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How Do Counterterrorism Policies Influence Domestic Terrorism on Military Installations

Leona Rena Monroe
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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Leona Monroe

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

How Do Counterterrorism Policies Influence Domestic Terrorism on Military

Installations

by

Leona R. Monroe

MEd, DePaul University, 2012

BS, University of Mississippi, 2009

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration-Homeland Security Policy and Coordination

Walden University

August 2017

Abstract

The Department of Defense (DoD) utilizes risk management to develop antiterrorism practices and policies on military installations. However, there is a gap in understanding the impact these practices have on the culture and relationship among military personnel and their civilians. Using Schneider and Ingram's conceptualization of social construction of target populations, the purpose of this ethnographic qualitative study was to understand the nature of the relationship between antiterrorism programs, culture, and risk management on a single military installation. Using a snowball sampling strategy, data were collected through semi-structured interviews with 12 participants who were either a civilian or military person on base. Using inductive reasoning, the data were then organized using thematic analysis by pre-established codes, although some codes emerged based on participant responses. The key finding emerging from this study focused on the theme that there are differences in how civilian and military personnel are trained in terrorism mitigation. Civilians reported that they had annual training, while the military reported more ongoing training. One consistent finding among both was that if employees saw something they should say something. The results of this study could facilitate positive social change by encouraging DoD leaders to promote collegiality in cross-training the military and civilians, by improving antiterrorism programs that impact all stakeholders. Specifically, civilian leaders and base commanders can work together to create more uniform policies for training that benefit the entire DoD. Such collegiality could strengthen the work culture and relationship among civilians and the military, as they have a joint duty in promoting safety and the reduction of terrorism on the base.

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Dedication

My husband, Ernest, my family, and the Army National Guard were paramount to my success and the completion of this dissertation. Therefore, I dedicate this dissertation to my family for being supportive in my education, military career, and personal endeavors. In addition, I dedicate this dissertation to the Army National Guard for inspiring me for greatness, giving me numerous opportunities, and aiding in the protection of this great nation. Lastly, I dedicate this dissertation to Ernest, for supporting me, encouraging me, and believing in me. To the ARNG, I'm thankful for the opportunity to serve this great nation and give back to the community. To Ernest, I'll like to thank you for being there for me and helping me accomplish achieve my goal. To my sister, Sharonda, thank you for the blessed years we've shared and the mentorship you've provided (rest in love). You'll never be forgotten because I'll always love you and I know you looking down on me from heaven. To my sister, Tilitha, thank you being my role model and inspiring me to excel. I am truly grateful to have you in my life and I appreciate you. To my parents, Leon and Sandra, thank you for grooming me into the woman I am today. Your unconditional love played a vital role in my development and growth.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The United States has a history of engaging in warfare over its interests, including territorial and economic protections (Jones, 2012). As a result, the Department of Defense (DoD) uses both antiterrorism and counterterrorism measures to protect the country's interests both domestically and abroad. To achieve this, the DoD (2017) utilizes more than 5,000 military installations and employs approximately 450,000 employees. National security depends on the efficiency and effectiveness of those stationed on such installations.

The global infrastructure of the nation depends on DoD military personnel and civilians being accountable for their job responsibilities (DoD, 2017). The President of the United States serves as the chief executive officer of the military and is responsible for determining the security needs of the nation and developing the course of action for addressing such needs (DoD, 2012, 2013, 2017). Even though the President of the United States serves as the Commander in Chief, the founders of the Constitution developed a checks and balances system that prevents the President from making all decisions.

The U.S. Constitution outlines how power is shared among the different branches of government: the legislative branch makes laws, the executive branch executes laws, and the judicial branch interprets the laws (DoD, 2017). Because of this constitutional requirement, Congress manages the military budget. Various committees from both houses are responsible for determining budgetary needs for military funding, operations, and intelligence (Hillman, 1982). Congress has an influential role in all decision-making

as their role includes determining pay grades for civilians and allocating funds to the deployment of troops.

In analyzing the DoD from this perspective, the American people have a vested interest in the effectiveness of the DoD (DoD, 2017). One of the commanding assumptions of the DoD was that everyone knows of someone who has served in the military; however, that perspective is changing as evidenced by DoD research and statistics on millennials (Baker, 2012; DoD, 2017). Baker (2012), a producer for the PBS television show “America’s Defense Monitor,” argued that fewer people can identify those who have served. When Americans were drafted for World War II, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War, families and communities felt the impact together. Large quantities of soldiers were being drafted. Today, few Americans know of someone in combat even though the livelihood of the United States depends on the actions of DoD employees domestically and abroad. The perception is that civilians are out of touch with the physical and mental impact of wartime.

In securing the nation’s borders, the DoD is responsible for developing antiterrorism and counterterrorism programs that will protect the stakeholders of the United States. A key factor in determining effectiveness is creating opportunities for evaluation and feedback. Leaders who manage effective programs develop checkpoints for determining strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats. One way to measure progress is to gather feedback from employees as they have a direct knowledge of the culture, climate, and expectations of the workplace. These aspects can be employee directed or employer directed. In analyzing safety on a military installation it is

imperative to examine the perceptions of employees in improving operations. From this lens, I wanted to examine employee perceptions about risk management training.

I designed this study to contribute to the literature on the perspectives of DoD personnel employed on military installations. By exploring the perspectives of civilians and military personnel employed on installations, as a resource manager in the Army and a logistics officer in the National Guard I will have the opportunity to address concerns at my place of employment. In addition, if I am able to present this research in a conference or training session, DoD leaders can use the recommended solutions to provide cross-discipline job training of all DoD personnel, regardless of employee categorization.

Chapter 1 of this study includes background information about antiterrorism and counterterrorism programs. The chapter also includes the research problem, purpose of the study, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, significance, and implications for social change. I will briefly introduce the theoretical frameworks and the research questions. In this chapter, I will also identify the common terms and concepts that I used throughout the study.

Background

The DoD designed antiterrorism programs to reduce the threat of terrorism (DoD, 2013). Effective programs focus on planning measures, program review, resource application, risk management, and training and exercises. When the military is portrayed in the media, the message is usually about preparedness in response to terrorism or warfare. However, military installations are also at risk of acts of terrorism, and understanding the application of risk management evaluative tools is beneficial in

thwarting domestic terrorism. In this study, I examined the history of terrorism on domestic installations and offered qualitative analyses of risk assessments of terrorist threats. To begin this research, I selected primary sources that could provide knowledge about counterterrorism policies on military installations. Two of the sources are guides for outlining the nature of the policies and the responsibilities of officers and program leaders (DoD, 2009; DoD, 2013). I used the works of Dermisi (2006), Dillon, Liebe, and Bestafa (2009), and GAO (2015) to provide background knowledge about risk management, decision-making, and processes for analyzing threats and vulnerabilities.

1. The DoD Intelligence Emergency Management Program is a handbook that outlines the nature and scope of antiterrorism policies (DoD, 2009).
Government agencies are to use these policies to establish procedures for their organization.
2. The DoD Civilian Personnel Management System is a manual that delineates the responsibilities of specific officers and program leaders for implementing antiterrorism policies (DoD, 2013).
3. Dermisi (2006) outlined various terrorism and protective measures for government buildings.
4. Dillon, Liebe, and Bestafka (2009) explored a risk-based decision making model for applying counterterrorism measures to military installations.
5. The U.S. General Accountability Office (GAO) (2015) considered the effects of the 2009 Fort Hood and 2013 Washington Navy Yard shootings on DoD policies.

6. Renfroe and Smith (2010) conducted a risk analysis to outline the threats and vulnerabilities that threaten the security of military installations.

The author of each individual article provides knowledge about information that is discussed in this research, and I was able to establish a basis for this research based on the gaps in literature regarding perspectives of risk management effectiveness. Using these publications as my source of knowledge, I sought to address the gaps as a basis for this research.

Problem Statement

While there is adequate research about antiterrorism and counterterrorism policies, programs, and procedures (Dermis, 2006; DoD, 2009, 2013, 2017; GAO, 2015; Renfroe & Smith, 2010), there is limited research on the impact of these elements on the personnel. Program leaders use evaluations to determine the progress toward goals (Creswell, 2013); however, they provide limited insight on the effectiveness of programs as it pertains to individual subjects. In this study, I also addressed procedures for risk management. Laurent noted in a publication for the GAO (2004) that there are significant weaknesses in the risk management assessments of terrorist threat, gaps in vulnerabilities assessments, and few procedures for identifying asset criticality on military installations. Hence, there is a problem with the risk assessments and evaluation tools that govern the antiterrorism policies for civilian and military personnel on domestic military installations. In addition, the GAO (2004) indicated that DoD organizational efforts lack of uniformity in the command and control mechanisms used for the oversight and integration of installation preparedness. Despite increased government funding for

counterterrorism since 9/11, there is a gap in mitigation tactics for minimizing or alleviating acts of terrorism (GAO, 2004). This problem has negatively impacted the mental agility, productivity, and stress levels of civilian employees, with incidents like the Fort Hood and the Navy Yard massacres (GAO, 2004).

Because Laurent noted that the DoD aims to identify and minimize vulnerabilities on installations, and there are gaps in the assessment of vulnerabilities, systematic prioritized resource requirements, and complete assessments of potential threats, I specifically wanted to determine the following:

1. Is there a difference between how military and civilian personnel are prepared for terrorist threats?
2. How do these trainings differ?
3. Are differences due to this variance in training?
4. What are the implications of this or recommendations?

I used theoretical frameworks relative to risk management and policy design to provide valuable information relative to the problem statement. These included Schneider, Ingram, and deLeon's (2014) social construction framework (SCF), the policy process approach, and various perspectives about risk management.

Lieberman (2011) described how the FBI and DoD had sufficient evidence that could have identified Hasan's (Fort Hood) radicalization to Islamist extremism but the FBI and DoD refused to pursue Hasan as a threat. The FBI and DoD's decision not to arrest Hasan was likely based on insufficient evidence; however, there were opportunities to notify the military installation of possible threats in order to prevent what ultimately

happened. Murphy (2013) noted the importance of the physical presence of security in preventing acts of terror. Possible causes of this problem may be complacency, inadequate evaluation tools, and insufficient resources capabilities, and the focus of this study was to investigate the risk assessments of antiterrorism programs on domestic terrorism utilizing a qualitative study to identify gaps in policies and make recommendations. Renfroe and Smith (2010) illustrated how program leaders can identify vulnerabilities, threats, and consequences using risk management tools. Hence, risk management can reduce and mitigate these factors to an acceptable level.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study was to analyze how perceptions of preparedness among civilian personnel on military installations impact policy making and policy design relative to domestic terrorism. Most the research on risk management relates to training and information for military personnel. This research will contribute to understanding how vulnerabilities or perceptions of vulnerabilities impact civilians as well. The civilian workforce is growing on military installations, and it is important to understand how their presence impacts base culture. It is also important to understand who is responsible for ensuring all employees are getting adequate training.

The DoD (2012) noted how it is base commanders' responsibility to ensure that antiterrorism training is conducted and updated, and physical security measures are implemented by all personnel. Dillon, Liebe, and Bestafka (2009) realized that there is an infinite amount of potential terrorist attacks and scenarios that exist, especially with advancements in technology. Therefore, it is very difficult to implement the most

efficient antiterrorism programs or one that alleviates terrorism. However, considering the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOTs) of current policies can mitigate and improve counterterrorism programs.

Research Questions

My goal as a researcher was to understand the participants' perspectives regarding antiterrorism programs on the military installations where they are employed. I have included the research questions that guided my work:

1. To what extent have antiterrorism programs on military installations impacted the culture and reduction of domestic terrorism for both civilian and military employees?
2. How are risk management tools used on domestic installations to provide training for both civilian and military personnel?
3. What social constructions are applied to developing policies on military installations regarding terrorism?

Researchers use qualitative research to understand the perspectives of the participants by attempting to view the world in the same manner in which the participants view it themselves. From this perspective, I developed the research questions to explore and develop meaning to their experiences using qualitative research methods as the purpose of qualitative research is to develop meaning based on experiences (Creswell, 2013).

Design of the Study

In this qualitative study, I surveyed DoD employees in order to explore their experiences and perspectives regarding the effectiveness of antiterrorism programs on

domestic military installations. Creswell's (2009) view of qualitative research is consistent with the use of participant interviews to gain perspectives from participants. I conducted individual interviews as the primary means for data collection all of which were open ended and lasted approximately one hour. I compiled the responses electronically and sent them to participants for member checking which a qualitative tool for trustworthiness (Creswell, 2009).

I used the snowball method based on criterion sampling to attract participants. I was able to gain exposure to research participants who may not otherwise be tracked for such research. Creswell (2013) explained how asking a participant to recommend other participants for a study qualifies as snowball sampling. I used the criterion method here as well because I wanted individuals who worked in a particular area on the installation. Researchers use criterion sampling when all participants must meet a specific criterion (Creswell, 2013). In this qualitative study, all of the participants were employed on a single military installation as civilians, contractors, enlistees, or officers. This qualitative analysis helped to explore how effective and efficient the influence of policy is on this culture. I used NVivo to collect, sort, analyze and interpret data. In addition, I developed themes and code data, for a clear and concise comparison.

Nature of the Study

The primary focus of this study was the use of qualitative measures to understand and explore how counterterrorism policies and procedures influence domestic terrorism. The focus was on the military installation's counterterrorism policies, which should align with social construction framework and risk-based decision-making model. In this study,

I used the ethnography research approach to analyze how current counterterrorism policies and programs on military installations influence domestic terrorism. Creswell (2013) explained that ethnography could be used to determine perceptions about programs. In this case, ethnography was used to explore how antiterrorism programs on military installations provided civilian employees with the resources and training needed to respond or minimize terrorist activities. I have provided further information about the research design and research procedures in detail in Chapter 3.

Definitions

Antiterrorism: The defensive mechanisms used to prevent or deter terrorist attacks. It also includes diminishing the effects of an attack once it occurs (Arce & Sandler, 2005). These tactics also reduce vulnerability of individuals and their property (Pushies, Griswold, Giangreco, & Tomajczyk, 2002).

Antiterrorism awareness: The fundamental knowledge of the terrorist threat and the necessary measures to reduce personal vulnerability (DoD, 2013).

Antiterrorism measures: The defensive mechanisms used to reduce the vulnerability of individuals and properties toward terrorist acts (Dillion et. al, 2009).

Antiterrorism planning: The methods that are used to develop guidance and execution procedures for subordinates (DoD, 2013). Planning is one of the five elements of an antiterrorism program.

Antiterrorism program review: The specific guidelines that are used to evaluate an antiterrorism program in order to evaluate the effectiveness and progression toward satisfactory (DoD, 2013). The program review is an element of an antiterrorism program.

Antiterrorism resource application: The resource application includes identifying and submitting requirements through existing planning, programming, budgeting, and execution processes; the Combatting Terrorism Readiness Initiative Fund; and other funding mechanisms (DoD, 2013). The resource application is also an element of the antiterrorism program.

Antiterrorism risk management: This process includes systematically identifying, assessing, and controlling for risks (DoD, 2013). Such actions are based on operational factors and decision-making. Risk management is also an element of an antiterrorism program.

Antiterrorism training and exercises: The process for developing individual and group skills and for conducting exercises to verify plans for antiterrorism incident responses, management of consequences, and continuing essential military operations (DoD, 2013). Antiterrorism training and exercises are critical to antiterrorism program.

Assessments: The meaning of assessments in this frame is relative to ways to measure risk management (Decker, 2001).

1. Threat assessments identify and evaluate assessments based on various factors.
2. Vulnerability assessments identify weaknesses that terrorists may employ and provide options to mitigate such weaknesses.
3. Criticality assessments systematically identify and evaluate organizational assets based on the mission, the group at risk, and the significance of the structure of the organization.

Counterterrorism: The practice of using strategies to combat or prevent terrorism (Bynam, 2015). Counterterrorism is offensive in nature and refers to the operations employed to identify and capture terrorists (Pushies et al., 2002). It can also include operations that actively defend a target from a potential attack.

Crisis: Any incident that that involves a threat to the United States, its territories, citizens, or military forces that requires military attention to proceed resources and achieve national objectives (Pushies, et al., 2002).

DoD contractor: An individual or organization that enters into contract with the DoD to provide services or products to any DoD entity (DoD, 2013). DoD civilians are not classified as civilians because they are not employed by the Department of Defense. Contractors are either self-employed or they work for an entity that has been awarded a bid on a contract.

DoD civilian: A federal employee who is employed by the Department of Defense but is not a member of the armed forces (DoD, 2013). Because these individuals are employed by the Department of Defense, Congress determines their pay grade and salary increases (DoD, 2017).

Domestic: Refers to military bases, forts, or camps (Posts and Installations, 2015) that are located in the United States of America. This term is also used to mean of or relating to the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the U.S. Virgin Islands, Guam, American Samoa, the Northern Mariana Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of the Marshall Islands, and any other U.S. territory or possession (DoD, 2013).

Domestic military installations: Locations where there are military bases, forts, or camps (Posts and Installations, DoD 2015).

Homeland defense: The events on September 11, 2001 sparked an increase in research activities that develop systems for antiterrorism (Reynolds & Lawson, 2007). These systems use chemical and biological detection methods. Such systems are rapidly being integrated into homeland security systems to protect military personnel and the general public (p. 4).

Intelligence: Refers to any information collected about terrorist activity (Bedell, 2010). There are a variety of ways to collect this information. Diplomats and ambassadors from other countries may identify information and report it to their governments. Information may also be collected through electronic surveillance.

Objectives: The specific actions to be achieved in a desired time frame (Pushies et al., 2002).

Policy-process approach: Used to seek satisfaction for societal goals (Shipman, 1959).

Risk: Hazards are linked to probability and severity of loss (DoD, 2013). Agencies employ measures that determine the probability of risk and the degree to which the risk will result in loss. These measures are a part of risk management systems.

Risk management: A process of identifying, assessing, and controlling risks developing from operational factors and making decisions that balance the risk with the benefits (Briggs, 2012).

Social construction: A framework that implies that “path dependency will characterize two sections of the policy space: the conferral of benefits to advantaged groups and the delegation of punishments to deviants” (Schneider, Ingram, & deLeon, 2014; Schwandt, 2000).

Strategy: The methods or approaches that are taken to implement an objective (Pushies et al., 2002).

Target population: A concept that is developed from policy design literature that draws attention to how policy is purposeful (Schneider & Ingram, 1993). It also explains how policy attempts to achieve pre-established goals by changing the behavior of people.

Terrorism: The use of violence to intimidation the public (Bynam, 2015) using media to communicate the transmission of the threat (Ioana, 2015).

Weapons of mass destruction: Any chemical, biological, or radioactive agent that can cause death or damage on a widespread (Weber and Parthemore, 2015).

War on terror: The DoD (2006) recognizes the war on terror as a war of arms and ideas. The battle is fought not only on the battlefield but also through the promotion of freedom and dignity as alternatives to oppression.

Theoretical Frameworks

I based this study on three frameworks: (a) Schneider, Ingram, and deLeon’s (2014) social construction framework (SCF), (b) the policy process approach, and (c) risk management. The social construction framework is based on Laswell’s question of “Who gets what, when, and how?” (Schneider & Ingram, 1993, p. 334). The social construction of target populations was important for studying this target population because social

construction references the recognition of the shared characteristics or themes that make populations distinct. These shared characteristics are socially meaningful because they represent the culture in a particular environment; as a result, this point of social construction relates to research question one. The resulting factors are stereotypes created by politics, society, media, history, and other similar subjective sources. In research question two, I explore how the values and expectations of employees on the base impact the relationship between military personnel and civilians.

Researchers who have studied and applied the SCF have also found the need to understand how social constructions correlate to other policy phenomena such as explaining how policymakers influence the behaviors of personnel through policy changes (Schneider, Ingram, & deLeon, 2014). Using ethnography as the qualitative measure I identified how considering social construction framework and policy changes impact change in behaviors. Social constructions are applicable to various domains relative to policy process and policy design (Pierce, Siddiki, Jones, Schumacher, Pattison, & Peterson, 2014).

The policy process approach is an important practice in the decision making process in government agencies (Shipman, 1959). Policy-making is a linear process that includes six distinct steps. Policy-makers recognize and define the issue, identify alternative solutions for dealing with the identified issues, weigh the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative solution, select the option with the best solution, and implement the policy, and evaluate the policy if possible. Risk management also plays a vital role in the decision-making processes implemented for counterterrorism measures

on domestic installations. Military leaders use risk management in a variety of ways for decision-making; however, there are several frameworks and methodologies for calculating risks. Regardless of the actual type of risk management approach leaders decide to use, leaders must address the three basic components of risk management: (a) threat assessment, (b) vulnerability assessment, and (c) criticality assessment. I discussed Schneider, Ingram, and deLeon's (2014) social construction framework (SCF), the policy process approach, and risk management frameworks in greater detail in Chapter 2 to establish a foundation for my research.

Assumptions

Researchers base their methodological assumptions on philosophical elements of a research approach (Ponterotto, 2005; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Qualitative research is unique and requires the researcher to engage in the study to develop meaning (Creswell, 2007). First, the researcher is the primary instrument for obtaining data, and the researcher is primarily concerned with understanding the process for deriving meaning from the data. Second, fieldwork is both inductive and descriptive (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The researcher is responsible for using the results of the study to develop an understanding of the variables studied. The primary assumption of the proposed research is that the DoD will continue to employ civilian workers. Without this assumption, this research would not be important if the DoD only employed military trained personnel. Another assumption is that military installations will continue to be used across the nation. With a lack of military installations, this research would not be significant. Finally, I assumed that each participant is knowledgeable of the risk

assessments utilized on their domestic installation. If such personnel are not knowledgeable about the risk management programs on their installation, then it will be impossible to identify emerging themes.

Scope and Delimitations

The rationale for selecting civilians and military personnel is that military installations employ both types of employees. The military installation is located near the nation's capital; employees on the base are of diverse background. The sample is stratified and criterion based. The sample is also and limited to participants from this single base. Secondly, this study utilized ethnographic research to explore the risk assessments of terrorism. I used theoretical frameworks to focus on risk assessment management, social constructions for learning, and process policy theory. Additionally, the responses from participant interviews added value to this research even if it is only relative to the small sample studied.

Limitations

Due to the small sample used for this study, the results are not generalizable beyond the population from which the sample was drawn. While generalizability is limited there are other elements of the study, which can be potentially applicable to other settings. The geographical boundaries of the base, and the fact that the participants all live in a specific geographical area are possible boundaries for the study. As a result, the physical boundaries and organizational culture on the base may limit the results from being generalizable to other military installations. One limitation that emerged during the research was lack of diversity in participants which was unexpected. The demographics

of people working on the base is diverse, but because I used the snowball method, my participant pool was limited to the recommendations of participants. Subsequent participants gave me access to people that they knew which limited access to employees on the base.

There are also limitations to using ethnographic research. One primary limitation of ethnographic research is related to reliability. Ethnographic research is difficult to replicate because observation of participants occurs in a natural setting. Another limitation of ethnographic research is relative to validity. I could not control for external variables; the lack of control of external variables was also related to the conduction of the research in natural settings. Finally, this research included insight from both civilians and military personnel; however, the responses only provided insight from individuals stationed on a particular base relative to specific positions. Individuals employed in other positions throughout the base may have different perspectives especially individuals who have higher clearance than those who participated in the research.

Significance

The significance of this project was threefold: (a) to provide insight on how efficient the influence of counterterrorism policies, (b) to understand the communication and/or collaboration in training civilians and military personnel, and (c) to offer recommendations for improving antiterrorism policies using risk management procedures. The DoD (2012) identified domestic military installations, as one of the most targeted facilities for terrorism. Terrorists aim to yield changes in U.S. foreign policies that will minimize U.S. engagement with foreign nations. Hence, it is vital to understand

the risk, vulnerabilities and threats that influence the mitigation of terrorism and prohibit installation preparedness. Military installations are important because they domestically host the largest population of DoD personnel and facilities. Understanding installation preparedness is significant as Laurent (2004) explained how counterterrorism is a shared effort to avoid, identify, react, and defend military installations, its personnel, their families, and the infrastructure that is essential to the mission. Therefore, the results of this study could provide insight on the efficiency of influence of counterterrorism policies and the gaps that need to be improved pertaining to civilian employees working on military installations. This is vital as the gaps in policies identified post 9/11 that created a need for policy changes and implementations for all DoD facilities. The implications for social change include identifying possible recommendations that could increase national security and decrease risk. Understanding the connection between the findings and their impact on social change is a critical component of qualitative research (Patton, 2002).

This research was also significant because it provides perspectives from both civilians and military personnel as participants. Access to perspectives from civilians has been non-existent in the review of literature as such literature focused on the impact of antiterrorism programs on military personnel; however, civilians are critical to the military installation operations. Through my review of literature, I discovered that there is variance in the type of research that civilians and military personnel undergo which questions whether or not there should be conversation about cross-sectional training in antiterrorism programs. This gap can be explored in future research. As I interviewed

participants emergent trends were coded and identified based on comparisons in training objectives and activities. Military personnel are impacted by the occurrence of terrorist attacks on military installations; however, civilian employees comprise a significant portion of the individuals employed on military installations. As a result, it is important to examine their perspectives on risk management.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore how employees viewed the effectiveness of their base's antiterrorism program. I chose to use an ethnographic approach because I wanted to understand how such policies impacted the working relationship among installation personnel. Through this research design, 12 civilian and military personnel were interviewed. I recorded participant responses to the interview questions later analyzed them for identification of major trends and themes. I used audio and video equipment to record responses, and I used notetaking to increase accuracy. I used the interview as the primary source of data collection.

There is a growing need to understand the work culture relationship between civilians and military personnel to create antiterrorism programs that address the needs of both workforces. It is important to understand the views of employees for three major reasons: (a) vulnerabilities and gaps in training not only impact culture, but it also impacts one's sense of safety, (b) previous research has only focused on antiterrorism programs from the vantage of military personnel, and (c) civilians are employed on every domestic installation. Therefore, it is relevant to recognize how antiterrorism programs impact them. It is also important to consider how perspectives shape culture and how

such perspectives lend truth to reality since culture is a dominant force for social change because the culture of an organization is the realistic outlook at how things are done.

Future researchers can view the findings of this research from various lenses. Military leaders can strengthen the processes for antiterrorism risk management and policymaking by examining and learning more about the relationships of civilians and military personnel on military installations. Leaders can also advocate for the need to develop cross-training opportunities for civilians and military personnel as they are all considered employees of the DoD.

In the remaining sections of this study, I have provided a review of literature in chapter 2 specifically addressing significant weaknesses in the risk management assessments of terrorist threat, gaps in vulnerabilities assessments, and procedures for identifying asset criticality on military installations (DoD, 2013); a detailed account of the methodology I used including sample size, data collection, data analyses, and ethical issues in Chapter 3; results in Chapter 4; and implications for social change and recommendations and suggestions for future research in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review was to examine literature pertaining to components of antiterrorism and counterterrorism programs. This chapter is also an overview of literature pertaining to the qualitative ethnographic methods that I used to obtain information about the effectiveness of antiterrorism programs on a domestic military installation. The literature provided background information needed to understand the context of antiterrorism programs and the relationship between civilians and military personnel. The review of literature also includes literature about cross-training military personnel and civilians. Knowledge about these topics thinking processes for analyzing the emerging themes in relation to the research questions.

The focus of this literature review was to provide detailed information that would allow me to address the research questions, identify gaps in current literature, and broaden knowledge of the relationship between civilians and military personnel on domestic installations. In order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the work culture on domestic installations, the literature search strategy included an extensive review of research studies, current peer reviewed articles, and electronic journals. The Walden Online Library was the primary source for searching for literature.

In searching for literature regarding this topic, I realized that there was a need for more research regarding antiterrorism programs and civilians. There was also a significant gap in the literature regarding the work culture from the perspectives of both civilians and military personnel. To date, most of the studies about antiterrorism

programs have focused solely on military personnel. I designed this research to address gaps in literature about the perceptions of non-military personnel working on a military installation.

Literature Search Strategy

The primary topics and key words searched included *antiterrorism programs*, *counterterrorism programs*, *homeland security*, *homeland defense*, *risk management*, *social construction*, *civilians*, *military personnel*, and *domestic military installations*. In addition, I narrowed the search in using EBSCOHOST as a primary database and (a) PsycARTICLES, (b) PsycINFO, (c) SocIndex with full text, (d) Academic Search Complete, (e) Homeland Security Digital Library, and (f) Military and Government Collection as secondary databases. I also used texts on research methodology with particular respect to qualitative research and ethnographic principles and texts about Schneider, Ingram, and deLeon's (2014) social construction framework (SCF), the policy process approach, and risk management. I used Walden University's online library to secure access to articles and Amazon to purchase the texts. I use the reference list of some articles to select relevant texts.

Theoretical Frameworks for Antiterrorism Programs

Antiterrorism programs are research-based programs that use research concepts related to management and assessment (Vanderlinden, 2014; Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016, Decker, 2001). Effective antiterrorism programs include planning, program review, resource allocation, training and exercises, and risk management (DoD, 2014; Vanderlinden, 2014; Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016). I used Schneider, Ingram,

and deLeon's (2014) SCF, and the policy approach process antiterrorism programs are based on risk management. Researchers can use each theory to understand some element of risk management on domestic installations. However, collectively they provide a comprehensive understanding of the complexity and degree to which the government employs tools to be proactive in analyzing threats and thwarting threats to personnel safety.

Social Construction Framework

The theory of social construction and policy design emerged as researchers wanted to understand why public policies are not successful in meeting their purposes for solving problems (Pierce et al., 2014). Because constructionism can be applied to various contexts and perspectives it is often described with other prefixes such as social, cultural, historical, radical, strict, contextual, light, dark, micro, and macro (Lindgren, 2005, p. 5). In the context of this research, I am referring to social constructionism as it relates to the culture of the entire base. At the most basic level, social construction is a heterogeneous perspective that can be traced to two divergent philosophical traditions: interpretive and structuralist tradition, and this research, I used to interpret findings.

Burger and Luckman were the founders of social constructions (Pierce et al., 2014). They based their theory on eight assumptions, which are then divided into three categories. The major categories include the model of the individual, power, and the political environment. Assumptions for the model of the individual include the following:

- 1) Actors cannot process all of the information relevant to make a decision, and therefore rely on mental heuristics to decide what information to retain.

2) Mental heuristics filter information in a biased manner, thereby resulting in a tendency for individuals to confirm new information that is consistent with preexisting beliefs and reject information that is not.

3) People use social constructions in a subjective manner that is evaluative.

4) Social reality is boundedly relative where individuals perceive generalizable patterns of social constructions within objective conditions.

Relative to the category of power, the assumption is that:

5) Power is not equally distributed among individuals within a political environment” (Pierce et al., 2014, p. 5).

There are three assumptions of the political environment (p. 5):

6) Policy creates future politics that feeds forward to create new policy and politics.

7) Policies send messages to citizens that affect their orientations and participation patterns.

8) Policies are created in an environment of political uncertainty (Pierce et al., 2014).

These assumptions help shape understanding of social construction.

Schneider and Ingram (1993) discuss social construction from the context that policy-making is relevant to target populations. They contended that social construction of target populations is a political phenomenon that society often overlooks. According to Schneider & Ingram, social construction should be synonymous with public policy research as social construction influences policy agenda, the selection of policy tools, and

rationales that legitimize policy choice. Researchers use the concept of social construction to explain how constructions are embedded in policy, how constructions are absorbed by citizens, how constructions affect participation and orientation, and how as a result some groups are more advantaged than others (Schneider & Ingram, 1993, p. 334).

Schneider and Ingram's (1993) research on social construction is a result of a question that Lasswell proposed in 1936. Lasswell asked, "Who gets what, when, and how?" (Schneider & Ingram, 1993, p. 334). For Schneider and Ingram, social construction theory was important because it refers to the cultural characteristics of groups whose behavior and well-being are impacted by public policy. This solidified my decision to use social construction as a framework because I wanted to use ethnographic research with civilians as the target population to understand the cultural impact of risk management policies on the civilians.

Schneider and Ingram (1993) also believed that social construction of target populations has a powerful impact on public officials, and such construction shapes policy agenda and the actual design of policy. Citizens pressure public officials to provide beneficial to positively constructed target populations and provide punishment for negatively constructed groups (p. 334). Social constructs become embedded in policy, and policy dictates what the government should do and who they should do it for. Different target populations received different messages meaning that some messages are positively encouraging target populations to participate in various opportunities while others receive negatively constructed messages that encourage withdrawal and passive

behavior. For example, governments may urge some individuals to vote and discourage others from voting.

The social construction of target populations has two reference points (Schneider & Ingram, 1993). First, the social construction of target populations references the recognition of the shared characteristics that make populations distinct. These shared characteristics are socially meaningful. Second, the social construction of target populations references values, symbols, and images to the characteristics. The resulting factors are stereotypes created by politics, society, media, history, and other similar subjective sources. Examples of positively constructed factorial perceptions include honest, trustworthy, and deserving while negatively constructed perceptions include stupid, undeserving, and selfish.

Social constructions also have a powerful impact on political power (Schneider & Ingram, 1993). As aforementioned, constructions can be either positive or negative. In addition to that, power can be weak or strong. The researchers consider the elderly, business owners, veterans, and scientists to be the advantaged in terms of social construction and political power. According to Schneider and Ingram (1993) the elderly, business owners, veterans, and scientists are viewed with positive constructions and strong power, while the rich, big unions, minorities, cultural elite, and moral majority have strong power but also have negative constructions or stereotypes. These are also contenders. Schneider and Ingram viewed dependents as weak, but dependents also have positive constructions. Examples of dependents include children, mothers, and the

disabled. Schneider and Ingram explained that criminals, drug addicts, communists, flag burners, and gangs are deviants with negative constructions and weak power.

Using the SCF, Schneider, Ingram, and deLeon (2014) outlined who benefits from change and whether or not such change impacts the conditions of democracy.

Researchers use social construction to study specific target populations as “policies typically carve out certain populations to receive benefits or burdens and often embed positive or negative social constructions of the targeted groups” (Schneider, Ingram, & deLeon, 2014, p. 236). The developed constructions exist to justify the allocation of rewards or penalties within the written policy; such justification is critical for understanding democratic processes, for creating stereotypes that can explain the impact of public policy on society, and for delineating between citizens of various target groups. Through social construction policy analysis, policy analysts can identify who will benefit most from final policy decisions (Schneider & Ingram, 1993).

Schneider, Ingram, and deLeon (2014) correlated social constructions of this installation to other policy phenomenon that are needed to explain how policymakers can influence the behaviors of personnel through policy changes. Chapter 5 includes recommendations for policy changes from the social constructionist perspective in that such changes can improve antiterrorism training and resource updates and feedback which will assist with the mitigation of terrorism and improving awareness. Schneider, Ingram, and deLeon indicated how the SCF could be utilized to “conceptualize studies of interest group politics by considering the effect of past policy design on current debates” (p. 377). Hence, this framework is paramount to understanding the impacts of policy.

Intellectual Basis of Framework. The SCF emerged through the research of scholars who recognized that the political world is socially constructed through emotion, value-laden images, and symbols as opposed to objective representations of reality (Schneider, Ingram, & deLeon, 1994, pp. 238-239). Debates regarding policy are contingent upon interpretation; furthermore, emotions play an integral part in how people develop judgments and stereotypes. Schneider and Ingram (1988) first introduced the idea of the importance of studying target groups in public policy based on their “instrumental ability to serve policy purposes and not just because of their political power, but also because of the value-laden, emotional, and powerful positive and negative social constructions with which they are associated” (Schneider & Ingram, 1988, p. 63).

Social Construction Framework and Policy. The SCF is relevant to policy process research because policy process research studies the impact of interactions over time, public policy, and the people impacted by such policies (Schneider, Ingram, & deLeon, 2014). Factors relevant for study include individuals or groups of individuals identified as actors, specific events, various contexts, and policy outcomes. The events can be anticipated and unanticipated incidents such as elections, scientific discoveries, or crises that may be the direct or indirect result of public policy. Additionally, context could be relevant to socioeconomic conditions, culture, infrastructure, biophysical conditions, or institutional rules. Finally, outcomes can include short term or long-term consequences of continued interaction with the policy process. Understanding the impact of policy is important for determining if changes need to be made to the policy.

Based on participant responses, I used social construction and policy frameworks to explain current policies for civilians and to make recommendations for policies impacting civilians. Additionally, in using the social construction framework, I hoped to fill in the gaps that Laurent (2004) addressed pertaining to organizational efforts. Laurent noted that such efforts lacked uniformity in the command and control mechanisms used for the oversight and integration of installation preparedness signifying the need for more insight of the impact of such policies on civilians, a population that is traditionally ignored in risk management research.

Policy-Process Approach

Policymaking is a linear process with six distinct phases (Sutton, 1999). Key components of policy making include recognizing and defining the issue to be dealt with, identifying alternative solutions for dealing with the identified issues, weighing the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative solution, selecting the option with the best solution, and implementing the policy, and evaluating the policy if possible.

According to Shipman (1959), there was a distinct need for understanding the policy process as it related to government processes. He provided a caption that explained the need in the following manner: “When the policy-process approach is used, institutions and mechanisms of political organization, legislative action, executive administration, adjudication, and the rest merge into an intricately interconnected process for seeking satisfaction of societal values” (Shipman, 1959, p. 545). Lasswell (1956) also focused on policy process by presenting seven functional categories that are involved in the public policy decision process. These processes included intelligence,

recommendation, prescription, invocation, application, appraisal, and termination.

Lasswell's work was ultimately used to develop a policy cycle, which de Leon (1999) mentioned in his research regarding social construction framework.

Policy process research is significant for the decision-making in government agencies (Shipman, 1959); however, risk management is also a vital element in the decision-making processes implemented for counterterrorism measures on domestic installations. In researching policy process and risk management, researchers are likely to find connections with social constructions because researchers aim to find connections between the policies implemented and the target population (Schneider & Ingram, 1988; Schneider, Ingram, & deLeon, 2014). When I researched these terms independently, I consistently found patterns or connections between policy and social constructions and policy and risk management. I also found that there are several examples of policy process theories (Cairney & Heikkila, 2014).

In this research, I selected SCF as a theoretical framework, it is also an example of a policy process theory (Cairney & Heikkila, 2014). This revelation supports my claim that the concepts for this research are interconnected. Other examples of policy process theories include Multiple Stream Analysis (MSA), Punctuated Equilibrium Theory (PET), Diffusion of Innovations (DOI), Narrative Policy Framework (NPF), Advocacy Coalition Framework (ACF), Policy Feedback Theory (PFT), and Institutional Analysis and Development (IAD). As a policy process theory, researchers use SCF to explore policy dynamics and target populations. Because this research was conducted on a military installation, I considered PET as a possible theoretical framework, but there was

a lack of research to address many of the other factors considered here. For example, researchers who use PET are able to examine how political systems strive for stability and periodic major change (p. 367). Researchers who use PET as a theoretical framework can also study the critical factors that lead to major policy change; this approach would be more applicable for a study that will have a greater impact on the overall organization.

Risk Management Frameworks

Risk management is a decision-making tool that program leaders use to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of various alternatives based on risks and benefits (Briggs, 2012; DoD, 2013). The military uses risk management in a variety of ways to determine and make decisions (DoD, 2013; DoD, 2014; Vanderlinden, 2014); however, program leaders can choose from several frameworks and methodologies for calculating risks. Regardless of the actual type of risk management approach leaders decide to use, the approach must include all three basic components in order to be effective (Decker, 2001). These components include a threat assessment, a vulnerability assessment, and a criticality assessment.

A threat assessment allows leaders to determine how the organization can plan security measures and identify key efforts (Decker, 2001). Leaders use threat assessments to manage or reduce incidents (Albrecht, 2010) and to specifically identify the capability, intentions, and lethality of potential attacks in addition to other factors (Decker, 2001). Even though threat assessments cannot account for every potential threat, leaders can use them to minimize the frequency of incidents. Threats include opposing military forces, terrorist organizations, criminal organizations, threat intelligence operations, local

nationals, or any other individual or entity that seeks to harm personnel, military proceedings, or civilians (Military Intelligence Doctrine Writing Branch, 2003).

Leaders can also use vulnerability assessments and criticality assessments to prepare against terrorist attacks (Decker, 2001). Vulnerability assessments include processes that identify weaknesses that may be used by terrorists to carry out attacks. Through assessment, leaders can produce plausible options to mitigate those potential weaknesses. Commanders and program leaders need these assessments to supply accurate and timely information to visualize, describe, and direct actions across all operations (Ancker, 2001).

Criticality assessments are processes that leaders can use to identify and evaluate organizational assets based on the importance of its mission, those at risk, or significance of the organizational structure (Decker, 2001). Using a criticality assessment leaders are able to identify key assets and infrastructures for supporting the DoD's missions and are critical to military and civilian managers (DoD, 2013). Program leaders also use critical assessments to address the critical loss of such assessments on both a temporary or permanent basis; costs of recovery in the form of time, money, and capability, and infrastructure are addressed. Criticality assessments are significant for ultimately providing a basis for prioritizing which assets require special attention and protection for an attack (Decker, 2001).

Antiterrorism risk based aid process. Dillon, Liebe, and Bestafka (2009) described how the antiterrorism risk-based decision aid could be used to prioritize antiterrorism measures. They used their research to streamline the processes for

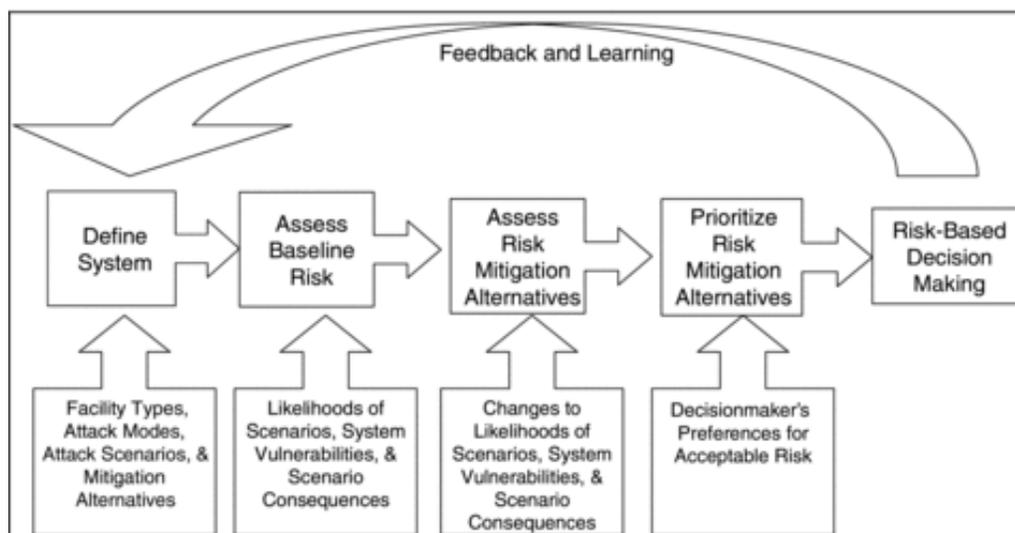


Figure 1: Dillon et al. (2009) outlined the procedures to follow in order to create reflective practices for understanding risk-based decision-making.

identifying the most pertinent threats that require the most immediate attention based on risk-assessment analyses. They argued that even though more funding has been allocated to combat terrorism, there is insufficient funding to address every threat. In order to identify the pertinent threats, there are procedures leaders should be followed to assess risks. Dillon, Liebe, and Bestafka referred to people who assess risks as assessors.

Assessors should 1) define the system to be analyzed; 2) assess the baseline risks to the system, assess the improvements to the system based on mitigation alternatives; 3) assess the cost of such alternatives; and 4) prioritize the mitigation alternatives to maximize the risk reductions based on cost-benefit tradeoffs (Dillon, Liebe, & Bestafka, 2009) (see Figure 1). Assessors can then use feedback and learning to create ongoing assessments and measures for risk based decision making.

Define system. In order to define the system, the assessor must examine the facility types, the attack modes, the attack scenarios, and the mitigation alternatives for the appropriate scenarios (Dillon et al., 2009). When assessors include more than one facility in the assessment of risks, there will be a greater opportunity to collect and analyze data.

Assess baseline risk. Assessors must develop a standard score to compare risk levels (Dillion et al., 2009). Assessors base the standard score on the likelihoods of scenarios, system vulnerabilities, and scenario consequences. The risk score is representative of the function of a facility's vulnerability to an attack scenario if the attack is successful, and the relative threat likelihood of the attack scenario (Dillion et al., 2009).

Assess risk mitigation alternatives. In order to assess risk mitigation alternatives, assessors must not only assess the standard score developed in the previous process for each alternative, but they must also consider vulnerabilities and potential changes to the scenario. Dillion et al. (2009) used various formulas in their own research to assess risk mitigation alternatives; however, these were not replicated here.

Prioritize risk mitigation alternatives. Once the assessor has assessed the risk, the decision-maker can use the data to prioritize the most justified decision. The decision-maker uses the information that the assessor gathered and produces the most reasonable risk. If the assessor fails to follow these steps, then the resulting decision is faulty. It is important that the assessor conduct the prior steps with fidelity in order to make the most appropriate decision. Using the risk decision based model, assessors have the opportunity

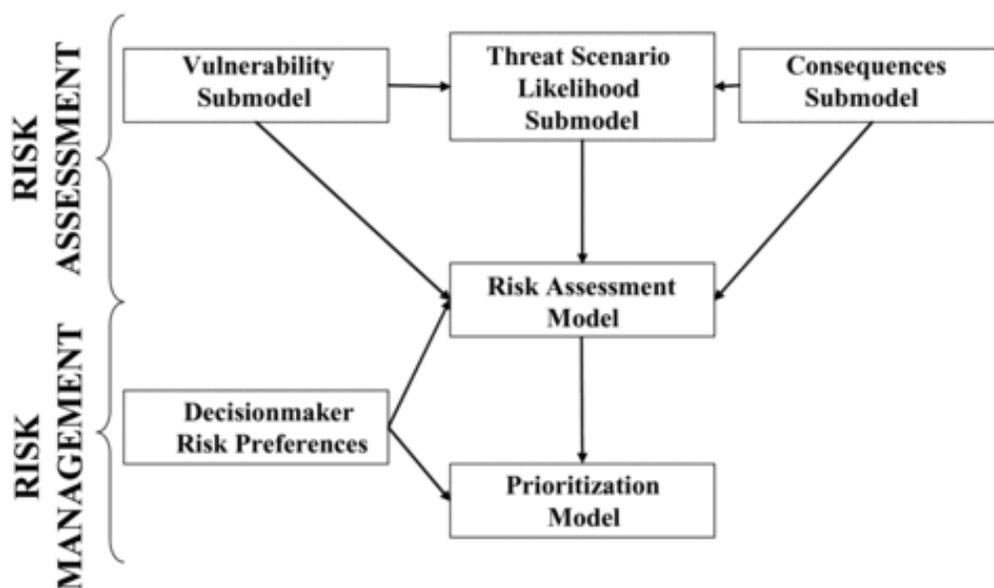


Figure 2.0: Leaders have to prioritize their risks to determine the most plausible response.

to reflect and determine the impact of their decision and to use feedback and learning to initiate the process again from the beginning (see Figure 2).

Government Accountability Office Risk Management. The Government Accountability Office (GAO) is a non-partisan agency that serves as a watchdog for Congress (2016). Employees in the GAO office report how the federal government spends taxpayers' dollars (GAO, 2016). Because the group deals with accountability as it relates to several federal agencies, they also research and report materials relevant to funding of counterterrorism efforts. While their role deals primarily with fiscal management, it is important to communicate how employees use cost-benefit analyses to determine which methods will be employed when combating terrorism.

Employees in the GAO deal directly with the way terrorism related information is shared (GAO, 2016). Leaders in the GAO have outlined several steps to minimizing risks

of sharing such information. Federal agencies can reduce sharing risks by focusing on several areas. Leaders in government agencies should (GAO, 2016):

- 1) Define, develop, and implement capabilities and technologies needed for sharing by developing automated means to determine who is authorized to access data and leverage successful initiatives that individual agencies can implement for the benefit of all homeland security partners.
- 2) Develop cost estimates for needed programs and initiatives that would allow decision-makers to plan for and prioritize investments.
- 3) Build information-sharing initiatives into agencies and enterprise architectures to help align technology investments as a way to promote sharing.
- 4) Establish a system of accountability to track progress and measure the information-sharing and homeland security benefits achieved to inform investments.
- 5) Include ways to measure the benefits the government is earning from multimillion-dollar federal investments in state and local entities supported in part with federal funding and personnel that coordinate with sharing information related to criminal and terrorist activities as such state and local agencies assist will filling in gaps of information the federal government cannot address.
- 6) Assess the impacts of the government's uses of the terrorist watch-list to screen individuals for threats on agencies and the traveling public to ensure that the use of the list is effective and as intended.

Publishers of the GAO manual provided thorough guidance for safe data sharing as risk management assessments are critical to antiterrorism programs.

Military Installations

The United States government is committed to deterring domestic terrorism, which is evident by measures employed through risk management assessments and evaluation tools (DoD, 2013). The perception is that terrorists are international threats to security; however, DoD employees have performed acts of terror on domestic installations as evidenced by the real life examples provided later in the chapter. When assessors are considering using risk management tools to identify threats and vulnerabilities (Dillion et al., 2009), they must account for personnel who assess to various levels on the base, are knowledgeable about the day-to-day operations on the base, and who are authorized to carry weapons on the base.

In 1991, the DoD employed approximately 1.9 million men and women in the armed forces (Cragg, 2000). In 2000, the DoD only employed 1.3 million. As a result, the DoD has relied more heavily on the civilian population to continue with its mission of protecting the nation's borders. In 2014, there were 3,552,634 military personnel nationwide (DoD, 2014). There were also 856,484 civilians; this figure includes appropriated and non-appropriated civilians. The distinction between appropriated and non-appropriated links back to salary schedules and allotted benefits. The demographic composite of such personnel included 1,326,273 DoD active duty military personnel; 39,454 DHS active duty coast guard members; 1,101,939 DoD ready reserve and DHS coast guard reservists; 214,784 members of the retired reserve; and 13,700 standby

reservists. The DoD's active duty and DHS's coast guard active duty members (38.4%) account for the largest sections of the military force. Ready reserve members make up 31.0% of the military force followed by DoD civilian personnel (24.1%). Active duty and civilian personnel are essential to effective function of the DoD; as a result, I wanted to include civilian participants in my research to examine how their perspectives are relevant for understanding how social construction frameworks either have been used or can be used to develop or improve counterterrorism policies on military installations. In the rest of Chapter 2, I provide insight on research about antiterrorism programs, identified gaps in previous research, and more in-depth analysis of the theoretical frameworks that are used for addressing the context of this research.

Antiterrorism Programs

The strategic vision for the war on terror is two-fold (DoD, 2006). The first priority is to defeat violent extremism as a threat to the American way of life and the creation of a global environment that is unreceptive to violent extremists and their allies (p. 7). The DoD has experienced both successes and failures. Examples of successes include (DoD, 2006, p. 3):

- 1) Al-Qaida has lost its safe haven in Afghanistan; this has helped to establish a democratic government in the place of a repressive Taliban regime.
- 2) Most of the Al-Qaida network responsible for the September 11 attacks have been captured or killed.

- 3) Nations rallied together to fight terrorism with unprecedented support and cooperation from various disciplines of government including law enforcement, intelligence, military, and diplomacy.
- 4) Countries who were contributors to the problem pre-9/11 are now part of the solution; this process has been completed without destabilizing friendly regimes.
- 5) The DoD has strengthened its ability to prevent future attacks by enhancing counterterrorism through the creation of the Department of Homeland Security. The creation of this department has allowed the United States to thwart terrorism attacks inside the country's borders.

Despite these successes, there have also been challenges. These challenges only account for a portion of those listed (DoD, 2006, p. 4):

- 1) Because the United States and its allies have decentralized terrorist networks and terrorist cells, extremists are more dispersed. Extremists rely on small cells to carry forth acts of violence.
- 2) The United States has not been able to prevent all acts of terror. Terrorists have also been able to carry out attacks across the world.
- 3) Improvements to air, land, sea, and border security has increased immensely; however, the homeland is not immune to an attack.
- 4) Terror networks have vowed to gain access to weapons of mass destruction to initiate attacks against the United States and its allies.

- 5) Increasing technology advances have allowed extremists to spread propaganda and recruit and train others to join their battle.

These challenges support the notion that all DoD employees must be cognizant of the skills needed to protect the nation's borders and bases.

The DoD outlines how antiterrorism security measures are integrated and synchronized through the Army Protection Plan (Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016). These measures are aligned with the DoD's (2006) strategy for winning the war on terror, which includes a long-term approach and a short-term approach. The long-term approach is to continue to advance democracy as terrorism stems from political alienation, grievances that are often blamed on others, subcultures of conspiracy and misinformation, and ideology that justifies murder (p. 9-10). There are four priorities of action to advance short-term goals. These priorities include preventing attacks by terrorist networks, denying weapons of mass destruction to terrorist allies, denying terrorist supports in rouge states, and denying terrorists control of nations as a launch site for activity.

Antiterrorism programs are based on a set of standards of responsibility (DoD, 2017). The Army Protection Plan provides a holistic framework for management shows how physical security and antiterrorism measures are linked. Such synchronization allows for more effective risk management for soldiers, civilians, contractors, family members, facilities, and infrastructure. The plan also outlines Antiterrorism Standard 13 as it pertains to the goal of physical security on military installations (Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016). Requirements of this standard include 1) the development of a

holistic security system to counter terrorist capabilities; 2) the establishment of a multidimensional defense; 3) the integration and synchronization of detection, assessment, delay or denial, communications, and the capabilities to response; and 4) the coordination and integration of tenant and unit plans and measures. Antiterrorism programs are used domestically and in foreign nations to thwart terrorism (GAO, 2008).

The Army's antiterrorism program uses a risk-based approach (Vanderlinden, 2014; Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016). Army commanders consider a balance between day-to-day activities and the probability of an attack when developing security measures (Ancker, 2001). The field manual for antiterrorism programs contains in-depth information regarding the focus of antiterrorism programs (Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016). Procedures and tools used in such programs include threat assessments, criticality assessments, vulnerability assessments, and risk assessment concepts and tools (Vanderlinden, 2014). The theoretical foundation for these concepts are explored in Chapter 2 as well.

DoD Trainings for Antiterrorism on Military Installations

The DoD (2009, 2014) outlined the responsibilities of senior leadership to communicate training responsibilities to DoD employees. The DoD uses laws, regulations, Executive Order, and other official memorandums to create training mandates. DoD employees have access to a range of training as such training is essential for the effectively defending the nation. The DoD (2014) outlined the auspice of antiterrorism programs and other training programs for civilians. Accordingly, civilians must undergo "Level I awareness training to orient all civilian personnel on general

terrorist threat and personal protection measures that could reduce vulnerability to acts of terrorism” (DoD, 2014). DoD contractors can participate in this training as well as outlined since they are not considered military personnel.

Civilians can also participate in counterintelligence awareness training (DoD, 2013). This training promotes threat and reporting awareness responsibilities which enables the DoD to identify threats and report suspicious incidents and activities to the appropriate authorities. Counterintelligence training could be combined with other security based trainings. Civilians must also undergo operations and physical security trainings. Operation security is provided annually to program managers based on their responsibilities. The operation securities program is based on command involvement, assessments, surveys, education, threat, resourcing, and awareness (DoD, 2013, p. 22); physical security training is provided so that employees are able to understand their day-to-day security responsibilities and vulnerabilities of the facility. Civilians must be prepared to implement emergency security actions to safeguard personnel and property to prevent unauthorized access.

Relevant Historical Analyses of Terrorist Activities

Radical ideals about hatred, oppression, and murder has sparked the war on terror as a transnational movement (DoD, 2006). Between 2001 and 2013, there were 43 attacks on federal buildings or officials with 2010 and 2013 accounting for the majority of the attacks (United States Department of Homeland Security, 2015). A weapon or harmful agent accompanied the assailant in all of the attacks, regardless of whether or not anyone was actually harmed. Lone assailants committed thirty-five attacks, and three attacks

were conducted by two or more assailants. In the five remaining attacks, there is insufficient evidence to tie assailants to the crimes. Military personnel were target in one-third of the attacks; however, most of the attacks occurred against executive branch facilities and personnel.

In June of 1994, Airman Dean Mellberg opened fire at the Fairchild Air Force Base hospital near Spokane, Washington (NBC Washington, 2015). Mellberg killed four people and wounded 23 before a security officer killed him. Among the people included two psychiatrists who recommended that he be discharged from the military. After shooting and killing them, he proceeded through the hospital firing at anything that moved. He ultimately killed two more people and wounded 23. At the time, the killings represented the worst mass murder in Spokane County, Washington.

Less than a year later, on October 27 1995, Sergeant William J. Kreutzer, Jr., opened fire at Towle Stadium killing one and injuring nineteen soldiers of the 82nd Airborne Division (XVIII Airborne Corps, 2009). The soldiers were stationed at the Fort Bragg, North Carolina military installation. While the soldiers were conducting physical training Kreutzer hid behind a tree and proceeded to shoot the soldiers one by one. Three members of a Special Forces unit were able to sneak up behind him and tackle him. Kreutzer was charged and convicted of premeditated murder, 18 specifications of premeditated murder, a violation of transporting weapons on post, and larceny of government property. Kreutzer was originally convicted and sentenced to death in March 2004; however, a three-panel judge overturned his sentence. The presiding judge at Fort

Briggs changed Kreutzer's sentence to life in prison with a reduction in rank to E-1, a forfeit of pay and allowances, and a dishonorable discharge.

In October and November of 2010, Marine Corps reservist Yonathan Melaku committed a series of drive-by shootings at various military installations located in northern Virginia (MNBC, 2016). No one was harmed in the drive-bys, but when Melaku was arrested he had the materials and equipment to make bombs in his car. He was sentenced to 25 years in prison. Even though there were no deaths in this case, this example will be important for understanding the opportunity for such events to occur on military installations.

On November 5, 2009, U.S. Army Major Nidal Hasan shot into a crowd of soldiers killing who were waiting for medical appointments in the waiting area of the Soldier Readiness Processing Center at Fort Hood, Texas (United States Department of Homeland Security, 2015). The Subcommittee on Oversight, Investigations, and Management of the Committee on Homeland Security House of Representatives (House of Representatives Subcommittee) (2012) met on Friday, September 14, 2012, to provide insight on gaps between information and action. The Subcommittee had discovered that Hasan had emailed radicalized Muslim cleric Anwar al-Awlaki on several occasions with the following account providing a detailed look into Hasan's premeditated intent to commit the terrorist act (House of Representatives Subcommittee, 2012, p. 20):

I heard a speaker defending suicide bombings as permissible. He contends that suicide is permissible in certain cases. He defines suicide as one who purposely takes his own life but insists that the important issue is your intention. Then he

compares this to a soldier who sneaks into an enemy camp during dinner and detonates his suicide vest to prevent an attack that is known to be planned the following day. The suicide bomber's intention is to kill numerous soldiers to prevent the attack to save his fellow people the following day. He is successful. His intention was to save his people, his fellow soldiers, and the strategy was to sacrifice his life. This logic seems to make sense to me.

Research into Hasan's past revealed that the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) had identified him as a potential threat to national security based on this emails to al-Awlaki in 2008. Additionally, he had been identified by his colleagues and supervisors at the Army Reed Medical Center as a ticking time bomb; yet, as a psychiatrist, he was responsible for counseling soldiers who returned from Iraq despite his own radical Islamic views. Despite displaying radical views in support of the Islamic state on several occasions, Hasan was deemed a risk or threat to national security until it was too late. Hasan shot more than 200 rounds of ammunition killing 13 people and injuring 32.

On September 16, 2013, Aaron Alexis fatally shot 12 people and injured 4 others at the Navy Yard in Washington, D.C., where he was working as a civilian contractor (U.S. Department of the Navy Office of the Chief of Information, 2013). Like Hasan, Alexis had exhibited questionable behavior prior to this fatal incident; however, the employing agencies never contacted the government regarding Alexis' behavior. According to policy, Alexis' access to the Navy Yard would have been revoked had this information been disclosed. Using valid credentials Alexis had entered the Washington Navy Yard with a concealed shotgun. An investigation into the incident resulted in two

major findings (U.S. Department of the Navy Office of the Chief of Information, 2013, p. 3): 1) the shooting could have been avoided if the appropriate procedures were followed on the date of the shooting. Specifically, the contractor failed to follow risk management protocol to interrupt the shooting that occurred on September 16, 2013. 2) The contractor also failed to provide oversight that would have thwarted Alexis' involvement with the military installation. In other words, disclosure of events in Alexis' life would have prevented him from serving as a contractor on the installation.

Three examples of negligence on the part of the contracted organizations included the following (U.S. Department of the Navy Office of the Chief of Information, 2013, p. 3):

1. Senior managers at the information technology company "The Experts," a subcontractor to HP Enterprise Services, LLC, for the Navy Marine Corps Intranet Continuity of Services Contract, failed to meet their contractually required responsibility to continuously evaluate their employee Alexis and report adverse information to Department of Defense Central Adjudication Facility and U.S. Navy installation commanders. Specifically, the company leadership decided not to inform the government of adverse information concerning Alexis' emotional, mental, or personality condition, even when they had concerns that Alexis may cause harm to others, as required by the National Industrial Security Program Operating Manual.
2. HP Enterprise Services, LLC, the prime contractor for the Navy Marine Corps Intranet Continuity of Services Contract, failed to meet their contractually-

required responsibility to continuously evaluate Alexis and report adverse information to Department of Defense Central Adjudication Facility and U.S. Navy installation commanders. Specifically, HP Enterprise Services, LLC, did not inform the government of adverse information concerning Alexis' emotional, mental, or personality condition, as was required by the National Industrial Security Program Operating Manual.

3. Department of the Navy Central Adjudication Facility did not resolve important questions that arose from gaps and inconsistencies in the investigation report and failed to retain the required record of its adjudicative process. This hampered the investigation's ability to understand the factors that led to Department of the Navy Central Adjudication Facility's decision to grant Alexis a SECRET security clearance.

Investigators identified various shortcomings of the business that actually hired and employed Aaron Alexis on the domestic installation (U.S. Department of the Navy Office of the Chief of Information, 2013). Additionally, the reporters used strong words that suggested that through clear communication the incident could have been avoided or thwarted. Based on my research about risk management, there were likely signs of what was to come (Dillion et al., 2009). By examining individual cases of violence on domestic installations, researcher can gain insight into the individual circumstances that led to deadly attacks. Researchers can then combine these findings to developing meaning and a platform for discussing theoretical frameworks regarding risk analyses.

Gaps Identified in Previous Research

There are several gaps in literature regarding the relationship between military personnel and civilians on military installations. Few, if any, studies compare and contrast both perspectives on antiterrorism programs. Brown and Routon (2016) investigated variance in employment aspirations between military and civilians; however, their research focuses primarily on earnings. Other research about the relationship between civilians and military personnel focus on the Army's civilian leadership program (Hall, 2016); Aliano and Mackenzie addressed the divide between military personnel and civilians. The Army's Civilian Leader Development Program is a structured opportunity for the Army to create a cohort of innovators within the civilian workforce.

One research has addressed the divide between civilians and military personnel. Aliano and Mackenzie (2016) examined the role of the DoD in improving the relationship between civilians and military personnel. Aliano and MacKenzie contended that the divide is relative to the relationship between military personnel and civilians in general. For example during and following military service, most military members live separately from society (p. 48). Most military personnel are concentrated in only five states: California, Virginia, Texas, North Carolina, and Georgia. Adding to the divide are budget cuts. Lunney (2015) suggested that the if the military replaced military personnel with civilians, the DoD could money. However, competition in the workforce does little to mend the divide. Instead, competition is a factor that increases separation.

Aliano and Mackenzie (2016) identified two dangers of the divide. First, it is far too easy for civilian leaders to abuse the status and structure of the military. Fewer

civilians know someone in the military, which makes it easier to support going to war. The military is known for its excellence and readiness; however, government leaders must continue to communicate the importance of the military to the American people. Second, the military's core values are in jeopardy as the divide increases. This happens when leaders base decisions more on the political impact instead of going through the appropriate chain of command. If military leaders chose to ignore their constitutional obligation to the American people to implement just practices, the result would be devastating. However, the DoD has the means and the resources to address these gaps as the DoD controls half of the United States' discretionary budget and is the largest employer in the United States. As an employer of both military personnel and civilians, the DoD has a responsibility to the people of the United States to consider solutions for addressing the divide.

Civilians are often portrayed as unarmed individuals who are helpless in the face of war (Barter, 2012); however, civilians are offered strategies in that they may survive high-pressure situations. Some states have replaced armed military personnel with armed civilian contractors (Schaub, 2010). Civilian defense forces also exist to provide localized support and security (Peic, 2014). The military uses defense forces to combat civilian uprisings in warring countries. Due to the varied perspectives on civilians and military personnel, it is important to distinguish civilians and military personnel far beyond such as "armed" and "unarmed". In 2011, civilians were included, for the first time, in the Center for the Army Profession and Ethic's definition of the armed profession (Hynes, 2015). For the purpose of this research, civilians are defined as people who has not

officially enlisted in the Armed Forces (DoD, 2014; DoD, 2013; Schaub, 2010; and Hynes, 2015). A contributing factor to my decision to explore this topic was the perspective that civilians and military personnel have an obligation to develop unity (Dubik, 2015). I believe that if we can strengthen the culture of the relationship between military personnel and civilians, we can build a stronger Army because we would be able to operate as a more cohesive unit.

Summary and Conclusions

Throughout this literature review I have provided perspectives from various researchers that revealed how there is limited access to studies about antiterrorism perspectives from both military personnel and civilians. Researchers of most of the referenced studies examined antiterrorism programs from a legislative or policy perspective instead of from the perspective of the people such policies impact. Despite the lack of in-depth research about such perspectives, various researchers contributed to my understanding of risk management. Risk management is a major component of all antiterrorism programs and can be developed using a variety of measures as the DoD (2009, 2013) utilized strategic measures to minimize terrorist attacks.

Researchers of various studies in this section also revealed that risk management is complex in that it calls for assessment of threats, vulnerabilities, and criticalities as well (Vanderlinden, 2014; Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016). Assessors have access to measures that create preparedness with regard to management of fiscal resources and time. It is from these perspectives that the DoD develops policies that outlines mandates planning, programmatic review, training and exercises, risk management, and resource

application as effective tools for antiterrorism programs. Using theoretical frameworks regarding policy making and policy design I examined the cultural impact of antiterrorism and counterterrorism policies on military installations as it is more important now than ever before to understand how antiterrorism programs can be improved for the sake of DoD civilians and military personnel.

Laurent (2003) noted that there are gaps in research regarding the impact policies on DoD employees. This research has provided access to this insight. Much of the research in this review has also revealed the difficulty in preventing all acts of terrorism. Unfortunately, there are far too many examples of acts of terror on military installations. One of the reasons that terrorism is difficult to prevent is that there are several examples (Anckar, 2001). Other researchers examined the divide between civilians and military personnel (Aliano & Mackenzie, 2016). Brown and Routon (2016) made distinctions about the civilian and military workforce; however, Barter (2012) explained that some civilians have the opportunity to apply for armed civilian positions. There are also leadership opportunities as civilians (Hall, 2016).

The researchers whose studies and works were used in the review of literature have helped to establish a sense of awareness; however, there were gaps in understanding the base culture and the role antiterrorism training plays in uniting civilians and military personnel to collaborate to minimize physical security threats. Researchers can use social construction framework to explore how policy-making effects target populations. In investigating risk assessments in decision-making, I found that the most appropriate decisions should be based on the assessment of risk using the ARDA. Additionally, the

DoD (2013) has outlined its roles and responsibilities in national security measures designed to keep their employees safe.

From this standpoint, it is evident that this research was necessary to understand the perspectives that DoD personnel offer. While the theoretical frameworks discussed are well-known theories relative to decision-making and social construction, more research is needed to understand how these theories relate to concepts that will be derived from interviews with personnel on military installations. Single researchers or the same combination of researchers conducted most of the research. Nevertheless, the research on policy-process approach provided insight on how research about social construction was developed. Such research may ultimately bridge the gap between policy design and policy implementation and theory and practice for military personnel staged on military installations. In Chapter 3 I have outlined the steps taken to collect valuable data from civilians and military personnel to understand the impact of antiterrorism policies on the culture on military installations.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the research methods that I employed in this study. These elements include the research design, methodology, sample selection criteria, data collection methods, analyses, interpretation, role of the researcher, criteria for selecting participants, informed consent, and ethical considerations. This research was ethnographic in nature. Ethnographic research examines behavior from a social perspective (Wilson & Chaddha, 2010). This includes how such behavior is shaped and constrained by situations and the relationship between understanding and interpretation.

The research questions that guided the research were:

1. To what extent have antiterrorism programs on military installations impacted the culture and reduction of domestic terrorism for both civilian and military employees?
2. How are risk management tools used on domestic installations to provide training for both civilian and military personnel?
3. What social constructions are applied to developing policies on military installations regarding terrorism?

Research Design and Rationale

Researchers use qualitative research to investigate how people interpret their experiences, how they construct the world around them, and the meaning they attribute to their experiences (Merriam, 2009). Moustakas (1994) provided a detailed explanation of the five models for understanding human perspectives: a) ethnography, b) grounded

theory, c) hermeneutics, d) empirical phenomenological research, and e) heuristic research. Researchers use ethnographic research to develop thick descriptions of the cultural aspects of people's lives. As a derivative of anthropology, ethnography can be beneficial in identifying elusive trends that are otherwise undetectable (Anderson, 2009). Ethnographers search for predictable patterns in the lived human experiences by carefully observing and participating in the lives of those under study (Angrosino, 2007).

I selected the ethnographic research design because this research design allows researchers to use inductive reasoning to develop meaning (Wilson & Chaddha, 2010). Such inductive reasoning is helpful for further understanding the phenomenon being studied (Willis, 2007 as cited in White, Drew, & Hay, 2009). Through this research, researchers are also able to integrate process for understanding culture; researchers specifically align questions to elicit responses about descriptions and interpretations of culture through the examination of shared values, attitudes, customs, norms, traditions, and perspectives (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In using ethnography, my goal was to use the experiences of research participants to identify inductively the common trends and concepts regarding the risks, vulnerabilities and threats that influence the mitigation of terrorism and prohibit installation preparedness.

The specific purpose of this study was a) to understand the effectiveness of antiterrorism programs based on the perspectives of civilians and military personnel, b) to determine how such training impacts the relationships between civilians and military personnel, and c) to reflect on impacts regarding social change and policy. Qualitative research is particularly used for a variety of reasons as it allows researchers to deal with

lived experiences (Creswell, 2013); qualitative research also can be used as a vehicle or means for social change (Patton, 1990). These are the reasons that I chose to use qualitative research for this study.

My Role as the Researcher

In order for qualitative research to be substantiated, the researcher has to be credible. One of the advantages of my work in this research is that I identify with the research participants. As a reservist in the National Guard and employee on a military installation, I readily identified with the participants. Schensul et al. (1999) examined the benefits of choosing a community or setting with which the researcher identifies. Although researchers cannot identify with every research participant as there are variances such as race, religion, and gender that cannot be dually held, there is still value in being able to communicate with individuals of similar interests.

Part of my training as Reservist included access to antiterrorism training. Additionally, we received extensive training on being vigilant about reporting any suspicious activity. This training is valuable as I relied on my own experiences in the Army to clarify questions that civilians and military personnel had during the interview stage. My experience also helped me to create trust between the interviewees and myself, and I was able to gather full responses from all participants. Because qualitative researchers can take on various roles as they observe their participants, it was important to maintain a balanced role.

As a resource manager and logistics officer with the Army National Guard I was interested in this research because I think that antiterrorism programs should be both

efficient and effective. I have witnessed gaps in security and I am concerned about the level of security and training that currently exist. I visit military installations on a weekly basis; as such, I realized how large the civilian population is on these installations and wondered what level of training they received since they are important for maintaining national security. Civilians are also responsible for preventing, deterring, minimizing, and reacting to terrorism. Therefore, it would be detrimental to ignore the benefit of obtaining their perspectives. Hence, evaluating how counterterrorism policies can provide insight about the effectiveness of current programs are helpful for determining if civilian and military personnel understand them.

Methodology

I used snowball sampling to collect data from participants using current participants as a reference to more possible participants. I also used criterion based procedures to target participants who met the research requirements. I also chose this type of sampling was to gain access to specific people who worked in specific areas of the base. According to Creswell (2013), snowball sampling is a nonprobability technique that is used to select research participants. My only criterion for selecting participants was that they worked on the targeted base. Snowball sampling is advantageous when participants are aware of other potential participants who meet the participation criteria (Schwandt, 2001).

Participants for this study ranged in age but were mostly African Americans. One drawback of the snowball method is that you are limited in the sample based on access. The sample size for the study was a total of 12 participants, six of whom were civilians

and seven of whom were military personnel. I formally requested consent for participation based on the names provided from my personal contacts, and I explained my role as the researcher for this study. I also explained that participation was voluntary and that there were no incentives for participation. I emailed contacts and asked them to refer me to someone who worked in one of the following locations. The sample size was sufficient for the type of research conducted. I contacted 22 people total for participation, and 12 agreed to participate. The only criterion regarding civilians was that they worked in one of the locations throughout the installation. Military personnel were coded as either military occupation specialists (MOS) for Marine or Army enlisted soldiers; Air Force Specialty Code (AFSC) for Air Force enlisted Airman; and Naval Enlisted Classification (NES) for Naval enlisted Sailors) and from different branches of services (Navy and Army).

Interviews

The primary source of data collection was through interviews. Interviews are helpful for getting participants to discuss their opinions and experiences (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, & Namey, 2005). Interviews also allow researchers to make connections with participants in a way that allows them to dive deep into discussions about the topic studied. Each interview lasted between 30-45 minutes. In each interview, I asked the participant a question, and I recorded thick descriptions only. In order to get specific responses to questions, I replayed the audio files and recorded responses by participants. The interview questions are included in Appendix C.

Informed Consent

Prior to conducting the interviews, I took the time to explain the purpose and details of the study to the participants. I explained to the participants that the details of the research would be used for academic purposes and that the findings would be shared with the base commander in the hopes that it would be used to change the way antiterrorism trainings are conducted on base installations. Initial contact was established through emails. Potential participants knew that participation was optional. Final scheduling of interviews was conducted in voice calls to the participants. We confirmed the time and place of each interview. I also used respondent validations to in order to maintain credibility of responses. I discussed this later in Chapter 3 as well.

Data Organization

Failure to organize data can lead to confusion when analyzing the data. Given and Olsen (2003) indicated that the purpose of data organization is to present the relevant information from raw data. I organized pertinent data in several ways. I used participant responses to compile transcripts of data. I placed these files in a folder on my computer, and labelled audio recordings from interviews using participant codes to avoid confusion. I loaded all computer-based information to Drop Box and locked the file so that I am the only person who can access them. I also backed up the data on an external hard drive and flash drive. Mack et al. (2005) suggested placing duplicate copies of information in different locations; my external hard drive is at work, and the flash drive is in my home office.

Throughout the data collection process, I conducted all transcription and data analysis on my home computer. I also password protected all of my work and created a checklist to remind me of everything I needed to do during the data collection process. The checklist included explaining informed consent and getting the forms signed, taking notes during the interview, explaining to the participants why I we were using an audio recorder, and asking questions to verify participant responses. All of the data collected will be kept secured in my home office for a minimum of 5 years as required.

Data Analysis

The data analysis method used in this research was content analysis. I developed meanings and relationships from the presence of certain words using content analysis. There are three primary approaches to content analysis: a) conventional content analysis, b) directed content analysis, and c) summative content analysis (Saldaña, 2013). Directed content analysis begins with a theory, and the codes are defined before and during data analysis. The pre-list of codes from this perspective are developed from theory or relevant research findings. I used the directed content analysis and NVivo 11 to code data. I also used conventional content analysis by using open-ended questions. I asked the participants 12 open-ended questions to gain their insight about their experiences with antiterrorism programs on their installation. At the end of all of the interviews, I compared and analyzed the responses using the theories as guides.

Transcription and Coding

Hatch (2002) explained that ethnographic researchers will continue to construct meaning from their research until they reach a point of information saturation. After each

interview, I transcribed the recordings and analyzed it to inductively make sense of participant responses. I then compared responses with thick descriptions and inferences and developed conclusions from the data collected. In order to code the data, I used NVivo to find trends.

NVivo is a qualitative software product that allows researchers to organize, analyze, and find trends in unstructured data such as interviews. Vivo coding is a specific type of coding that uses the participants' own language. Such coding is based on four elements: participants, behaviors, time, and place; Saldaña (2013) explained that social life happens at four coordinates and that this is the information that should get coded. I also coded the participants' responses based on their employment status, as civilian or military personnel, and recorded demographic data as well.

Coding is the process for organizing and sorting the data (Merriam, 2009). A code is also a symbolic assignment of a summative attribute (Saldaña, 2013). Codes serve as labels and assist in telling a storyline. When clustered together codes represent a pattern and assist in developing categories. These categories are about context, though, and do not represent meaning in isolation. These patterns are relevant to the context being studied.

It is also important to remember that the coding process is a cyclical process instead of a linear process (Saldaña, 2013). The codes link from the data to the idea and back to the data. This process includes the extraction of key concepts active experimentation or looking for patterns; examining the concrete experiences by looking at the data, transcripts, and notes; and using time to reflect and become familiar with the

data. To make this process cyclical, the researcher would then revert back to the extraction of key concepts. Researchers can use preset or open codes to label their data. I developed a list of codes prior to data collection based on the review of literature, and added emergency codes throughout the data process.

Issues of Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is a concept that has to be addressed in qualitative research, primarily because in qualitative research the researcher is the primary instrument for investigation and research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). There are various strategies that researchers can use to develop trustworthiness in their research. The most basic strategy that a researcher can employ includes ensuring that the research is rigorous by utilizing systematic but self-conscious research methodologies (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002). Without rigor, research loses its credibility and usefulness. Reliability and validity in qualitative research are substantiated through credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Creswell, 2013). These methods can include the use of categories, audit trails, peer debriefs, member checking, and result confirmations (Creswell, 2013; Morse, et al., 2012; Murphy & Yelder, 2010). I relied on triangulation, the use of categories, and member checking to strengthen issues with trustworthiness.

Credibility

When a study is creditable, there is sufficient rich data to support findings. In qualitative research, credibility is synonymous with internal validity. Credible research is also believable and true. The findings of the study should match reality (Merriam, 2009). Because the participants are the only ones who can truly legitimize the credibility of the

results (Trochim, 2001), the researcher must authentically capture the lived experiences of the participants and an in-depth analysis of participant responses (Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). Researchers can use various methods to triangulate or substantiate their findings. To do this, researcher must have the capacity to clarify and summarize the responses of participants while simultaneously be culturally sensitive in eliciting more detailed information (Morse et al., 2002).

The researcher is the research instrument in qualitative research, which means that the researcher is solely responsible for developing measures of credibility in the study (Golafshani, 2003). The credibility of the researcher is parallel to the credibility of the study in that the researcher has to be honest and open about the research purpose and design. I included in the appendix is a vita that outlines my experiences, and I also disclosed personal and intellectual biases that shaped my own thinking in developing this study. The viewed each interviewee as a professionally competent means for gathering information. There are also other methods for developing credibility in a study.

I used data triangulation in order to add credibility to the study. Triangulation occurs when two or more strategies are combined to enhance the confidence of the findings (Creswell, 2013; Morse, et al., 2012; Murphy & Yelder, 2010). In addition, triangulation encourages a more reflexive analysis of the data (Mays & Pope, 2000). Patton (2002) encouraged researchers to employ more than one method in research as single methods cannot sufficiently answer research questions. The use of multiple approaches enhances the derived reality. In this research, I used member checking, thick descriptions, and audio recordings with transcriptions to verify data.

Transferability

Research is trustworthy when it is transferable; researchers can use thick descriptions to increase transferability (Creswell, 2013); transferability refers to the extent that the findings can be expanded outside of the boundaries of the study (Merriam, 2008). In qualitative research transferability is synonymous to external validity (Moustakas, 1994). Guba (1981) categorized transferability as a perspective of applicability. Applicability is the degree to which research findings are applicable to other settings or to other settings with other groups of people. It is important to note that applicability and generalizability are not synonymous. Qualitative research has a unique feature in that researchers are able to examine naturalistic phenomenon in a targeted environment. However, Guba explained that key features of research can be transferable to a different setting. From this perspective, research findings meet this criterion when degree of similarity of the two contexts is strong or there is a strong goodness of fit.

In order for research to be transferable, other researchers should be able to review the step-by-step actions of this research, employ the same actions, and produce the same results. Snowball sampling was used to collect data from participants using current participants as a resource. Snowball sampling is a non-probability technique that is used to select research participants; the only criteria was that they worked on the targeted base (Creswell, 2013). Snowball sampling is advantageous when participants are aware of other potential participants who meet the participation criteria (Schwandt, 2001). Other researchers may find that snowball sampling limits their sample to a particular race or ethnicity depending on several factors. One factor included the race or ethnicity of initial

participants. The other is based on the composite of base employees. While the age of participants ranged in variance, most were African Americans.

The sample size included 12 DoD employees, six civilians and seven military personnel. I formally requested consent for participation, explaining both my role as the researcher for this research and that participation was voluntary. To solicit other participants, I emailed primary contacts and asked them to refer me to someone who worked in one of the following locations. Of the 22 people contacted, 12 agreed to participate. Participants had to be employed on this particular base, and military personnel were coded as either military occupation specialists (MOS) for Marine or Army enlisted soldiers; Air Force Specialty Code (AFSC) for Air Force enlisted Airman; and Naval Enlisted Classification (NES) for Naval enlisted Sailors) and from different branches of services (Navy and Army). Interviews were used to collect data. Each interview lasted between 30-45 minutes. I asked the participant a question, and I recorded thick descriptions only. I transcribed and coded the data later after replaying the audio files and recording responses by participant. I uploaded all documents to NVivo for further coding and analysis. Researchers can determine if the action steps employed substantiate the results of the study. Researchers can also determine for themselves if the research findings are generalizable beyond the setting in which they were applied (Beverland & Lindgreen, 2010).

Dependability and Confirmability

Dependability in qualitative research questions if the researcher will get the same results each time the study is repeated, and confirmability is the linking that occurs when

the findings and recommendations are supported through data (Moustakas, 1994).

Because the primary means for collection of data was through participant and researcher interaction, I addressed these particular issues of trustworthiness by first developing a cordial relationship of trust between the participants and me as the researcher. I also used thick descriptions, audio recording, and member checking to address trustworthiness. The demographic data was manually coded to identify basic participant data.

After each interview, I sent the participant their transcribed notes asking them to verify the accuracy of the responses. I placed the responses by the corresponding question. None of the participants had clarifications or corrections. Data triangulation is beneficial for accessing more insight into a topic, using multiple sources to confirm the same data, developing comprehension, drawing more accurate conclusions, and identifying inconsistencies. Each benefit is relevant for addressing trustworthiness.

Ethical Considerations

As alluded to in the previous section, building trust between the researcher and the research participant is a valuable component of qualitative research (Creswell, 2013). The literature in this section expands on the complexities of ethics as it relates to qualitative research (Creswell, 2013; Jorgensen, 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Schensul, et al., 1999). The researcher is obligated to respect the rights and needs of the participants (Schensul, et al., 1999). I adhered to all of the necessary steps that are outlined for qualitative research for Walden University which included: (a) obtaining written permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the study (IRB approval code 01-09-17-0478466); (b) clearly identifying the objectives of the research

verbally and in writing with research participants; (c) obtaining written permission from participants who participated in the study; (d) providing individual transcripts to each participant for verification; and (e) providing participants with the opportunity to review draft of the findings for clarification.

I employed research ethics throughout the research process by assuring research participants of their voluntary participation in the research study. I also informed them that they could withdraw from the study at any time, and that their responses would remain anonymous. Furthermore, I informed them that there were no risks associated with participation and reminded them of the overall objectives of the research study. I was able to use participant codes in the place of participant names after member checking data to ensure participant confidentiality.

I secured the transcripts of the audio files and participant codes on a password-protected file on my laptop and deleted the data after I transcribed and analyzed it. I kept the master list for member checking purposes only and have since been destroyed. The data is stored in my home office and will remain there for a period of five years as required by Walden University. There was no anticipated risk in participating in this research.

Summary of Research Methods

The qualitative research process is a unique approach to research in that analysis begins with the researcher as the coder. As the coder, the researcher uses experiences, background, and intent to review the data by engaging in the coding process. I used NVivo 11 to analyze the data so that relevant themes and illustrations could be developed

to address the research questions. Through this process, the researcher gains credibility by being transparent throughout each process. I employed ethnographic research methods and principles to collect data from civilian employees and military personnel; the purpose of the research was to gather insight and perspectives from DoD employees as it relates to the effectiveness of antiterrorism programs. According to the review in literature in Chapter 2, the DoD (2013, 2014) required DoD leadership to provide mandatory training on risks, securities, and antiterrorism for civilians and military employees based on their clearance so my goal was to understand the impact of such training.

Ethnography is derived from the social sciences and is used as a qualitative means of studying people, their cultures, and their environments (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 2009). Because this research focused on the context of the responses, the sample size of 12 was sufficient for this research. The snowball method was used to gather participants because selection was criterion focused, and I wanted to secure individuals who would willingly participate in the study. As a logistics manager with the Army Reserve, I did not want participants to perceive my research as a part of work as a DoD employee; instead I wanted them to understand my research as a student gaining information.

I interviewed participants, coded data, and developed trustworthiness as primary elements of this research. After securing participants it was important to communicate the purpose of the research and how their responses would be used. I developed the questions beforehand and scaffolded them in a way that demographic questions were first and the open-ended questions followed. I inserted various safety nets for trustworthiness to strengthen the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the

research findings. I used emergent themes from participant responses to further my research, which required me to include more literature in Chapter 2. In Chapter 4, I shared specific research findings, and in Chapter 5 I have included implications and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this ethnographic research was to examine the work culture of DoD personnel on a military installation. The specific focus was on the impact of counterterrorism policies on such personnel. I used a snowball sampling method and asked open-ended questions during interviews with participants. I compiled the findings based on descriptive analysis and interpretative analysis. The interview questions were based on the central focus of this research which include the following:

1. To what extent have antiterrorism programs on military installations impacted the culture and reduction of domestic terrorism for both civilian and military employees?
2. How are risk management tools used on domestic installations to provide training for both civilian and military personnel?
3. What social constructions are applied to developing policies on military installations regarding terrorism?

The results of this study are divided into three sections: preliminary findings, qualitative data analyses, and summary of qualitative data. The preliminary findings include demographics of the total sample. The next section contains results of thematic analyses of the qualitative responses; the last section contains a summary of qualitative data and results.

Preliminary Findings

The sample size of this study was small and was limited to civilians and military employees on a single base. In order to maintain confidentiality, I developed a code for each participant. I used the letter C (for civilians) and a corresponding number (for instance, C1, C2, C3, etc.) to code civilian responses and with the letter M (for military personnel) and a corresponding number (for instance M1, M2, M3, etc.). I assigned these codes to participants based on the order in which they were interviewed. The interview schedule was based on participant availability and my availability.

Eleven of the 12 participants were African American, and one was Caucasian. Seven were women and five were men. Seven research participants were between the ages of 25-34, two were between the ages of 35-44, and two were between the ages of 55-64. Only one participant was between the ages of 18-24. Seven participants were military employees (M1-M7), and the other five were civilians or contractors (C1-C5). Military occupations included three Army officers, one National Guard officer, one federal employee, an Army enlistee, and a Navy enlistee. Civilian occupations included a child and youth program assistant, a master planner contractor, a commissary clerk, an exchange clerk, and a service clerk.

Qualitative Data Analysis

In this section, I have included data from the interview questions and discussed emerging themes. I asked the interview questions in the following order:

1. How concerned are you with a potential terrorist attack on this base?
2. How vulnerable do you think your base is for potential terrorist attack?

3. What have you learned about antiterrorism? What or who was the source of the information?
4. What type of antiterrorism training have you obtained here, and how often is training conducted? Are follow-up opportunities provided?
5. Whose responsibility is it to mitigate domestic terrorism?
6. What are some ways you can mitigate domestic terrorism?
7. How effective and efficient do you think the antiterrorism training is?
8. What are the procedures in the event there is an active shooter in your office complex?
9. What are some recommendations for your current antiterrorism program?
10. Are there opportunities for civilians and military personnel to undergo risk management training together? If so, describe such opportunities in detail.
11. Describe the interaction between civilians and military personnel. How do such interactions impact the culture on the base?

I revealed the answers to these questions throughout the rest of this chapter.

I used content analysis to develop themes and patterns from the data. To develop these patterns inductively, I organized the responses based on trends, themes, and explanations. I collected data from the thick descriptions and coded them based on commonalities. In order to transcribe the audio recordings, I listened to each tape until I had transcribed each word. For some tapes this took five times, for others, this took up to seven times based on the participant's voice volume. Keeping accurate accounts of data and organizing data were beneficial to analyzing the results of the study. I grouped raw

data into segments and then coded and categorized the data based on meaning, participant type, and theme.

I developed some codes prior to the data collection process; however, other codes I developed other codes throughout the process. The codes that I developed beforehand included: active shooter, antiterrorism programs, concerned with attack, effectiveness of training, follow-up opportunities, interaction with personnel, recommendations, recommendations, training provided by, and vulnerability. All of these codes fit with overall category code: occupational responsibility. The responses were uploaded by participant code (M1-M7, C1-C5), and line by line coding was used to assign nodes to the participant responses. I used vivo coding for responses that did not fit into one of the pre-established codes. What follows is an analysis of the participant responses in relation to the research questions.

I analyzed participant responses using line by line analysis to maintain the language that participants used in their responses. Using participant responses also added to the credibility of the findings (Saldaña, 2013). I also used open coding to constantly compare participant responses. The primary question used when coding the data was, “What does the data suggest?” and “What specific evidence is provided to support the claim?” In Table 1, I have provided an example of how I used coding in this research.

Table 1

Open and Axial Coding of Participants' Interviews

	Participant Code	Transcript Excerpt	Open Coding	Axial Coding
How concerned are you about a potential terrorist attack on this base?	M-6	At my installation, I believe there is a balanced concern. Since this installations has a control entry and exit points before entering the base; our main building is somewhat secure. However, I believe my biggest concern is with personnel that have access to the installation. The contractors, civilian, and federal employees combine with the active duty component is considered a diverse population. Therefore, understanding their motives and backgrounds is essential to monitoring threats.	Awareness	Clearance of different types of personnel entering building Security measures in place Training based on job

Evidence of Trustworthiness

In order to establish trustworthiness, researchers have to address issues of credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability within the study (Creswell, 2007; Saldaña, 2013). I used member checking before and during the study to check the accuracy of responses during the study by repeating participant responses. I also checked the accuracy of responses after the study by emailing participants their transcribed responses allowing them to verify that the responses were theirs. To strengthen credibility, I used triangulation in the form of member checking and thick descriptions. To strengthen transferability I provided a detailed description of the research context. To strengthen dependability I provided vivid descriptions of the participant selection process, and I provided in-depth descriptions of the data collection and analyses processes. Dependability is also strengthened when thick descriptions are used (Saldaña, 2013). To strengthen confirmability, I recorded participant responses as provided and did not include my own biases in the responses. I avoided making assumptions and asked for clarity when needed.

The results presented here provide an interpretation of the 12 interview questions. The primary goal of data analysis was to identify common themes and interpret meaning from participant responses.

Occupational responsibility

After coding the responses and analyzing the data using the guiding questions, I recognized *occupational responsibility* as a major category. Most of the participants' responses were linked directly to the participant's occupation and job performance

expectations. For example, a comparison of the node antiterrorism and the node occupation revealed that seven participants knew little about antiterrorism. Further review of participant coding revealed that five of the seven were civilians. M-5 said, “I have learned that antiterrorism is defensive measures used to reduce the vulnerability of individuals and property to terrorist acts. My more educated understanding of antiterrorism comes from formal Anti-Terrorism Level II course and several other analytical courses.” M-7 added, “I am required to take 1 or 2 training courses annually. It consist of questions, situations to act through and a quiz. Although helpful, it will only help if people truly pay attention and use what is learned in everyday life.” However, C-4 viewed antiterrorism as an entity, defining it as “a group who tries to stop terrorism, domestic or cyber.”

Furthermore, C-4 provided more insight about antiterrorism training by connecting it to a brief class with a packet that the administration offered at work. C-4 also noted that the administration did not provide any follow-up opportunities for employees. In my thick descriptions, I notated that C-4 was the clerk at the exchange. In examining the roles and responsibilities of the clerk for the installation, the clerk is primarily responsible for ensuring the security and safety of the store (DoD, 2014). According to the DoD, though, all personnel are responsible for understanding their role in mitigating terrorism as either civilians or military personnel. There is an opportunity to clarify the role of the clerk in antiterrorism proceedings based on the context of the response as both C-3 and C-4 did not know if antiterrorism training was required.

One of my primary goals in this study was to determine the effectiveness of antiterrorism programs on a military installation; however, one emergent trend in participant responses was the lack of collaborative training between civilians and military personnel. This led to additional review of literature regarding the role of civilians and military personnel toward risk and security management. One of the participants offered insight on the lack of opportunity for collaborative training between the two types of DoD employees. M-6 was uncertain if any of their trainings met these guidelines even though civilian personnel do have annual training.

M-6 also said:

Well for us, it is very small so there is a lot of interactions between the civilian and military workforce. However, I do find at times that the civilian workforce is more reluctant to go through some of the training requirements that are often highly suggested for them to obtain. An example, would be the lack of participation from civilian workforce in an active shooter exercise or the anti-terrorism training. Although, first responders are those first on the scene that could help, if our military and civilian population is adequately trained it could be them. This type of thinking could save lives.

M-7 could not identify any opportunities for joint collaboration and presumed that training was based on the person's job.

Awareness

Another theme that was developed through analyses was awareness. Despite differences in employment and job responsibilities, there was consistency in responses

Table 2

Similarity in Responses

Question	Trending Response	Percentage of Similarity
How concerned are you with a potential terrorist attack on this base?	Not concerned/Hardly concerned	67.00%
How vulnerable do you think your base is for potential terrorist attack?	Very vulnerable	41.66%
	Slightly vulnerable	33.33%
What have you learned about antiterrorism?	See something/say something	75.00%
What type of antiterrorism training have you obtained here?	Mandatory training	50.00%
Whose responsibility is it to mitigate domestic terrorism?	Everyone's	50.00%
How effective and efficient do you think the antiterrorism training is?	Effective	41.66%
What are the procedures in the event there is an active shooter in your office complex?	Run, fight, hide	58.33%
	Hide only	41.67%
What are some recommendations for your current antiterrorism program?	More consistency	83.33%
Are there opportunities for civilians and military personnel to undergo risk management training together? If so, describe such opportunities in detail.	No opportunities	58.33%

about being aware of surrounds. See something say something was a common phrase that was used in many responses. In Table 2.0 I have outlined consistency in responses. Participant responses provided insight on the culture, roles and responsibilities, and expectations based on occupational responsibility.

Opportunity for Improvement

Many of the respondents suggested that there were opportunities for improving the antiterrorism program on the base. M-6 remembers the training being simple and to the point but wanted more elaboration because military personnel seemed to think that an attack could not happen on their installation. M-3 learned about antiterrorism from the annual antiterrorism day that is held on the base for all personnel. M-3 regularly monitors social media to avoid putting important information about military operations such as missions. M-4 believed that it is best to remain alert about surrounds at all times in order to remain safe.

Participants also shared their perspectives about the effectiveness of antiterrorism training. According to C-1, the training is “mediocre at best.” However, M-5 described it as “significantly effective and efficient at raising awareness, however it is not the key to fix our threat of domestic terrorism.” M-7 described it as “good information but again people need to use it” while C-3 believed that “the antiterrorism training is effective and efficient it shows you what to do in case of a terrorist attack.” Even though the responses varied with regard to the effectiveness of antiterrorism training, there was more consistency among responses about active shooters.

According to M-7, “active shooter training done quarterly, due to the incident from the last two years.” C-2 shared that employees should escape if they are able to do so. If they are unable to escape, they should take cover by hiding behind something solid in the nearest office, turn off the light, lock the door, and remain quiet until the authorities arrive.

One concern about active shooters came from C-4 who said that there is an evacuation plan but it is rarely practiced. In examining the relationship between occupation and perceived risk, only one civilian was unconcerned about an attack. The other participants who were concerned were military personnel. M-1, C-3, M-4, M-5, and M-6 were all concerned about potential terrorist attacks. M-1 said, "I am highly concerned with a potential terrorist attack because it seems like several of my co-workers are unaware of the basic procedures for safety. In addition, there are lot of security shortfalls in this particular building" C-3 added, "I am very concerned with a potential terrorist attack have on this base," but M-4 was not as concerned as M-1 and C-3. M-4 said that there was a moderate concern for an attack and that all employees should remain vigilant.

A thorough review of the literature and the interviews revealed a number of concerns on the military installation; however, the participants of the study also offered possible solutions. The participants mentioned a need for more consistent and effective antiterrorism training. Participants also mentioned how understanding that mitigating terrorism is the responsibility of all DoD personnel. When Army leaders explicitly outline antiterrorism course requirements and trainings throughout employment, they can assist with bringing about social and cultural change on the installation as it relates to risk and security management.

Most participants seemed to agree that there are opportunities for creating more effective programs for mitigating terrorism. These perceptions relate to policy because DoD policies establish training requirements for all employees. In updating DoD civilian

policies, there are opportunities for revision and refinement so that perhaps these policies will be more uniform with policies for military personnel.

Summary of Qualitative Data

Regardless of employment type, all participants provided insight of the realities they face on the installations where they are employed. Participant exposure to quality and effective antiterrorism training was described as more effective and more pronounced for DoD military employees; however, more military personnel were concerned about terrorist attacks even though they have more training civilians. Some participants felt that the military installation was vulnerable to terrorist attack and identify and understood that such attacks could occur by individuals who had clearance to enter the base. Others felt that there was a moderate risk of an attack. One common response was that if there was a suspected active shooter, you should seek cover immediately. Another common response was to report any suspicious behavior or activity.

The notion that there is fear about any type of attack on the base should be enough to warrant discussion at the very least about base practices and expectations. Understanding the impact of these practices and expectations could assist in thwarting future attacks. One respondent explained that experience has shown that a lone gunman could carry out such an attack. From this perspective, an update to preventive measures would be deemed worthy if it prevented only one attack.

In the next chapter the implications of these findings are discussed and explored further. Suggestions are offered for policy makers and DoD civilian and military leadership on potential solutions for creating more effective programs for security and

risk management, further education on antiterrorism programs, and how to improve the interactions between DoD civilians and military personnel. In addition, I have included suggestions for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this ethnographic study was to examine the perceptions of civilians and military personnel about antiterrorism procedures on their military installation. Prior to this study, there were limited empirical data about the cultural climate of DoD employees. The absence of such data justified the need for exploring this topic. In an attempt to address this gap in literature, I used a qualitative research methodology with an ethnographic design. Research instrumentation included in-depth surveys and a documented analysis of pertinent DoD literature. I selected the ethnographic approach for this study, because it was the most effective way to review the experiences of 12 civilian and military personnel. By using this approach, I gave participants the opportunity to provide a detailed description of their professional lived experiences, as a base employee.

The findings of this study have led to potential solutions for addressing gaps in literature and the concerns of DoD employees on installations. In the closing pages of this research, I have discussed the findings and recommendations for further studies on related topics. This chapter is divided into four sections: summary of the study, interpretations of findings, and implications for social change and recommendations for future research. I reviewed the findings in the summary section and examined the findings and theoretical implications in the discussion section. I have included recommendations in the implications section. The final section includes suggestions for further studies involving antiterrorism policies on domestic installations.

The primary goal of the study was to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent have antiterrorism programs on military installations impacted the culture and reduction of domestic terrorism for both civilian and military employees?
2. How are risk management tools used on domestic installations to provide training for both civilian and military personnel?
3. What social constructions are applied to developing policies on military installations regarding terrorism?

I used the interview questions included in Chapter 3 to guide this research. I have developed the findings based on an analysis of participant responses and supplemented findings with the review of literature to develop meaning.

Summary of the Study

In this ethnographic study, I examined the perspectives of DoD civilians and employees relative to antiterrorism policies and proceedings. This research was significant for (a) providing insight on how efficient the influence of counterterrorism policies, (b) understanding the communication and/or collaboration in training civilians and military personnel, and (c) offering recommendations for improving antiterrorism policies using risk management procedures. Snowball sampling was used to secure research participants, with the criterion being that all 12 DoD employees worked on a single domestic installation. My goal was to have an even number of civilians and military personnel, but there were seven military employees and five civilians. I used open-ended interviews to guide my interaction with participants. I conducted the

interviews at the Surratts-Clinton Library. The sample consisted of seven women and five men; 11 of the participants were African American and one was Caucasian. Seven research participants were between the ages of 25-34, two were between the ages of 35-44, and two were between the ages of 55-64. Only one participant is between the ages of 18-24. Although all of the participants worked on one military installation, this study illustrated the variance in their preparation and awareness of risk management and antiterrorism training.

Interpretation of the Findings

The core categories identified in the study were occupational responsibility, awareness, and opportunities for improvement. All of these elements are vital to risk management. However, when I disaggregated the themes (occupational responsibility, awareness, and opportunities for improvement) there was to be stronger degree of connectedness among themes. These sub-categories include: (a) occupation, (b) antiterrorism programs, (c) effectiveness of training, (d) concern for attack, (e) vulnerability, (f) frequency of training, (g) follow-up opportunities, (h) active shooter, (i) interactions, (j) recommendations, (k) source of training, (l) suspicions, and (m) response.

A major finding identified in this study was that participant exposure to risk management training was based on their occupational responsibility. Most of the participants expressed some awareness of the base's antiterrorism trainings even if they were unaware of the specific name of the training. At the very least, the participants could identify ways that they could reduce risks by reporting suspicious activity. The literature regarding antiterrorism programs revealed that the Army uses a risk-based

Table 3

Unilateral View of Categories

Core Category	Sub-categories
Risk management	Occupation Anti-terrorism programs Effectiveness of training Concern for attack Vulnerability Frequency of training Follow-up opportunities Active shooter Interactions Recommendations Source of training Suspicious Response

Table 4

Categories Grouped as Themes

Core Category	Sub-categories with Related Themes
Occupational responsibility	Occupation- frequency of training, effectiveness of training, follow-up opportunities, source of training, concern for attacks, active shooter, recommendations, interactions, response
Awareness	Concern for attack- occupation, vulnerability, suspicions, response
Opportunities for improvement	Anti-terrorism programs- effectiveness of training, frequency of training, follow-up opportunities, source of training

approach (Vanderlinden, 2014; Owczarzak & Vanderlinden, 2016). Additionally, planning for security measures are based on the probability that an attack will occur and the day-to-day activities (Anchker, 2001).

There was a connection between many of the themes (See Table 4.0). For example, occupation was an important determinant for employee exposure to antiterrorism training and programs as some employees have more clearance than others. In addition, responses about the effectiveness of such training were also connected to occupation as military personnel had more knowledge and awareness of training. The DoD (2014) communicates expectations to employees through on-site and online training. These trainings provide procedures and tools based on threat assessments, vulnerability assessments, criticality assessments, and risk management assessments (Vanderlinden, 2014). Employees with secret security clearance have access to more training, prevention, and security management than employees without such clearance. In addition, these employees are more aware of the specific ways that terrorism can be mitigated.

The second finding was that it is everyone's responsibility to report suspicious activity. Even though the degree of awareness about the frequency of training and the effectiveness of training varied, the common perception was that all personnel have a role in mitigating terrorism by reporting suspicious activity. "See something say something" was a commonly used phrase, and it is apparent that this phrase is included in some of the antiterrorism coursework. The DoD (2014) mandates that all personnel undergo antiterrorism training with one of the additional requirements being a program review. This study revealed that there are inconsistencies regarding personnel responses and that there is an opportunity to provide more consistent follow-ups for all personnel.

The last finding was that there are few opportunities for collaboration among DoD personnel. Aliano and Mackenzie (2016) explored the divide between civilians and military personnel; however, their work focused on the relationship between non-DoD civilians and military personnel. Nevertheless, they examined the role of the DoD in improving the relationship between civilians and military personnel for the betterment of military culture. Ratliff (2016) added that unhealthy relationships within and between organizations can be costly citing that the organization can either fail to accomplish its mission. The perspective that Ratliff provided is one that is based on cost management and relationship management. I did not address these theories in this research; however, there is the opportunity to explore these perspectives in future research.

Implications for Social Change

Terrorist attacks on military installations can take place on a large or small scale, meaning that they can include a single target or multiple target as evidenced by the examples I provided in Chapter 2 installation (U.S. Department of the Navy Office of the Chief of Information, 2013; United States Department of Homeland Security, 2015). Consistency in training can mitigate, reduce, or even prevent acts of terror on military installations. Based on the findings of this study, training is currently initiated based on security clearance. However, all DoD personnel deserve the opportunity to protect themselves and their colleagues from possible attacks. Army enlistees do so with the notion that the enemy is abroad or even outside of the base; however, in recent years there have been attacks on military installations. Because military personnel and armed civilians have the opportunity to enter bases with weapons, it is important for social

policies to reflect explicit actions that DoD personnel should take if they have suspicions of any type of attack. The implication is that DoD personnel can work under safer conditions; these expectations could transfer to other areas where civilians and military personnel co-exist.

The literature regarding personnel and rank within the military is mostly on military personnel. DoD civilian employees are usually discussed separately from DoD military personnel. Much of the literature shows a lack of communication among military personnel and civilians. With the prevalence of attacks on bases, there should be more opportunities for collaborative training so that common language is used among all DoD personnel with regard to risk management. Making these adjustments could ultimately impact the relationship between personnel but could also increase security and risk performance, which is the goal of risk management.

In using Schinder, Ingram, and deLeon's (2014) SCF insight on the relevance of social constructions as they relate to policy development and policymaking, military leaders can learn about more top-down management and guidance to improve antiterrorism training, resource updates, and feedback that can assist with the mitigation of terrorism and the improvement of awareness. The unique structure of the military demands that policy reflect expectation of practice, and there is the opportunity for both creating more focused policies and creating more opportunities for DoD personnel to work together to mitigate terrorism.

The frameworks on policy making are also relevant for social change. Sutton (1999) contended that key components of policy making included six distinct phases:

recognizing and defining the issue, identifying alternative solutions, weighing the advantages and disadvantages of each solution, selecting the best option, implementing policy, and evaluating the policy implementation. In using the findings of this research, one of the implications relative to policy process is that there should be a more consistent and purposeful method for evaluating antiterrorism policies. I have identified how training is limited to military personnel. Possible solutions can be explored and accessed through further research on installations nationwide and through more collaboration among civilians and DoD personnel.

Risk management has always been critical to understanding the roles and responsibilities of military personnel. Military leaders use risk management theories to make decisions about implementing measures counterterrorism on domestic installations. All military personnel use some form of risk management in a variety of ways for decision-making and there are several methodologies and formulas for calculating such risks. All formulas for calculating risks include three basic components: a threat assessment, a vulnerability assessment, and a criticality assessment (Decker, 2001).

The findings of the study suggest that the major themes identified in this study are all relative to risk management. The ultimate goal is to help military personal avoid hazards while they are on duty and during their free time (Johnson, 2012). While all occupations have risks, military personnel usually encounter greater risks based on the nature of their job. Johnson described military risks in the following manner (Johnson, 2012, p. 10):

A river-crossing scenario can illustrate this complexity of military risk management. In the civil version of this scenario, you are faced with a choice

between crossing a fast flowing stream using a rotten tree trunk or by walking two kilometers down to a ford. One way of approaching this is to consider the state of the tree trunk; to assess the probability that it will break and that you might fall into the water. As part of this assessment process you must also consider the consequences, including your ability to safely swim to the shore if you did fall in. The military version of this scenario now assumes that you have to cross the river under enemy observation. You must assess the risk of crossing quickly by using the tree trunk, which would expose you to a short period of intense fire. Or you could decide to move down to the ford, with an increased amount of time exposed to lower intensity fire. The introduction of opposition forces into any risk assessment opens up new dimensions of complexity – in this case we have to consider risk exposure from the short exposed crossing or the longer walk to the fording point, which did not arise in the civil case.

The findings of this study also suggest that risks that military personnel and civilians encounter are directly related to occupational responsibility. A DoD employee's awareness about such risks are directly related to their occupation; due to the limited opportunities for joint training among personnel, this study concludes that there are opportunities for growth in this area. Understanding risk management is critical to the overall success of the functions of the organization; however, there are opportunities for expanding research of this topic.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research is needed in various areas to provide researchers with knowledge about the effectiveness of counterterrorism measures on military installations. The accounts from DoD civilians and military personnel bring about concern regarding the course of action that should be taken in the event there is a terrorist attack or active shooter on the military installation. Future researchers could conduct a program evaluation to determine if the military installation's antiterrorism program meets the

criteria established by the DoD. The DoD (2013) outlines the proceedings for conducting a program evaluation.

Antiterrorism programs should consist of five unique elements (DoD, 2013): a) planning, b) program review, c) resource application, d) risk management, and e) training and exercises. A program evaluation would assist the organization with determining progress toward goals. Element is critical to the overall productivity of the organization. Antiterrorism planning includes methods that are used to develop guidance and execution procedures for subordinates. The antiterrorism program review outlines the specific guidelines that are used to evaluate an antiterrorism program in order to evaluate the effectiveness and progression toward satisfactory. These findings should be shared with all DoD employees. Antiterrorism resource application includes identifying and submitting requirements through existing planning, programming, budgeting, and execution processes; the Combatting Terrorism Readiness Initiative Fund; and other funding mechanisms. Antiterrorism risk management includes systematically identifying, assessing, and controlling for risks. Such actions are based on operational factors and decision-making. Antiterrorism training and exercises includes the process for developing individual and group skills and for conducting exercises to verify plans for antiterrorism incident responses, management of consequences, and continuing essential military operations. Future researchers could use quantitative methodologies to bring about a different perspective on program effectiveness.

Future researchers could also observe the actions of DoD personnel to minimize security risks on the installation. Such observations could lead to more information

regarding base culture and opportunities for minimizing threats on the installation. Understanding the relationships between military leadership and civilian leadership could also assist in developing more consistent practices for DoD personnel. Ratliff (2016) examined the issues relative to poor relationship management. Individuals who are skilled in maintaining relationships were usually more productive, more pleasant, and happier at work. Unhealthy relationships are found in various work settings that cost organizations more money as they develop programs to address these concerns; however, if organizations paid more attention to the relationship needs of their employees, they could ultimately save money. With regards to the military healthy relationships are vital to accomplishing specific goals.

Employees should also be trusting of each other (Ratliff, 2016). When there is a lack of trust, the processes become cumbersome and unproductive. Researchers could explore whether employees on military installations have healthy relationships and the emerging trends that impact culture. Biggio and Cortese (2013) studied the significance of well-being in the workplace including influencing factors and individual psychological characteristics. They conducted qualitative research using 72 participants in a focus group setting and individual interviews. In the 628 statements they collected, they found top down management is just one factor on workplace well-being; individual characteristics also impact the workplace culture. A similar study could be conducted on a military installation to understand how civilians and military personnel contribute to the culture of the installation. These research suggestions could improve the working relationships among the various ranks of military personnel.

Conclusion

There are various points that were developed through this study. One is that the DoD employee population is inclusive of diverse individuals. They include both civilians and military personnel. The civilian population is also diverse in that some are armed while others are unarmed. With the diversity in clearance and access to security management, it is becoming more difficult to identify actual threats. Current antiterrorism policies work to balance the day-to-day operations with vulnerability to a suspected attack. As a result, all DoD employees must undergo mandatory antiterrorism training. However, the level of and effectiveness of training differs by occupational responsibility, and some employees are not exposed to training that could impact the security of the installation. For example, one civilian and two military personnel acknowledged consistency in training. The civilian assigned to the childcare center said that training occurs annually. One Army officer and one Army enlistee noted that training occurs annually and quarterly, respectively.

The importance of maintaining a safe working environment was communicated throughout the study even though some individuals were unaware of the role they played in risk assessment and risk management. Participants who held non-military jobs were not trained as regularly as military personnel leaving the installation exposed to potential security risks. Additionally, there were concerns about participants' lack of knowledge about training they had undergone as employees on the base. At the very basic level, such participants knew such training took place but did not identify the training as effective.

Effective social change can come through communications between civilian and military leaders as all DoD employees have a desire to work in a safe environment. Leaders are responsible for providing these opportunities to employees so that the DoD can continue to work to enforce military policies and proceedings on a much larger scale. Even though the responses of this research reflect perceptions on one base, the loss of just one life is too devastating. The men and women working on military installations, whether civilians or military personnel, make a commitment toward ensuring the safety of this country. At the very least, antiterrorism programs should address the concerns of civilians and military personnel who are responsible for following policy and implementing procedures.

This study has created the opportunity to learn more about the roles of civilians and military personnel on military installation. While there are still opportunities for future research, this study has been substantial in providing insight from personnel whose perspectives are rarely considered. The hope is that a future researcher will take notice of this research and provide another perspective, more insight, or additional feedback on what the DoD can do to make military installations safer for those who are employed on them.

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Appendix A: Initial Email to Contact Person

To whom it may concern:

My name is Leona Monroe, and I am doctoral student in Walden University. One of the requirements for obtaining a doctorate degree is research. My research topic focuses on perceptions of civilians and military personnel as it pertains to antiterrorism. The title of my study is, “How Do Counterterrorism Policies Influence Domestic Terrorism on Military Installations for Active Duty and Civilian Personnel,” and I would like to interview you. I chose the military installation where you are employed because I know there is a plethora of potential participants who meet the criteria of the study; additionally, such individuals are from a diverse background.

You have been preselected because of your affiliation as a civilian or active duty personnel on the military installation I've chosen to study. I have attached a copy of my premise to give you a brief overview of my study and my consent form, for your review. Please fill out the consent form prior to our interview. I have secured approval from Walden's Institutional Review Board, and will be conducting all of my interviews next week. Can you please identify which day next week you will be able to meet me? We will be meeting at Surratts-Clinton Library (address available upon confirmation). I am taking off next week and will be available any time that works for you. Please let me know if you have any addition questions or concerns. Your feedback and participation is paramount to this study.

I am also requesting that you provide me with the name and email addresses of other individuals who may be interested in voluntarily participating with this study. The only criteria is that the person works on the military installation where you are employed.

Leona Monroe

Doctoral Student

Walden University

Appendix B: Participants' Letter of Introduction to Study

Research Project
Interviewer: Leona Monroe
Enlisted/Officer:
MOS/AFSC/NES:

Dissertation Topic: "How Do Counterterrorism Policies Influence Domestic Terrorism on Military Installations for Active Duty and Civilian Personnel?"

The purpose of this qualitative study will be to analyze how perceptions of preparedness among civilian personnel on military installations impact policy making and policy design relative to domestic terrorism. Since there are gaps in recognizing vulnerabilities on military installations, this research will contribute to understanding civilian perceptions on addressing those gaps. Renfro and Smith (2010) noted how risk can identify and categorize vulnerabilities, consequences, and threats. Risk can be used to manage these categories by bringing them to a suitable level. This can aid in mitigating vulnerabilities of threats and decrease consequences. Therefore, it is important to understand who is responsible for ensuring all employees are getting adequate training.

The DoD (2012) noted how it is base commanders' responsibility to ensure that antiterrorism training is conducted, updated, physical security measures are implemented to all personnel. Dillon, Liebe, and Bestafka (2009) realized that there is an infinite amount of potential terrorist attacks and scenarios that exist, especially with advancements in technology. Therefore, it is very difficult to implement the most efficient antiterrorism programs or one that alleviates terrorism. However, considering

the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) of current policies can mitigate and improve counterterrorism programs

Questions:

1. How concerned are you with a potential terrorist attack on this base?
2. How vulnerable do you think your base is for potential terrorist attack?
3. What have you learned about antiterrorism? What or who was the source of the information?
4. What type of antiterrorism training have you obtained here, and how often is training conducted? Are follow-up opportunities provided?
5. Whose responsibility is it to mitigate domestic terrorism?
6. What are some ways you can mitigate domestic terrorism?
7. How effective and efficient do you think the antiterrorism training is?
8. What are the procedures in the event there is an active shooter in your office complex?
9. What are some recommendations for your current antiterrorism program?
10. Are there opportunities for civilians and military personnel to undergo risk management training together? If so, describe such opportunities in detail.
11. Describe the interaction between civilians and military personnel. How do such interactions impact the culture on the base?

Please check the box that you most identify with:

GENDER:

Male	
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Female	
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AGE:

18-24	
25-34	
35-44	
45-54	
55-64	
65+	

ETHNICITY:

Caucasian(white)	
African American (black)	
American Indian or Alaska Native	
Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin	
Asian	
Pacific Islander	

Appendix C: Confidentiality Agreement

Confidentiality Agreement

Name of signer:

During the course of my activity in collecting data for this research study entitled “How Do Counterterrorism Policies Influence Domestic Terrorism on Military Installations for Active Duty and Civilian Personnel” I will have access to information which is confidential and should not be disclosed. I acknowledge that the information must remain confidential, and that improper disclosure of confidential information can be damaging to the participant.

By signing this Confidential Agreement I acknowledge and agree that:

1. I will not disclose or discuss any confidential information with others, including friends or family.
2. I will not in any way divulge, copy, release, sell, loan, alter or destroy any confidential information except as properly authorized.
3. I will not discuss confidential information where others can overhear the conversation. I understand that it is not acceptable to discuss confidential information even if the participant’s name is not used.
4. I will not make any unauthorized transmissions, inquiries, modification or purging of confidential information.
5. I agree that my obligations under this agreement will continue after termination of the job that I will perform.
6. I understand that violation of this agreement will have legal implications.
7. I will only access or use systems or devices I am officially authorized to access and I will not demonstrate the operation or function of systems or devices to unauthorized individuals. By signing this document, I acknowledge that I have read the agreement and I agree to comply with all the terms and conditions stated above.

Signature:

Date: