and subordinate, “she has always been considered above him, below him, before him, behind him; besides him a wholly relative existence...but never by any chance...herself” (Perkins-Gilman, 1989, p. 204). Women are not seen as themselves but as a reference to, or for, something.

In a patriarchal, androcentric quasi-military structure, women continue to be treated as “other” and continue to be less privileged and or unequal to men with only access to as much privilege as men are willing to endorse them. Having a lack of endorsement and privilege is evidenced by their under-representation as they hold fewer top command positions (NCWP, 2001). According to the NCWP (2001) research, “women are discouraged from applying to law enforcement because of policing

aggressive, authoritative image, an image based on an outdated paramilitary model of law enforcement” (p. 3); an image associated with males, masculinity, and aggression. It is an image where gender division exists within the patriarchal, androcentric quasi-military structure of law enforcement.

As long as there are gender distinctions between male and female, it is likely that society will continue to develop a division of labor based on sex writes Bem (1993). Today Holt (2018) sees women moving in a new direction concerning feminism. She writes that we have entered modern feminism. She explains today’s feminism is characterized by the collective feel as oppose to the original individual narrative. She describes the first wave as women’s’ struggle for legal rights such as the right to vote. The second wave of feminism that swept through during the '60s, 70's involved the fight for equal pay, abortion rights and the right to fight against domestic violence. During this time the social movements and emergence of radical feminism promoted the theory that men suppressed women through patriarchy. The third wave features consist of the desire for diversity, the cultivation of difference and individualism and it occurred around 2000 or during the millennium (Holt, 2018).

Women in policing seem to be entangled between the first and second wave of feminism in their attempt to obtain social justice within law enforcement. Women in law enforcement are still seeking legal rights to rights to economic, political, personal and social equality of the sexes. They are seeking the right for equality in employment hiring’s, job promotions (Schulz, 1995, Archbold and Schulz, 2012, Hyland, and Whyde, 2016) and acceptance (Daum, 1994; Price, 1996, Powell, 2016). Women in law enforcement want to be free of sexual harassment and discrimination as opposed to being

confronted with new discriminatory behavior, i.e., pregnancy discrimination (Shores, 1977, Sousa & Gauthier, 2008, Peck, 2017).

Bem (1993) also wrote that because of this division of labor there would be a development of an institutionalized system of male political power. Martin and Jurik (1996) and Bem noted that given women's responsibility was to bear and raise children, their opportunity to be a part of institutionalizing a system was limited in a non-technological society. So, why does the division of labor still exist in our current technological society?

Inequality in the Division of Labor

Bem (1993) replied that the short answer is that, "once instituted, the sexual division of labor and the system of male political dominance gave rise to a whole network of cultural beliefs and social practices, which came to have a life and history of their own" (p.32). The best explanation of why men and women perpetuate the behaviors associated with the division of labor is through the lens of biological essentialism, androcentrism and gender polarization. Because this paper focuses on why the division of labor still exists in a technological society, I will provide a brief explanation using Bem's lens to explain why behaviors associated with the division of labor still exist. This first will be the biological perspective, followed by androcentrism, and gender polarization.

The impact from a biological perspective is that many cultural institutions make it difficult for any individual to be both a parent and worker in the paid labor force. Bem (1993) noted that what makes it difficult for women to function on the same level as men in these institutions is "The lack of pregnancy leave, the absence of day-care facilities and the mismatch between the school day and the workday makes it difficult" (p. 33). In

androcentrism, women continue to follow the behaviors of the division of labor is because of their inferior departure from the male standard as a subordinate within the male dominate family whose function is to provide children and perform various domestic chores. Again, according to the lens of androcentrism women are defined in terms of her domestic and reproductive functions, her ability to satisfy the male's sexual appetite and as an inferior departure from the male standard.

Today women are pushing back on the issue when told they cannot take maternity leave or working light duty during pregnancy (Peck, 2017). As a result, women are filing lawsuits for pregnancy discrimination and winning (Peck, 2017). Today, female officers who are asked to go on unpaid leave, denied reasonable accommodations (which are their rights) or denied maternity leave are filing lawsuits and granted reasonable accommodations (Peck, 2017).

In gender polarization, the behaviors perpetuated in the division of labor continue because of the social distinctions that encompass the division between masculine and feminine. Bem (1993) suggested that even if androcentrism and biological essentialism did not exist, people would still perceive the existence of two sexes through both expression and dress. In other words, the identification of masculine and feminine through the style of dress, social roles, the feeling of emotions and sexual desires experienced still exist. It is a type of thought process that perpetuates the social distinctions that encompass the division between masculine and feminine the same behaviors that preserve and maintain an environment of gender divisions.

Organization Inequality

The theory of gendered organization looks at the systematic and structural origin of organizational inequality where the concepts of jobs and workers perpetuate and maintain an environment of gender divisions (Britton, 2003, Silvestri, 2018). Given the history of law enforcements quasi-military structure, the literature reveals that it is the culture of this organization, which creates gender difference and inequality (Green & del Carmen, 2002; Haarr, 1997; Martin, 1991). Stamarski and Son Hing (2015) suggested that gender is not something that one brings into the organization with the workers but something that is part of the organizations' structure as evidenced by its processes, practices, beliefs within it hiring and training methods that play a considerable role within the gendered organizations (Stamarski & Son Hing, 2015). The perpetuation and accomplishment of gender inequalities are within the social structure of society and its institutions. Today, women continue to face gender inequality when they are compared to men and find that men not only continue to receive greater recognition for their work, but they are moved up the career ladder a lot faster (Lorber, 2001).

The reason gender inequality exists is because the ascription of rights, status, resources, and rewards (as noted by liberal feminists such as Wollstonecraft and Stanton) by society based on the assumed capacity of an individual to reason, and they argued that women's reasoning capacity was similar to men's (Jaggar, 1983; Saulnier, 1996, Wells & Alt, 2005). The social structure between women and men was allowed to persist (although it stood in opposition to liberalism's argument for a fair meritocracy) because women's physical properties, rather than their intellectual capacities, were used to define

women and their place in society (Eisenstein, 1981; Saulnier, 1996, Franklin, 2005, Wells & Alt, 2005).

Many police officers then and now do not believe that women can perform police work (Horne, 1975; Niland, 1996, Powell, 2016). They thought “only police (men) could effectively arrest criminals, break up fights, and quell riots” (Vila & Morris, 1999, p. 79). In law enforcement, the gender differences within the workplace are not only created but also legitimized. Females are assigned to jobs because of their gender more frequently than males. The association of employment and its task is their sex category (Martin & Jurik, 1996). The pay women receive for work is often accompanied by lower levels of income and status than men. Also divided along the lines of paid work are race and class. Whites are usually paid higher wages and have access to more desirable jobs than Blacks have. In addition to race and class, gender also converges to shape the nature and distribution of work. When women enter occupations dominated by men, they encounter resistance from their colleagues, their supervisors, and the public (Price, 1996).

Other examples of inequalities and difference issues include the underrepresentation of women in law enforcement. The widespread bias in police hiring, selection practices, and recruitment policies also keeps the numbers of women in law enforcement remarkably low. Entry exams that have an overemphasis on physical prowess block many qualified women from serving, even though research shows that such tests are not job-related, and they do not predict successful job performance (Birzer & Craig, 1996; NCWP, 2001, Prenzler, 2002).

Organizational inequality tells us that although the actors within the organization create and perpetuate inequality within the organization, bias is part of the organization's structure. Organizational difference formed the basis of the fourth research question.

RQ #4

How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years concerning the organizational culture?

Rationale for Methodology

Following the review of the literature on hostage negotiations, I realized that the voice of females who are in specialized units in law enforcement is absent from the literature. While studies (BJA, 2001; Daum, 1994; NCWP, 2001) have focused on the number of women in law enforcement, their current rate of growth, their percentage in supervisory positions, rate of promotions and how many are in command positions using quantitative method to obtain their statistics' they fail to discuss the experiences of women in specialized units. Although one study (Daum, 1994) looked at police work from a woman's perspective, it too failed to capture the rich descriptive aspects of women in law enforcement and address women in specialized units, particularly hostage negotiations. Therefore, I anticipated this investigation would illuminate their subjective experiences. Furthermore, I hoped to address the absence of women hostage negotiators and their voices from the hostage negotiation literature by capturing and understanding their personal experience and their perceptions of those experiences. Chapter III describes the methodology used for this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter explains the qualitative methodology used for this exploratory investigation and provides a rationale for the use of phenomenology in this dissertation. Following that discussion, I present the procedures used for selecting participants, the role of the researcher, the interview process, the method used to analyze the data, and the study participants.

Qualitative Method

A qualitative methodology was the choice for this study. Before discussing the specific method, it is first necessary to define what is meant by a “qualitative approach.” There are a variety of traditions in qualitative research; qualitative inquiry usually consists of several essential components (Pathak, Jena, and Kalra, 2013, Roulston, 2019).

First, qualitative research seeks to answer exploratory and descriptive type questions (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, Tully, 2014). Exploratory research questions investigate topics with limited knowledge exist. Descriptive research questions are those that describe events and phenomena (Rubin & Babbie, 2013, Tully, 2014). Answering description question occurs in the participants’ natural setting (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, Tully, 2014), which is why qualitative research is also called ‘naturalistic’ (Bogdan & Bilken, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990, Anderson, et al., 2018). Qualitative research is also inductive (Creswell, 2012, Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Patton (1980, 1990) wrote that the data analysis in qualitative research is inductive. Inductive means that the researcher is not testing pre-conceived hypotheses but is building patterns from the collected data or the words of the research participants.

Maycut and Morehouse (1994) defined this process as an “emergent “design, one that evolves with the development of the study.

In qualitative research, uses humans as the instrument for data collection. The role of the researcher is to uncover meanings and understand how people make sense of their experiences (Bogdan & Bilken, 1992, Pathak, Jena, & Kalra, 2013). The researcher is also interested in the perspectives of the subject participants and their day-to-day interactions. The contexts collected in these naturalistic settings are critical in understanding the phenomenon of interest (Bogdan & Bilken, 1992; Maycut & Morehouse, 1994; Patton, 1990, Anderson, et al. 2018).

Rationale for Methodology

The purpose of this investigation was to produce an in-depth and detailed account of the experiences of female hostage negotiators while uncovering meanings they ascribe to be a female hostage negotiator in a dominant male workforce. The in-depth and detailed interviews they provide gives voice to their existence while their experiences and their perspectives provide the data for analysis. For this reason, this investigation was an appropriate topic for this qualitative inquiry. Therefore, the function of this investigation is to serve as a vessel for those women who are successfully resolving conflict, yet who omitted from literature and traditional research. In search of a suitable explorative research design that attempts to find out what a specific phenomenon means and what the experience means to those who share the same experiences, I chose phenomenology for this type of qualitative inquiry.

Phenomenology as a Method

Merleau-Ponty (1962) and Qutoshi, (2018) describes phenomenology as both a philosophy and a method. Blumenstiel (1973) wrote, “It is the trick of making things whose meanings seem clear, meaningless, and then discovering what they mean” (p.189). Phenomenology is an inductive and descriptive approach (Omery, 1983). There are several alternate and methodological explanations of phenomenology.

The two main schools of thought are descriptive phenomenology and interpretive phenomenology (Matua, & Wal, 2015). Descriptive phenomenology was developed by Husserl (1962) who asked the question “what do we know as persons?” He was interested in the descriptions of human experience, the ordinary conscious experience of everyday life. The description of “things” as people experience them. “These ‘things include hearing, seeing, believing, feeling, remembering, deciding, evaluating, acting and so forth” (Loiselle & McCrath 2007, p. 217). Descriptive phenomenology involves two steps:

- Bracketing
- Sensing
- Analyzing
- Describing

Bracketing is the process of identifying and holding preconceived beliefs about a phenomenon under study. Sensing occurs when the researcher can remain open to the meanings attributed to the phenomenon by those who have experienced it. The next step is the analysis phase where significant statements are extracted and categorized, and the

researcher makes sense of the essential meanings of the phenomenon. The descriptive phase occurs when the researcher comes to understand and define the phenomenon.

Interpretive phenomenology asks the question “What is being?” Heidegger, a student of Husserl (1962), stressed the importance of interpreting and understanding the human experience. The goal of the interpretative method is to enter another’s world, discover the practical wisdom, possibilities, and understand its findings.

The difference between descriptive and interpretative is that interpretative does not bracket preconceived beliefs. Both methods rely on in-depth interviews with individuals who have experienced the same phenomenon of interest (Matua, & Wal, 2015, Moule, Aveyard, and Goodman, 2016). The object of phenomenology research is to borrow from other peoples’ experiences. Researchers look at other peoples’ experiences because they allow us in vicarious ways to become more experienced ourselves (Van Manen, 1990).

Personal experience is the starting point in phenomenology. The source of personal experience is a description or account of the lived experience.

In drawing up personal descriptions of lived experiences, the phenomenologist knows that one’s own experiences are also the possible experience of others. To conduct a personal description of a lived experience, I try to describe my experience as much as possible in experiential terms focusing on a particular situation or event. I tried, as Merleau-Ponty (1962) directed, to provide a clear description of my experience as it is, without offering causal explanations or interpretive generalizations of my experience. (Van Manen, 1990, p. 54).

To produce lived-experience descriptions, Van Manen (1990) suggested:

1. You need to describe the experience as you live(d) through it, avoiding as much as possible causal explanations, generalizations, or abstract interpretations.
 2. Describe the experience from the inside as it were; almost like a state of mind: the feelings, the mood, the emotions, etc.
 3. Focus on a particular example or incident of the object of the experience: describe specific events, an adventure, a happening, and a particular experience.
 4. Try to focus on an example of the experience, which stands out for its vividness, or as it was the first time. Attend to how the body feels, how things smell(ed), how they sound(ed), etc.
 5. Avoid trying to beautify your account with fancy phrases or flowery terminology.
- (Van Manen, 1990, pp. 64-65)

This type of description is less concerned with the factual accuracy and more focused on the person's living sense of the experience. What is it like to live through the experience of a female hostage negotiator in a dominant male workplace?

In qualitative research, analysis of the data is continuous, beginning during the collection stages and finishing only when the final report is written (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, Anderson, 2010). Analysis begins with reading and re-reading interview transcripts, field notes and replaying audiotapes for additional clarification. During this process, data are "unitized" or divided into "units of meaning" (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). These units may consist of one word, one sentence, or even a paragraph of text. It is important that each unit represent the smallest segment of information that can "stand by itself" and aid in understanding the phenomenon (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Moustakas (1994) offered a nine-step, modified Van Kaam (1966) method (Sullivan, & Bhattacharya, 2017). Moustakas (1994) adopted two sets of data analysis models (Yüksel, & Yıldırım, 2015). The first modified model derived from a technique developed by Van Kaam (1966) and the second based on the method of analysis offered by Stevick (1971), Colaizzi (1978), Keen (1975) and Sumskis, & Moxham, 2017). The model of analysis that this investigation study utilizes is the modification of the Van Kaam method (1966). The process of analysis involves the phenomenological strategies of horizontalization, thematization, and creating textural and structural descriptions (Moustakas, 1994, Yüksel, & Yıldırım, 2015).

Steps of analysis. The data analysis is captured using Moustakas' (1994,) nine steps. The activities outlined in each of the following steps used for each of the 24 research participants. Each step framed according to its primary purpose and action.

1. Horizontalization- the listing of every expression relevant to the hostage negotiators experience.
2. Reduction and Elimination- determines the invariant constituents. The testing of each phrase looked for two requirements:
 - a. Whether the expressions contain moments of the experience that are necessary and sufficient for one to understand it.
 - b. It is possible to put a label and abstract the experience from the expression. The elimination of phrases that are vague, repetitive, overlap and that do not identify the essence of experience occurred during this process. The horizons that remain are the invariant constituents of the experience.

3. Clustering and Thematization-The labeling under themes occurred in invariant constituents of similar experiences. It is wise to develop no more than seven themes because identifying too many themes can make the process amorphous and arduous. The constituents that are clustered and labeled make up the core themes of the experience.
4. Validation of Constituent Variants and Themes- invariant constituents and themes are checked against each interview transcript for compatibility and congruence. The rationale of this activity is to see whether the themes are expressed explicitly in the transcripts. If not expressed explicitly, the researcher should check for compatibility between the themes and the interview transcript. The deletion of the theme occurred when there was neither explicitness nor compatibility, noted.
5. Individual Textual Description- is developing a description from the use of verbatim examples from interview transcripts. This textural description includes expressions that the participants make about their feelings, expressions, perceptions, and thoughts about their experiences. The textures emerge from the clear images that are created by the interview. It may entail descriptions about what their training experience was like or their gender experience as a police officer as opposed to a hostage negotiator like and the situation or condition in which trust will occur.
6. Individual Structural Description- occurs when descriptions developed from the individual textural descriptions and the imaginative variation enables the researcher to add his or her imagination and intuition to the stories developed to demonstrate what makes the experience what it is.

7. Composite Textural Description- is the result of the description from the entire group of individual textural descriptions. The construction of the story is from the collection of the themes and horizons which when looked at together represent the experiences from the whole group.
8. Composite Structural Descriptions- Describing the composite descriptions is by making the everyday experience what it is. The composite descriptions brought to life the clear and vivid universal characteristics and dynamics of the experience and interpreted as a way of understanding how the participants experienced what they experienced.
9. Textual Structural Synthesis is the last step of the analysis, which involves an integration of the composite textual description and the composite structural description. The goal is to provide a synthesis of the meaning and essence of the experience. This synthesis is demonstrated in narrative form using emergent themes that can assist with capturing the whole experience (Sullivan, & Bhattacharya, 2017).

Research Questions

The research questions addressed by this study are:

RQ1. How do female hostage negotiators perceive their socialization process in the specialized unit of hostage negotiations?

RQ2. How do female hostage negotiators perceive their law enforcement years concerning the perception of self in a gendered organization?

RQ3. How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years concerning the perception of self in a gendered organization?

RQ4. How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years concerning the organizational culture?

Researcher's Role

The essence of every phenomenological research undertaking is a deep questioning of an experience. As a forensic psychiatric nurse working in a dominant male workplace, I find myself gradually unfolding as I become socialized within a culture where women are often under-represented and characterized as caregivers. I ask what my self-perceptions are? The subconscious motivation of my research interest is by the desire to find meaning in this socialization process. As I disentangle myself from what has become a natural phenomenon, I hope to discover meaning in the connections I thought were only a matter of processes.

A pursuit of meaning within this phenomenon has taken form in my research questions. I want to know what it is like for a female hostage negotiator to work in a dominant male workforce? How does she perceive her law enforcement years and hostage negotiation years concerning gender experience, socialization, culture, and perception of self? I enter this investigation ungrounded. The influences, perceptions, and feelings of my own experience lay concealed. It is from my own experience as a forensic psychiatric nurse that I not only began to explore my sense of meaning from experience, but I began to wonder what it is like for them.

The research questions that were formulated to seek meaning and investigate the nature of the experience underneath will not only inform me but others who are interested in female hostage negotiators. The nature of lived experience is “being-given-over to some quest, a true task, a deep questioning of something that restores an original sense of

what it means to be a thinker, a researcher, a theorist” (Van Manen, 1990, p. 31). Thomas (2005) considered the elements of Merleau-Ponty’s philosophy such as perception, intentionality, and embodiment as both inspirational for the clinical practice of mental health nursing and therefore relevant to the nursing discipline. For these reasons, I chose phenomenology for this investigation.

The Role of the Principal Investigator

The role of the principal investigator described as the “social relationship” that the researcher has with the study respondents (McMillian & Schumacher, 1997, Johns, Chen, & Terlip, 2014). Although the relationship with the participants is social, I initially felt like an “outsider,” meaning that I did not know any of them nor was I one of them (police officer or negotiator) (McMillian & Schumacher, 1997).

The transparency of the research was clear and therefore the participants were made aware that I am a Ph.D. candidate, researching a dissertation. Self-disclosure often involved my revealing that although my first name is Lieutenant, I am not an officer and I have had previous experience processing individuals who are suicidal or homicidal as a psychiatric nurse. I could identify with the anxiety, fear, and frustrations they experience in processing with hostage takers or barricade subjects. I did not want to influence them with my perspectives or color their perceptions with mine, so sharing my experience was limited to facilitating rapport and trust to convey understanding for their experiences.

My role as a principal investigator in the interview was to keep the questions (and meaning of the phenomenon) open and to keep the interviewee oriented to the substance of the subject (Van Manen, 1990). The history of interviewing unveils how my role as a psychiatric nurse validates my ability to inquire and collect data. Focusing on the quality

of the response in interviews has gained great popularity and widespread use in clinical diagnosis and counseling.

Historically, interviewing after World War II was widely used by health care professionals for psychological testing with an emphasis on measurement. In psychiatric nursing, interviewing is a valuable tool for assessment and data collection. In working with individuals who are suicidal and in crisis, asking the right questions at the right time and in the correct order is essential in data collection and saving a life. As a principal investigator, I maintained the skills I learned as both a psychiatric nurse and mediator, which include being calm, nonjudgmental, interested, and using good listening skills such as attending, following, reflecting (Bolton, 1979, p.33), and being empathetic. My insight and judgment have allowed me to investigate the lived experience.

Investigating the experience as we live it rather than as we conceptualize it, means re-learning to look at the world by reawakening the necessary experience of the world. On the one hand, it means that the phenomenological research requires of the researcher that he or she stand in the fullness of life, in the midst of the world of living relations and shared situations with the researcher actively explores the category of lived experience in all its modalities and aspects. (Van Manen, 1990, Roulston, 2019).

Research Participants

To identify the research participants, I sent introductory letters (Appendix A) to the chiefs of all police departments in Broward, Miami-Dade, and Palm Beach counties in Florida. The letter explained the purpose of the investigation and ensured standard research protocol, keeping names of participants and their associated police departments confidential. The 2001(see Appendix D) report from NCWP identified these counties

(2001; see Appendix D). The reason for selecting departments with more than 100 officers was that departments of less than 100 officers are less likely to have hostage negotiators. The female hostage negotiators who participated in this investigation were from agencies representing both county departments and municipalities within the tri-county area.

I created forms at the beginning of the research process. These included a demographic sheet, an introductory letter, and a consent form, and (See Appendices B, C, and G). A follow-up call was made within one week to ensure receipt of a letter and collect the name of a contact person. In some cases, the police chief or designee provided the name of a contact person who then provided names of potential research participants. In other cases, the police chief or designee provided me with the names of potential research participants directly. I contacted either the contact person or the potential research participant by phone or by electronic mail to collect additional information and to set up an interview time with the potential research participant. Only two police departments contacted me via mail providing the name of potential research participants.

Upon contacting the potential research participant, whether by phone or email, she received information on the purpose of the investigation and the criteria set and noted in the informed consent was used to determine whether she met the criteria to continue with setting up an interview. In a phenomenological study, there are no set criteria other than the participants must have experienced the same phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994).

The criteria for selection of the participants in this investigation were that they 1) were employed as female hostage negotiators, 2) worked for a police department for at least two years within the state of Florida, and 3) volunteered to participate in a face-to-

face interview. Before the scheduled appointment date, a follow-up call was made to confirm time and directions. Upon arrival at the agreed upon location and seated, the research participants were given the consent form (Appendix G) and demographic form (Appendix B) before the interview to read and sign.

The interviews of twenty-four female hostage negotiators occurred in a face-to-face interview in this investigation. Fifteen of the participants were identified based on information provided by the contact persons. Although one of the fifteen participants agreed to an interview, her response and behavior suggested that peer pressure played a role in her decision to be interviewed. Nine participants were identified using the snowball technique. The snowball technique is a purposive (non-probability) sample in which I asked respondents to contact other females who may be interested (Seidman, 1998; Sommer & Sommer, 1991) or prospective participants who referred other participants in the investigation who had completed the research interview.

The female hostage negotiators in this study represented a purposive sample, that is, they are thought to be most important or relevant to the issue and share the same phenomena. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested the use of purposeful sampling and refer to Patton's (1980), definition, "when one wants to learn something and come to understand something about certain select cases without needing to generalize to all such cases" (Patton, 1980, p. 100). The nine participants referred by their peers were accepted because of the difficulty in accessing this particular group. Contacted by phone were seven of the nine participants with the other two participants arriving at the interview with their peers.

Diversity and Demographic Information

Patton (1980) also discussed the importance of using “maximum variation” in purposeful sampling in that by increasing the diversity of variation in the sample, the principal investigator would be able to see more common patterns that emerge, and with be able to describe distinctions. With this in mind, I included as much diversity as possible about age, education, ethnicity, marital status, and their years of experience as a hostage negotiator. The female hostage negotiators in this study included 16 Caucasians, 7 Hispanics, and one Black woman. Given the multi-ethnic diversity of the population within the tri-county state, the female hostage team negotiators (HTNs) in this study are a culturally diverse population reflecting their age, education, ethnicity, marital status, their years of experience as a hostage negotiator, and the community they serve.

Table 1

Demographics of Female Hostage Negotiators

Female Hostage Negotiator Pseudonyms	Age	Ethnicity	Education	Marital Status	Years of Experience as HTN	# Of Promotions	County
Ana	36-45	Hispanic	BS	Divorced	11-15	1	BRO
Ashley	36-45	Caucasian	BS	Divorced	2-5	2	PB
Kristen	36-45	Caucasian	BS	Married	2-5	3	PB
Erica	26-35	Caucasian	BS	Married	2-5	1	PB
Danielle	36-45	Caucasian	BS	Single	2-5	1	BRO
Jessica	26-35	Caucasian	BS	Single	2-5	0	BRO
Jennifer	26-35	Caucasian	BS	Divorced	2-5	0	BRO
Cathy	46-55	Caucasian	MS	Married	16-20	0	BRO
Rosa	36-45	Hispanic	BS	Married	6-10	3	PB
Maria	26-35	Hispanic	HS	Single	2-5	0	BRO
Patty	36-45	Caucasian	ASD	Single	2-5	1	BRO
Susan	36-45	Caucasian	ASD	Married	11-15	1	BRO
Isis	36-45	Hispanic	BS	Single	6-10	1	Dade
Madison	36-45	Hispanic	HS	Married	2-5	0	Dade
Rosario	36-45	Hispanic	BS	Divorced	2-5	2	Dade
Lizette	46-55	Hispanic	ASD	Married	21-25	1	PB
Kelly	26-35	Caucasian	MSW	Married	2-5	2	PB

Dawn	36-45	Caucasian	BS	Divorced	2-5	0	Dade
Ivy	26-35	Caucasian	HS	Married	2-5	1	BRO
Mia	36-45	Caucasian	HS	Married	11-15	1	BRO
Ingrid	46-55	Caucasian	ASD	Widowed	21-25	4	Dade
Jana	36-45	Caucasian	ASD	Separated	2-5	1	Dade
Megan	26-35	Caucasian	HS	Single	2-5	0	Dade
Briana	36-45	Black	HS	Divorced	2-5	1	Dade

Data Collection

Once the potential research participant decided to participate in the investigation, the Principal Investigator and the research participant scheduled the interview time and place by phone. The time of the interview is agreed upon by the research participant and the principal investigator. The principal investigator traveled to all three counties to conduct face-to-face interviews with all twenty-four participants. The participants chose the location for the interviews and chose places such as offices, interrogation rooms, training facilities, and substations. The interviews began with an explanation and signing of a consent form by the research participants and me the principal investigator. This process allowed me to reiterate the purpose of the study, what the research process required, and to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. After the consent was signed the female hostage negotiator answered questions on the demographic data sheet about education and experience in law enforcement specialized units. The tape recording of each interview took four months.

The interview process included conversations as well as questions and answers. Conversations are a valuable source to understand the lived-experience. According to Gadamer (1994),

Conversation is a process of coming into an understanding. In every true conversation, each person opens himself to the other. The other truly accepts the

speaker's point of view as valid and transposes himself into the speaker to such an extent that he understands not the particular individual but what he says. (p. 385).

Gadamer suggested that we fall into conversations and are led by the conversations. To have a conversation means to allow oneself to be conducted by the subject matter to which the partners in the dialogue are oriented. It requires that one does not try to argue the other person down, but that one considers the weight of the other's opinion.

Gadamer (1994) described the method of conversation as the Art of testing ... the art of testing is the art of questioning [and] to question means to lay open – to place in the open. It is through this process of lying open that I understand your experience. It is a pathway to finding common meaning. (p. 367).

For Van Manen (1990), conversations provided an avenue to collect personal stories rooted in specific instances and events as well as an opportunity to form a relationship with the other about the meaning of an experience. The purpose of the conversation is to produce themes and insights that the researcher would eventually need to create a text to which the themes, the fruits of the conversational relation, can minister.

The participants were interviewed separately and in a location that was convenient and comfortable for them. Each interview lasted between 45 minutes and 90 minutes. The scheduling of interviews occurred in the same day spaced approximately 10-15 minute apart when interviewing more than one hostage negotiator spaced around 10-15 minute apart. On two separate occasions, I had to make minor adjustments for the participants who had been referred by a participant who had previously interviewed. I used the 10-15-minute break to reflect on what I had heard, organize my understanding,

and write a summary of what each negotiator said. For those hostage negotiators who were available after the interview (some had appointments afterward and had to leave), offering my understanding of what they had shared served as a reliability check. It also allowed them the opportunity to correct my reflections. For example, one hostage negotiator agreed with reflections but explained in more detail why she was not interested in a promotion to the rank of lieutenant.

The interviews were tape recorded by me with the hostage negotiator's consent. Taping the interviews allowed me to be more attentive to the interviewee and the least invasive method of gathering information. A professional transcriber transcribed all but two interviews. The transcriber was unable to professionally transcribe two interviews because my tape recorder stopped recording and I did not think she would be able to read my hand-written notes. On one day, I had three hostage negotiators scheduled for an interview. After the first interview, I rechecked the equipment as suggested by Patton (1980) and discovered that the tape recorder was not working. I knew that it was not a battery error because I used an electrical outlet whenever possible. Therefore, I switched to the plug in the room and the rollers would not turn to record. For the sake of time and to avoid losing the participants, I opted handwriting and completed the responses word for word; this caused the interview process to take a little longer than usual. Although I tape-recorded the interview, I also took notes that consist primarily of key phrases, a list of major points and keywords that captured the interviewee's language. These notes often prompted clarification or follow-up questions.

After the interview, I sat in the room where the interview took place (unless someone else had reserved the room) or in my car and wrote my impressions in my field

notes. For example, before making the one-hour drive back home from Palm Beach County, I would sit at the parking meter and write about the difficulty I had getting a respondent to respond. Her attitude about the subject and the lack of cooperation she displayed. Field notes taken during the interviews provided detail information about the setting, what was heard (this included what was happening in the environment such as the phone ringing or visitor knocking on the door) and what occurred during the interview (the answer sometimes evolved into a story).

Patton (1990) explained that field notes contain “descriptive” information, including what we hear, where the observation took place, what the physical setting looks like, who was present, and what social interactions took place. Field notes also contain observational comments (denoted by “OC”) of the researcher. Observational comments are the “reflective” segments of field notes and consist of ideas and hunches about what is said as well as patterns that are unfolding (Bogdan & Bilken, 1998). Field notes for this study included duration, setting, and events before the interview. Once I gathered textual sources, the next step was to begin the process of interpretation and the process of identifying meaning units.

The Data Analysis Process

Obtaining Feedback from Participants (Member Checks)

Obtaining feedback from participants is a process where the thematic structure presented to a subset group of the research participants occurs. Prospective participants were contacted via e-mail and asked if they would be interested in providing feedback on refining the thematic structure. The participants were also aware that their roles would be strictly voluntary. In addition, the email informed them of the general nature of providing

feedback as well as the length of the document they were to review and the period to complete the process. Those who agreed were provided a list of proposed themes with specific textual support (interview number, code name, quoted words and phrases.) and were asked to review it over within 1-2 weeks (Thomas & Pollio, 2002).

These individuals were selected based on the diversity of their experiences, personal characteristics (including the level of education, age, and geographical location) and verbal agreement. They were asked to consider the overall findings and to judge whether the thematic structure reflected their own experiences. I informed them of the purpose and that their role was to ensure that the themes I identified in my results captured their experiences. I asked them to check for accuracy of the thematic structure, meaning, and interpretations as well as to note areas that needed clarifying or additional information that may need adding or deleting. I also reminded them that there were 24 participants in the study and that some of my findings may not specifically reflect their own experience. Three member-checkers emailed me stating that not all my findings reflected all aspects of their experiences discussed but felt that what I had captured seemed accurate. Two discussed how their experiences were different or stated how participating in the study had exposed them to other team experiences.

Credibility and Peer Debriefing

Qualitative researchers discuss methods of enhancing the trustworthiness of the study's results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Trustworthiness encompasses several different dimensions, one of which is credibility. Credibility is achieved to the extent that the research methods engender confidence in the truth of the data and the research interpretations of the data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) noted that the credibility of an

inquiry involves two aspects, one involves investigating a way that is believable and the second is taking steps to demonstrate the credibility of the qualitative data.

Given that this study represents provided verbatim experiences in the research participants personal experiences, the reason of credibility seems authentic. Also, to have my peers review and explore various aspects of the inquiry and soliciting research participants' reaction to preliminary findings and the themes, categories, and patterns that emerged from the data collected would seem to indicate that this investigation presents credibility.

Limitations

There may be several limitations to this study. The first is the sampling of the participants from the tri-county area of South Florida. Therefore, the main limitation of this study may be the lack of generalizability. Another limitation may be the lack of potential bias. Phenomenology requires the researcher to interpret the participants experience accurately or capture the true essence of their meaning. Phenomenology reduction is an essential component in reducing biases; therefore, because the data is subjective, the subjectivity and interpretation of the data could lead to a question of reliability and validity. The findings of this study may lend insight to future qualitative studies, the field of conflict resolution, hostage negotiation and to the understanding of gender inequality which continues to impact women in a male-dominant work environment.

Conclusion

The qualitative phenomenological research methodology used in this study has retained a commitment to describing the subjective experience and gaining a deeper

understanding of the nature or meaning of our everyday experiences. This approach allowed me to understand what it is like for female hostage negotiators in this study to experience hostage negotiations as a female in a dominant male workplace, what it means to be a female hostage negotiator and to hear them subjectively rather than objectively.

More importantly, through social interaction, phenomenology not only focuses on the meaning, interpretation, and understanding of how individuals experience their social world but give “recognition that to focus on the self is to focus on the individual-individual awareness, and individual growth, individual action, and individual fulfillment...” (Levesque-Lopman, 1988, p. xviii). In this phenomenological study, the voice of the female hostage negotiator prevailed.

Chapter 4: Results

Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure, and interpretation to the large amount of data collected. Qualitative data analysis is primarily an inductive process of organizing the data into categories and identifying patterns or relationships between the categories. The analysis of data in phenomenology begins as soon as the first data is collected and may consist of a single interview.

The analysis of this study is inductive and goes from specific interviews to interviews that provide an overview of women's perception in the negotiations team. The process of data analysis begins with an open-ended and open-minded desire to know about the lived experience of a female hostage negotiator. Therefore, the goal of this investigation was to address the absence of women hostage negotiators and their voices from the hostage negotiation literature by capturing and understanding the subjective experience of women hostage negotiators and their perceptions of those experiences. Therefore, the goal of analyzing the data was to reveal the essence of their lived experiences with the phenomenon so that the essence can be used to communicate the meaning of their lived experience.

This chapter includes a discussion of the aggregate themes found through qualitative data analysis of interview data, and their association with each other in the lived experiences of women hostage negotiators. Three themes described are 1) The Female Hostage Negotiators Perception of their Socialization Process, 2) Gendered Organizations, and 3) Organizational Culture. The importance of the themes with respect to analysis is that they can authenticate what the literature has revealed about women in

law enforcement, particularly from the perspective of female hostage negotiators. I hope that these themes will also spur further theoretical analysis.

The themes are also the mechanism for the formation of the individual textural description, followed by a textural composite of all the participants. The composite and structural are then synthesized in the formation of the final textural structural synthesis. In other words, the essence of the lived experience of the female hostage negotiators who participated in this study was distilled from the single voice of one to the collective voice of all participants.

In this chapter I present the analysis in three styles. The first is the analytical approach that will outline the major course of the analysis. The second is an analytical spiral, taken from Creswell (1998) which is a visual representation of the cyclical nature of analysis. The final style is the modified Van Kaam (1966) method of analysis of phenomenological data.

Analytical Approach

The first thing I did when attending to my data as a researcher was to prepare myself mentally to be open, and refrain from any preconceived judgments. This process of setting aside biases and prejudgments by the researcher before analysis is what Moustakas (1994) defined as *epoch*, it is fundamental to transcendental phenomenology (Husserl, 1962; Moustakas, 1994). The process of analysis starts with the initial reading of the transcripts generated by study participants' and making notes and writing memos in the margins of the transcripts. I read all 24 transcripts in succession and set aside any prejudgments made from the initial read.

Bogan and Bilken (1998) suggested reading all the data collected to get an idea of the overall data. The second part of this process involved member checking (i.e. receiving feedback from the research participants on the interview transcripts). Complete transcripts were e- mailed to the research participants who agreed to read, review, and return with corrections and comments. The purpose of this process is for both analysis, and for verification of the data.

Interview transcript from 24 research participants generated a sizeable amount of data, which needed to be reduced. The reduction process began early on with examining their words and putting them into general statements. I displayed these general statements or expressions in the form of a Horizontalization table to prepare for theme creations and to manage the data. To organize the data, I developed strategies in preparation developing codes. Developing codes was the next step of the analysis, which also assisted with the process of reducing data to understandable and usable forms (Creswell, 1998, 2006) based on recurrent information being observed in the data. This was an important part in the analysis because valuable data was set aside, and meaningless data was discarded. Each expression relevant to the experience listed was identified as the horizontalization. This is important because valuable data is set aside, and meaningless data is discarded. The theme development for this study began with approximately 3 themes and ended with 16 sub-themes. The themes developed the composition for writing the textural and structural description of this study.

The next section presents the analytical spiral adapted from Creswell (1998). I chose this approach because it shows that analysis is not linear as explained but has a cyclical nature. The data analysis is not a systematic process, but one moving in a circular

motion. Creswell (1998) describes the process as “the researcher engaging in the process of moving in analytical circles rather than a fixed linear approach” (Creswell, 1998, 2006).

Analytical Spiral Analysis

The analytical spiral (Figure 1) is a four-loop configuration that describes the recurring process of data analysis (Creswell, 1998). The first two loops describe managing and reading of the data. After reading and re-reading the data and extracting 697 invariant constituents from 24 transcripts, I created a chart to present the invariant horizons of the experience. The reading and re-reading of the transcripts and the memos written helped me to draw out expressions, feelings and key concepts that were important to the HTN experience. The purpose was to ensure that the value of each statement was not lost.

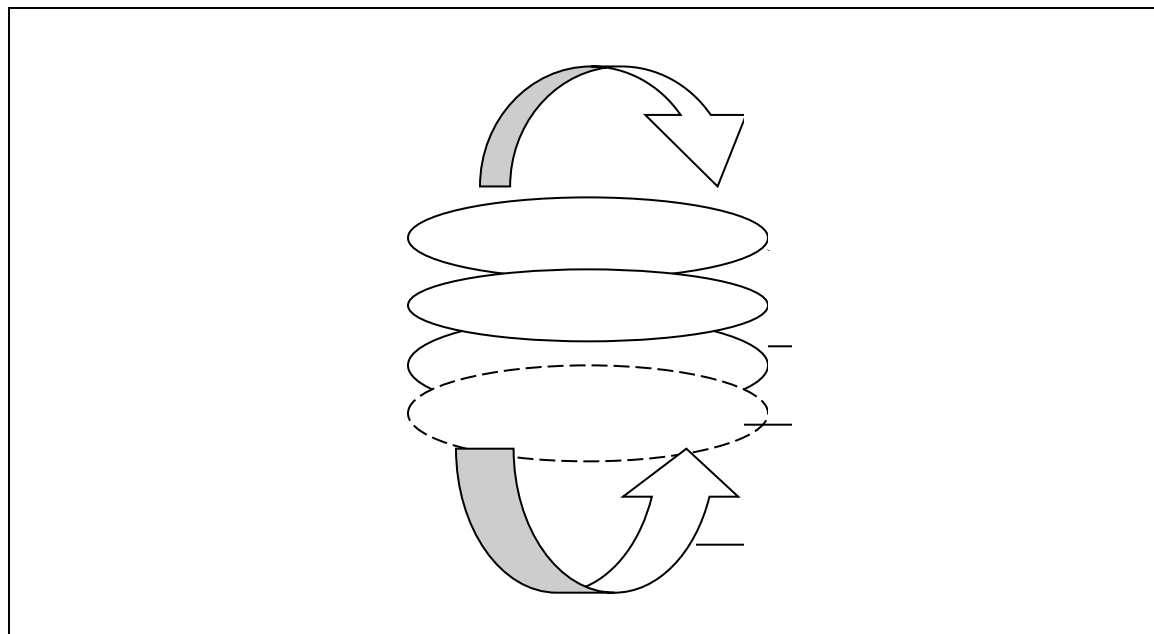


Figure 1. Data Analysis Spiral. Adapted from Research Design by J. W. Creswell, 1998, p. 143. Copyright 1998 by Author.

The third loop describes, classifies, and interprets the data (Creswell, 1998). Creswell (1998) writes that descriptions give the researcher the opportunity to describe what they see from the data. From this description, I was able to hear what the participants had to say and categorize their expressions. To test this process, I went back to the transcript to find word for word examples to support the categories. This expression emerged from one theme with 4 sub-themes and the subtopic *self-starters*.

Well what I did was I was interested in being a hostage negotiator for a very long time, I've been a police officer for 13 ½ years and I've considered it for probably the last 8 years, unfortunately I never did anything about it. And I say maybe about 3 years ago I went to a class that our department mandated, all of the police officers on the road to go to, which was managing encounters with the mentally ill, and I was very interested in the class, and while I was in the class one of the instructors... I knew that he was a negotiator, so I spoke with him about it.

(Megan)

The remaining loop of the spiral allows researchers to envision the data. Presenting the data in the form of a diagram, drawing or flow chart provides a graphical presentation for describing, understanding, or analyzing the process. I chose to use a diagram to show that the data is not linear but circular in nature. The links shows interconnectivity and dependency in movement. One step depends on the other to achieve the desired goal of developing a theme and sub-themes (the sub-themes are displayed in a different layout). I titled the diagram The Thematic Development of the Female HTN Experience because it shows the development of the themes used to develop the description of the phenomenon's essence (see Figure 2).



Figure 2. Thematic Development of a Female HTN Experience.

The next section presents the nine-step process of the modified Van Kaam (1966) method of analysis of phenomenological data. I used this modified version because I found this eight-step approach effective in organizing, analyzing, and synthesizing the data. The first step is horizontalization, which is the process of listing expressions from the research participants' transcript that is relevant to their lived HTN experience regarding the research questions.

Transcendental Phenomenological Analysis: Modification of Van Kaam (1966) method.

Step 1: Horizontalization. Horizontalization requires the researcher to list every expression related to the experience. Moustakas (1994) wrote, "Every statement has equal value" (p.125). Using the analytical spiral noted above to manage, read, categorize, and interpret the data from the transcripts verbatim, I did not omit any expressions treating each one equally. I selected the expressions for what they said about the socialization

experience of an HTN. The importance of analyzing each statement is imperative to transcendental phenomenology (Moustakas, 1994). Upon completion of reading and re-reading the transcripts, I created a list of expressions taken from the 24 participants' transcripts.

After grouping the expressions, I coded them by the order number of the participants' interview and the content of the expression with respect to the interview question. For example, **6GEXP**, "The team hasn't treated me...make me feel like "oh you are a female type of thing." The number 6 is the sixth person interviewed and the letters GEXP is reference to the question and response regarding the gender experience of a female hostage negotiator. I grouped the expressions together and placed them in a table (Table 2).

Table 2

Horizontalization Listing & Preliminary Grouping

Code	Response
12MSE	I don't take it personal. So, it was much different years ago, it was much stronger (the negative and the non-accepted) and feeling like I had to do ten times as much as everybody else to get half of the acceptance, but I don't feel that way now.
6GEXP	I don't feel it's been a big issue as a negotiator. The team hasn't treated me...make me feel like "oh you are a female" that type of thing. As a police officer I always feel like I have to do double time and if I make a mistake and it is compared to the man who makes the same mistake, for me it's humongous. It's a lot of pressure but negotiation has been nice.
7GEXP	There was one girl that I negotiated, she was on a bridge and I was up on top of the bridge with her talking to her. And we were up there for about 8 hours, and we went through 4 different teams of 2's, primary and secondary. And I was the 4 th team to go in there, it was myself and a male negotiator, and I was the primary and he was the secondary. It was a young girl, she was 17 years-old, and I found that having talked about this and that, what really kind of connected was that she wanted to get married, she wanted to have children. So, I started talking about kids, I started talking about my own children, and the next thing you know we started discussing female type stuff, if you will, and she came back over and got off of the bridge. She came back over the barrier and went and got help.
3G EXP	There's been instances where its typical for maybe the female to be the note taker or the scribe for this situation, and then as time goes on and the situation is not resolved, maybe it time to throw in the female to try it out. After working with the same team,

you learn each other, you start to see past the male/female and just learn each other's strengths and weaknesses.

Step 2: Reduction and elimination. Reduction and elimination determines the invariant constituent. I accomplished data reduction by rereading each transcript and eliminated statements that did not answer the guiding question. What was left became the invariant constituent. Invariant constituents are the meaning units of the experience. The statement must meet two criteria to be an invariant constituent. One, it must contain a moment of the socialization experience that is needed to understand it. Two, it must be able to stand alone and be labeled (Moustakas, 1994). As the respondents were added, the invariant constituents increased. Once the horizon of the expression meets the above criteria it becomes an invariant constituent. If it does, it is a horizon and if not, it was eliminated. Other expressions that were eliminated were those that overlapped, were vague in description of the experience, or were repetitive. The following table (Table 3) shows expressions of how I reduced the data to the composite invariant constituents that answered one of the guiding questions: What does being a hostage negotiator mean to you?

Table 3

Example of Reduction & Elimination - Hostage Negotiations not a Gendered

Organization

Participant	Statement
Ashley	It means being is the ear and the mouth piece in a crisis situation where somebody has taken someone against their will.
Erica	Feeing that I'm accepted by the other members and well liked
Cathy	... it is so rewarding if you're able to even give them a piece of information or a phone number, something...
Danielle	To peacefully bring to conclusion essentially a critical or crisis situation....to see me as capable, responsible, and confident in what I do.

The process of reduction and elimination was centered on the research questions. The questions that drove the selecting of the invariant constituents was 1) the participants' perception of their socialization experience in becoming an HTN, 2) what were their gender distinctions as a patrol officer and as a hostage negotiator, if any, and 3) what their experience was as a female hostage negotiator within the organizations culture.

Step 3: Clustering and thematicizing the invariant constituents. In step 3 of Van Kaam's (1966) modified method I was able to thematicize the meaning units of the experience, I was able to cluster and define the core themes of the experience (Moustakas, 1994, p. 121.) See table 1.3. Once the data is clustered and thematicized, it is the researchers' responsibility to write an interpretation on the perspectives of the participants' views. The task of the researcher is to interpret or make sense of the data (Creswell, 1998). These interpretations are what we learn from the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Creswell (1998) posited that researchers use their perceptions, instincts, or gut feelings to arrive at these lessons.

Table 4

Themes and Definitions of the Socialization Process of Female HTNs

Theme	Definition
Perception of Socialization	The formal and informal learning experiences. Stages of socializations. Influences and law enforcement years most crucial for HTN socialization
Gendered Organization	Experiencing gender differences as a LEO. HTN not seen as gendered. Self-perceptions of LEO/HTN. Attributes of being a woman in HTN
Organizational Culture	Experiencing the culture of law enforcement, gender roles, and cultural stereotypes
Culture of Hostage Negotiations	The cultural benefit of hostage negotiations: skills, competency contributes to acceptance, respect promoting inclusion and trust
Subculture of the HTN team	The dual role of the hostage negotiator. Diversity, changes in recruitment, teams call out process, training process
Generational Differences	The difference in perception based on years of experience

Step 4: Validation of constituent variants and themes. Step 4 is where I checked the invariant constituents and themes against each interview for compatibility and congruence to see whether the themes are expressed clearly in the transcripts and they were. I sorted through these themes and recoded some, created some new ones and merged some. This process was similar to the constant comparison method (Glasser & Strauss, 1967), which allows the themes to emerge from the data, rather than imposing set themes upon the data. It was important that I was actively thinking (reflexivity) while attending systematically to the context of data construction while keeping in mind that each participant's response gave meaning that was interactively and culturally constructed from their various experiences.

Step 5: Construction of individual textural descriptions. I described what the participants experiences were by using quotes from the transcripts and putting them in a narrative format. The process revealed the participants' socialization experiences as a female hostage negotiator with respect to gender and culture in a gendered organization. This was done essentially by explaining the themes in a narrative format to help me understand "what" the participants experienced.

Step 6: Construction of individual structural descriptions. Individual structural descriptions were developed from step 5 by integrating the textural description into each participant's statement of "how" they experienced socialization. While writing the textural description, I considered the circumstances and the setting of a male dominate organization whose workplace is an origin of inequality that lead to the how and why of their socialization experiences. I used my instinctual and creative take by imagining the experiences from different perspectives of the descriptive experience in

order to have a better understanding of why one group's experiences were different from the other when comparing the two groups that emerged from the data and to arrive to the core structural meanings of their socialization process.

Step 7: Composite construction of textural description. This step included the collective description of all interviewees. The description was constructed from the collection of themes and horizons which represented the experience of the whole group. I began by combining steps five and six — the textural *what* and structural *how* the experience occurred for each participant. With creative inspiration and thoughtful scrutiny, I explained the experience as I understood it and described what I thought was the essence of their experience. According to Moustakas (1994), the result of deriving meaning to a phenomenon is to be aware of the essence or the condition which must be present for a phenomenon to occur. The following is an example of the textural-structural narrative of the eighth participant identified as Cathy.

The socialization process associated with Cathy's experience as a baby-boomer becoming a hostage negotiator are related to her gender experiences as a police officer in the 1980's what she describes were prejudicial. Her experience as a police officer was one of rejection where she was told she was too little to be a police officer and later denied 10 times for the sergeant promotion. As a police officer, she said she felt alone and afraid while on patrol yet was able to successfully quell situations that would have ordinarily resulted in a fight. It was those positive outcomes that made her more confident. She described her hostage negotiation as training as ongoing and valuable. The social interaction on the team taught her the concept of family and the teams' cultural beliefs and expectations that women do not negotiate with men.

Cathy was socialized into hostage negotiations through social interaction, a 40-hour training course, and special advanced trainings from organizations like the FBI. Although she was not mentored, she felt included and permitted to be on the team's periphery to listen, to learn from others, and to be exposed to the callouts. This social interaction allowed her to see herself through the eyes of others and now she sees herself as the go to person of hostage negotiations, "I have seen Captains turn to me, and I have no rank...other than a patrol person...I guess they feel 'when their feet are to the fire' they like me to be there." Cathy described how the administration hurt her emotionally. She said she wanted to have children but given the organizational culture of law enforcement with respect to the inequalities women faced at that time she would have been fired had she gotten pregnant.

She believed having a sergeant who supported her help to liberate her to pave the way for others. Through organizational culture her dual role as a background investigator and as a hostage negotiator has prepared and allowed her to develop a sense of self and take on the role of other where at a moment's notice for a call out whether dawned in heels as opposed to dressed in her typical attire of Dockers and flat shoes she is able to function. Figure 3 is a thematic representation of Cathy's gendered socialization experience.



Figure 3. Thematic representation of Cathy’s gendered socialization experience.

Step 8: Composite of the textural and structural description. Step 8 is where “what makes the experience what it is” comes to life or what I understood to be identified as the clear and common characteristic of the experience was illuminated. For example, the textural or the *what* of their experience as female hostage negotiators was their perception of their socialization experiences which varied with respect to the number of years they held in law enforcement. Those with 15 or more years of law enforcement experiences (identified as Group A) expressed rejection as police officers, were hand selected (as no selection process was in place), were the first females on their team within the department and had more education than what was required of their male colleagues. The female hostage negotiators with less than 15 years of law enforcement (Group B)

denied gender experiences as LEOs, did not define themselves by gender, revealed they had a more structured selection process and saw their position as one of an elite status thereby giving themselves a sense of identity.

The structural or the *how* of their experiences was contributed by how they were socialized as evidenced by the beliefs they held of their skills and abilities as self-starters, the strong male persuasions as childhood influences, being recognized by their peers for their skills and being encouraged to join, being trained by those who have a number of years in law enforcement thereby teaching them the core values and guiding principles and trained through the various methods (i.e. formal and informal outlets). From a gendered perspective of proving themselves as responsible, capable, and competent officers, and not being defined by their gender, through years of experience, trainings, changes in recruitment, team diversity and preparation for their dual roles, the female hostage negotiators have earned trust, respect, and acceptance within the organizational culture of hostage negotiations. This last step requires the combining of the textural structural synthesis, which delivers the meaning or the spirit of the experience. Figure 4 below depicts (my understanding of) the relationship between themes and illustrates the various lived experiences of female hostage negotiators working in a gendered organization.

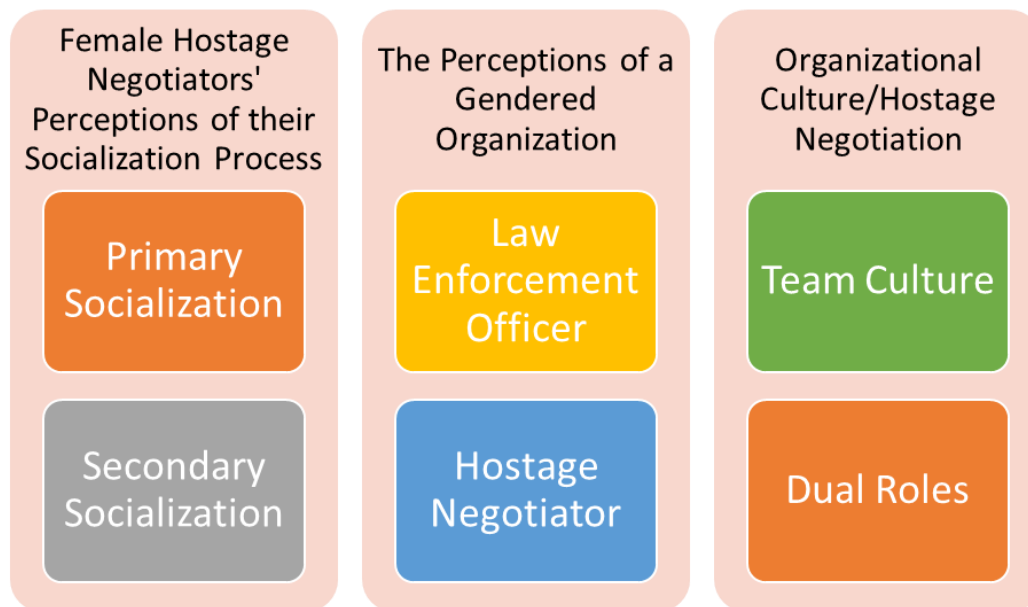


Figure 4. Illustration of the relationship between themes.

The data revealed the female hostage negotiators' experiences varied depending upon their age group and the number of years in law enforcement. Again, an understanding of what their socialization experiences were and how they experienced gender socialization in a gendered organization. The environment that influenced their gendered experiences begin with an organization whose origin of inequality are built within its structure and perpetuated by its members who subscribes to its beliefs and values, how they define gender, and use gender.

The perception of their socialization process varies in how they are influenced, the number of years they held in law enforcement, how they were trained, and their contributions to hostage negotiations. Other influences were the organizational culture of hostage negotiation, the culture of the team's diversity, changes in recruitment, the callout process, its training process, and dual role.

The Socialization of a Female Hostage Negotiator

The Female Hostage Negotiator's Perception of Socialization

The first research question focused on how female hostage negotiators perceive their socialization process in the specialized unit of hostage negotiations. Socialization entails social learning which prepares the individual for membership in society and in groups within society. In literature, it is a developmental process, which allows change from one status to another by preparing the individual through education and training for the new requirements of specific roles and group life (Greenstone, 2005). According to Clausen (1968), a simple definition of socialization from a developmental perspective is that socialization focuses upon the development of the individual as a social being and a participant in society. Viewed as a process, socialization entails a continuing interaction between the individual and those who seek to influence him or her; an interaction that goes through many phases and changes (Clausen, 1968). Socialization is a learning process that begins shortly after birth and continues throughout life ("Socialization throughout the Life Span," 2016).

Elkin (1960) defined the socialization process by which the individual learns the ways of a given group well enough so that he can function within it. Danziger (1971) described socialization as the process by which an individual becomes a participating member of an organization. From a work processes perspective, socialization refers to the preparation of newcomers to become members of an existing group/organization and to think, feel, and act in ways the group/organization considers appropriate. Korte (2007) considered learning a key component of the socialization process as newcomers must learn the ropes of their workplace. He says they must also not only learn what to do in

their new role but how to conform to the way things are done that are deemed appropriate within the organization. According to Tuttle (as cited in Korte, 2007, p. 2), socialization tends to take on three perspectives: one of the individuals' experience, the organizations' attempt to influence and the interactive perspective of the individual and the organization. Jones (1983) and Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) shared that the interactive perspective or the mutual influence of the individual and the group/organization takes on a collaborative approach, thereby developing a productive relation when the individual enters the group/origination.

The women in this study discussed their socialization process first as a LEO, as this is the first phase of their HTN career. Many shared that their socialization into the HTN group included both formal and informal learning experiences as part of their orientation. Wanous (1992) argued the ideal or purpose of the orientation is reducing the stress of entry by offering coping skills to the individual. While Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992), stated that the socialization process that takes place during orientation may extend not only to the first year but, through the length of the individuals' career. While some encountered gender experiences others with 15 or less years of service did not encounter gender differences or discrimination. Their law enforcement years were the most intense and the most crucial for their HTN socialization. It's here where they establish their social construction of reality as an officer learning the importance of belonging, the need to depend upon others within the group and recognizing the privileges and obligations that accompany membership within the organization. In addition, they learn the law enforcement language, and the acceptable behaviors within the group.

To answer this research question, key concepts from socialization theory must be discussed prior to the presentation of analysis. The premise of analysis is that socialization in the unit will be a product of respondents' initiation (how they chose to become a negotiator, their training, their current circumstance, team culture, team members' perception, cooperation from their other job, organizational issues). Quotes will serve to demonstrate or bolster the inferences drawn from the interview.

Initiation. Primary socialization includes family, peers and significant others who are instrumental in an individual's learning and adaptation of values attitudes and actions appropriate to a group or culture. Family is one of the most important agencies of socialization because it has the power to influence an individual's self-concept or who is first in assisting the child in developing a sense of self. Charles Horton Cooley (Ritzer, 2013) believed that the self-developed in relation to a smaller group of people or what he identified as significant others. A significant other is someone whose opinions are of importance and who can influence one's thinking. Cooley's theory of self informs shows that we learn who we are through our interactions with others. He terms this concept as *the looking glass-self* which basically means that our self-image comes from own self-reflection and from what others think of us.

Self-starters. Ten of 22 participants responded that they were inclined towards the role of hostage negotiators because they recognized they had a skill set that would be complimentary to the role while two respondents stated that becoming a negotiator was a way of progressing in their careers, as it is considered part of an elite group. In addition to the self-realization of complimentary skill set, it is also their socialization experiences as police officers in the various roles such as school resource officers, K9 handlers,

firearm instructors, etc., that allows for a smoother and faster transition into becoming hostage negotiators. For many of them the choice of becoming a hostage negotiator came after they were already in law enforcement. In terms of socialization, this indicates that these respondents were comfortable in the law enforcement environment, had already assimilated, and were comfortable functioning in the law enforcement culture.

I don't think anyone in particular influenced me. I just think that it was an aspect of law enforcement that I basically was geared towards. **(Iris)**

Absolutely no one influenced me. If I had to say...I think I knew that I would be good at it...my ability or my experience and knowing how I handle people who presented previously in crisis,...I thought would be extremely interesting, extremely rewarding,...that I would probably be successful most of the time, I find myself reading about it for pleasure, constantly going to trainings. **(Ivy)**

I was interested in being a hostage negotiator for a very long time, I've been a police officer for 13 ½ years and I've considered it for probably the last 8 years,...about 3 years ago I went to a class that our department mandated, all of the police officers on the road to go to,...I was very interested in the class...one of the instructors...I knew that he was a negotiator, so I spoke with him about it.

(Megan)

I was selected for it, there was no oral board, I said that I'd like to join the team, My Degree, in Deviant Behavior and Psychology, plus working with SRT I knew I wanted to be a part of it. I was a School Resource Officer at the time when I decided to become a hostage negotiator, I was in fear of Columbine, I felt that

being an SRO and a negotiator, I would have one leverage on those kids...they were familiar with me, that's how I became a negotiator. **(Ashley)**

I constantly put in for it and after six years they said "O.K., you've got enough time on, enough experience, you've proven yourself, and you can go. **(Dawn)**

Myself. I was on the SWAT team; I've been in law enforcement a long time. I like the dynamics of being a negotiator. I also knew being a negotiator was going to be a dual role. **(Patty)**

Me, pretty much me, just being interested in it, people I've worked with that were on the team, people that I knew and respected through the job I feel like I do a good job speaking with people under adverse circumstances, so I wanted the opportunity to try to do that. **(Kelley)**

In the literature, primary socialization is attributed to family. Respondents shared that there were no female role models or mentors for most of them and instead it was their male peers and male supervisors who were instrumental in their socialization. This was the case for those officers who were inducted into the HTN in the 1970s when there was a significantly lower population of female officers. In the later decades, with the recruitment of more female officers, the role of women mentors was mentioned where colleagues were promoted or encouraged them to advance. The influences of being surrounded by strong male figures as a child during primary socialization as reminisce by one participant of the study who recalls that it was the influenced of a strong male who influenced her to become an officer as there were no female role models around to encourage or influence her in this decision.

Childhood influences. Whereas the family has the power to influence an individual's self-concept, attitude and behavior, peer groups are also known to set the norm and values that one must abide by to become part of a group. Over time peer groups can exert a strong influence over the individual temporally replacing the influence of the family.

When I was growing up, I had a lot of very strong male figures around me, my father, my brother was a fighter pilot, and I always had very positive men in my life. The reason that I even got into law enforcement is because a former police officer, I was struggling to come up with a career, and he said "I think you would make a good cop" I was like "what?, there were no role-models out there for women. Women were usually the victims that were being rescued. I guess it was meant to be because they certainly didn't make it easy to become one. **(Kirsten)**

Peer/group influences. Moreland and Levine (2002) proposed a model on group socialization that described and explained how individuals are assimilated into groups. While the model presents 3 processes (evaluation, commitment, and role transition), it is a dyadic process that involves five phases of group socialization (investigation, socialization, maintenance resocialization and remembrance) separated by 4 roles transitions (entry, acceptance, divergence, and exit). In the interview data, the participants were found to indicate three of the 5 phases of group socialization. They shared how they were recruited (investigation), how they were train to be better contributors to the group (socialization) and how they were assigned or selected for roles within the group (maintenance; Moreland & Levine, 2002).

There's actually another female negotiator, she's one of the team's leaders, and she approached me and asked if I'd be interested in being a negotiator. She thought that I had the skills, the experience from being on the SWAT team, combined with the skills to do it, I gave it thought...one of the other sergeants approached me and asked me about it, and I did research on the training.

(Danielle)

Secondary socialization. Secondary socialization is learned outside the home i.e., school, church, and workplace, and is instrumental in individuals' learning appropriate group behavior. The values learnt outside differ from the sources of primary socialization and proceed through various stages where the individuals began to form relationship with non-family members (Khurshidmanzoor, 2016). The group members become important social referents for teaching new members customs, social norms, and different ideologies about the group. The respondents in this study shared the role played by non-family members including role models, mentors and peers who influenced them in becoming a hostage negotiator. Socialization and mentoring are two key elements that initiate individuals into new groups or environments. While individuals are socialized to obtain the necessary knowledge and skills to take on their new role within the group or organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211) it is mentoring that leads to the development of the relationship between the experienced and the inexperienced (Williams, 2013, p. 31). The benefit shared by one respondent is that the support, guidance she received and shared influenced them on both the technique and skill required for the job and career development.

I had officers that took me underneath their wings and made sure that I was doing everything correctly. **(Ashley)**

Clarence Coffee, my training advisor, was a hostage negotiator. I pretty much followed Clarence's foot-step. **(Briana)**

Among the respondents who were interviewed, one particular respondent who started her career in the 1970's talked about how she was recruited by one of the other female officers and how for the longest time it was only the two of them. She was the only one of the 24 participants who mentioned a gender aspect to mentoring.

Mentor/role model influence. Only a few participants experienced mentoring.

I was convinced to join the team by one of the other female officers on the team...for a very long time Lizette and was the only females. I have Kelly...there are only 3 of us out of 12 people that are females. **(Rosa)**

My mentor explains things to you that make sense, he is an awesome negotiator, he just has such insight on people and things. **(Megan)**

Most of the respondents did not experience mentoring in any form.

I don't know how it would be to be mentored. **(Cathy)**

I have never had anybody. **(Madison)**

Secondary socialization of the respondents in this study was influenced by those who judge them for their performance and their ability to conform to the rules of the group (Hammond, Cheney, & Pearsey, n.d.). The female hostage negotiators learned to belong and to cooperate by observing and noting acceptable and unacceptable behaviors outside their hostage negotiation team (i.e., the SWAT team). In the various cities included for this study, hostage negotiation units were set up as specialized units that work closely with the SWAT team in most of the police departments. Most respondents

talked about a minimum of two years of experience in other roles such as a detective, narcotics officers or as patrol officer before applying to the hostage negotiation unit. The experiences that these female negotiators amass, working in other roles socialized or prepared them for the future role of becoming a hostage negotiator. As police officers the respondents shared the various requirements for being accepted into the hostage negotiation team.

You have to have at least two years on the force, good communication skills, be a team player because it takes a lot of team work to form a team. Be flexible in the hours and time; attend trainings, specialized schools to be on the team. **(Patty)**

For our department, it's a letter of interest, now there are oral boards...there is a mock scenario training, your background and history within the department as to what you have done that would make you a hostage negotiator. **(Ashley)**

Training. According to Dessler (2002), Parson suggested that schools often bridge the gap between primary and secondary socialization. During primary socialization, a child learns the values of their family, while at school they learn the values of the community (Khurshidmanzoor, 2016). The same can be said for the female hostage negotiators in this study. The training they received as police officers bridges the gap between the training they receive as hostage negotiators. While the police academy was completely formal, the training experiences the respondents received consisted of two broad types of teaching methods (i.e., formal, and informal). For those who responded they received formal training at a community college, which mirrored the academy training

At our police department, we go to a training class at Broward Community College, it's a 40-hour course, we have our in-house training, it is yearly, once a month or once every several months, any advanced classes you want to take is encouraged. **(Danielle)**

We had one week of a formal training session in the City of Miami. I had taken another advanced week, it's very difficult because negotiators are all over the place, it's very difficult to get everybody together to do in-house training. **(Dawn)**

Other respondents shared their training took place "in-house" or shared with other local or federal law enforcement agencies. As police officers they learn the value of inclusion (human life) and as a hostage negotiator they learn the value of acceptance and respect (integrity).

We come once a month and review call-outs, do practicum's, which is good because it gives you practice. **(Jana)**

The negotiator school is a 40-hour in-house class, the person's name is brought forth from the memo and they are put into the school...it doesn't guarantee you a position on the team, but it gets your foot in the door. **(Ana)**

The initial 40-hour class the students are hand selected by the Police Psychologist, there are team members and team leaders conducting the class and watching to see how you do...you may pass but never make it as a negotiator, depending upon what they decide on with your participation in the class. Once you're finish, you get a certificate, if you pass they will send you to another 40-hour class which certifies you with the American Psychological Society, once certified you'll be called an ANIT (A Negotiator in Training), if a slot is available you will

automatically go into that slot, if not you're required to come to monthly mandatory meetings. **(Briana)**

While the training varied among departments, most respondents shared that training prepared them to work within a diverse workplace, with individuals from different socioeconomic and ethnic background/cultures, both inexperienced and experienced. Many respondents said training helped to build their confidence, communication skills and reinforced the concepts that actions, and choices have consequences (Greenstone, 2003).

I had officers that took me underneath their wings and made sure that I was doing everything correctly. **(Ashley)**

On our team everybody is trained to do everything, whether it is working the phone, running to go by pizza, dealing with family, crowds, being a support mechanism, or the primary person that becomes your job. I think everybody on our team is pretty confident in what we do. **(Kelly)**

When we do our in-house training, and the scenarios we critic how we respond, we have debriefings I think we all learned a lot from that. **(Daniel)**

Planned socialization. Socialization is a key factor in assimilating new members into the team. As new members join, those with experience, and who have amassed a great deal of wisdom, educate the new members and help them understand the goals and purpose of the team. They take on the role of teaching core values, guiding principles, and the ethical behavior of a hostage negotiator. Some respondents shared that a lengthy career in hostage negotiations has earned them respect and admiration from their peers, along with helping them to build confidence and a positive self-image.

Because I have the most experience, I think that they perceive me with a positive attitude. **(Lizette)**

I don't think that they see me as a female, just part of the team. I've been on the team for 11 years; they look at you as a person, your abilities, skills. **(Ana)**

Grand-dame of the team, because I'm the most senior negotiator when they talk about stuff its 'been there- done that. **(Ingrid)**

Team members' perception. When someone joins a group, they are coming in as an outsider. The challenge of entering an existing group can stifle an individual's ability to be effective and to focus on the task at hand if they are not socialized to feel that they belong and that they have a valid voice to contribute just as much as any other team member. Respondents in this study were able to recognize which role(s) could be filled by certain members, and roles that best suited the HTNs were often identified by others. Their willingness to rotate roles to maximize their own and others' group learning experience improved their skills. This revealed both structure and acceptance within most teams. While there were no mandated policies or procedures to rotate roles, the fact that the members of the team would take the initiation revealed the amount of cohesion and degree of socialization within the team.

I was working my regular job when we had a call-out. I got to see all the negotiators, the tactical guys, everything getting set up, I knew information that they would need, so I was getting things ready before they got there, they want to know what the house looks like, what direction it face, I had drawn out a map, I had extra information I knew they needed. **(Jana)**

The team normally points to me to run with the ball. Every situation where negotiations were not already in progress with someone, I've been assigned as the primary negotiator. **(Ivy)**

The socialization experience of being allowed and expected to be trained in any area allowed individuals to shine in their niche task. It also resulted in building confidence, instilling trust among their peers, and improved efficiency among the whole team. However, of the eight departments interviewed, one was an exception. Although they had advanced training, they were not given the opportunity to negotiate until a female took over the team restructuring and put guidelines in place. The team fostered a different perception of themselves.

Several of us went to advance training in negotiations, but we never negotiated.

We had the training but no practice. It's the way that the person in charge ran it...he would hold the training once every six months, we would all train together...if there was a call-out he wouldn't call out anybody only the same guys got called,...when he gave up the job, the prime negotiator that learned under him never called anybody...this was done before we had a system or set rules.

(Lizette)

The respondents' competency is built on experience, which requires a level of respect and trust among members of the whole team. Competency for some also helped them to find their identity within the organization and helped in their socialization process. Each member of the hostage negotiation team has a unique role to play in the unit. Some respondents also shared that their core competency also increased cooperation from peers, leading to cohesion within their group. Because each team member has the

required skill set in order to achieve the overall teams' objectives the majority of respondents experienced mutual trust and respect from their team members, which also played a role in building their confidence, and their perception by colleagues.

I have respect from everybody on the team. I've been around 24 years; I've worked with them in other capacities, so they know my work ethics...they respect that I'll go to bat for them in situations. **(Patty)**

On our team everybody is trained to do everything, whether it is working the phone, running to go by pizza, dealing with family, crowds, being a support mechanism, or the primary person that becomes your job. I think everybody on our team is pretty confident in what we do. **(Kelly)**

Moe thinks I'm great, which is good for me because he is my manager. But I believed I'm perceived pretty well. I'm competent and able to do the job. I've been tasked with different things on several call-outs and been able to do what is expected of me. I think that other negotiators perceive me as capable, responsible, and confident in what I do. **(Briana)**

Cooperation from their other job. The interviews revealed that many respondents come to hostage negotiations from various backgrounds such as SWAT, Narcotics, robbery division and hold a secondary profession such as a background checker, and school resource officer. While their reasons for becoming a hostage negotiator vary many respondents stated that they have the communication skills that would be both positive and favorable to the field of hostage negotiation. They also shared how their dual role also interfered with the hostage negotiation functions, and how while working in their dual role, they could have missed an opportunity to respond to a call. Although the

respondents stressed that both professional roles were important to them, many highlighted that they can respond to the hostage negotiation calls at a moment's notice due to the help of their teams in the other profession.

We had interviewed all day long...I went to the cafeteria, hadn't brought my beeper with me, one of the girls from property was sitting at the table with me saying "did you hear about the SWAT call-out?" I flew in yesterday from Tampa I said "Oh, it must have been over the weekend" she said "No, it had to be an hour ago," said what are you talking about, I ran to my locker where I had locked my gun, radio and beeper before I left Friday. I had to throw on everything, grabbed the equipment which consists of a throw phone and speakers and fly up to the scene and set it all up. It's just, I'm wearing heels because we were doing interviews and not dressed practically in Dockers and flat shoes. **(Cathy)**

I was grocery shopping a Publix pushing around a full cart of groceries, and just about to leave, my cell phone rang...we had all been issued pager...I did not have mine with me...we were not supposedly available for calls, it was off and somewhere at home, it was dispatched telling me that I needed to contact the Sergeant and gave me an address to respond too, asking me for an estimated time of arrival. I ask if this was for real, just training, are they trying to see how long it will take us to come out before we officially go into service"...I called the Sergeant and she explained the situation and whatever detailed she had, which included a barricaded subject alone, depressed, going through a divorce, had been drinking, had fired a round into a mattress, who was a police officer. **(Ivy)**

In the Street Narcotic Unit, we do buy/bust operations, bust stings, we basically handle complaints we've had over a week...my radio is on a different channel, so I always get word of something happening from somebody's phone, that something's happened in the district and they need negotiators. I would leave whatever I'm doing and respond to that scene, but if I'm in the middle of walking up to a door to do a search warrant, we're going to complete that task. As soon as everything is safe, my Sergeant who is also a negotiator, will ask you guys got it? Because we're going. (Jessica)

Gendered Organization

Perception of a Gendered Organization in Law Enforcement

RQ2 asked how participants in this study how they perceive their enforcement years with respect to self in a gendered organization. Prior to women entering law enforcement they were socialized to become housewives, mothers, teachers, or nurses (Horne, 1975). Once they entered law enforcement and were hired as matrons whose primary function was to supervise women and children (Poleski, 2016); and were often assigned to areas for "juvenile delinquency, missing persons, and interviewing victims of sex offenses" (Horne, 1975). While this new position may have felt liberating, it maintains the nurturing role thereby perpetuating the social and cultural assignment of what is to be female. Today, the women who participated in this study seem to be divided on their perceptions of experiencing gender in law enforcement while in agreement with their gendered experiences as hostage negotiators. This section of the paper will discuss the participants' perceptions of their experiences in a gendered organization.

Experiencing gender differences as a LEO. The interview data revealed that most of the respondents are considered part-time negotiators who are still employed as full-time LEOs. The responses also show that the experiences and perceptions of female hostage negotiators differ. There were two distinct groups based on their years of experience in law enforcement. The female hostage negotiators, who have less than 15 years' experience in law enforcement, respond that they did not experience or perceive law enforcement as a gendered organization. The group with 15 years or more years in the organization (Table 5) had a different perception of their gender experiences and viewed law enforcement as a gendered organization.

Table 5

Female HTNs with More than 15 Years of Law Enforcement Experience

Pseudonym Name	Age	Ethnicity	Years of Experience (LEO)	Years of Experience (HTN)	# Of Promotions	County
Danielle	36-45	Caucasian	16-20	2-5	6	BRO
Kristen	36-45	Caucasian	16-20	2-5	3	PB
Rosa	36-45	Hispanic	21-25	6-10	3	PB
Patty	36-45	Caucasian	21-25	2-5	1	BRO
Isis	36-45	Hispanic	16-20	6-10	1	DADE
Rosario	36-45	Hispanic	21-25	2-5	2	DADE
Ana	36-45	Hispanic	16-20	11-15	1	BRO
Cathy	46-55	Caucasian	21-25	16-20	0	BRO
Susan	36-45	Caucasian	16-20	11-15	1	BRO
Lizette	46-55	Hispanic	21-25	21-25	1	PB
Mia	36-45	Caucasian	26+	11-15	1	BRO
Ingrid	46-55	Caucasian	26+	21-25	4	Dade

It's the same thing years ago we all had to deal with...You're a female entering a male dominated field and you want to be accepted and respected...my biggest thing coming up through police work is that me and a guy can graduate the academy at the same time go into the department and within 6 months he's

accepted, it takes a female on an average of about 3 to 5 years to get accepted because of our gender. **(Patty)**

When I first started in law enforcement there was still a lot of what we refer to as old-timer's mentality. I'm small in stature, I'm very nerdy looking and what you see is what you get. As far as some of those old-timers were concerned, there was no room for me. I didn't belong here, I should have been teaching school, or being a doctor, attorney, you know police work was not what they vision me as being. **(Isis)**

The *old-timers* (15+ years of experience) articulated by the respondents can be attribute to differential socialization which explains that men and women are different because we are taught to be different. The traits, behaviors, and attitudes of what is masculine and feminine come from our culture (Kimmel, 2000, Prenzler, 2002). It is during this process acceptable role and behaviors of what is male, and female are learnt. The old-timers have accepted the roles and behaviors women have been socially or culturally assigned, and historically the culture of police work was not one of them, thereby rejecting their presence.

No gender experience as a LEO. The responses of the participants with less than 15 years in law enforcement (Table 6) largely reported an experience within law enforcement in which gender did not play any role. They shared that gender hasn't limited them to certain roles nor does it define who they are as officers. The interview data shows for participants with less than 15 years in law enforcement, the support; encouragement and recognition of their skills/abilities by their supervisors/peers and having the ground work laid by the women with 20 years or more experience, thereby

making it possible for them not to experience gender. Another element the data revealed is that some women did not acknowledge gender or see themselves as a female and therefore would not recognize its existence.

Table 6

Female HTNs with Less than 15 Years of Experience

Pseudonym Name	Age	Ethnicity	Years of Experience (LEO)	Years of Experience (HTN)	# Of Promotions	County
Jessica	26-35	Caucasian	6-10	2-5	0	BRO
Maria	26-35	Hispanic	6-10	2-5	0	BRO
Erica	26-35	Caucasian	6-10	2-5	1	PB
Kelly	26-35	Caucasian	6-10	2-5	1	PB
Dawn	36-45	Caucasian	6-10	2-5	0	DADE
Ivy	26-35	Caucasian	6-10	2-5	1	BRO
Jana	36-45	Caucasian	6-10	2-5	1	DADE
Ashley	36-45	Caucasian	11-15	2-5	2	PB
Jennifer	26-35	Caucasian	11-15	2-5	0	BRO
Madison	36-45	Hispanic	11-15	0-1	0	DADE
Megan	26-35	Caucasian	11-15	2-5	0	DADE
Briana	36-45	Black	11-15	2-5	1	DADE

I've never felt like my gender, being female, as held me back. I think that as a female, not having the size or the muscle strength that a man has you have to be able to talk and communicate. On the road I have de-escalated situations because I was able to talk and not use my fists or my hands with someone who was very heated slowly calmed down. **(Erica)**

I don't try to pretend that I'm a guy doing a guy's job. I'm a female doing a guy's job. I like to let my point of view and my way of doing things rub off on the other guys to where it's an advantage to be a female when I do the job, and not a disadvantage. There are times when you wish that you would get the immediate respect that a big 6'5", 220lb big piece of muscle walking around, but you can get

that same respect it just may take you a little longer. The gender issues in regard to the team don't make any difference. **(Kelly)**

Negotiation unit not seen as a gendered organization. The female hostage negotiators who participated in this study (HTN) responded that gender has not been an issue for them irrespective of their tenure within hostage negotiation unit, as they feel both accepted and included as members on their team. However, as previously reviewed, this is not the case in the law enforcement unit at large. In addition to receiving support from their supervisors and peers, they see the team as an extended family, and affirm that they don't allow gender to get in the way of their work. Regardless of the task many accept the roles they are assigned including roles often associated with being a female including being a recorder, taking notes, or functioning in whatever capacity they need to get the job done even if it may be defined as "doing gender."

West and Zimmerman (1987) defined "doing gender" as women working in a male dominated workplace doing gender by emphasizing on parts of the jobs that conforms to the requisites of femininity in roles often ascribed to women. In hostage negotiations, the skills often ascribed to women, such as communication skills, are often critical to achieving success in a highly tense situation. In these situations, sometimes being a woman is advantageous, and women negotiators can rely on their inherent instincts and skills that accompany the construction of female gender, as is culturally understood. Respondents talked about how they were willing to use gender to their advantage by accentuating and emphasizing their unique contributions such as utilizing strong communication skills, patience, and utilizing what one termed "a motherly tone."

Being a woman, you have more of that motherly tone, you're more sensitive and compassionate to people's feeling...the male officers don't do that, I listen to them, and their conversation is a little cold. It's not friendly, it's more firm. **(Ana)**

One respondent specifically shared how being a woman and channeling the feminine role model played a part where she was able to talk to and keep a 16 year old girl from jumping off a bridge. It was here where she, who was older, was able to channel being a woman by identifying with subject's gender, and age that she was able to be nurturing, and provide her the advice needed to keep her safe.

There was a young girl, 1- years-old, on a bridge I negotiated, she was and I was up on top of the bridge for about 8 hours, I found having talked about this and that, what really connected was that she wanted to get married, have children so I started talking about kids, about my own children, we started discussing female type stuff, she came back over and got off of the bridge and got help. **(Jennifer)**

There is compatibility in how women are connected, plus the cultural expectation, and the role requirements. All of which affect self-perception of these hostage negotiators in a positively way. It also affects how the subject perceives them depending on the situation works to their advantage as in this example.

On the street I would probably get rolled around on the ground by the subjects, if I had not spoken nicely to the person not because I'm afraid, but because there is no point in getting into an ugly situation...it's the same with being a hostage negotiator, in that situation like that it would be in my opinion not to confront him. **(Megan)**

Their role as members of the hostage negotiation team, rather male or female does not matter. They see their team as supportive, respectful and treat them the same as the guys. The support comes from both their supervisors and their teammates. Cathy who had over 25 years of law enforcement experience was not sure why her Sergeant would be supportive but describes him as forward-thinking supervisor not only did he recognize her skills but who was willing to give her the opportunity to move forward based on women who had already proven themselves.

I was fortunate to have a Sergeant who was very supportive of me...he was more forward thinking and saw that women have proved themselves here and there, why not this...he put me in the position of being the team leader and starting to run the training because he thought that I had the right angle. **(Cathy)**

Some females described that they experienced a sense of fairness and given the opportunity to lead or be the primary negotiator during a callout. They were not made to feel like “oh you’re a female type of thing” as described by Jessica.

This team hasn’t treated me and made me feel like oh, you’re a female type of thing at all. I can say different for police, but not for negotiation...as a police officer I always felt, like I had to do double time...if I made a mistake compared to a male for me it’s humongous, but negotiations haven’t been that way, it’s been nice. I haven’t experienced any barriers here. These people here are fair.

Everyone I work with is just respectable, they treat me with respect, it’s a good unit to be in. **(Jessica)**

I feel that I’m treated the same way as all of the guys are treated. **(Briana)**

Gender, for many female negotiators in this study has not made a difference in their daily activities. They saw the team as an extended family who has made them feel and become a part of the team by keeping them “abreast” or alongside during their day to day interaction as equal members of the team. The females attribute this to having worked with their male colleagues over a period, who have come to know their work ethics.

I would describe it as extended families. We all know what each other bring to the table, we respect each other. I didn't have any gender issues to negotiations, my specific gender issues were earlier in my career and that was in the early 80's...there weren't that many women in policing. **(Rosa)**

I've not felt that my gender has made any difference; it's a small department of about 125 officers sworn. So, everybody on the unit I've known for years and they know me as an officer. **(Dawn)**

Hostage negotiators' gendered experience. Several participants suggested that gender differences do exist. While their gendered experience may not be directly caused by the colleagues of their team, they express that their experience related to gender is caused by an informal rule where they are not allowed to negotiate males involved in a domestic dispute. Several respondents shared that they have experienced gender from the *old-male bastion*, as they call some members of the SWAT team. The participants reported the SWAT team, a highly trained paramilitary unit that works closely with the hostage negotiator team, have members of their unit who are occasionally rude, disrespectful, and demeaning towards the females simply because they do not feel they belong in this specialized unit (Dodge, Valcore, & Gomez, 2011; Dodge, Valcore, &

Klinger, 2010). The SWAT team also has a history of making it difficult for women to join their team, which Maria explains as the reason women are underrepresented. The SWAT team behavior is described as difficult when negotiators are negotiating and one of rejection and demeaning towards women during a call out (Dodge, Valcore, & Gomez, 2011; Dodge, Valcore, & Klinger, 2010).

My experience has been positive, but as forward-thinking as I like to believe that negotiators are accepting, every now and then you go up against the old-male bastion” particularly when dealing with tactical **(Ingrid)**

We as female are in a male dominating society...there are already very few of us in hostage negotiators, a lot of departments have where the negotiation teams are on the tactical team. Because females can't pass the physical endurance test... it is very hard for a female to get on the SWAT or Special Response Team. **(Maria)**

The respondents in this study admit the barrier they faced most often was the informal rule that they are not allowed to negotiate with a male in a domestic dispute involving a woman. On many occasions the HTNs have been rejected by a male in this type of callout. As Rosa stated, it could also be part of an individual's culture which has to be considered.

We had negotiations with a Hispanic man; he was not going to speak to a Hispanic woman. **(Rosa)**

If you've got a man whose just been in a fight with his wife, a female is not the person to talk to this man, we're trained that. **(Ashley)**

While informal rules are automatically understood, one participant said despite her belief and experience that females should not be limited regarding negotiating a male,

she was informed upon arriving to the scene that no female would be negotiating the male. She believes that if she was given the opportunity, she could conduct a successful negotiation.

Upon arriving, the first thing said to me was there will be no female to do this negotiation. **(Mia)**

Like law enforcement, one team member who was the only female on her team felt she had to prove herself by not becoming sensitive to the language exploited by her teammates. She explains she earned their respect because of not surrendering to their comments.

It was different. You had to put up with a lot of crap, but I gave it back just as well, the guys respected me, you had to prove yourself and I did that, the Lieutenant liked me...he was on the hostage negotiation team, I wanted to be on the team. It took a while because he wanted me to go to a certain instructor to take a certain class. **(Lizette)**

Self-perceptions. Communications skills, confidence, patience, and training were the four major characteristics and occurring themes participants shared when talking about how they perceive their hostage negotiation years with respect to self in a gendered organization.

Self-perception of a LEO. Here the participants identify with the role of other resulting in self-awareness “it’s a female thing” in that they are able to nurture and be empathetic as a police officer responding to an individual who is in a crisis.

There is nothing more intimate than being a police officer because they call you when their family, their coping system, their structure has fallen apart they call

911, and it's the luck of the draw that they get "Bubba or get someone that has some clue... it is so rewarding if you're able to even give them a piece of information or a phone number, something...it is looked upon as a female thing, the nurturing. **(Cathy)**

I think being a female has been more of a credit than a discredit on the road, because someone would identify better with a female than a male, it's the calming aspect that sometimes a woman will bring on better than the immediate offense that a man presents...there are people who will feel that they are more powerful but that's where the math comes in, you just start talking. **(Ivy)**

Self-perception of a hostage negotiator. The self-perception of the female participants as a hostage negotiator is not just about the quality of their communication skills but being a female on the team that makes the difference in the quality of communication. The respondents of this study have shown they have the inclination to be nurturing, convey emotions, and be softer in their approach. Not only does it affect their communication it also affects how they are perceived by the subject and the outcome of that interaction. Therefore, the quality of communication is an essential or distinctive characteristic of negotiations. The groups' distinct qualities are their "softer" approach to communications, having patience, confidence, being sensitive, genuine, and having the ability to show compassion.

I was the only woman on the team, it's a good benefit because of the softer side approach we as women have...it's the motherly type of a caring respective that has assisted me. **(Ana)**

The strengths that a female negotiates can be strong and assertive and tough when you need to be. But in the flick of a switch she can turn on the soft maternal, having had children, going through the womanly stuff, makes it easier to talk to someone. **(Jennifer)**

As a woman we are more verbal...our communication skills are different than males. We are more empathetic...we can speak to people and they can see that that you are more genuine in your responses and that that's something male officers doesn't bring to a negotiation. **(Ana)**

Self-perceptions derived from others. The basis of Cooley's looking glass self is that an individual grows out of their social interactions with others. How we see ourselves comes from the reflection of the response of how others perceive us. In other words, how we see ourselves comes from how we *believe* others see us, and we change our behavior based on how we think we are perceived. This holds true for the participants' in this study. Jennifer and Danielle expressed their assumption of how women in law enforcement appear to others and that those judgments are based on appearance of women in law enforcement.

I find that people perception of women in law enforcement, as crisis negotiators, is ditzy. Think back to "Charlie Angels" and all the other females that have portrayed police officers.... it's hard to maybe go onto a scene and somehow command respect that would automatically be given to a male negotiator. It's a little more difficult to be taken seriously, so you really have to present yourself, calm and collected, as oppose to "flighty" **(Jennifer)**

We are as competent, capable as any male police officer or negotiator. When they think police work, they think of men, they don't think of women. And being part of the SWAT team, there are a lot more female negotiators than anybody realizes...we are good communicators, strong women, and we can multi-task. As a police officer and a negotiator, we are able to multi-task and think quickly on our feet. **(Danielle)**

The Attributes of Being a Woman in Hostage Negotiations

The dimension of quality involves measurable attributes belonging to the group. The data based on the participants' response suggests that being a woman is an attribute to the group or to the hostage negotiation team. Being a female not only makes a difference in the quality of communication but also in the perception they have of themselves and of what others have of them. For example, due to their tendency to be soft spoken, nurturing and having a softer approach they have deescalated situations they shared that could have easily gone the other way. Because of this non-alpha-male approach, the subjects' perception of them has also been different:

I think women are expected to be maybe somewhat passive...when I don't necessarily act that way it could causes the person on the receiving end to question my ability to handle myself but talking soft and calmly has definitely benefited me more than it hurt me. **(Ivy)**

The respondents also see themselves as possessing better communication skills than men, they shared that they are more empathetic, and more genuine in their responses and believed that from people they communicate with and that these are also their contributions to the team.

I've done really well as far as communication skills; I'm quick on my feet. My tone of voice helps too...being able to bring somebody out; it's a bit easier for a female to bring somebody out as opposed to a male, it's definitely our communication skills. **(Maria)**

I've never felt like my gender, being female, as held me back. I think that as a female, not having the size or the muscle strength that a man has you have to be able to talk and communicate. On the road I have de-escalated situations because I was able to talk and not use my fists or my hands with someone who was very heated slowly calmed down. **(Erica)**

While this participant acknowledges that for the most part gender has not played a role there are certain attributes of being a female that makes a difference.

It's not about being a woman, it's about believing in our function and being good at it because of the interest, the things that makes us good at it is being more compassionate, certainly women love to talk more than men, that's just known. **(Ivy)**

Organizational Culture

The Perception of a Female Hostage Negotiator in the Organizational Culture of Law Enforcement

RQ 4 asked how female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years with respect to the organizational culture. Organizational culture is comprised of four elements which include values, norms, beliefs, and expressive symbols (Peterson, 1979 as cited in Fine, 1995, p. 49). While individuals obtain culture through primary socialization, organizational culture can be observed through “myths, values, ideologies,

sagas and stories, legends and heroes, metaphors and slogans, rituals and ceremonies, or symbolic artifacts” (Jermier, Slocum, Fry, & Gaines, 1991, p. 49). The stories shared by the participants provide insight into their experiences as hostage negotiators with respect to their organizations culture. For many, the organizational culture of law enforcement like any other organizations cultural beliefs or values is held by its members/management and affects all members of the organizations which includes defining the employee, and who they need to be to be accepted (Champoux, 2006).

Experiencing the organizational culture of law enforcement. The sample included one Black, 7 Hispanic, and 16 Caucasian female participants. They work with a diverse group who comes from different places with unique experiences. While the number of hostage negotiators years of experience may range from 2-25 years, their law enforcement years of experience maybe longer. All participants are law enforcement or police officers for at least two years before they can become eligible to join a specialized unit. Those participants with more than 15 years of law enforcement/hostage negotiators experience shared their experiences first hand of an organization with a structural origin of inequality or the bias that are built into the structure of the organization perpetuate and maintain an environment of gender divisions (Britton, 2003). The female hostage negotiators in this study revealed the cultural stereotype of what is masculine and feminine and the gender roles they were expected to play, and often reminded of daily.

When I was hired into law enforcement it was 1982 and it was still the “oh you’re too little, you can’t go do this, there is no way, I was the only woman in my department, but yet I was successful in dealing with police work, but if I would have gotten pregnant I would have gotten fired, not given 9 months of... it’s not

that I hated kids, I might have considered it, but the issue of reproductive choice for women, did not exist and the younger females can't conceive of it. **(Cathy)**

When I, I started applying in law enforcement in 1973, back then the department required one thing, that you be 18 years-old, have a high school diploma. I took the written test, passed it... and the oral interview, and they said you don't have any college, experience, [but] neither [was] required. I applied to Dade County Corrections and I enrolled at Miami-Dade Community College. They were hiring guy's right and left that were right out of high school with no college, or experience. It was blatant discrimination. I worked at Dade County Jail for 2 years, I got experience and college, I took the test again and was told "we like to see a little more experience, and a little more college." **(Ingrid)**

I'm going back to 1986; they felt that to work crimes about women and children you needed to be a female. So, for the longest time in the early 80's to be a female detective you have to work with juveniles and women. I did want to work it. Anything about asking kids about sex, I didn't want anything to do with it.

(Lizette)

No matter if you're male or female you got to prove yourself. So, I'm like O.K., that fair we can do that. I haven't any more work than anybody else as far as trying to prove what I can do and who I am. **(Ashley)**

I've been hurt and I don't mean physically, I mean hurt by the administration, hurt by the system, and a lot of them give up, or maybe they don't give up, I don't know why they leave, but I've seen a lot of women come and go and not do the 20 years or do the full thing and get the "apple," their retirement. I've seen a lot of

women that couldn't stand it I suppose. So, maybe if anything I, I don't know, that wasn't easy, and it's still not easy sometimes. **(Cathy)**

The organizational culture of hostage negotiations. Organizational culture is the manifestation of what is important and unimportant within an organization. It is the basic pattern of shared values, beliefs and assumptions that influences how people behave within the organization. Organizational culture can also be a barrier to diversity, if it restricts the range of people considered during hiring. Prior to women entering law enforcement, there was a shared belief within the paramilitary male dominated workforce where men held most of the power and influence that law enforcement was not a place for women (Prenzler, 2002, Cowper, 2000; Cruickshank, 2013; Potter, n.d.). As women entered those beliefs and assumptions influenced how their male counterparts behaved negatively toward them.

Today, twenty-four female hostage negotiators who participated in this investigation represent agencies within the south Florida tri county area are both diverse in age, education, ethnicity marital status and years of experience as hostage negotiators.' Their responses reveal that they come from various organizational environments and experienced organizational culture differently. Many reported feeling a sense of comfort, acceptance and were treated as an equal in hostage negotiations. The cultural hostage negotiators experience was one of respect and they did not feel they had to prove themselves. They said they were acknowledged and accepted because of their talent and not their gender.

As a hostage negotiator I felt more comfortable. On the hostage negotiation team, I never experienced any bias at all. **(Isis)**

Our department is unique. It's the feeling I get talking to other females just about policing. The females in our department have abreast and well received, respected. **(Susan)**

My experiences have been positive. **(Ingrid)**

The respondents identified their years of experience, skills, and confidence as the attributes their peers identify permitting them to be both respected and inclusive as members of the team. These are also the same criteria they said made them candidates to become selected for the team.

I have respect from everybody on the team; I've worked with them in other capacities other than being on the team. **(Patty)**

The other negotiators see me as capable, responsible, and confident in what I do. **(Danielle)**

They see me for the experiences I've had in my career, and for my communication skills. **(Kirsten)**

As a woman our communication skills are different from males. We are more empathetic and genuine in our responses and that's something that male officers don't bring to negotiation. **(Ana)**

Ivy sees the team as having confidence in her and in her skills by designating her as the primary negotiator in most call-outs.

The team normally a point to me to run with the ball, whatever the ball is. Every situation that I've been called out on, where negotiations were not already in progress with someone, I've been assigned as the primary negotiator. **(Ivy)**

Despite that policing emerges from a military model that adapts from a top down male approach with an aggressive and authoritarian image for its organizational structure and culture (NCWP, 2001), women historically were rejected and were not easily accepted by their male peers and supervisors in policing (Price, 1996). Research however has shown that women are just as capable as men in performing police work (Bloch & Anderson, 1974; Price, 1996; Townsey, 1982). By tradition female officers were limited to social service work within the police department and were primarily assigned to juvenile, clerical, guard duty and some vice work (Schulz, 1995).

The culture of the police organization then prohibits women from full police practice, joining other units, and taking the same promotion test as men (Price & Gavin, 1982). Today the participants in this study shared they are selected by a process into hostage negotiation; they also have been members of other specialized units and regardless of gender inequalities they may have experienced with the SWAT team they have been allowed to take the same promotion test and selected as a member. The experience of the females in this study has been one of inclusion as oppose to exclusion. Although literature has shown that women still struggle with acceptance and are not easily accepted by their male peers, supervisors, and administration, (Bloch & Anderson, 1974; Price, 1996; Townsey, 1982, Rabe-Hemp, 2008, Dodge et al. 2011); the data revealed that 75% of the respondents felt accepted by the administration, their supervisors, and peers prior to becoming a hostage negotiator. It is their belief that that their years of experience, skills and competency is what contributes them to being accepted, respected with a feeling of inclusion on the team (Conant, 2011, Rabe-Hemp, 2008, Dodge et al. 2011.)

This team hasn't treated me and make me feel like 'oh, you're a female' type of thing. I can say different for police, but not for negotiation. Everyone I work with is just respectable...fair. They treat me with respect. It's a good unit to be in.

(Jessica)

I was included; I was permitted on the team, to go to the classes. **(Cathy)**

While most participants deny experiencing gender distinctions, gender biases or felt that their sex or gender was used to define them as a hostage negotiator; there were those who shared experiencing gender distinctions and bias and it occurred when working with the paramilitary tactile side or the SWAT team which is a part of their team culture. One reason shared was because the SWAT team promotion test was difficult to pass.

The physical endurance and the test are very hard for a female to get on like a SWAT team or Special Response Team because females can't always pass.

(Maria)

The subculture of the hostage negotiation team. The participants' views resonate with the view held by Mahatma Gandhi expression of "No culture can live, if it attempts to be exclusive." The interaction the participants' have experienced is promoting that of inclusion thereby encouraging a culture of respect, trust and confidence as opposed to the exclusion resulting from division and distinction they may have experienced as a police officer (Contant, 2011). The data reveals that the teams are very diverse in that they have members representing all genders, religions, and race who also speak many different languages. They believe they have successful relationships because they understand and appreciate one another. They shared that having diversity on the team is not only effective in reaching common goals; it also can also be informative and

offer a different point of view from other cultures especially in a unique or tough situation. The data also show that there is a sense of cohesiveness in having a mixed diverse group that embraces inclusion of getting the diverse mixed to work great together.

We're very mixed. We've got a little bit of everything on our team, everybody is more than willing to share their opinions, their ideas, what they know, what they think, and they don't know, we've got guys, girls, Hispanics, Whites, Blacks, Arabic's, and Greeks guys...for a small department and team. I don't think that you can get any more diverse than we are. **(Kelly)**

We're a very diverse group of people, with different job assignments, different years of experience, both male and female living different cultural backgrounds.

We have Spanish-speaking officers; we have a very good mix. **(Kirsten)**

We have females, males, White, Black, Latin, it's like a family. **(Briana)**

Despite their cultural differences, they are socialized to learn about each other's cultural values, beliefs and norms which prepare them to effectively communicate with others as the need arises. Since language is an important means for cultural transmissions, it would only be fitting that their teams be one of diversity. Since culture refers to a group which shares common experience that shape the way its members understand its environment. The respondents convey it can also include groups that we are born into, such as race, national origin, gender, or religion as well as joining or becoming a part of a group such as the specialize group of hostage negotiations. When asked how they would define the culture of their team, the participants describe the attitude of the team "like family" which is congruent with the group's function of preparing the team for their role within the group as a family would in primary socialization.

It's like a family. When it comes to the negotiator family, we're very close, family-oriented. **(Briana)**

An Extended Family...I would describe us as extended families. We all know what each other bring to the table, and we all respect each other. **(Rosa)**

Diversity. Diversity often refers to ascribed characteristics that are different from those of group to which we belong. Castania (2011) describes diversity as “the differences among people with respect to age, class, ethnicity, gender, physical and mental ability, race, sexual orientation, spiritual practice, and other human differences.” However, the data revealed that team culture is not just about defining *team* or *culture* but about how well the female hostage negotiators and their team work together (team chemistry). It speaks about the work they do together to accomplish their set goal (team work) and it reveals the different qualities they have as individuals and as a team (team building). There are two types of diversity identified within the study, visible and invisible. The first type of diversity is visible where characteristics are obvious and cannot be changed. They are the external views the respondents described when asked about the culture of their team. These included race, ethnicity, gender, and age.

We have White Latin men, White Latin females, Caucasian females, Caucasian males, and one gentleman on our team that's from Haiti, with a Creole background. We have Latin's, Americans, and Irish. **(Megan)**

We're a very diverse group of people, with different job assignments, different years of experience, both male and female living different cultural backgrounds.

We have Spanish-speaking officers; we have a very good mix. **(Kirsten)**

Team size and age were also visible features associated with diversity described by the participants:

Our team is comprised of nine members, we have a sergeant, we have three teams the sergeant and two negotiators per team. **(Ana)**

We're all different...on my team; we're all very mature and older. **(Ashley)**

The second part of diversity is the invisible or the characteristics of an individual that were not obvious when portraying the team culture or its members, but often described the individual's life or work experiences, their educational background, values, and/or beliefs. The data shows several participants invisible characteristics when describing the experiences that led to them becoming a hostage negotiator. One characteristic was work experience:

I was a member of the SWAT team in the early 90's when I left, I was on the sniper team....in 1995, and I applied to be a hostage negotiator, I put a letter in 1999 or 2000. **(Rosa)**

While others discussed their educational backgrounds that they felt help make them qualified to work within the field of hostage negotiation.

I have a bachelor's degree in Psychology also probably helped. **(Ana)**

I have a master's degree in Clinical Social Work, so the setting in my training would lend itself towards crisis intervention type of work, which is what police work is anyway. **(Kelly)**

Skills were also noted from the participants' perspective when describing themselves in terms of their attributes to the team or the value of their communication skills is to hostage negotiations. Johnson, Thompson, Hall, and Meyer's (2018) study identifies

skills such as active listening, displays of empathy effective communication, remaining calm are the skills needed for a successful negotiation.

As a woman we are more verbal, our communication skills are different than males. We are more empathetic and we can actually feel what they feel, are more genuine in our responses and that's something that male officers doesn't bring to a negotiation....being a woman we have more of that motherly tone, are more sensitive and even more compassionate to people's feeling when I listen to male offices it's a little more cold, their conversation is not friendly, it's more firm.

(Ana)

As a female, not having the size or the muscle strength that a man has you must be able to talk and communicate. I have seen on the road where situations have been de-escalated because I've been able to talk and not have to use my "fists or my hands. **(Danielle)**

Changes in recruitment. There are two theories associated with policies of recruitment and selection — objective and subjective theory. Objective theory assumes the applicant will use a rational method for making decisions such as salaries, benefits and working conditions whereas subjective theory assumes the applicant will not be rational but tend to respond to social or psychological needs such as security, achievement, and affiliation (Hoyle, Bjork, Collier, & Glass, 2004). The latter theory held true for the participants in this study as many said in addition to self-interest in selecting this special unit, they saw it as an opportunity for promotion, pride, privilege, and the collegiality of work group.

It's a very elite position, it's the best job that I've ever held in the County. **(Briana)**

It's one of the best jobs in the department. As police officers you don't get to do something positive and see the results of your actions quickly. There are not too many important things in the world than to intervene in a positive way to stop someone from committing suicide or save someone who is holding a child hostage. **(Ingrid)**

There is a lot of pride that goes with that title for me. I don't realize that until I hear it from someone else. I'm proud of what I do; it's not as fascinating until I see it through somebody else's eyes. **(Ivy)**

While formal recruitment and selection processes exist within most organizations, historically recruitment policies in law enforcement have favored men because the places used for recruitment include military bases, security agencies, and other male oriented sporting events as oppose to community colleges, childcare centers, malls, or social service departments that women may frequent (NCWP, 2000, p. 125).

The participants in this study shared that the recruitment and selection process varied within their organization/department. The difference in recruitment practices for these participants was by word of mouth, a posted letter or letter of interest, their self-perceptions and recognition by their supervisors and peers in having the skills, knowledge, and abilities to become a member on the specialized unit of hostage negotiations.

For our department, it was a letter of interest, oral boards, a mock scenario, your training, your background, and your history within the department that would make you a hostage negotiator. **(Ashley)**

A letter came out, I was interested, and I put in for the letter, and they picked me, and I went to school for it. **(Erica)**

Another female negotiator, one of the team's leaders approached me and asked if I'd be interested in being a negotiator. She thought that I had the skills, the experience from the SWAT team. **(Danielle)**

One team looking to recruit members of hostage negotiations would select annually through a competitive process using various techniques to select the best candidate. New members for this team would serve a one-year probationary period with ongoing trainings and callouts with the team. They are given the title ANIT (A Negotiator in Training) until there is a slot available.

There is a 40-hour class, the students are hand selected by the Police Psychologist, team members and team leaders are there conducting the class and watching how you do within the class. At the end of that class, you get a certificate they will send you to another 40-hour class which certifies you with the American Psychological Society for a hostage negotiator, once you're certified with the second 40-hour class you'll be what's called an ANIT (A Negotiator in Training). If there is no slot available, you're required to come to all of the monthly mandatory meetings. **(Briana)**

While all branches of law enforcement, i.e., the women in this study work for the county and those who work for both the state (Powell, 2016), and federal (Yu, 2018) government alike, all persist to achieve professional success despite the technical barriers or obstacles they may face. The participants in this study as in Yu's (2018) research suggest and believe that women must find their niche and excel as in the case of hostage

negotiators in this study, federal officers (Yu, 2018), and women in fire science (Perrott, 2016). They all subscribe to perseverance, working hard, maintaining their competency (Yu, 2018, Powell, 2016, Perrott, 2016) as a part of their socialization process helped them to achieve their occupational success.

Changes in the team's call out process. In one department the participants spoke about how they were never called out under male supervision but under a female supervision they experienced being called out, attending formal monthly trainings, and being trained by mental health professionals and prominent organizations (e.g., FBI). They felt that the team became more structured under female supervision. For some, the trainings in their current positions prepared them for their role in hostage negotiations in that it improved their communication skills during the interview process. While under the female supervisor one participant said it was not about being male or female but about being able to just go and negotiate.

This department has gone through a lot. I could have been a negotiator forever, but I never got called out...only the same guys got called, one guy negotiated all the time. When he gave up the job, another officer that learned under him, never called anybody...this was done before we had a system or set rules. **(Lizette)**

I sent everybody on the hostage negotiation team, to train in CIT, that's a big evolution for us, to go from no training, no experience because they were not getting called-out to a specialized unit where you get trained, you get trained when you get put on the team. **(Rosa)**

The training processes. The purpose of the training process is to gain certain skills to improve or do a better job (Jucious, 1963, Greenstone, 2003). For some jobs, it

can also assist an individual in becoming more qualified and proficient (Dahama, 1979) in their field. Halim and Ali (n.d.) wrote that training can be distinguished by two types, pre-service and in-service. Pre-service training relates to academic and provided by schools or formal institutions that follows a syllabi or agenda curricula often providing a degree or diploma upon completion. In-service training is provided by the agency or organization to the employee with the intent to improve their knowledge or skills Halim and Ali (n.d.), Greenstone, 2005). The data reveals that most participants participated in pre-service or what they referred to as formal training or seminars conducted by other outside professionals (i.e., psychologists, community colleges) and professional organizations and agencies (i.e., FBI) as well as informal or in-service training sessions taught by current team members (i.e., in-house training). The following quotes detail the participants' training experience in both pre-service and in-service trainings types.

We had one week of a formal training session in the City of Miami. it's very difficult to get everybody together to do in-house training. **(Dawn)**

I have extensive in-house training as far as hostage negotiations. I've also been to the FBI class offered locally and expanded on that taking intervention and stress classes. **(Isis)**

At our police department, the negotiators go to a training class at Broward Community College...it's a 40-hour course, we have our in-house training once a month or once every several months, and any advanced classes that you want to take after that is encouraged. **(Danielle)**

Theories & Experience

There are three theories associated with the training learning process that emphasize distinct aspects of the teaching learning process and approach. The cognitive theory focuses on how the mind works. The behaviorist theory looks at the environment and its consequential changes in behavior. The humanist theory looks at the affective or emotional/attitudes of human behavior that influences learning (Halim, & Ali, n.d.). To change a belief, action, or the learning aspect of a trainee, successful training must be able to encompass all 3 of the learning theories. Law enforcement training is more ethics based as opposed to theory. Because police officers face challenging situations that involves strong emotions and unpredictable situations they are expected to act and think ethically. This does not mean their training is not theory-based because they do learn from one another through observation and socialization.

The social learning theory is a system of learning that is generally associated with behaviorist Albert Bandura who argued that that people learn from each other through observation and socialization (Bandura, 1977). The expectation through social learning would be that the leaders (i.e., sergeants, lieutenant's, captains, etc.) would establish by demonstrating and encouraging ethical behavior and fair-mindedness as sworn officers of the court. This concept is congruent with most organizations taking the lead in facilitating the trainings for their employees to ensure that their behavior contributes to the attainment of the organizations' goals and objectives. However, some participants shared they did not have a standardized or formal training in their department. They characterized their training experience as lacking progression because they were not certain of being called out or to negotiate even if they were required to practice and the

difficulty, they experienced in getting the team together for in house trainings. Some respondents described themselves as autonomous in that they said they were self-taught and studied independently of the team, where others said they received advanced training.

There was no process when I joined the team. The team was run by an individual who was the lead negotiator. I was asked to join the team by one of the other female officers. My training experience was independent training; my field training is where I de-escalated a suicidal person. I took it upon myself to go school that was necessary to build my knowledge of techniques and things that are being done. **(Rosa)**

There were several of us that went to advance training in negotiations, but we never really negotiated. We had the training but no practice. It's because the way that the person in charge had it at the time. He would hold the training once every six months, and we would all train together. But if there was a call-out he was there first, he wouldn't call out anybody else. He felt comfortable with his ability to negotiate. I don't think that it had anything to do with the gender at the time. **(Lizette)**

The study shows that the training among this diverse group demonstrates both acceptance and respect among the group. The inclusion of culture and diversity as part of the teams' socialization process reveals that there is a positive interaction within the group. It seems to promote a close working relationship among them in what they described as "like family" and mutual support during their dual roles (Walsh, 2015).

The Dual Roles of a Hostage Negotiator

The participants in this study hold dual roles as a hostage negotiator and as a police officer. While policing is their full-time job many are granted time and often relieved to respond to a call out. Many convey that their police roles are often carried over into hostage negotiation where it has helped them to develop better communication and people skills. They see themselves in an elite position belonging to a subculture where they experience a feeling of camaraderie, acceptance, and/or group loyalty. Westley (1970) explains that police subculture is an important concept in explaining the behavior and attitudes of police. His perception is that the subculture describes or sees the public as hostile, not to be trusted and aggressive which would require policing to be supportive, united, and secretive. According to these participants, hostage negotiation is different in that their mission is to deescalate the situation and not represent many of the negative attitudes of the public's perception of the traditional police culture. For many of the female hostage negotiators in this study, the change in mindset and behavior of police officers within hostage negotiations is proof there is a paradigm shift in this subculture of specialized units.

Specialized units are units with specially trained officers who are designed to provide maximum and efficient response time in a variety of unusual situations. Specialized units in most police departments may include Homicide, SWAT, Hostage Negotiations, Narcotics, Robbery and Homicide units. The participants work as a patrol officer and as a hostage negotiator, some worked in other specialized units. Working in dual role has its advantages and disadvantages. The advantage provided more information

depending upon the situation and the disadvantage was not being a situation to be released right away.

We all have different jobs. Some of us are school resource officers but most of us work road patrol. If I was in the middle of the arrest I would not be able to leave...precedence would be to finish the arrest unless I could be relieved. Other minor scenes or call-outs, I reroute and have somebody else handles the call.

(Mia)

I am on the narcotic team; we serve search warrants all the time and do dynamic entries, it. **(Jessica)**

Dynamic is a tactic where officers of other specialized units make a surprise entry where speed and domination are key and is accomplished by timing of the execution of the entry. Most of the respondents share they work fulltime in other units as hostage negotiations is not a fulltime position. This part-time aspect offers the respondents some sense of normalcy in that they are not required to arrive at work each day and face intense situations. For example, Danielle states, "Our team, is not full-time; we live by our pager which is on 24 hours a day you need to be ready when your pager goes off."

The routine day for these respondents' is typical of any ordinary patrol routine where they patrol the streets, issue citations, and make arrests until they are "beeped" or while monitoring their radio "hear of a possible situation." They respond by notifying their supervisor or calling in another unit to take over their area.

My routine day is out on the road. The only time that routine is affected is when we actually have a call-out situation. **(Dawn)**

I work the road in the Kendall District, if I get a beep from our Shift Commander and he say “we need you guys to go to his call, because this person is suicidal or is barricaded I would have to stop what I’m doing, request another unit, to come and relieve me so I can go change and go to the scene. (Megan)

Generational Differences: The Difference in Perception based on Years of Experience

Another cultural difference recognized in their diverse workplace was the generational differences between the baby boomers and generation X where they had different gender experiences. Those with more than 15 years of practical knowledge and experience regarding gender issues scoffed at the naivety of those who deny gender issues as if they did not exist. These cultural differences between these two groups could have been a source of conflict yet was not because of the inclusion of culture and diversity. The data from the interviews suggest that there is a generational difference in the organization’s culture between the female hostage negotiators who have 15 years or more experience than those with less. Those women with more than 15 years talk about ‘coming to work with the boys’ and how law enforcement is perceived as a male dominated profession. Part of the difference had to do with being part of an identifiable group that shared birth years, age, location, and significant life events at critical development stages (Tolbize, 2008)

The data clearly shows there is a difference in the perception and experience of the female HTN with over 15 years’ experience in law enforcement to those with less than 15 years of experience in law enforcement. Those with over 15 years of experience experienced gender distinctions through right out rejection and through gender role

assignments where they may be assigned to record or function in the capacity of a secretary. Those with less than 15 years in law enforcement had not experienced gender difference or barriers that prevented them from working within their capacity. Their experience has always been positive where they were treated equally and assigned based on their skills abilities to do the job.

The respondents with over 15 years lived through and for some participated in political social changes such as the Vietnam War, the civil rights, the Kennedy and King assassinations, the Watergate scandal, and the sexual revolutions (Bradford, 1963 as cited in Tolbize, 2008, p. 3). Those females with 15 years or more and born between 1943 and 65 are define by the U.S. Census Bureau as the Baby Boomers. The Boomers are said to have been raised to respect authority figures and grew up in an era of prosperity and optimism bolstered by the sense that they are a special generation capable of changing the world. The respondents with 15 years or more shared this same attitude believing that they are responsible for creating the change making it easy for other women entering law enforcement to have access and equality. Cathy explains why the women with less than 15 years' experience can say why they haven't experienced issues with gender because they are disconnected women in the 70's being liberated or what it means to liberated.

I'll tell you what we did, all of us older ladies, we opened the door for them and laid down the rose patch we just oiled those things and swung that door open.

There has been a disconnect from the 60's and 70's to now. The whole women's Lib thing that I grew up in, they don't even know what women's Lib is because they don't need to be liberated from anything, they are now liberated." (Cathy)

I came on in 1994, I was one of six women in a 280 men department and we paid our dues the old-fashioned way, and that sets the ground work for any other work experience that you have when you deal with in a male partner. **(Rosa)**

When they ask Cathy why didn't you ever take the Sergeant's test" it goes to show you how long she's not been here, because I like didn't get promoted about 10 times, so they have no concept of what the world was like when I started here. **(Cathy)**

The respondents with less than 15 years of experience and born from 1968-1979 are identified by the Census Bureau as Generation X. Generation X is said to be the leader of the older Baby Boomers who grew up in a period of financial, family, and social insecurity. They are highly educated, independent, and resourceful and motivated (Tolbize, 2008). Jana shared an experience where she arrived at a scene and took the initiative to do what needed to be done rather than waiting to be told what to do.

I have a master's degree in clinical social work, so the setting in my training would lend itself towards crisis intervention type of work, which is what police work is anyway. **(Kelly)**

I was working my regular job when we had a call-out. I got to see all the negotiators, the tactical guys, everything getting set up, I knew information that they would need, so I was getting things ready before they got there, they want to know what the house looks like, what direction it face, I had drawn out a map, I had extra information I knew they needed. **(Jana)**

The generation X group showed that they were willing to learn all there is to learn, as evidenced by their willingness to change jobs and resourcefulness around taking the initiative to attain additional training.

I was a member of the SWAT team in the early 90's. I was a part of the entry team; on perimeter post when I left, I was on the sniper team. I left the SWAT team in 1995, and applied to be a hostage negotiator, I put a letter in 1999 or 2000, to me it was like graduating up, I went from the real active part of it to using my brain it was kind of a maturity. **(Danielle)**

My training experience was independent training, my field training where I de-escalated a suicidal person myself. I took it upon myself to go school that was necessary to build my knowledge of techniques and things that are being done.

(Rosa)

This socialization process for each group has been one of learning and sharing experiences of law enforcement and technology.

Validity and Truthfulness

McMillian and Schumacher (1997) wrote that validity refers to the degree to which the explanations of phenomena match the realities of the world. It addresses the questions: Do researchers actually observe what they think they observe? Do researchers actually hear the meanings that they think they hear? In other words, the interpretation and concepts and meaning must be mutual between the research participants and the researcher. The research participants and the researcher agree on the description and the meanings of those events. In a qualitative research, claims of validity rest on the data collection and analysis techniques.

In this phenomenological research design, I used several strategies to enhance design validity and truth. I used member checking, data recording, participant language using verbatim accounts, field notes writing memos and observation comments. My purpose was to use as many strategies as possible to ensure the validity of the design. I began by tape recording the interviews with the hostage negotiator's consent. Taping the interviews allowed me to be more attentive to the interviewee and the least invasive method of gathering information. In addition, I also took notes that consisted primarily of key phrases, lists of major points and key words that captured the interviewee's own language. These notes often prompted clarification or follow-up questions.

Field notes captured during the interviews provided detailed information about the setting — what was heard (this included what was happening in the environment such as the phone ringing or visitor knocking on the door) and what occurred during the interview. According to Patton (1990), field notes contain “descriptive” information, including what is heard, where the observation took place, what the physical setting looks like, who was present, and what social interactions took place. Field notes also contain observational comments (denoted by “OC”) from the researcher. Observational comments are the “reflective” segments of field notes and consist of ideas and hunches about what is being said as well as patterns that are unfolding (Bogdan & Bilken, 1998). Field notes for this study included duration, setting, events prior to the interview and end of the day summary.

Member checking or obtaining feedback from the research participants involves contacting the research participants and asking if the description reflects their experiences. They were given the opportunity to provide feedback, correct verbatim

accounts and meaning of their jargon or their language. The next section presents a summary of the study and considers the possible limitations. A review of the literature is used to distinguish previous and current findings and suggests future research projects. The summary also includes the outcomes of the study about social meanings and the implications as well as personal and professional values.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This study examined the lived experiences of 24 female hostage negotiators, focusing on the aspect of socialization. The purpose of this study was to provide insight into what it means to be a female hostage negotiator, their perception of their socialization experiences, and their socialization process in a gendered organization. This study provided valuable information to select, training, and retaining future female hostage negotiators. This study is one of the first to present the voice, feelings, thoughts, intentions, expression, and views of female hostage negotiators based on their experiences through their perceptions of their socialization as hostage negotiators. It provides insights to law enforcement agencies (such as local and state police department recruiters) hostage negotiation teams, and private companies interested in hiring hostage negotiators on the challenge's women face within the existing setup. The account of their personal experiences and perceptions would be a catalyst for change.

One of the study's aims is to add to the conflict analysis and resolution studies and hostage negotiation literature because there is a void in the research about this population, specifically from the insight and mindset of a female. It broadens the database for researchers in conflict and resolution studies, particularly those in feminist theory. It provides an accurate perspective of the everyday life of the hostage negotiator as opposed to the Hollywood version.

The first question answered in this study was “how do female hostage negotiators perceive their socialization process in the specialized unit of hostage negotiations?” The purpose of the first question was to examine what perceptions females in law enforcement had about their gender and training experiences as a police officer compared

to their training in hostage negotiations. The literature review had spoken on that women were trained differently (Milton, 1972), sexually harassed, (NCWP, 1997, 2000, 2001) and rejected by both their peers and supervisors (More, 2002; NCWP, 1998; Williams & Kleiner, 2001).

The purpose of the question was to learn if this behavior carried over into their socialization experiences as a hostage negotiator, and if so, provided the opportunity to share those experiences as they moved forward through the ranks of law enforcement. Contrary to the rejection the research reports female police officers experienced when becoming a police officer (Price, 1996), the participants of this study found acceptance as hostage negotiators and reported feeling both respected and supported as valuable members of the team by those who judged them for their performance and ability (Hammond et al., n.d.). In addition to both formal and informal training they received, they believed that their years of experiences in law enforcement also played a significant role in their socialization process in that it prepared them to work in a diverse environment among individuals from all socioeconomic backgrounds. They felt that the training, feeling accepted and respected were all beneficial in allowing them to speak freely in a maternal way or to use a softer approach during their communication process.

Research question two was, “how do female hostage negotiators perceive their law enforcement years concerning the perception of self in a gendered organization?” The purpose of the second question was to allow the participants to share whether they had experienced gender bias or gender discrimination as LEOs. Because bias still exists in the workplace (Women’s Law Center, 2000), this question allowed the participants to discuss their experiences and perceptions of gender while becoming police officers. The

goal of this question was to assess whether the participants had experienced gender as a police officer, create an opportunity for them to share those experiences, and learn if their skills were consistent with the literature review or were new and different experiences. The literature identified women's initial role in law enforcement as female auxiliary police hired due to wartime manpower shortages (Schulz, 1995), so early on women were assigned to a particular role as a result of gender theories' position of teaching children there are different occupational function for men and women (Martin & Jurik, 1996). The inclusion of women in traditionally male occupations had historically been opposed, refused, and rejected (Martin, 1980). The male ideation often refused or resisted female entry as police officers because the nature of police work was designed only for men (Brown & Heidensohn, 2000; Daum, 1994). Once given the role, women were discriminated against as officers because they were often not sworn in as police officers, paid a lower rate, received no pension and in most cases fired if they had married (Prenzler, 2002).

The literature review also showed that male police officers held women to these moral standards by rejecting them as police officers because they believed women should only work in the capacity of a mother, teacher, or nurse (Horne, 1975) thereby perpetuating the division of labor. Kimmel (2000) wrote that the assignment of women to a particular role is due to cultural conditioning. He wrote that the process of gender role or differential socialization is not about the attitudes and behaviors defined by sex but defined by gender (Kimmel, 2000). Historically female officers were rejected and treated differently, because of their gender as evidenced by being hired as matrons first and only later to be socialized as unconditional police officers. Men, on the other hand, were hired

and socialized to be police officers regardless of their experience or educational level (Horne, 1975). The data revealed that not all participants experienced gender, and two distinct groups emerged. Group A included those participants with 15 or more years of law enforcement had experienced gender, whereas Group B included those with less than 15 years of experience who shared they had not experienced gender. The participants in Group A experienced rejection and shared their experiences and challenges of staying in an environment that rejected them because of their gender. They said they did so by proving they were just as competent and capable of their male peers.

Research question three was formulated to ask: How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years concerning the perception of self in a gendered organization? This question was asked as a follow-up to question number two to examine the participant's self-perception of experiencing gender in a gendered organization as hostage negotiators. This question offered the participants an opportunity to open up about what gendered similarities or differences they may have experienced as both hostage negotiators and as police officers. Most of the participants said they had not experienced gender as a hostage negotiator. The data revealed that the participants felt respected, accepted, and valued a member of the hostage negotiation team.

For the few who shared they had experienced gender during a callout, those experiences occurred during an encounter with members of the SWAT team. Participants who were past members of SWAT shared that many SWAT members still hold the belief that women do not belong in law enforcement and noted that being a member can be both challenging and discouraging for female members to be accepted often making it difficult for them to advance to administrative or management positions (Dodge, Valcore, &

Gomez, 2011; Dodge, Valcore, & Klinger, 2010). The hostage negotiators who shared their gender experience as police officers shared that once they were able to move past the rejection and proved that they were just as competent and capable as their male colleagues, they expressed the rewards they found in law enforcement and being a hostage negotiator was only one of them. Others who had worked in other specialized units such as narcotics, SWAT, robbery, and homicide shared how fortunate they were to have had the opportunity to move about in a career they have come to love.

Finally, research question four addressed how female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiation years concerning the organizational culture. The purpose of research question number 4 was to assess the participant's perception as a hostage negotiators within the organization's culture and to see whether their gender was shaped through the organizations' structure, culture, and agency as suggested by Britton (2003). The question also provided a platform for them to discuss their perceptions as hostage negotiators within an organization that is known for perpetuating gender and to sharing those feelings and experiences. In the literature review, known for its paramilitary fashion or top-down structure, law enforcement agencies train their officers militarily (Cowper, 2000; Cruickshank, 2013; Potter, n.d.).

The participants of this study shared they are both trained and organized militarily. They are trained and expected to follow a distinct chain of command and strict policy and procedures that are in place to accomplish the goals and task required of the job (Fisher-Stewart, 2007). While the nature of hostage negotiators is to be trained to work as a team, the function of hostage negotiations' agency is to defuse potentially dangerous situations (McMains & Mullins, 1996; Mullins, 2001). According to the

participants in this study, cultural conflict does not exist within their teams, especially concerning gender because there are no set gender roles that they were expected to play, unlike the SWAT teams. The participants shared that within this paramilitary structure, hostage negotiations are not culturally stereotyped as masculine, feminine, or sex-based although they felt compelled to use their gender to their advantage in a culture where communications styles were different. The perspective they bring to the team is one they define and offer as being more nurturing or using a “softer approach,” and as a result, they felt respected and accepted because they brought balance to the role. From their point of view, gender was not experienced in hostage negotiations and believed it was due to the teams’ diversity and acceptance.

Findings and Discussion

This study captured the lived experience of 24 female hostage negotiators working in an environment where the institutional environment is biased against them. This study reveals their perceptions of their socialization experience, specifically, how they were socialized into the hostage negotiation department, and who socialized them. The data collected through the interviews shows that some participants socialized as self-starters, while others experienced secondary socialization through childhood and peer influences and law enforcement trainings. The participants of this study conveyed that they leaned towards the role of a hostage negotiator because they recognized they had the skill set to be a hostage negotiator, and how rewarding it would be as a hostage negotiator.

Those who displayed primary socialization saw themselves as self-starters and spoke about how their childhood and peer group influences helped them to identify they

had the attributes which were suitable for becoming a hostage negotiator. The secondary socialization of participants evolved from their years of experience as a police officer and their law enforcement training. As police officers, these participants learned the importance of belonging to a group, and the need of depending on others within a group.

Studies show that a need to belong is a fundamental human motivation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). In Maslow (1970), theory on the hierarchy of needs belonging did not supersede esteem and self-actualizations for apparent reason. For the participants in this study to belong and being accepted as an essential piece to their socialization process. They spoke about being treated like one of the guys as a feeling of inclusion (Walsh, 2015). There was a sense of increasing self-esteem and self-actualization as evidenced by their confidence in the ability to do the job and their growth towards becoming an elite member of the hostage negotiation team.

The support the participants received offered them a sense of belonging with the ability to have a voice at the table. In so much that once they gained experience in their respective roles, they would rotate in the various positions within the hostage negotiation department, taking on the necessary actions to maximize theirs and others learning experiences through planned socialization or taking the part of teaching others. The cohesiveness of inclusion and diversity (Conant, 2011) is apparent with these participants, as evidenced by their diverse teams. Their teams' effort in promoting a sense of belonging has been successful in creating an environment of acceptance, respect, and confidence among the participants in this study (Strayhorn, 2012).

According to an article written by Women Who Code (2016) women entering a predominantly male work environment found that their negative performances were often

due to both a lack of inclusion and feelings of isolation of not being part of the group. The women in fire science can best relate to not feeling included and often isolated as evidenced by their need to repeatedly prove themselves only still finding it difficult to be fully accepted because of their gender (Perrott, 2016) and the image of fire science culture in that it perpetuates a public image as hyper-masculine (Khan, Davis, & Taylor, 2017). The depiction of the fire science culture is one of being tough, strong, and brave, in contrast with the feminine traits associated with empathy, kindness, and nurturing noted among EMS workers. A classic example is the role of the EMS worker providing emergency medical treatment is deemed as feminine because they also listen and console patients. These traits are thereby contradicting firefighters' cultural image (Khan et al., 2017).

While military literature reveals that there are legally no restrictions for females who serve in the military and it is not theoretically considered a gendered organization, research shows that gender is practiced (The Woman stats Project, 2012). Women comprise 15% of the 1.4 million active duty military personnel (The Woman stats Project, 2012) whereas women in law enforcement account for less than 13% of all sworn law enforcement positions in agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel (NCWP, 2001). When compared to law enforcement research, military research shows that gendered attitudes and stereotypes towards women do exist despite policies (Horne, 1980; More, 2002). Both the military (Burns & Mahalik, 2011) and firefighter services (Khan et al., 2017; Otto, 2017) require a level of physical strength like some areas of law enforcement. For example, (Burns & Mahalik, 2011) examined the increased risk of suicide within the military and found that military remains dominated by masculinity norms across all ranks

and in various specialized units, i.e., SWAT, SEALS, Smoke Jumpers, or Interagency Hotshot Crews.

The culture of law enforcement (Lindsey, 1995; Ore, 2000) and its training (Horne, 1980; More, 2000) prepares the participants for their work in hostage negotiations. Participants recognized the privileges and obligations that accompany being a hostage negotiator. They felt included by the hostage negotiation team, instead of being on the periphery as a police officer. The patrol experiences they shared of being able to bring about a calming aspect to support a family in crisis when a family's coping system had fallen, revealed to them that their communication styles were effective in de-escalating a situation as opposed to their male colleagues. Their various roles as K9 handlers, firearm instructors, school resource officers, etc. also help make for a smoother transition into the hostage negotiator's role. It showed that the participants were comfortable in functioning within the law enforcement culture and they were able to assimilate outside of it.

The perceptions these participants shared about their gender experience varied and depended upon what lens they peered through. From the law enforcement perspective, two groups emerged. The participants of Group A had 15 + years of law enforcement experiences who experienced gender bias. Group B's participants had less than 15 years in law enforcement and claimed they did not experience gender differences. Despite there being no female role models or mentors for those officers in group A, the data showed that most had male peers and supervisors who were instrumental in their socialization process. These males often encouraged the women to advance into the field of a hostage negotiation with recommendations to be promoted. This observation is

different from Daum's (1994) study, where the participants stated they were not accepted and often experienced some form of sexual harassment.

Group A described their experiences within law enforcement as one of rejection, having to prove that they were capable; yet often felt excluded. Those from Group A, who had entered law enforcement as early as 1982, said they were rejected and told they didn't belong. One participant shared how she had to choose her career over becoming a mother out of the fear of being fired. This fear stems from gender socialization of men and women learning behavior and the attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex and the roles they believe associated with being a female or one's gender (Lindsey, 1995) an attitude common early on in law enforcement (Williams & Kleiner, 2001). In contrast, participants from Group B denied experiencing gender bias and believed that their gender was not used to define them in the department. They thought they were selected based on their skills, knowledge, and abilities. Group A's response to Group B's claim of not experiencing gender was that the groundwork was done for them by participants from Group A., As a result, they did not experience any gender discrimination.

Participants from both groups agreed that gender was not used to define them as hostage negotiators. As members of the hostage negotiation team, they shared that they did not have to prove themselves and believed it was their confidence, competence, and capability that was instrumental in their roles as hostage negotiators. For them, the experiences of inclusion, respect, and trust translated into being treated as equals. The participants took advantage of their gender in a manner that would accentuate and emphasized their unique communication skills when they were assigned a job potentially ascribed to gender roles.

They would use the social impression of females as empathetic and having “a motherly tone” during a callout. The participants demonstrated that, unlike their male counterparts, they had the inclination to be nurturing and could convey emotions and use a softer approach to deescalate a situation. For the few participants who reported experiencing gender discrimination, the data show that the experience was not caused by the colleagues of their team but by an informal rule where women were not allowed to negotiate males in a domestic dispute.

Britton (2003) wrote that gender is shaped by the organizational structure, culture, and the agency itself. The first example in this study demonstrates how the culture of hostage negotiation teams unintentionally shaped gender for these participants through its informal rule of women not negotiating men during domestic disputes. Another example of gender shaped by the organizational structure is in the account of how perception, attitudes, and behaviors of male officers towards women, in law enforcement, which was belittling, intimidating, and bullying in nature (NCWP, 1998, 1999, 2000). The women officers had to prove they were just as equal before their male colleagues would accept them as police officers. As a result, the historical negative behavior toward women in law enforcement created an environment that perpetuated unequal treatment of women. Women entering any masculine workplace has experienced this negative behavior (Prenzler, 2002). Studies on women in both fire science (Perrott, 2016) and those who serve in the military (Miller, 1998, Boldry, Woody & Kashy, 2001) ‘do gender.’ A study on gender roles of women serving in the military reveals that gendered attitudes and stereotypes towards women do exist (Boldry et al., 2001). A study on gender roles of women serving in the military reveals that gendered attitudes and stereotypes towards

women do exist (Miller, 1998, Boldry et al., 2001). A classic example of gendered attitude shown between women and men in military training where men were believed to have more motivation and leadership qualities for military performance compared to those of women's whose feminine traits were believed to impair their military performance (Miller, 1998, Boldry et al., 2001). Boldry's et al., (2001) example is another example of how biological differences are used to victimize gender.

Concerning biological differences, another study made an argument that the gender gap in military service is more biologically oriented than socially constructed because specific units require a level of physical strength that many women may not achieve therefore it would be difficult for a woman to advance (Miller, 1998, Prenzler, 2002). The biological differences made also supports the literature which informs us that most arguments about gender difference start with biology (Bem, 1993; Kimmel, 2000), and that both literature and research assigns men and women in gendered organizations to different roles because of their bodily differences (Perrott, 2016; The Woman stats Project, 2012). Women in fire science (Perrott, 2016) face similar challenges as those in the military (Miller, 1998, Boldry et al., 2001) and the participants in this study given the environment of their work. They too must prove themselves; only they must do so repeatedly to demonstrate their cultural competence, show they are just as capable, and validate their professional identity. In Perrott's (2016) study, the biological makeup of the female's body proved to be problematic for female firefighters in that the 'never quite there' hindered their ability to advance towards leadership roles within the department (Perrott, 2016).

This study also reveals how the subculture of hostage negotiation teams sets the tone where diversity, inclusion, and cooperation are part of the culture thereby rejecting gender inequality perpetuated by the institutional structure. The individuals of this study have been allowed to bring their own identities, interest, and ideas to the group thereby allowing gender to shape their teams in a compelling way (Britton, 2003) as evidenced by them being accepted, respected and what they consider by bringing balance to the table of hostage negotiations. Whether it was the groundwork laid down by the older officers, their years of experiences coupled with their socialization process, it is clear that a paradigm shift has occurred. While the U.S. military has taken steps to improve women's' career opportunities such as lifting the ban on women in combat allowing them to serve on the front line of military (Stewart & Alexander, 2013), the career opportunities and recruitment of women in law enforcement remain relatively slow (NCWP, 1998, 1999, 2000, Stepler, 2017).

Female negotiators also exist outside law enforcement. Research has suggested that women remain underrepresented in firefighter science due to the physical requirements and that the victimization of women occurs because of their gender (Perrott, 2016). Women in this study shared they did not experience gender discrimination as female hostage negotiators. They shared they were accepted, treated with respect, felt confident, and trusted as hostage negotiators. Therefore, it is apparent that diversity, inclusion, and gender equality are essential assets in an environment that promotes gender equality (Contant, 2011, Bem, 1993).

In Bowles, Babcock, & Lai, (2007) study both male and female evaluators penalized the female negotiators for initiating negotiations. The study also revealed that

both male and female participants were not interested in working with women who attempted to negotiate a better salary than they were with men who tried to negotiate a higher wage (Bowles, Babcock, & Lai, (2007). Bowles, Babcock, & Lai, (2007) suggest that since female negotiators are least likely to initiate a salary negotiation, it may be due to their awareness that negotiating may trigger this type of social backlash. In another study (Kray, Van Zant & Kennedy,2014) female participants were lied to because the participants saw them as less competent than men and less likely to question the information they received.

Male negotiators would once again receive preferential treatment in this study from both males and females who disclose the hidden interest. The data in this study support Bowles, Babcock, & Lai, (2007) study in that the female participants faced similar barriers when it came to negotiations. Both the chief and lead negotiator informed the participants that there would be no females negotiating with male subjects during talks because of their gender. Their colleagues would receive preferential treatment. The female participants in this study were expected to follow an informal policy during negotiations.

Implications for the Field of Conflict Resolutions

The relationship between conflict resolution and hostage negotiation are the negotiation skills used to bring about a peaceful resolution. Although this study discusses the experiences and what it means to be a female hostage negotiator, women as negotiators, in general, exist in many parts of the world. For the Ethiopian women who served in all aspects of armed conflict and on the South Sudanese rebels' negotiating team, their role was to bring about a peaceful resolution by bringing important issues to

the table that may otherwise have been overlooked by men such as the protection of women and children during armed conflict. They were able to complete this task using the skills of a negotiator while facing gender inequalities within a hostile environment. Having females at the table speaks to the importance of diversity by having varied voices and perspectives to ensure relevant issues are addressed to bring about a peaceful resolution (Harvard's Program on Negotiation, 2018).

Gender discrimination or inequality within any organization creates conflict (Ritzer, 2013). The findings of this study also indicate that conflict in law enforcement remains at a status quo because men insist upon maintaining power and or the privilege of sustaining law enforcement as a male-dominant occupation at the expense of women. Conflict exists within this culture because the culture of law enforcement assigns roles to men and women and therefore impacts their lives differently. It is hopeful that conflict is an opportunity not just to change gender roles but to change power structures positively thereby contributing to an understanding of peace.

The study also reveals there is a generational difference between those officers who have 15 years or less in the department. Officers who are younger with less than 15 years as members of law enforcement, tend to experience fewer gender inequalities than those who have been in law enforcement 15 years or more. It is hopeful that those who have less than 15 years and no gender inequalities experience is expiring a paradigm shift where the newer generation subscribes to equality for all.

Recommendations for Future Research

I propose several recommendations based on the results of the analysis of the female hostage negotiators participants' lived work experiences in a male-dominant

workforce. Given these findings, I recommend that law enforcement promotes diversity, inclusion, and gender equality as part of its recruiting practice and that the department become transparent by sending an essential message about its role in remedying gender inequality.

Administrators must begin by declaring themselves the change of the organization by developing and attending the Gender Equality Training (GET) program (WOCAN, n.d.). GET will provide employees the knowledge, skill, and values needed to contribute to the implementation of gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming (United Nations, n.d.) is a strategy currently use abroad that involves the integration of a gender perspective within the organization. The process includes preparation, design implementation, monitoring and evaluation of institutions policies. The ideal program is to ensure recruits receive the training as part of their orientation to the agency and to make the training a yearly 40-hour mandatory training for all employees.

It is also equally important for management to engage in the diversity effort (Walsh, 2015; Pedrelli, n.d.) by becoming mentors and supporting networks of/for women, individuals from diverse backgrounds, millennium generations and those with different sexual orientations (Conant, 2011). I recommend police administrators to develop a mentoring program that embraces diversity with an emphasis on mentoring females for the roles of upper management leadership particularly the role of Lieutenants, Captains, and Chiefs. So that they can be both prepared and empowered for their next promotion It is for men to play a role in remedying gender inequality because women cannot resolve it alone, especially in male-dominated environments (Segal, 2015). Another critical issue is the underrepresentation of women as police officers and in a

specialized unit. Therefore, my recommendation is to recruit and promote within. While looking within the department for potential recruits reduces hiring cost time and procedures (Jordan, Fridell, Faggiani & Kubu, 2009) using referrals by family, friends, and supervisor recommendations will encourage and influence others to apply (Baker & Carrera, 2007; Switzer, 2006).

Another and final recommendations on increasing the representation of women on the force are to use the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA; 2001) self-assessment guide. The guide develops a specific plan of action that targets women in the recruiting process and emphasizes the agency's goals to increase its number of women in its ranks significantly. In addition to the recommendations noted above, the BJA (2001) also suggests agencies use the media to recruit women officers and display posters that feature women officers from within the department to show the diversity and equal opportunity the department offers.

Limitations

The limitation of this study is that it does not represent a complete, accurate and true representative of all female hostage negotiators on a national level. The selecting of the participants were from several police departments in the Southeast region of South Florida. Therefore, the main limitation of this study was the lack of generalizability. Another limitation may be not reaching females in other specialized units to have their voices heard to prompt action or at least challenge any preconceived notions and complacency. Therefore, the findings may not generalize to larger metropolitan police departments or federal agencies. The results of this study may lend insight to future qualitative studies, the field of conflict resolution hostage negotiation and to the

understanding of gender inequality which continues to impact women in law enforcement.

Summary and Conclusion

As police officers, women in law enforcement are socialized by cultural beliefs and attitudes that they do not belong in law enforcement until they can prove that they are just as capable and competent. Despite the pervasiveness of such attitudes and hostile behaviors of rejection, many women interviewed for this study, saw the opportunities and accepted the responsibilities of becoming a police officer (Flanagan, 2009).

Participants' experiences of rejection in this study suggest that it fuels their socialization process of learning the importance of belonging and the need to depend upon others within a group. Their primary socialization, as self-starters coupled with the influences of their peers and law enforcement training are instrumental in preparing them for their role in the specialized unit of hostage negotiation, where they experience acceptance. The hostage negotiation culture is one of inclusion and acceptance where the female participants experienced trust, respect, and confidence (Contant, 2011, Rabe-Hemp, 2008, Dodge et al. 2011). Gender was not an issue for these participants as they felt they were defined by their knowledge, skills, and abilities.

While law enforcement organization shapes gender through its policies that build on, and reproduce the division of labor; its organization's policies and informal rules deny women the option of negotiating males in domestic disputes and the culture of law enforcement with respect to shaping gender is a mirror of cultural beliefs that women do not belong in police work, these participants seem to have overcome this barrier,

obtaining a place at the table by using gender-based qualities to showcase their communication skills.

Gender, through the agency or at the individual level is where women bring their own identities to law enforcement. The participants used gender to their advantage in hostage negotiation callouts. These participants, through nurturing, patience and providing emotional support emphasized their unique contribution to the communication process in hostage negotiations. There is clearly a paradigm shift within hostage negotiation teams, where women are accepted and included without being defined by gender. The specialized group of hostage negotiations precludes gender shaping by promoting diversity, inclusion, and acceptance. And while the female hostage negotiators in this study feel accepted, they also feel they are underrepresented and that there should be more females in higher ranks.

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Appendix A: Study Participants

All names are pseudonyms.

Ana is 36-45 years of age and is the only female on her team. She has 16-20 years of experience as a police officer and 11-15 years of experience as a hostage negotiator. She is the only female on her team. She believes that being a police officer in a big city and being raised in the south Bronx project where guns, drugs and prostitution were the norm help developed her tough attitude. She holds a BS in psychology and speaks English French and Spanish. She has been affiliated with three specialize units and has been promoted once.

Ashley is 36-45 years of age and one of three females on her team. She has 11-15 years of experience as a police officer and 2-5 years as a hostage negotiator. She holds a bachelor's degree in Deviant Behavior and Psychology. Ashley has been affiliated with one specialized unit and has received one promotion.

Kristen is a 36-45-year-old and one of three females on her team. She has 16-20 years of experience as a police officer and 2-5 years as a hostage negotiator. She defines herself as a crisis negotiator and not a hostage negotiator because "not every situation is always a hostage situation." She started out as a crime scene tech before becoming a LEO. She developed her skills in teaching, public speaking, and working on mental health cases and working with youths. Kristen has a bachelor's degree and has been affiliated with 3 specialized units, receiving 3 promotions.

Erica is a 26-35-year-old and is one of three females on her team. She has 6-10 years of experience as a police officer and 2-5 years as a hostage negotiator. She sees herself as just another hostage negotiator who was self-influenced to become a hostage negotiator. "I think that I'm able to talk to people well so it's something I was interested in. A letter came out, I was interested, I put in for it, they picked me and I went to school for it." She holds a bachelor's degree and has been affiliated with 5 specialized units and has only been promoted once.

Danielle is a 36-45-year-old and is one of 4 female hostage negotiators on her team. She has 16-20 years of experience as a police officer and 2-5 years as a hostage negotiator. She was a member of the SWAT team prior to becoming a hostage negotiator. She holds a bachelor's degree and has been affiliated with 2 specialized units and received 6 promotions.

Jessica is a 26-35-year-old and is one of 4 female hostage negotiators on her team. She has 6-10 years of police officer experience and 2-5 years of experience as a hostage negotiator. Her socialization process as a hostage negotiator began when a female decoy was needed. She holds a bachelor's degree and has only been affiliated with one specialized unit. She has not received any promotions.

Jennifer is a 26-35-year-old and is one of 4 female hostage negotiators on her team. She has 11-15 years of experience as a police officer and 2-5 years as a hostage negotiator. She believes her personal experiences will serve to help others and find that

people in general's perception of women in law enforcement as crisis negotiators, is ditzy. She has a bachelor's degree, has been affiliated with 2 specialized units, and has not received any promotions.

Cathy is 46-55 years of age is one of four female hostage negotiators on her team. She is the more experienced of the four with 21-25 years as a police officer and 16-20 years of experience as a hostage negotiator. Cathy presents herself as a mother like figure to the other members of the team. She worked as a substance abuse counselor for heroin addicts in California after graduating from college and a correctional officer in the Pennsylvania State Bureau of Corrections for 2 ½ years prior to becoming a police officer. "When I was hired into law enforcement it was 1982 and it was still the 'oh you're too little, you can't go do this, there is no way', I was the only woman in my department but, yet I was successful in dealing with problem people that usually had to be fought with." Although she holds a Master of Sciences Degree, has been affiliated with three specialized units and in law enforcement officer for 30 years, she has applied for promotions and has never been promoted.

Rosa is 36-45 years of age and is one of three females on her team. She has 21-25 years of law enforcement experience and 6-10 years of negotiation experience. She worked in the narcotic division before returning to patrol and becoming a hostage negotiator. She is now the captain and team commander of the team. She has been affiliated with 2 specialized units, holds a bachelor's degree, and has received three promotions.

Maria is 26-35 years of age and one of three females on her team. She has 6-10 years of law enforcement experience and 2-5 years of experience as a hostage negotiator. She feels that females have a lot to offer hostage negotiations but fear they will think there is a physical test to take and that they would have difficulty passing the physical endurance test that is required for the SWAT team not for the hostage negotiations team. She holds a high school diploma, has only been affiliated with one specialized unit, and has not received any promotions.

Patty is 36-45 years of age and is one of three female hostage negotiators on her team. She has 21-25 years of experience as a police officer and with 2-5 years as a hostage negotiator. She is the only female sergeant in a 250 male department and her experiences as an officer reflects more of a textbook in terms of gender issues and barriers than her colleagues; partly because she had been in law enforcement longer and had to prove herself as an officer. She is an academy instructor, is FBI trained, holds an associate degree, had been affiliated with 2 specialized units and received 1 promotion.

Susan is 36-45 years of age and the only female hostage negotiator on her team. She has 16-20 years of law enforcement experience and 11-15 years as a hostage negotiator. Susan holds an associate degree, has affiliations with 4 specialized units, and received one promotion.

Isis is 36-45 years old and is one of three female hostage negotiators on her team. She has 16-20 years of experience as a law enforcement officer and 6-10 years of experience as a hostage negotiator. She has a bachelor's degree, has been affiliated with one specialized unit, and received one promotion.

Madison is 36-45 years of age and one of three females on her team. She has 11-15 years of experience as a police officer and one year of experience as a hostage negotiator. Madison is the newest member of the team and comes across as uncertain of her skill and abilities. She decided to become a hostage negotiator because it was part of the SWAT team without being on the SWAT team and was influenced by her husband who is a SWAT team member of a different police department. She is pleased with the team she is on but more concerned with her performance because she is new. She has a high school diploma, has been affiliated with 3 specialized units, has received zero promotions.

Rosario is 36-45 years old and one of three females on her team. She has 21-25 years of law enforcement experience and 2-5 years of hostage negotiation experience. Rosario spoke of the difficulty she experienced and described the number of times she had to apply to be a hostage negotiator before being selected as a supervisor. She holds a bachelor's degree, has been affiliate with 2 specialized units and received 2 promotions.

Lizette is 46-55 years old and one of three females on her team. She has 21-25 years of law enforcement and hostage negotiation experience. Lizette feels that her training experience (not gender) as a detective prepared her for her journey as a hostage negotiator. She holds an associate degree, has been affiliated with 6 specialized units, and has received one promotion.

Kelly is 26-35 years of age and one of three females on her team. She has 6-10 years of law enforcement experience and 2-5 years of experience as a hostage negotiator. She identifies her background in social work the same as police work. She shared with me her perceptive on gender and her role in a male dominant workforce. She has a Master of Science Degree in social work, has been affiliated with 2 specialized units and received one promotion.

Dawn is 36-45 years of age and the only female on her team. She has 6-10 years of law enforcement experience and 2-5 years of experience as a hostage negotiator. Dawn expressed that she did not feel that her gender has made a difference in her career. She also discusses acceptance as an issue and the importance of being accepted and liked by administration to excel within the department. Dawn has a bachelor's degree, has been affiliated with one specialized unit, and has received no promotions.

Ivy is 26-35 years of age and one of 3 females on her team. She has 6-10 years of experience as a law enforcement officer and 2-5 years as a hostage negotiator. Ivy is very proud to be a hostage negotiator and she sometimes forgets until she hears it from someone else or sees it through his or her eyes. "There is a lot of pride that goes with that title for me. Just last week, at the grocery store I happened to be wearing a t-shirt from a

conference that said, “Florida Association of Hostage Negotiators and the girl behind the counter asked, “do you do that” and I said “yes” and she was just mesmerized, and she wasn’t the first person that I had run into that had said that. So, I don’t realize until I hear it from someone else. Certainly, I’m proud of what I do, but it’s not as fascinating; I don’t think about it until I see it through somebody else’s eyes.” Despite the unwritten rule that females do not negotiate with males, she also successfully talked a guy out who was eventually “Baker Acted”. Baker Act is a process where an individual who is suffering from some type of mental illness is admitted to a hospital against their will for 72 hours. Ivy has a high school diploma and is affiliated with two specialized units. She was just promoted to a detective.

Mia is 36-45 years of age and is one of two female hostage negotiators on her team. She has 26+ years of experience as a law enforcement officer and 11-15 years of hostage negotiation experience. Mia shared a gender experience regarding being told that no woman would be negotiating at a particular barricade incident. Mia has a high school diploma, has been affiliated with 2 specialized units and received one promotion during her law enforcement career.

Ingrid is 46-55 years of age and is the older one of eight females on her team. She has 26+ years of experience as a law enforcement officer and 21-25 years of hostage negotiation experience. She defines herself as the “Grand Dame” of hostage negotiations. Ingrid has an associate degree, has been affiliated with 2 specialized units, and received 4 promotions during her law enforcement career.

Jana is 36-45 years of age and one of eight females on her team. She has 6-10 years of experience as a law enforcement officer and 2-5 years of hostage negotiation experience. Jana has an associate degree, has been affiliated with two specialized units and received one promotion.

Megan is 26-35 years of age and is one of eight females on her team. She has 11-15 years of experience as a law enforcement officer and 2-5 years of hostage negotiation experience. Megan is the newest member of the 8-member team and is excited that she no longer has to be called an ANIT- a negotiator in training. Megan has a high school diploma, has been affiliated with two specialized units, and received zero promotions.

Brianna is 36-45 years of age and one of eight females on her team. She has 11-15 years of experience as a law enforcement officer and 2-5 years of hostage negotiation experience. Brianna is a first responder instructor, physical training instructor and a firearms instructor for the police academy. Brianna has a high school diploma, has been affiliated with three specialized units and received zero promotions.

Appendix B: Demographic Data Sheet

Nova Southeastern University
Principal Investigator: Lieutenant Superville,
Doctoral Candidate, DCAR

Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the Protection of Human Subjects

**Nova Southeastern University
Lieutenant Superville, Principal Investigator**

Project Title:

The Socialization of Female Hostage Negotiators: Their Voices, Perspectives & Experiences

Principal Investigator

Lieutenant Superville, DCAR Doctoral
Student
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Advisor

Marcia Sweedler, PhD
Dissertation Chair
Associate Professor
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(954) 262- 3000

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

1. What is your age?
 - A. 18-25
 - B. 26-35
 - C. 36-45
 - D. 46-55
 - E. 55 or above
2. What is your race/ethnicity?
 - A. Asian
 - B. Black
 - C. Caucasian
 - D. Latino/Hispanic
 - E. Multicultural
 - F. Other: _____(please specify)
3. What is the highest academic degree you have attained
 - A. High School Diploma
 - B. Associate Degree
 - C. Bachelor's degree
 - D. Doctoral Degree
 - E. Other: _____(please specify)
4. What is your marital status?
 - A. Married

- B. Single
 - C. Divorced
 - D. Separated
 - E. Widowed
5. How long have you been a police officer?
- A. 2-5 years
 - B. 6-10 years
 - C. 11-15 years
 - D. 16-20 years
 - E. 21-25 years
 - F. 26 + years
6. How long have you been a hostage negotiator?
- A. 2-5 years
 - B. 6-10 years
 - C. 11-15 years
 - D. 16-20 years
 - E. 21-25 years
 - F. 26 + years
7. Have you been affiliated with any other specialized unit? If so which one?
- A. Canine (K-9)
 - B. SWAT
 - C. Narcotics
 - D. Homicide
 - E. Robbery
 - F. Bomb Squad
 - G. Field/Academy Trainer
8. During you law enforcement years how many promotions have you received?
- A. 1
 - B. 2
 - C. 3
 - D. 4
 - E. 5
 - F. 6 +
9. How many male hostage negotiators are on your team?
- A. 1-4
 - B. 5-10
 - C. 11-20
 - D. 21-25
 - E. 25+
10. How many female hostage negotiators are on your team?
- A. 1-4
 - B. 5-10
 - C. 11-20
 - D. 21-25
 - E. 25+

Appendix C: Intro Letter

Principal Investigator

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Project Title: The Socialization of Women as Hostage Negotiators

Chief of Police and Hostage Negotiation Supervisors of
Miami/Dade, Broward & Palm Beach Counties

Dear Sir or Madam:

My name is Lieutenant Superville and I am a doctoral student at Nova Southeastern University. I am conducting a study on the socialization of female hostage negotiators and need your assistance in locating female hostage negotiators who may be interested in sharing their experiences as a hostage negotiator within your department. The purpose of the study is to address the omission of women hostage negotiators and their voices from the hostage negotiation literature by capturing and understanding the subjective experience of women hostage negotiators and their perceptions of those experiences. I am willing to speak to past and present female hostage negotiators. I will follow standard research protocol and keep names of participants and the police departments with which they are associated confidential.

Please feel free to contact me if you need additional information on this communication. I will follow-up with a phone call within the next seven days.

Sincerely,

Lieutenant Superville
Doctoral Student, Nova
Southeastern University

Appendix D: Interview Guide

Interview Questions

1. What is the role of a hostage negotiator?
2. If someone wanted to become a hostage negotiator, what formal criteria must they meet? Informal?
3. Describe the process that resulted in you becoming a hostage negotiator?
4. Who or what influenced your decision to become a hostage negotiator?
5. What are your thoughts on being mentored?
6. What perceptions do you have of yourself as a hostage negotiator?
7. How do others on the team perceive you as a hostage negotiator?
8. Please take a moment to recall your first day on the job as a hostage negotiator. Describe for me what you felt as a new hostage negotiator?
9. What was the training experience like for you?
10. What are your feelings with regard to being a hostage negotiator now?
11. What are your inner feelings and concerns as a member of the hostage negotiation team?
12. What has been your experience as a hostage negotiator?
13. What have been your experiences as a negotiator compared to those of a police officer?
14. What has been your gendered experience on the hostage negotiation team?
15. How would you describe the culture of hostage negotiations?
16. In what ways, if any, has your gendered experiences as a police officer impact your gendered experience as a hostage negotiator?
17. How have you come to terms with or make sense of those experiences?
18. Please identify any barriers that you have faced as a female hostage negotiator?
19. Please discuss strengths that you may have contributed as a female as a hostage negotiator.
20. What are your thoughts on the under-representation of women in hostage negotiations?
21. Describe what would be a routine day for a female hostage negotiator.
22. Please describe for me what you have experienced as a female hostage negotiator during an intense standoff.
23. What does the public not know about being a hostage negotiator?

Appendix E: Member Check Letter

Dear Participant:

Thank you for agreeing to be a “Member Checker” for my dissertation study. As a member checker, you will have the opportunity to provide feedback on the findings of the study. A member checker is someone who initially participated in the study, interested in the study’s opinion in the accuracy of the findings. Your time and interest is greatly appreciated and your contribution will beyond doubt improved the meaning of the study. As you may recall, the purpose of this study was to understand the unique experiences of female hostage negotiators and to serve as a vessel that carries their voice, feelings, and thoughts, based on their experiences through their perceptions on how they are socialized as hostage negotiators. Information was collected through face-to-face interviews for all of those who participated in the study.

I have attached a draft of the “Findings” section for the study. It is “draft” because it may be adjusted depending on the input received from the member checkers. Please examine this document and judge the correctness of its main points, conclusions, and interpretations. You may want to note areas that need clarification, or information that you feel that should be added or deleted. Please also make a note of any problems you see that may jeopardize the confidentiality of those whose experiences are cited in the findings.

In approximately 3 weeks, I will call you to discuss your feedback. I will contact you in advance to arrange a date and time that is most convenient for you. The feedback you provide along with the suggestions of others member checkers and those made by my dissertation committee, will be considered for inclusion in the final draft.

If you have any questions or need to reach me, please feel free to contact me at (954) 224-4142 (cell) or by e-mail at supervil@nova.edu. Please also contact me if you feel that you are unable to help with this process.

Again, thank you for your time and commitment to this process and this study. I look forward to discussing your feedback soon.

Sincerely,

Lieutenant Superville
Ph.D. Candidate

Appendix F: Sample Field Journal

Date:

Re:

I began the interview with these questions in mind:

- How do female hostage negotiators perceive their law enforcement years with respect to gendered experiences, socialization, culture, and perception of self?
- How do female hostage negotiators perceive their hostage negotiations years with respect to gendered experiences, socialization, culture, and perception of self?

Because of the interview, I learned the following:

Continuing themes:

Other topics worth investigating in future interviews:

- Issues between Hostage Negotiators and SWAT
- Supervisory issues when the female is in charge
- Supervisory issues when the supervisor can't negotiate
- Defining Promotions
- Recognizing Barriers

Participants' recommendations for sampling this population:

- Name

Issues for sampling:

- Try to reach female hostage negotiators in smaller police departments
- Connect with chief in smaller departments
- Connect with more newly recruits

Appendix G: Informed Consent

Funding Source: None

IRB approval# _____

Project Title:
The Socialization of Female Hostage Negotiators: Their Voices, Perspectives & Experiences

Principal Investigator
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Nova
Southeastern
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 Review Board
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Description of the Study

I have been asked to participate in this research project to discuss my feelings, perceptions, and experiences as a female hostage negotiator. I understand that the purpose of this study is to address the omission of women hostage negotiators and their voices from the hostage negotiation literature by capturing and understanding the subjective experience of women hostage negotiators, and their perceptions of those experiences.

This study is being conducted as part of a dissertation research project associated with Nova Southeastern University's School of Humanities and Social Sciences' Department of Conflict Analysis and Resolution. This project is under the direction of Lieutenant Superville, Doctoral Candidate and Principal Investigator. There is no funding or sponsorship for this project.

I understand that I must meet the following criteria to participate in this study:

- I must be a female;
- I must be 18 years or older;
- I must volunteer for the study
- I must be available to participate in a face-to face interview;
- I must have worked as a police officer for at least 2 years
- I must be or have been a hostage negotiator;
- I must be or have been employed by a law enforcement agency in Broward, Miami –Dade or Palm Beach Counties.

If I choose to participate in this study, I will be involved in a one and a half or two hour face-to-face, semi-structured interview with the principal investigator, which may also involve follow-up. During the interview, I will be asked a series of open-ended questions designed to capture and describe my lived experiences as a hostage negotiator and to

discuss my socialization process from my perspective. The interview will be audio taped to support the accuracy of transcribing its content. All audiotapes of the interview will be erased once they have been transcribed.

At the conclusion of the interview, I will be asked to complete a Demographic Data Sheet (DDS). This data is being gathered to assist the Principal Investigator in discerning whether age or length of service as an officer differentiate our socialization process as a hostage negotiator. The standard demographic/background questions to be asked will include: age, education, and length of time as a police officer and as a hostage negotiator.

Risk/Benefits to the Participants:

I understand that the potential risk for participating in this study may cause me to feel uncomfortable in sharing my feelings or that I may experience a feeling of regret for having talked too freely when the interview ends. I also understand that upon completion of the interview that I may have concerns that I will be identified.

If, during the process of this interview I find myself experiencing these feelings, I understand that I may stop the interview process at any time. If upon the completion of this interview I find that I am experiencing ruminative thoughts or ill feelings I may want to seek support from a professional organization or therapist sworn to confidentiality and who understands the different levels of emotional and psychological stress police officers experience.

I understand that the referral list noted below is provided for my convenience should I need assistance in coping with my feelings. I also understand that I am responsible for any cost associated with this treatment as a consequence of my participation in this study.

- Your Human Resource Office/Employee Assistance Program
- Psychological Services provided by your healthcare provider
- Your departments' Chaplin
- PBA <http://www.flpba.org/>

In addition, if I have any concerns about the risk or benefits of participating in this study, I can contact principal investigator Lieutenant Superville and her advisor Marcia Sweedler or the IRB office at the numbers indicated above. I understand that there are no direct benefits associated with this study.

Cost and payments to the Participants

I understand that there are no costs for me to participate in this study. In addition, there will be no payments made to me for participating in this study.

Confidentiality and Privacy

I understand that my responses to the questions posed by this research will be kept in the strictest confidence unless the law requires disclosure. In addition, all of the information that I share with the Principle Investigator will be kept confidential to her and her Advisor, and will not be reported in any way that personally identifies me. Only the Principle Investigator and her Advisor will be aware of my personal identity and only the Principle Investigator and her Advisor will have access to interview, transcribed and

demographic data. Furthermore, all interview transcript records will reference my identity using an alpha/numeric identity code (based on my geographic location, the time of the interview, and randomly selected alpha reference that I will provide the Principal Investigator with during the interview). I will also be assigned a pseudonym that will be used in all published reports that emerge from this research.

Finally, I understand that all written records and audiotapes will be maintained in a locked file drawer in the office of the Principal Investigator, and all audiotapes will be destroyed beyond use immediately following transcription except in situations that violate state and or federal laws and regulation.

PHI

This study does not require the disclosure of any Protected Health Information.

Participants Right to Withdraw from the Study

I understand that I may refuse to participate in this study, and that I may choose to stop my participation in this study at any time. I also understand that if I choose to withdraw from the study, I will not be penalized in any way and all data collected from me will be destroyed except in situations that violate state and/or federal laws and regulations. If significant new information related to this study becomes available and this information may affect my willingness to participate in the study, Ms. Lieutenant Superville will alert me immediately.

Voluntary Consent by Participant

I have read the preceding consent form, or it has been read to me, and I fully understand the contents of this document and voluntarily consent to participate. All of my questions concerning the research have been answered. I hereby agree to participate in this research study. If I have any questions in the future about this study Ms. Lieutenant Superville, Principal Investigator or Dr. Marcia Sweedler, Advisor will answer them. (If applicable: I also voluntarily agree to the release of my PHI as described in this document. A copy of this form has been given to me. This consent ends at the conclusion of this study.

Participant's Signature _____ Date _____

Authorized Representative _____ Date _____

Authority of Representative is based on: _____

Witness's Signature _____ Date _____

Appendix H: Bio

Lieutenant Superville, RNC, MS

Lieutenant Superville, a resident of south Florida for 27 years, has worked as a forensic psychiatric nurse in prisons and jail-like settings. She has lived in various cities including Columbus Ohio. She and her family moved to south Florida where she received her master's degree in Alternative Dispute Resolution from Nova Southeastern University in Ft. Lauderdale Florida, in 1997. Ms. Superville also received a certificate of accomplishment presented by The Summer Institute in Political Psychology in 2000 at The Ohio State University. She is preparing to defend her dissertation as a Ph. D. candidate in Conflict Analysis and Resolution at Nova Southeastern University. Lieutenant Superville has trained and attended hostage negotiation trainings in south Florida and other major cities. She is an active member of NOBLE (National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executive) and the National Nurses United Nurses Union.