

2017

Media Coverage of Domestic Extremists and the Influence on Police Emotions

Jamie Porter
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>

 Part of the [Criminology Commons](#), [Criminology and Criminal Justice Commons](#), and the [Quantitative Psychology Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Jamie Porter

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. James Herndon, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty

Dr. William Disch, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty

Dr. Wayne Wallace, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer

Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University

2017

Abstract

Media Coverage of Domestic Extremists and the Influence on Police Emotions

by

Jamie Porter

BS, Walden University, 2013

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Forensic Psychology

Walden University

December 2017

Abstract

The media have influenced domestic extremists who are targeting the police, and this is related to negative emotions among the police. These extremists are targeting police officers based on how events are framed by the media. In this way, the media have influenced domestic extremists' target selection and caused negative emotions among police officers because they are now the targets. The purpose of this qualitative narrative study was to understand the perceptions of police officers about how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target them. The narrative of this qualitative inquiry was guided by a semistructured interview sample consisting of 15 patrol officers discussing their views and opinions of the media's effect on domestic extremism and negative emotions among the police. Coding and themes facilitated the analyses of the data. By examining the narratives of police officers, 5 themes developed which include: having a positive attitude, motivational factors, meaning of responsibility, media effects and having a support system and fourteen subthemes were extracted and valuable insights were gained on how patrol officers handled different situations like the media, extremists, and their emotions. Involving the opinions of police officers in developing more efficient response training is critical for social change. These results will promote positive social change by providing a better understanding of police perceptions and the potential to educate the public about the actual work of police officers, to create understanding between the police and the public; and by identifying strategies to update future training programs for the police.

Media Coverage of Domestic Extremists and the Influence on Police Emotions

by

Jamie Porter

BS, Walden University, 2013

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Forensic Psychology

Walden University

December 2017

Dedication

I dedicate my dissertation to all law enforcement and military personnel who risk their lives every day to protect and serve the population and country they love.

Acknowledgments

I want to first thank God for giving me a second chance at life and the strength to complete my dissertation. I would like to thank my mother and my brother for being an awesome support system! We have been through a lot and are still very supportive of one another. I would like to thank my Dad (an ARMY veteran), who encouraged me in many ways to study people who risk their lives every day for this country. I know he is watching my mom, brother, and me from above!

I would like to give a special thank you to my committee. My chair, Dr. James Herndon, provided advice, guidance, leadership, and encouragement that helped me get through this process. I want to thank my second committee member, Dr. William Disch, for his continuous support, insights, and professionalism. I also want to thank my URR, Dr. Wayne Wallace, for his patience and helpful proofing of my dissertation document. Together all four of us made a great team. Lastly, I would like to thank each of my participants in this study. I thank you for allowing me the opportunity to hear your stories.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background to the Study.....	2
Problem Statement.....	5
Purpose of the Study.....	6
Research Questions.....	7
Conceptual Framework.....	7
Framing Theory	9
James-Lange Theory.....	10
Summary of the Conceptual Framework	10
Nature of the Study.....	11
Definitions.....	12
Assumptions.....	13
Scope.....	13
Delimitations.....	14
Limitations	14
Significance.....	15
Summary.....	16
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	17
Literature Search Strategy.....	17

Media Effects	18
Conceptual Framework.....	20
The Framing Theory	20
James-Lange Theory.....	21
Brief Background on Media Influence	23
Media Misrepresenting Police	24
Media Effects and Types of Media.....	25
Media Effects in Terrorism.....	27
News Coverage.....	28
The Press.....	28
The Internet.....	32
Social Media	32
Darknet.....	34
Domestic Extremist.....	35
Motivation of Extremism.....	37
Negative Emotions.....	38
Emotional Effects in Media	39
Emotional Effects among the Police.....	40
Emotional Overview	40
Narrative as Method of Inquiry.....	41
Summary and Conclusions	42
Chapter 3: Methodology	45

Research Design and Rationale	46
Research Questions.....	47
Justification for Narrative Qualitative Research.....	48
Role of the Researcher	49
Methodology.....	50
Setting and Sample	50
Criteria for Selecting the Participants.....	52
Gaining Access to Participants	52
Data Collection	53
Protocols and Procedure	54
Data Analysis Plan.....	56
Reliability and Validity.....	57
Trustworthiness.....	58
Credibility	59
Transferability.....	59
Dependability.....	60
Conformability.....	61
Intra and Intercoder Reliability.....	61
Ethical Considerations	62
Informed Consent/IRB.....	62
Confidentiality and Data Storage.....	63
Summary.....	64

Chapter 4: Results	66
Research Design and Approach	67
Research Purpose	67
Data Collection	69
Protocol and Procedure	70
Data Handling, Protection, and Management	71
Record Retention	73
Participants' Demographics	74
Participants' Profiles	77
Data Analyses	81
Themes and Findings	83
Theme 1: Having a Positive Attitude	84
Theme 2: Motivational Factors	85
Theme 3: Meaning of Responsibility	86
Theme 4: Media Effects	86
Theme 5: Having a Support System	88
Evidence of Quality	91
Summary	92
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusion, Recommendations	94
Interpretation of Findings	95
Positive Attitude	95
Motivational Factors	96

Meaning of Responsibility	96
Media Effects	96
Having a Support System.....	97
Conceptual Framework.....	97
Media Effects	98
The Framing Theory	99
James-Lange Theory of Emotion.....	100
Implications for Social Change.....	102
Limitations	104
Recommendations for Future Study	104
Researcher Reflections.....	106
Conclusions.....	107
References.....	109
Appendix A: Guided Interview Questions and Probes	133
Appendix B: Preliminary Demographic Questionnaire	135
Appendix C: Initial Letter of Invitation	136
Appendix D: IRB Approval Letter	137

List of Tables

Table 1. Participant Demographics.....	75
Table 2. Participant Status	76
Table 3. Themes.....	84
Table 4. Subthemes.....	90

List of Figures

Figure 1. Research Questions and Conceptual Framework	102
---	-----

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

In recent years, law enforcement officers have been affected by media coverage and influence (Khruakham & Joongyeup, 2014; Larsson, 2014). The media's influence is a result of different types of media coverage such as the "Hands Up, Don't Shoot" movement and physical and violent attacks by domestic extremists (Belfer, 2014; Newman, 2015). As these extremists attack more law enforcement officers, it becomes more valuable to document the stories and perceptions of the police. The positive results from this documentation can help other local, state, and federal law enforcement officers learn to cope with media scrutiny and negative emotions like fear, distress, and frustration encountered when dealing with extremist groups (Larsson, 2014; Pfeoffer, 2012).

Research data supports the law enforcement agencies' and media agencies' long encounters with various challenges, including communicating information based on facts and different opinions on integrity and scrutiny (Larsson, 2014; Santifort, Sandler & Brandt, 2013). On the other hand, McGovern and Lee (2010) suggested that the media blames the police for not communicating the facts and evidence so the media can broadcast their stories. Despite the current shift in attitudes toward law enforcement, officers are affected by the media (McGovern & Lee, 2010; Schulenberg & Chenier, 2014). The police officers' perceptions of how the media influences domestic extremists and how police officers cope with negative emotions like fear, distress, and frustration are not documented in the literature. There is a gap in the literature on police perceptions of media influencing domestic extremists and police perceptions of the media effects on

negative emotions among the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Ferrara & Yang, 2015; Khruakham & Joongyeup, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Santifort, Sandler & Brandt, 2013).

Therefore, this research provides greater insight into the experiences of police officers.

The intention of this chapter is to introduce the research problem, questions, and methodology. The first sections in this chapter are about the background to this study, the research problem, the gap in the literature, and the problem statement. The next sections consist of the purpose and intent of the study followed by the research questions, conceptual framework, and the nature of the study, along with definitions, assumptions, scope, delimitations, and limitations. The significant literature focuses on law enforcement and how media influences domestic extremists to target police officers (Frewin, Stephens, & Tuffin, 2006; Papazoglou & Andersen, 2014). This chapter also briefly reviews the conceptual and empirical constructs discussed in Chapter 2.

Background to the Study

Law enforcement officers have one of the most stressful professions in the world (Papazoglou & Anderson, 2014; Van Gelderen, Bakker, Konijin, & Demerouti, 2011). Their position could lead to judgmental opinions by outside sources like the media (Dirikx, Gelders, & Van den Bulck, 2013; Dirikx, Van den Bulck, & Parmentier, 2012; Schulenberg & Chenier, 2014), negative emotions like distress and anger (Galatzer-Levy, Brown, Henn-Haase, Meltzler, Neylan, & Marmar, 2013), and confronting suspects and attacks of domestic extremism like lone-wolf attacks (Bjelopera, 2012; Van Geledern et al., 2011). The problem is that the media have influenced domestic extremists to target

police which affects negative emotions in the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Frequin, Stephens, & Tuffin, 2006; Walvekar, Ambekar, & Devaranavadagi, 2015).

Maier et al. (2014) focused on how the media influences the self-stigma of seeking psychological services while maintaining credibility and creating perceptions. In some cases, different media like television news, had perceived psychological services as being positive by showing the good side of psychological services. On the other hand, some television news networks had framed these services and made claims of them being non-productive or making mistakes with the information that is broadcast. The media shows cases that are real, such as a school shooting by an individual who, while under the care of a psychologist, escaped from a psychiatric hospital inpatient unit and conducted a mass shooting that killed and injured multiple victims. Maier et al. (2014) showed that the media not only created perceptions but altered and shaped perceptions of psychological service and different topics that altered attitudes about real life.

Altheide (2013) reported how the media gains social control, credibility, and influence over perceptions by keeping up with current issues and always influencing the social and global issues by using frames (Gackowski, 2014). The term *frame* refers to building up a certain analysis of a specific problem (Chong & Druckman, 2007). The media showcases fear in a specific frame for a few days or weeks, depending on the importance of the specific issue, then changes the topic to another frame after any change in television ratings (Altheide, 2013; Gackowski, 2014). Framing helps the media maintain credibility and influence perceptions about a specific issue in the current news.

The results from this study showed that the media uses social control and fear to create and alter perceptions.

Larsson (2014) emphasized the dangers of homegrown extremists and the connection with target selections and social media, such as information on recruiting new members. Larsson also noted that social media contributes to domestic extremism in many ways. The effects of the media and discussions about political involvement influence much of extremist ideology and target selection. Extremist groups use their working ideologies and build on hate for their target, all of which makes them want to act and perform life-threatening missions to eliminate these targets. Larsson's study showed that the media played a significant role in domestic extremists and their target selection.

Santifort et al. (2013) focused on the influences of how domestic extremists select their targets. Santifort et al. emphasized international influences on domestic extremists and how they attack their targets. The reasons are detailed in the ideologies of specific extremist groups that focus on media frames and take advantage of media reports since the media stays up to date on specific issues. Santifort et al. emphasized that the targets are selected based on the reasons of the extremist groups.

Galatzer-Levy et al. (2013) conducted a study focusing on positive and negative emotions, as well as the trajectories of resilience and distress among highly exposed police officers. The study reviewed discrete patterns of responses such as reliance, anticipatory stress, initial distress and gradual recovery, and chronic distress. The results showed that within four months of active duty, negative emotions significantly increased after police academy training.

Another study that focused on negative emotions in the police was conducted by Van Gelderen, Bakker, Konijin, and Demerouti (2011). Their study reported how negative emotions affect police officers on their daily work shift. These negative emotion variables included anger, distress, abhorrence, and sadness (Van Gerldern et al., 2011). The results showed that suppressing negative emotions could have serious psychological consequences (Van Gerldern et al., 2011).

This chapter reviewed the problem statement, which is how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Khruakham & Joongyeup, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Walvekar, Ambekar, & Devaranavadagi, 2015). The purpose of this study was to understand police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists and affected negative emotions among the police (Galatzer-Levy et al., 2013; Van Gerldern et al., 2011). The nature of the study was reviewed and followed by a research inquiry and a review of the conceptual framework: media effects, framing theory, and James-Lange theory of emotion. Furthermore, a review of the assumptions, limitations, scope, and delimitations is provided. Finally, the significance of the study and its implication for social change are evaluated.

Problem Statement

The problem this research addressed was that the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which causes negative emotions among the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Frequin, Stephens, & Tuffin, 2006; Walvekar, Ambekar, & Devaranavadagi, 2015). Domestic extremists have been targeting police officers, which can increase the

effect of negative emotions on their psychological and physical health, making their job more difficult (Belfer, 2014; Biggs et al., 2014; Freqin, Stephens, & Tuffin, 2006; Van Gelderen et al., 2011; Walnekar, Ambekar, & Devaranvadagi, 2015). The media shows terrorist groups competing to be the focus of news coverage so they can get their message across to sympathizers and those who are self-radicalized to illustrate fear (Larsson, 2014; Pfeiffer, 2012). Research has focused on negative emotions like distress and information from archived sources from media reports, but it has not focused on the perceptions of how police officers are affected by being targeted by domestic extremists or media scrutiny (Bechtoldt et al., 2011; Galatzer-Levy et al., 2013; Gruenewald, Chermale, & Freilich, 2013; Pfeiffer, 2012). The results of a few studies like Gruenewald et al., Pfeiffer, and Walvekar et al. suggested up-to-date intervention training for police officers. Therefore, research will promote positive social change by providing a better understanding of police perceptions and the potential to educate the public about the actual work of police officers, to create understanding between the police and the public; and by identifying strategies to update future training programs for the police.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this narrative qualitative study was to understand the perceptions of police officers on how the media have influenced domestic extremists, which causes negative emotions among the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Ferrara & Yang, 2015). The first objective of this study was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on domestic extremists. The second objective of this study was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on their negative emotions. The positive social change

implication this research will promote is providing a better understanding of police perceptions and the potential to educate the public about the actual work of police officers, to create understanding between the police and the public; and by identifying strategies to update future training programs for the police.

Research Questions

In narrative inquiries, the research questions should elicit the perceptions of the participants and provide direction and focus on the meaning of the experiences to be examined (Creswell, 2013; Hamby, Taylor, Grych, & Banyard, 2016; Patton, 2002). Narrative studies are detailed stories of the lives of the participants and the phenomenon (Creswell, 2009; Phoenix et al., 2014). The primary research question of this study is: How do police officers view the media having an influence on domestic extremists and the negative emotions among the police? The secondary questions are: How do police officers view the media's influence on domestic extremists and how do police officers view these influences on the negative emotions among the police? The specific questions and prompts are provided in Appendix A.

Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework was appropriate for this narrative study because the framework was structured from broad ideas to help identify the underlying issue and clarify the research questions. The conceptual framework that was used for this study is media effects. The two theories used with media effects are framing theory and James-Lange theory of emotions. It is important to define media effects to understand how they are relevant to this study. Media effects are usually thought as originating negative

emotions based on opinion polls voted on by the public (Potter & Riddle, 2007). Negative emotions are not based on opinion polls and the eight determinants of media effects identified by Potter and Riddle are: “timing, duration, valence, change, intention, the level of effect, direct or indirect, and manifestation” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 35).

The first factor is timing. What timing predicts is how long media exposure takes to have an effect (Potter & Riddle, 2007). According to Potter and Riddle, “media exert immediate effects as well as long-term effects (p. 36). The second factor is duration, which is that “some effects last a short time then go away” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 36). Valence, the third factor, refers to messages that are negative and positive messages that are equally exposed to viewers. Change is the fourth factor in media effects and states that “when we think of effects, we typically think of change” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p.36).

The fifth factor is intention, “media industries are criticized for negative effects and creating negative effects” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 36). The sixth factor is level, which asserts that media effects “look at the individuals as the targets of the effects” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 37). The seventh factor, direct and indirect, refers to the media using direct effects on viewers, while at other times the effect is more indirect. Manifestation is the last factor, “effects are easy to observe” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 38). Each of these factors plays a part in this working definition of media effects that are “those things that occur as a result—either in part or whole—from media influences” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 38).

Smith and Searles (2004) administered a study that explored the relationship connecting various media effects and attitudes and other behavioral changes. The results of their study showed that multiple media effects do lead to attitude and behavioral changes (Smith & Searles, 2004). James N. Herndon, a media psychologist, developed a new behavioral qualitative tool called the Affective Encryption Analysis based on his research about media effects (Herndon, 2006; Rawstory.com, 2006). The Affective Encryption Analysis looks at how our feelings and emotions influence our long-term actions. The results of using this tool showed that the media affects our future behaviors and emotions (Herndon, 2006). Media effects are explained more in-depth in Chapter 2, and there are two theories that work with media effects: framing theory and the James-Lange theory of emotion.

Framing Theory

The media frames and expands on specific issues in different perceptions (Satti, 2015). According to Chong and Druckman (2007), the term “framing” refers to the method used to build up a certain interpretation of an issue. The media frames probabilities and outcomes of a certain issue in different ways. The media pays close attention to specific issues to gain the public’s attention (Borah, 2011; Satti, 2015; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

The consistency of media frames was investigated across three decisional domains (health and others) by Heilman and Miclea in 2016. They compared their research results to a 1981 study conducted by Tversky and Kahneman (1981) that emphasized on the preference for sure outcome over losses. Another way the media uses

frames is by creating psychological reactions based on loss and gain news (Boydstun & Glazier, 2013). When media efforts have been a gain rather than a loss, the media starts working on another frame (Powell, 2011; Satti, 2015; Xiaobo, Hongning, Xiaodong, & Juli, 2015). The framing theory is discussed more in-depth in Chapter 2 of the literature review.

James-Lange Theory

The James-Lange theory of emotion proposed that psychological change is followed by the perception of an exciting phase (Fehr & Stern, 1970). Gasquoine (2014) studied emotional behaviors and how they connect to the limbic system and found evidence that corresponded with the James-Lange theory of emotion. Both Gasquoine and Dalgleish noted from the James-Lange theory of emotion that different emotional states are interpreted by external cues linked to internal physiological response.

The James-Lange theory of emotion stated that humans present different emotional states depending on external cues (Dalgleish, 2004; Gasquoine, 2014). These cues are connected with generalized internal physiological responses. Gasquoine and Dalgleish evaluated the James-Lange theory of emotion at separate times and both found that changes in emotions were due to psychological responses to a specific activity. The James-Lange theory of emotion is discussed more in-depth in Chapter 2 of the literature review.

Summary of the Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study is based on three working theories: media effects, framing theory, and James-Lange theory of emotions. This investigation

studied two objectives. The first objective was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on domestic extremists. The second objective was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on their negative emotions. The conceptual framework, media effects, compares how the media influences its viewers (Potter & Riddle, 2007).

The objectives of this study are relevant because the primary cause of the issues originates from media influences (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The second theory in the conceptual framework, framing theory, is an effect of media effects. This is vital to the study because the media uses frames to focus on certain issues, gain social control, and influence perceptions (Best & Chariness, 2015). The last theory in the conceptual framework, the James-Lange theory of emotions, is used to explain the negative emotions in the study. The conceptual framework is addressed in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

The qualitative narrative design was chosen because it is consistent with understanding the perceptions of police officers of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects the negative emotions among the police (Patton, 2002; Schwandt, 2015). The primary focus of the study was to understand police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target them.

In this study, individual experiences of participants were gathered through individual semistructured interviews. The narrative method allowed this author to conduct interviews and write about police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police and cause negative emotions (Creswell, 2013; Patton,

2002; Schwandt, 2015). A comprehensive description of the rationale for the design of the study and the methods used to analyze the information are in Chapter 3.

Definitions

This study focused on how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police and cause negative emotions (Belfer, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Pfeiffer, 2012; Silber & Frey, 2013). This qualitative narrative study aimed to understand police perceptions about how media influences domestic extremist as well negative emotions (Papazoglou & Anderson, 2014). Although four major terms are reviewed, only two need operational definitions: domestic extremist and negative emotions.

Bjelopera (2012) explains that the definition of *extremist* is not easy. First, the general term *terrorist* is where *extremist* came from. The term *terrorist* includes the act of committing dangerous actions against human life that do not originate within U.S. territorial jurisdictions. Currently, the term *domestic extremism* is the act of committing dangerous acts to human life that originate within the U.S. territorial jurisdictions. A domestic extremist have many aliases according to the government because depending on ideologies and other factors that determine the alias that best describes them: *violent sovereign citizen extremists, homegrown extremists, domestic terrorist*.

The definition is very detailed because the terms *extremist* and *terrorist* are commonly misused (Bjelopera, 2012; Santifort et al., 2013). It is important to understand that an extremist, like a terrorist, can attack domestically or internationally; however, a *domestic extremist* originates within the U.S. territorial jurisdictions (Bjelopera, 2012; Chermak, Freilich & Simone, 2010; Gruenewald et al., 2013; Santifort et al., 2013). A

domestic extremist may have international influences or ideologies from a terrorist group that is not in the United States (Santifort et al., 2013).

For this narrative qualitative research, negative emotion is identified by two terms: emotional regulation and reappraisal. Emotion regulation (ER) refers to the emotional processes and the components involved in coping with all levels of negative and positive emotions, including distress, fear, joy and other emotions (Kopp, 1989). Reappraisal is a cognitive-linguistic strategy that alters the trajectory of emotional responses (Goldin, McRae, Ramel, & Gross, 2008). Emotional regulation and reappraisal are different strategies that work together to build the operational definition of negative emotions for this study.

Assumptions

The primary assumption of the study was that potential participants would answer the pre-study questionnaire honestly to see if they qualified. Another assumption was that candidates were truthful when answering interview questions. The last assumption was that the narrative inquiry is the most appropriate for gathering information (Brady, 2015; Probst, 2015). Narratives are critical for humans who describe significant events to help them comprehend the world that is constantly changing (Probst, 2015). By using a narrative, each participant gave their own stories in a way they wished to be represented (Brady, 2015; Hamby et al., 2016).

Scope

The participants met the following inclusion criteria: (a) official law enforcement officer within the United States and (b) a patrol officer for at least six years. Snowball

sampling was used to request the names of participants who might qualify for the research (Emerson, 2015). Snowball sampling is a strategy that allowed the researcher to ask references who met the research criteria to participate in the study (Emerson, 2015; Patton, 2002; Schwandt, 2015). In general, Probst suggests that this method is appropriate for qualitative studies because the researcher seeks to describe the experience of a particular phenomenon.

Delimitations

Delimitations defined the parameters of the study. Delimitations in this study included the narrow selection of only one law enforcement profession: patrol officers. The findings could be generalizable to different groups due to the small size of the sample population, but generalizability was not the intention of the research (Brady, 2016; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2016). The goal of qualitative research is to capture the participants' experience and tell their story (Hamby et al., 2016; Schwandt, 2015). Criteria suggested by researchers are used to guide choices for samples so that as much knowledge may be obtained.

Limitations

In qualitative narrative methodology, the size of the sample size can determine how balanced and in-depth achieving rich stories (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015; Patton, 2002). For example, the sample size should be big enough to achieve saturation and themes to compare and code to create an in-depth story (Creswell, 2011; Murray et al., 2016). The goal of narrative inquiry is to provide an interpretation of the participants'

perceptions (Brady, 2015). The sample size may not produce enough themes or saturation and, if not, then the researcher must interview more participants to produce more results.

The goal of the study was 20 participants, and 15 met saturation and participated in this study. According to Creswell, a heterogeneous group that ranges from three to 15 participants is acceptable for a qualitative methodology. The small number of participants will allow for additional time for each interview (Emerson, 2015). It is not about keeping a small number but rather achieving saturation for the study. The criteria for this study limit the participants to the United States. The responses may not be the same as in other geographic areas. Another limitation was that interviews were to be held in the police departments of each patrol officer as a natural setting. This is not possible because there is a lot of red tape involved with working with police departments in general.

Significance

This qualitative research focused on police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police (Belfer, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Pfeiffer, 2012; Silber & Frey, 2013). Since this study focused on emotional regulation and the reappraisal of the term *negative emotions*, it is important to understand the emotional responses to media influences and being targeted by domestic extremists (Goldin et al., 2008; Kopp, 1989).

A few training programs train state and local law enforcement officers on how to handle terrorism and extremist threats against the public, but they do not help police officers' cope with any negative emotions from traumatic experiences (SLATT.org, 2015). The positive social change implication this research could provide includes a

better understanding of police perceptions and the potential to identify strategies to update future training programs for police officers.

Summary

This chapter presented the background of a study to understand the perceptions of the police about how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Ferrara & Yang, 2015; Walvekar et al., 2015). The chapter also included the purpose of the research, questions, assumptions, scope, limitations, delimitations, the significance of the study and the potential for social change.

Chapter 2 is a synopsis of the literature about police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects their negative emotions. The review describes the factors and challenges of media influence, domestic extremists, and negative emotions.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology for this study, along with detailed information on the study's design, criteria for the selection of participants, protocols, and protection of the identities of the participants.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The media have influenced domestic extremists about targeting the police, which affects negative emotions among the police (Belfer, 2014). There is a gap in the literature on police perception of media influencing domestic extremists and police perceptions of the media effects on negative emotions among the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Ferrara & Yang, 2015; Khruakham & Joongyeup, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Santifort, Sandler, & Brandt, 2013). The intention of this study was to understand the perceptions of police officers about how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police.

This chapter reviews the relevant literature that focuses on how the media influences domestic extremists and negative emotions among police officers. Different types of how media help influence extremists will also be addressed. The conceptual and empirical constructs are also discussed in Chapter 3.

Literature Search Strategy

A comprehensive literature review was conducted within a three-year time span to provide an overview and understanding of each topic in this dissertation. The databases used for the literature review were Academic Search Complete; Communication and Mass Media Complete; CQ Researcher, Emerald Management; Military and Government Collection; ProQuest: Criminal Justice; ERIC; Expanded Academic ASAP; FDsys; Homeland Security Digital Library; Political Science Complete; Primary Search, Soc Index with Full Text; Psyc Info; Homeland Security Digital Library; and International Security and Counter-Terrorism Research Center. The literature research was conducted

using various keywords that focused on *police, stress, negative emotions, distress, domestic extremism, domestic extremist, homegrown terrorism, domestic terrorism, media influence, jihad, and media effects*. The resources for this literature review were also gathered at the library of Walden University online, Google Scholar, Stonehill College Library, Massasoit Community College Library, Ames Free Library, Cable News Network (CNN), and Aljazeera America.

The literature review began by discussing the power of media influence and then discussed domestic extremism in detail. This discussion gave an explanation of extremism vs. terrorism and how terrorist ideology connects with domestic extremists. The next section focused on negative emotions in general and how they are related to the police. The fourth section gave an example of the connection of media influence on domestic extremists targeting police. Lastly, the chosen conceptual framework for this research was summarized.

Media Effects

Media effects are divided into two sections to organize the different type of effects (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The term *media effect* is broad and based on the list of issues that helped develop the definition (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The definitions of media effects “are those things that occur as a result—either in part or in whole—from media influence” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 38). The eight key issues of media effects, as discussed in Chapter 1, are “timing, duration, valence, change, intention, the level of effect, direct and manifestation” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 36).

Potter and Riddle mentioned six types of effects the media can have on an individual from the organizing level. The six types are “cognition, belief, attitude, affect, physiology, and behavior” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 41). The cognition media effect occurs when an individual is exposed to the media and the person’s mental processes are influenced (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The second type, beliefs, is associated with the probability of a given attribute of an object or event (Potter & Riddle, 2007).

Attitudes, the third type, are “judgments about something” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 42). Fourth is affect, which refers to something an individual experience (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The psychological effect is a bodily response that is automatic (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The last type is behaviors defined “as the overt actions of an individual” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 42).

On the media-influenced level, there are four effects: acquiring, triggering, altering, and reinforcing (Potter & Riddle, 2007). Acquiring and triggering are the two functions considered as immediate effects that happen during or right after media exposure (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The third effect, altering, can either show up immediately but have other effects that may occur that will take time (Potter & Riddle, 2007). Reinforcing is the last effect that “gradually adds more weight to something already existing in a person” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 44).

The last important organization of media effects is the media effects template (MET), which is a “two-dimensional matrix that is used to categorize the media effects literature” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 48). MET is organized into two sections: one for the individual-level effects and its six structural types of effects with four media-influenced

functions and the second macro-level by five types of effects with three macrostructures (Potter & Riddle, 2007). Social media sites are an influence of media effects and influence perceptions (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2004; Sjovaag, 2014). A theory of media effects is the framing theory that plays a different role from other effects by the media that is imperative for understanding media influences.

Conceptual Framework

The literature review developed three theories for the conceptual framework of this study: (a) media effects, (b) framing theory, and (c) James-Lange theory of emotion. Within the review of media effects, the role of the framing theory was evaluated, with a particular focus on media effectiveness of frames to influence perceptions of specific situations (Best & Chariness, 2015; Borah, 2011). A media effect was discussed, with consideration given to media influence in general, such as emotions and perceptions (Potter & Riddle, 2007; Sjovaag, 2014). Finally, the James-Lange theory was examined and considered relevant to how one's perception is influenced psychologically, after an exciting event (Gasquoine, 2014; Palencik, 2007).

The Framing Theory

The framing theory is one of the many powerful influence methods that the media use today to expand on specific problems in different perspectives (Satti, 2015; TheoryClusters, n.d.). Framing refers to the “process by which people develop a particular conceptualization of an issue or reorient their thinking about an issue” (Chong & Druckman, 2007, p. 104). Tversky and Kahneman (1981) suggested that framing is a

psychological principle that governs the probabilities and outcomes to an identical issue that were framed in different ways.

The media frames a particular issue to draw public attention to the specific topic (Borah, 2011; Satti, 2015; TheoryClusters, n.d.). The media decides how to organize and present that information (Borah, 2011; TheoryClusters, n.d.). The news is notorious for making some issues more important than others by bringing them up more than once (TheoryClusters, n.d.). Another way that framing creates psychological reactions is based on loss and gain news (Borah, 2011; Boydston & Glazier, 2013).

Heilman and Miclea (2016) investigated the consistency of the framing theory across three decisional domains that included health and others. The results of Tversky and Kahneman (1981) emphasize the preference of a sure outcome over losses. The results of the study that Hilman and Miclea (2016) conducted showed different issues from the corresponding decisional domains eliciting varying levels of framing effects.

The contrast found within decisional domains might affect emotional reactions that are triggered by the decisional dilemmas (Heilman & Miclea, 2016). When the media believes their efforts have been a gain rather than a loss, they start working on another frame (Powell, 2011; Satti, 2015; Xiaobo, Hongning, Xiaodong, & Juli, 2015). Since media networks work for multiple audiences, more than one frame can be focused on, depending on the network (Powell, 2011; Rahman, 2014).

James-Lange Theory

The James-Lange theory of emotion suggested a psychological change followed by the perception of an “exciting event” (Fehr & Stern, 1970, p. 412). Newman, Perkins,

and Wheeler (1930) mentioned that James and Lange did not work together on this theory. James focused on the emotion of bodily and visceral changes after an exciting event (Newman et al., 1930, p. 305). On the other hand, Lange placed a great emphasis on circulatory system changes (Newman et al., 1930, p. 305). Although the two worked separately on this theory, the two ideas were put together to create the James-Lange theory of emotion (Newman et al., 1930). James stated that this suggestion implied that emotion goes with behavioral responses that emphasized primary and secondary reactions to the exciting event (Fehr & Stern, 1970).

Gasquoine (2014) researched emotional behavior and the limbic system and found results similar to the James-Lange theory of emotion. Gasquoine (2014) and Dalgleish (2004) noted from the James-Lange theory of emotion that different emotional states that humans present by interpreting external cues are associated with a generalized internal physiological response. Gasquoine (2014) researched emotional behavior and the limbic system and found the results similar to the James-Lange theory of emotion. Dalgleish (2004) evaluated the theory of emotion and found that “changes in the bodily concomitants of emotions can alter their experienced intensity” (p. 583).

The James-Lange theory is important because it could explain how the media uses influences individual perceptions about a specific event. Once an exciting event has happened, changes in perception and reactions about that event start to form (Fehr & Stern, 1970). According to Fehr and Stern (1970), Goldstein, a researcher, examined the theory and stated a limitation: it only explains human perceptions and responses (p. 421).

Framing theory addresses the importance of media effects and how the media influences others by focusing on specific events to draw attention to certain crowds (Heilman & Miclea, 2016). The James-Lange theory of emotion can enhance the understanding of how individuals interpret external emotions associated with internal psychological demands. Gasquoine (2014) suggested that the research conducted would reveal how internal and external emotions drive specific behavior.

Both theories would be appropriate for attempting to understand how media effects could influence domestic extremism and negative emotions. Combining these two theories with the overall mainframe of media effects may provide a broader understanding of police officers' views on how media effects may influence domestic extremist and negative emotions. Therefore, each of the theories on media effects, framing theory, and James-Lange theory of emotion was used as a guiding research paradigm and narrative as a methodology (Patton, 2002).

Brief Background on Media Influence

Altheide (2013) and Mutz (1989) noted that individuals exposed to the third-person effect were affected by specific media messages. Katz (1957) suggested there was a point when media influence was less controlling. The media does not always use direct persuasive influence, but gives a certain attitude to the message (Mutz, 1989). It was not long before communication research suggested that media for modern society needed revision (Katz, 1957). The media-related changes focused on how viewers related to the media (Altheide, 2013).

During the past three decades, the media have used a social construction of reality and a symbolic perception on the nature of meaning (Altheide, 2013). According to Best and Chariness (2015) and Heilman and Miclea (2016), influence is a psychological product of media effects. Framing is a media effect that allows the media to influence specific situations and events and influence viewers. Defining *influence* is producing effects on an individual's behavior, views, or actions (Dalglish, 2004; Heilman and Miclea, 2016; Powell, 2011).

A recent study conducted by Gackowski (2014) reviewed the typology of media power. The study revealed that the media is somewhat of a watchdog and has great impact power over viewers (Gackowski, 2014). Iqbal and Zubair (2014) revealed how the media symbolizes and creates images of individuals and events by using a method called *framing*. These representations may or may not exist based on reality, but rather on a fictional reality (Iqbal & Zubair, 2014; Maier, Gentile, Vogel, & Kaplan, 2014; Rahman, 2014).

Media Misrepresenting Police

McGovern and Lee (2010) interviewed a few journalists and found that the media do not seek actual police officers to describe their work. Instead, the media created their representation of police work (Dirikx, Gelders, & Van den Bulck, 2013; McGovern & Lee, 2010; Schulenberg & Chenier, 2014). The public's perception of them is often affected by the information that is available to the general public (Bain, Robinson, & Conser, 2014).

The majority of television fictional police shows, such as *CSI*, *NCIS*, *Criminal Minds*, *Without a Trace*, and others demonstrated protocols and procedures for law enforcement in specific situations (Dirikx, Van den Bulck, & Parmentier, 2012). However, many of these fictional shows illustrate a modified version of those protocols, thus allowing law enforcement to break the rules (Dirikx et al., 2012). Satti (2015) mentioned that past studies pointed out the fact that media coverage is possibly framed to influence their viewers (Nelson, Oxley, & Clawson, 1997; Pfeiffer, 2012). According to one of the first scholars of framing, Goffman, framing is “schemata of interpretation” (Borah, 2011, p. 248). Building on this idea of framing, Gitlin defined framing as “devices that facilitate how journalists organize enormous amounts of information and package them effectively for their audiences” (Borah, 2011, p. 248).

According to Entman (Borah, 2011), framing is more of “selection and salience” (p. 248). This framing was mentioned by Powell (Satti, 2015), who noted that recent “media coverage of terrorism reveals a culture of fear of Islam” (p. 38). Yarchi, Wolfsfeld, Sheaffer, and Shenhav (2013) reviewed the news and found that it promotes and influences terrorism through the networks.

Media Effects and Types of Media

Media influence does not always include just news or journal articles and can include the Internet and social networks. Far-right extremist groups such as the white supremacy groups were among the first groups to utilize social networks and websites for their ideology (Bruggemann et al., 2014; del Fresno Garcia, Daly, & Segado Sanchez-Cabezudo, 2016). Many far-left terrorist groups focus on utilizing the Internet for

broadcasting murderous videos online; videos of mass destruction, power, hate speeches, messages, recruitment; and videos of how to create bombs and other things that may benefit their cause (Larsson, 2014; Weimann, 2015).

According to Weimann (2015), sites such as YouTube and Dailymotion are used by extremist organizations to upload propaganda videos. Extremist groups can also use the Internet for cyber-attacks that include reading personal and private e-mails and gaining classified information; for example, Farwell (2010) and Halverson and Way (2012). This is dangerous for the police considering the majority of the targets of domestic extremists have been government members and the majority of cyber-attacks are of government classified documents (Archetti, 2015; Larsson, 2014; Silber & Frey, 2013). Weimann (2015) mentioned that social media sites are accessible to everyone and create a very comfortable safe zone for extremist groups for communication, hacking, and recruitment.

Majchrzak et al. (2013) mentioned that social media leads to “unexpected interpretations, knowledge conversation of strangers and dynamic emergence” (p. 38). Some of the global social networking sites that are used for recruiting and communication are Twitter and Facebook (McGovern & Lee, 2010; Sutton et al., 2015; Weimann, 2015). According to Bjelopera (2014), many right-wing extremist groups will not showcase their hatred in public but can freely showcase their hate online because it’s anonymous. Majchrzak et al. (2013) concluded by mentioning that all extremist groups are utilizing the internet to achieve their own goals.

Media Effects in Terrorism

The news media plays a considerable role in determining what frames of terrorism get promoted on television (Yarchi, Wolfsfeld, Sheafer, & Shenhav, 2013). However, since terrorists use the mass media to transmit messages, the government agencies and media organizations have taken certain steps to protect citizens from hearing some of these messages (Weimann, 2004). According to Weimann (2004), the effects of computer-mediated communications (CMC) networks, commonly known as the Internet, are ideal for private communications. The Internet cannot be “subject to control or restriction, it’s not censored, and it allows access to anyone” (Weimann, 2004, p. 380).”

Terrorists want to see the effects of their work and the media allows the terrorist organizations to see the psychological reactions of their threats (Brechenridge, Zimbardo & Sweeton, 2010). Every move terrorists make and every reaction from the public is recorded by the media (Brechenridge, Zimbardo, & Sweeton, 2010). According to Alexander (1978), the media is a critical key factor in the planning of terrorists because they use the publicity to encourage more attacks. Terrorist organizations manipulate the media, especially the news and the Internet, with advertising and mass communication (Alexander, 1978; Brechenridge, Zimbardo, & Sweeton, 2010).

Schbley (2004) labeled the American media as a “primary guardian of liberty and social justice, as the oxygen of terrorism” (p. 223). Schbley (2004) interviewed 2,619 participants who indicated that the media gave them information on how to carry out terrorist missions. Schbley’s (2004) study focused on the events of September 11, 2001,

and terrorism in European and Lebanese media coverage. The results showed that European media gave 1,692 participants ideas on how to conduct terrorist missions. While Arab and other media sources gave less than 400 participants' ideas of how to conduct terrorist attacks (Schbley, 2004).

News Coverage

The duties of police officers in counterterrorism and terrorism activities become more crucial than ever—if media reports are untrue (Sela-Shayovitz, 2015; Shane, 2015). The news media puts police at the center of their coverage, which can break the trust of the public and decrease legitimacy (Sela-Shayovitz, 2015). News coverage tends to focus solely on ineffective police performance rather than effective police performance which have a negative impact on the police (Sela-Shayovitz, 2015; Shane, 2015). According to Sensales et al. (2014) depending on how the media portrays the extremist information on extremists could aid with influencing the judgment of sympathizers and how they should plan their attacks. The following section explains how the press influences and frames specific individuals and topics like police performance or terror threats.

The Press

The press have long covered terrorism, international and domestic (extremism), cases and research, in scholarly work dating to the 1970s (Conway & McInerney, 2012). According to Kampf (2014), the media had the right to decide which event to cover in the media. The media would base their coverage on framing current events (Kampf, 2014).

Zhang, Shoemaker, and Wang (2013) conducted research on the international press and terrorism by combining real-world terror incidents and perceptions on media

coverage. They, along with two other researchers, pointed out that terrorist events such as suicide bombings and lone wolf attacks draw in media attention (Gruenewald, Chermak, & Freilich, 2013; Kampf, 2014). Not only do lone wolf attacks capture the attention of the media, but terrorists communicate their cause and message through the fear they create (Zhang, Shoemaker, & Wang, 2013; Kamp, 2014). In their 2013 study, Zhang, Shoemaker, and Wang compared the U.S. news media coverage to the Chinese news media coverage, and what they found was that only terrorist events that were deemed significantly relevant were on the news in China. The study also showed that media coverage in the U.S. newspapers was more sensitive to culture significance (Zhang, Shoemaker, & Wang, 2013).

This study showed that China focused more on obvious facts than the United States. In contrast, the United States looked at all angles of terrorism, small to large. Kampf (2014) made a point about the media operating within boundaries of a nation-state and how the government could limit the media's capacity. In the 1980s, the government would attempt to ban interviews with terrorists, IRA leaders, and other enemies (Kampf, 2014).

The idea of going "live" (advanced broadcasting) allowed for the breaking-news category, which allowed viewers to watch real-time events on the news (Kampf, 2014). Epkins (2012) mentioned that after 9/11 media coverage increased on terrorism issues. The media used frames that influence public opinion about a particular topic (Epkins, 2012). Media frames, which are explained in greater detail later on in the chapter, are regularly utilized by the news media (Epkins, 2012; Kampf, 2014).

Epkins (2012) conducted a study that focused on a term called “prestige press.” This term refers to labels that strongly influence global outlets in three modern mainstream media: newspapers, radio and television (Epkins, 2012). The researcher decided to report on an elite group of front-line reporters for information on how terrorism goals result in certain media coverage and how new media technologies are affecting normal media coverage routines (Epkins, 2012).

This research was unique due to the sampling of the perceptions of media reporters and how their job affected them. One primary goal of frames is to influence a particular audience (Conway & McInerney, 2012; Kampf, 2014). An example would be the Charlie Hebdo attacks that occurred in Paris in January 2015. The European mass media’s frame audience was the whole nation taking a stand and not fearing terrorism (Ferencik, 2015). Epkins focused on comparing the decline of traditional journalism and new technologies available to the media including post-911 journalism routines (Epkins, 2012). The results of Epkins’ (2012) study showed that journalists’ routines about how coverage was reported were not the same after the 911 terrorist attacks.

The traditional prestige press is dying out and merging to the new digital age (Epkins, 2012; Kampf, 2014). Epkins (2012) also revealed that the participants did not feel that news viewers were as interested in topics of terrorism as before. The evidence of framing in the press was evident in this study, leading Epkins (2012) to believe that the news culture may directly influence terrorism reporting.

Epkins’ study showed how framing as new media technology plays a significant role in influencing what is broadcast on national television. Press coverages in the U.S.

on the media's treatment of women terrorists are standing up to empirical scrutiny. The female subject of this article was "Jihadi Jane," and this was Colleen LaRose's online pseudonym (Conway & McInerney, 2012). Brigitte Nacos stated that six separate frames are identified for routinely employing coverage of female terrorists: "1. physical appearance frame, 2. family connection frame, 3. terrorist for love frame, 4. women's liberty/equality frame, 5. tough as males or tougher than men frame, and 6. bored, naive, out-of-touch-with-reality frame" (Conway & McInerney, 2012, p. 8). Conway and McInerney (2012) make the point that media frames the effects depicting men and women differently.

The result of their research confirmed that female terrorists received a notable level of media coverage in the press compared to their male counterparts (Conway & McInerney, 2012). Overall, LaRose received nine times more media coverage than her male jihad partners, Ahmed and Boyd (Conway & McInerney, 2012; Epkins, 2012). Many studies conclude that frames still exist and are much in effect in the press today (Borah, 2011; Conway & McInerney, 2012; Epkins, 2012; Heilman & Miclea, 2016).

To conclude on the issue on the news media and terrorism, the transformation period is divided into three sections (Kampf, 2012). The first stage of framing extremists' attacks starts with representing terror attacks in the evening framed or the next day's newspapers, The second stage was the next day they were seen only a few minutes following a regular broadcasting schedule, and the third stage is when terrorists become the established news source (Kampf, 2012). In the highest terror level, the media stresses coverage not only on terrorism but also the effectiveness of police (Kampf, 2012; Sela-

Shayovitz, 2015). The media stress coverage on police in counter-terrorism policing and at times portray them as heroic but still keeping the aim of media frame in mind (Conway & McInerney, 2012; Kampf, 2012; Sela-Shayovitz, 2014).

The Internet

The Internet can be a new positive media technology or used as a negative source because it is accessible to almost everyone around the globe and can be a beneficial communication tool (Conway & McInerney, 2012; Lehrman, 2015; Nelson & Irwin, 2014). Lehrman (2015) discusses how social media such as Twitter, Facebook, and Google Plus are free and easy to use communication tools. In this section, the Internet, which is used by the media to communicate messages and frame, is connected with terrorism (Kampf, 2012; Lehrman, 2015, Dean, Bell, & Newman, 2012). Social media topics such as recruitment and mass destruction are a part of the social media phenomena (Dean, Bell, & Newman, 2012). The topic about the *Darknet* or *Darkweb* is also a part of the Internet and media connection and discussed in fuller detail.

Social Media

One of the major strategic communication concepts for terrorist groups are the social media sites (Hill, Jackson, & Sykora, 2015; Rothenberger, 2012). The usage of social media sites have progressed significantly since terrorist groups have been putting out propaganda videos and training tools and using sites for recruitment (Dean, Bell, & Newman, 2012; Gates & Podder, 2015; Rothenberger, 2012). Social media (Facebook, YouTube, Twitter) create new communication opportunities for terrorist organizations (Dean, Bell, & Newman, 2012). For example, terrorist groups can easily communicate

with members or potential members then delete messages from servers or use encryption, making messages difficult to read or trace (Archick et al., 2015).

According to Dean, Bell, and Newman (2012), terrorists using online resources are not a new occurrence threat of domestic extremism and have increased. According to Berger (2015), social media is a vital tool for terrorist groups to recruit foreign fighters. For example, lone wolves do not rehearse their skills but research information about possible victims, creating weapons of mass destruction online (McCauley, Moskalenko & Van Son, 2013).

Gates and Podder (2015) examine how terrorist organizations recruit foreign fighters and how they help shape selection, maintain allegiance, and uphold motivations. Reports indicated that more than 20,000 foreign fighters joined terrorist groups (Gates & Podder, 2015). A terrorist group such as Islamic State have a virtual propaganda media unit that is very effective in recruiting and terrorizing (Gates & Podder, 2015). The advantage of social media sites is a prominent way for terrorists to recruit fighters from around the world (Dean, Bell, & Newman, 2012; Grates & Podder, 2015). The latter's review showed that social media created a recruitment net around the globe because Internet access is worldwide.

Cozine (2016) evaluated the mass casualty attacks on various terrorist organizations like Al Qaeda and its affiliates, Islamic State, and others. According to Cozine (2016), these groups haven't been able to achieve their goals in the West since the London bombings. His research showed that the rise of the Islamic State coincided with the conception of social media as a means of communication around the world (Cozine,

2016). Berger (2015) discussed the Islamic State using social media to activate the apocalyptic time online. The results from Cozine's study explained that exploitation of social media is to turn regular attacks into spectacular attacks (Cozine, 2016).

Extremists' attacks are not framed just to increase fear but rather to gain supporters and recruits around the world (Cozine, 2016). In conclusion, Cozine's (2016) examination was interesting because it showed that there is more than one purpose for using social media. The apocalyptic time that Berger (2015) was addressing is defined as "concerned with the imminent end or complete and radical transformation of the world, and signs and portents thereof" (Berger, 2015, p. 6).

Rosman et al. (2014) researched clinical presentations and management of mass casualty events caused by social media being a nerve agent. Although this study focused on casualties of terrorism, the researchers showed how social media was applied to evaluate clinical data and management protocols (Rosman, 2014). The point of bringing up the study by Rosman et al. (2014) was to validate how easy it is to upload anything on YouTube (social media). Not everything about the social media is negative. If there is a terrorist attack, the media is good at keeping the public informed and communicating messages for law enforcement and other government agencies (Sela-Shayovitz, 2015).

Darknet

The darknet is a way for hackers to conduct cyber threats, communicate undetected (encryption), and find security vulnerabilities in operating systems, applications and more (Choi, Song, Kin, & Kim, 2014). Attackers can scan or probe against certain networks to attack victims (individual people, businesses, or even the

government). These attacks usually come as large-scale events and would force connections not to operate and stealth probe the entire IPv4 address space (King, Huffaker, Dainotti, & Claffy, 2014).

Choi, Song, Kim, and Kim (2014) conducted a study that analyzed cyber threats in the darknet, also known as the dark web. In their study, they wanted to observe and analyze the traffic of the darknet to obtain information on malicious activities on the Internet (Choi, Song, Kim, & Kim, 2014). Since each IP address has information about an individual's location, attackers use the darknet to attack anonymously (King, Huffaker, Dainotti, & Claffy, 2014). The results of a study by Choi, Song, Kim, and Kim (2014) was that all of the darknet traffic was considered a global cyber threat and followed that trend. The experimental results also showed that malicious attack patterns and attack codes that weren't detected could be obtained (Choi, Song, Kim, & Kim, 2014).

According to Xiaowen et al. (2014), darknets are becoming popular. They reviewed how traffic, sites, torrents, and user activities were on the darknet (Xiaowen et al., 2014). Depending on the purpose of the darknet base, the appropriate taxonomy paired with it (Xiaowen et al., 2014). The results of their study reflect both macroscopic and microscopic of the darknets (Choi et al., 2014).

Domestic Extremist

The word *domestic* refers to the homeland, and in this case, the United States (Barnes, 2012; Hinkkainen, 2013). The brief definition of the word *extremist* is an individual who participates in terrorist activity (Barnes, 2012; Flaherty, 2003). A general

term defining a *domestic extremist*, also known as a *domestic terrorist*, is an individual who is in the homeland and engages in terrorist activities (Hinkkainen, 2013; Shaya, 2010). The number of anti-government extremist groups increased between 2009 and 2011 (Bjelopera, 2014). However, in 2012, the number of anti-government groups went from 334 in 2011 to 321 in 2012 due to the popularity of lone wolf domestic extremists' attacks (Gruenewald, Chermak & Freilich, 2013).

Foreign terrorist organizations, such as Al-Qaeda or Islamic State, use social media sites to network and find recruits for their cause (Larsson, 2014). These organizations also use social media sites to give tutorials on how to create weapons of mass destruction and plans of attack to their followers (Larsson, 2014). Targets vary and are based on the specific group's ideology, many groups are targeting police officers (Bjelopera, 2014; Santifort, Sandler, & Brandt, 2013; Silber & Frey, 2013). Police officers are easier government targets because some officers patrol the streets wearing uniforms with a government badge. The uniforms and government badge separate them from ordinary citizens.

Many terrorist organizations are encouraging their supporters to perform lone wolf attacks (Bakker & de Graff, 2011; Inal, 2014; Phillips, 2014). Lone wolves are defined as solo terrorist attacks carried out by individuals who do not belong to a particular terrorist group but are influenced by an ideology outside command hierarchy. Lone wolves are a major problem and present many challenges for law enforcement communities in the United States (Chermak et al., 2010; LaFree, 2013; Reid, Meloy, & Yakeley, 2014). It is difficult for law enforcement to pinpoint the exact individual who

was radicalized and decided to act upon terrorist ideologies (Gunaratna & Haynal, 2013; LaFree, 2013).

Motivation of Extremism

Motivation can be caused by specific events that news media focus on the impact on extremist organizations negatively (Bamidele, 2013; Orsini, 2012). According to Bale (2013), many sympathizers are motivated by ideology to carry out attacks specific to the extremist organization's cause. Many ideologies are easily broadcasted by using mass media, and these broadcasts can send out aggressive ideology messages to viewers (Cook, 2009; Elson & Ferguson, 2014; Vidino, 2009). This can help extremist groups radicalize individuals globally. Many sympathizers who are receptive to anti-social messages might identify with extremism ideologies and pay special attention to negative news scrutiny and events (Awan, 2013; Botha, 2015; Martin, 2011).

In conclusion, the Internet is a hotspot for communications because anyone can access it. Terrorist organizations take advantage of this and use it for recruitment, use propaganda, post their ideologies out to the world, and try to create fear (Anti-Defamation League, 2016). Social media networks and using darknets are common for sending messages and radicalizing individuals around the world (Ferguson & Binks, 2015; Hills, Jackson, & Sykora, 2015). Since the use of the Internet is accessible anywhere in the world, social media is a great way for terrorist and other extremist organizations to communicate with each other anonymously (Thompson, 2011). Since terrorist organizations can communicate anonymously, this makes recruiting a simple task (Costanza, 2015; Halverson & Way, 2012; Thompson, 2011).

Negative Emotions

Negative emotions are defined in this study by two terms: emotional regulation and reappraisal. Gross and John (2003) found that emotion is viewed as “passions that come and go” (p. 348). Emotions provide various purposes including directing adaptive functions coordinate social encounters and convey information and feelings and objectives (Perrone-McGovern et al., 2015). This view of emotion dates back to the 1970s (Gross & John, 2003). Since research have improved and developed a wide range of strategies that influence individual emotions (Bruehlman-Senecal & Ayduk, 2015; Gross & John, 2003; Gross, 2001).

According to the study that Gross and John (2003) conducted, these strategies differ, depending on the individual emotional responses. Psychological, as well as behavioral systems, are a part of emotional cues that act as a trigger for response tendencies (Bechtoldt, Rohrman, De Pater, & Beersma, 2011; Galatzer-Levy et al., 2013; Gross & John, 2003; Gross, 2001). Gross and John (2003) also mentioned that emotion could fade over time and the primary emotion strategy can change. The two strategy levels of Emotional Regulation are antecedent-focused and response-focused (Gross & John, 2003; Gross, 2001).

The antecedent-focused strategies focus on the prior events of the emotional responses (Gross & John, 2003; Gross, 2001). The response-focused refers to the aftermath of an emotional response tendency that have already taken place (Gross & John, 2003; Gross, 2001). There are more emotional regulation strategies but for this

study, under emotion regulation, these two strategies are used. Both of these strategies are automatic and are not intentional (Gross & John, 2003; Gross, 2001).

Reappraisal, an antecedent-focused strategy, is a type of cognitive alteration (Gross, 2001). Reappraisal means an individual can re-evaluate a situation that may reduce an emotional impact (Gross & John, 2003; Gross, 2001). According to Gross (2001), reappraisal happens in the early stages of the emotion-generative process and involve cognitively neutralizing emotion-eliciting situations. The way individual think can change and their emotional response to a situation (Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995; Marshall, Wagner, & Nguyen, 2015).

Emotional Effects in Media

Murry and Dacin (1996) conducted a study on emotions, negative and positive, and program-liking on media networks. Their research showed that negative emotions are an ongoing response to environmental stimuli and influences subsequent judgment (Murry & Dacin, 1996). Another type of media that shows non-verbal cues of negative and positive emotion is social networking sites.

Ferrara and Yang (2015) experimented with the spread of emotion on social media, such as Facebook and Twitter. The central focus of the study reviewed how social media affects the emotional behavior and state of individuals (Ferrara & Yang, 2015). The results of their study revealed that on average Twitter showed more negative stimuli (Ferrara & Yang, 2015). Negative and positive emotions do exist in social media even though they consist of nonverbal cues (Ferrara & Yang, 2015).

Emotional Effects among the Police

Police officers are affected by positive and negative emotions depending on traumatic events and life stressors they face (Galatzer-Levy et al., 2013). Stressors from work-related issues can increase the risk for stress-related psychopathology including suicide (Galatzer-Levy et al., 2013). The study that police officers had stress-related negative emotion caused by traumatic events, work routine, both, or lack of proper ways of coping (Galatzer-Levy et al., 2013).

Surprisingly, another study reported police officers having acceptable levels of psychological well-being compared to teachers or students (Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995). The possibility of a police officer beginning his or her career with high psychological well-being is not likely because of the controlled intake of psychological well-being (Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995). Hart, Wearing, and Headey's (1995) study also mentioned that organizational health affects the psychological well-being of police officers and their work. The findings from this study demonstrated the need to consider both negative and positive emotions and events to determine causes of emotional effects (Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995).

Emotional Overview

Emotions, positive or negative, can have a high effect on the psychological well-being of police officers and ordinary citizens (Bechtoldt et al., 2011). It is not possible for people, in general, to notice emotional changes right away (Bechtoldt et al., 2011). However, depending on the situation, a traumatic event or unseen influences from media networks, could allow the individual to recognize positive or negative emotions

(Bechtoldt et al., 2011).

Narrative as Method of Inquiry

The problem is how the media influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects their negative emotions. The narrative inquiry was the most appropriate method for this study because it records the life experiences of one person (Baysura, Altun & Yucel-Toy, 2016; Feeley & Thomson, 2016). Another qualitative inquiry that could be used includes phenomenology rather than narrative inquiry, but it records life experiences from a group of individuals (Baysura, Altun, & Yucel-Toy, 2016; Feeley & Thomson, 2016). For this study, phenomenology would not be best because it does not look deeply at the opinion and understanding of one individual but rather a group of people.

Creswell (2013) states that the narrative research method “is a study of stories or narrative or descriptions of a series of events that accounts for human experiences” (p. 283). Reliability can be improved by bringing a good-quality recorder, tape or digital, to obtain detailed field notes during an interview (Busby & Iszatt-White, 2014). Validity is crucial to a qualitative researcher because certain procedures for checking accuracy are put in place to ensure trustworthiness, authenticity, and creditability (Brady, 2015).

Another method of inquiry includes quantitative and mixed methods. The quantitative inquiry, unlike the qualitative inquiry, focuses on developing and testing hypotheses (Creswell, 2009). Regarding research on police officer views, Davidson, Ewert, and Chang (2016) suggested that quantitative methods focus on prediction rather than individual stories and experiences. Quantitative methods objectives would predict

the outcome of the study and not understand the phenomena being studied (Probst, 2015). Unquestionably, quantitative methods would not be beneficial for this research because they deal with statistical data, variables, and testing a theory (Creswell, 2013). This approach focuses on the numeric description of data and generalized information about the participants involved in the study (Creswell, 2013).

A mixed methods inquiry is another alternative method that would not fully focus on exploring the topic of this research. Mixed methods involve both the qualitative, which focus on information from participants and experiences, and quantitative inquiry, which focuses on numerical information (Kopak, 2014). The nature of this study is not suited for quantitative inquiry; therefore, the mixed methods inquiry was reviewed for this phenomenon, but this method was denied.

One goal of qualitative research is to describe the experience of a phenomenon from the perspective of the participant (Brady, 2015). Qualitative research also allows for the researcher to describe, in great or little detail, while quantitative research compares variables for numeric value (Kopak, 2014). The primary focus of qualitative research is to gain an understanding of a specific population than the prediction of variables within a framework that is predetermined (Patton, 2002).

Summary and Conclusions

Results from previously reviewed literature indicated that the media had influenced perceptions and emotions. McCusker and Gunaydin (2015) stated, “Qualitative methods aim to understand the experiences and attitudes to answer questions about the ‘what,’ ‘how’ or ‘why’ of a phenomenon” (p. 537). Qualitative research will

provide a deeper understanding of the complex meanings associated with a phenomenon (Brady, 2015). For example, Probst (2015) conducted a qualitative study to understand how researchers perceived the role of reflexivity, looking at the positives and negatives, in qualitative research. Based on her study, Probst (2015) concluded that time “constraints and pressure to produce research with hard findings” (p. 45) might inhibit the incorporation of reflexivity into the report and research process.

Davidson, Ewert, and Chang (2016) conducted a mixed methods study to provide an in-depth understanding of what transpires psychologically within a subject during high-challenge adventure activity. During their analyses of the qualitative, which were original to investigate themes relative to RERAS constructs, the researchers found that much of the data were missing from the qualitative interview. Davidson, Ewert, and Chang (2016) concluded that, although the qualitative data provided rich information for the quantitative findings, the results were limited. These researchers emphasized that additional research on this study is needed because of the small sample size. The researchers also mentioned that it would be important to investigate this topic more in-depth for other emerging themes with a different sample size.

This chapter presented a review of major literature about the way media influences perceptions of domestic extremists, negative emotions, and the conceptual framework. Literature about media influence, domestic extremist, negative emotions, and methodology was reviewed. The gap in the literature points to the need for a deeper understanding of police officers’ perceptions of media influences of domestic extremists and negative emotions and supports the appropriateness of a narrative study.

Consequently, this study may prolong the present literature on police perceptions, domestic extremists, and media influences. The quantitative method of research would not be the best of this type of study because it deals with the use of “statistical data” (Creswell, 2009; Davidson, Ewert, & Chang, 2016). A narrative research collects stories from individuals about their experiences (Creswell, 2013; Feeley & Thomson, 2016). The narrative inquiry will work best for this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The media have influenced domestic extremists into target police, which affects the negative emotions in the police (Belfer, 2014; Biggs et al., 2014; Walnekar, Ambekar, & Devaranvadagi, 2015). This chapter describes the narrative qualitative approach used to understand police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which, in turn, affects their emotions negatively (Khruakham & Joongyeup, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Pfeoffer, 2012; Santifort, Sandler, & Brandt, 2013). The need for this study is substantiated since the literature does not fully describe the perceptions of police officers on the media's influence on domestic extremists, which then affects the negative emotions of the police officers (Larsson, 2014; Santifort, Sandler, & Brandt, 2013). There are two primary goals of this study. The first goal was to understand how the police viewed media influences on domestic extremists. The second goal was to understand how police officers viewed media influences on negative emotions among the police.

This chapter consists of the research design, methodology, reliability, and validity and ethical considerations. The subsequent sections include research purpose, research questions, the role of the researcher, setting and sample, criteria for participants, gaining access to participants, data collection, protocols, and procedures, trustworthiness, IRB, and informed consent. Other elements include the role of the researcher, ethical protection of participants, criteria for participant selection, data collection, protocol and procedures, data analysis, and coding procedures. The last section will summarize the

methodology chapter and why the narrative qualitative method is the appropriate approach for this study.

Research Design and Rationale

Creswell (2009) and McCusker and Gunaydin (2015) identified two main methodological approaches to social science research: quantitative and qualitative. McCusker and Gunaydin (2015) noted that a qualitative study aims to generate words and a quantitative study aims to generate numbers. Since the purpose of this study is to gain an understanding from those who experienced and lived the phenomenon, a narrative approach is most appropriate for this study (Probst, 2015).

Quantitative research focuses on quantity, statistical data, and analytical testing of a theory with variables (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). In contrast, qualitative research relies on quality, words, and description (Brady, 2015). A quantitative researcher would already have a theory, test the hypothesis, and conduct numerical analysis (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). The qualitative approach aims to gain a deeper understanding of participants, individuals or groups, and personal experiences (Hamby et al., 2016; Probst, 2015).

The qualitative narrative approach focuses on detailed stories of individual experiences (Brady, 2015). This approach was selected for this study because of the intent to understand life experiences and tell a story of one individual. A phenomenology inquiry was considered for this study but would not be appropriate because it focuses on understanding life experiences from a group rather than an individual (Creswell, 2009). A

narrative design allows for data to be collected from individuals that focus on the phenomenon from the testimonies of each participant (Probst, 2015).

Research Questions

Media effects, framing theory, and James-Lange theory of emotion are the three working theories in the conceptual framework for this study. Media effects and framing Theory focused on the effectiveness of frames to influence perceptions, emotions, and other influences. The James-Lange theory focused on how an individual's perception is influenced psychologically after an exciting event.

The media have been influencing its audience for a long time (Altheide, 2013; Mutz, 1989). Mutz conducted research in 1989 on media influences and predicted the media would expose its viewers to specific messages and research, which shows that media still have the same powerful influence (Gackowski, 2014). Research questions were determined to understand how individuals looked at media effects in each focused area. Narrative inquiry was the best method to provide a detailed understanding from each participant.

The research questions for this study are: How do police officers view the media having an influence on domestic extremists and negative emotions among the police? The secondary questions are: How do police officers view media influence on domestic extremism and how do police officers view media influences on negative emotions among the police? The specific questions and prompts are provided in Appendix A.

Justification for Narrative Qualitative Research

The purpose of the study was to understand police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police. Qualitative research looks at an event or phenomenon from the viewpoint of the individual (Brady, 2015). The narrative approach focuses on telling a story of one individual rather than a group of individuals (Moloney & Wang, 2016).

A qualitative study is usually conducted in a natural setting with the intent of gaining a holistic view of a specific population, instead of using microanalyses (Hamby et al., 2016). This narrative qualitative research focused on police officers' perceptions to understand their story on the phenomenon. This individual focus is the center of the narrative qualitative research (McCuster & Gunaydin, 2015). Qualitative designs permit a variety of similar perceptions and stories that can create in-depth information (Hamby et al., 2016; Probst, 2015). This approach was selected for the interview methods to obtain data-rich narratives.

The in-depth information from the narratives will help achieve ideal saturation of data. The narrative inquiry identifies stories and experiences as a story that becomes meaningful through interpretation (Moloney & Wang, 2016). Narratives allowed police officers to describe their own unique story in detail without barriers. Thus, a narrative qualitative method is the selected approach for understanding social and behavioral phenomena.

Role of the Researcher

Since qualitative inquiry is subjective, it is important for the researcher to know his or her role is vital in guiding the research (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). According to Patton (2002), it is essential for the researcher to have credibility in qualitative studies. In qualitative research, the researcher is the primary data collection instrument and the identification of personal values, assumptions, and biases must be made at the outset of the study (Creswell, 2011; Patton, 2002; Probst, 2015).

Programs such as Nvivo, Microsoft Office, QDA Miner, or HyperResearch help with organizing data collected from interviews. These programs also helped with coding for developing themes. The importance of reporting negative testimony developing from analysis and considering alternative explanations before researching conclusions would at least have a partial validity (Moloney & Wang, 2016; Patton, 2002). This way, the researcher evades the challenge that initial assumptions dictated the outcome. The researcher will use Microsoft office Onenote to transcribe the data and Excel to organize the themes and subthemes from the interviews.

Researcher bias can be difficult in the context of perception narrative research and, for that reason, this attempt is to practice and integrate reflexivity to minimize research bias (Probst, 2015). In contrast, other narrative researchers urged the researcher to use expressive writing for careful moderation in the research journey (Hamby et al., 2016). The researcher's role as an observer-participant means "minimal involvement in the social setting being studied" (Gold, 1958).

Methodology

The qualitative narrative method was the base for this informed research, which consisted of semistructured, audio-recorded interviews with 15 patrol officers who have worked about six years. A literature search from the library at Walden University was conducted using EBSCOhost, Emerald Management, Academic Search Complete, and CINAHL Plus with Full Text with the keywords *narrative studies*, *qualitative methodology*, and *narrative studies* for the methodology.

The narrative design allowed for gathering and analyzing data by synthesizing personal testimonies and experiences into a unique story (Hamby et al., 2016; Patton, 2002). The narrative inquiry is a broad term involved in “generating and analyzing stories of life experiences and reporting that kind of research” (Schwandt, 2015, p. 211). The goal was to understand of perceptions of an individual’s life (Patton, 2002). McCusker and Gunaydin (2015) emphasized that the researcher should “ensure the quality of the process since he/she will need to interpret data after its acquisition” (p. 537). In this study, face-to-face semistructured interviews with a sound-recorder were used for the data collection process.

Setting and Sample

Snowball sampling is a strategy in which researchers ask participants to tell their acquaintances about the study based on the criterion the researcher set (Emersen, 2015). A snowball sampling of 15 patrol officers who worked as a law enforcement officer for at least six years were potential participants. Referrals of potential participants who met the criteria to participate were identified through various personal and professional contacts.

Creswell (2013) recommended that a small heterogeneous group with three to 15 participants would help achieve saturation for a qualitative study. The sample size of 15 would be enough to achieve saturation and maximize a variety of perspectives among the police participants. Snowball sampling is an appropriate strategy because it enabled the researcher to select a starting participant and tell them the criteria of the study and then refer others to the study they know (Emersen, 2015; Sadler, Lee, Lim, & Fullerton, 2010). In general, this method is appropriate for qualitative inquiry in which the researcher seeks to describe the lived experience of a specific phenomenon (Brady, 2015).

The rationale for limiting the law enforcement officers to patrol officers was to enable all participants who patrol the streets for the majority of their job responsibilities to give their perceptions of media effects. The limiting of police officers who have been patrol officers for at least six years is because of the post-911 era, capturing perceptions of police officers of media influences after 911, and how this affected their well-being (Bjelopera, 2014; Botha, 2015; Thompson, 2011). There is no stipulation between full-time and part-time officers.

The officers have to be a paid employee of the department. The rationale for using this sampling technique is that it will provide the researcher with the ability to choose patrol officers who possibly had common stories. Snowball sampling remains a suitable strategy because the concept of generalization is compatible with qualitative methodologies (Schwandt, 2015). The type of generalization used in this study is a

naturalistic generalization because it helps to interpret stories that are structured, richly detailed, and personal (Schwandt, 2015).

Criteria for Selecting the Participants

Fifteen patrol officers who worked as police officers for at least six years were asked to participate in a semi structure, audio-recorded interview consisting of open-ended questions. According to Creswell (2011) and Patton (2002), a narrative inquiry can provide in-depth information with a few participants. The researcher reached out to personal contacts and referrals to invite them to participate in the study. The letters with criteria list used in Appendix C.

Inclusion criterion specified that participants for this study must have worked as a patrol officer and been a police officer for at least six years. This term will allow the police officer to have more than one experience with different types of situations (Belfer, 2014). Exclusion criterion stipulated that no police officer could have less than six years' experience and never had the status of a patrol officer. There were no specifications on race or ethnicity, marital status, educational level, or religious background, although these things are not a requirement for the study, demographics giving, as an opinion, as data for the study.

Gaining Access to Participants

Participants were recruited by using the snowball sampling method. This sampling involves professional contacts that the researcher knows. The researcher will ask that contact if they may know someone who meets the criteria of the study. If they do, the researcher will request that individual's contact information (Phoenix et al.,

2016). The snowball sampling allowed the researcher to ask potential participants over the phone or set up an in-person meeting.

If the potential candidate was contacted by phone, then a private meeting was arranged. This way the police departments of each participant won't be involved directly in the research activities. The procedures for in-person contacts and meet-ups are identical because both require an arranged meeting to make sure the potential participant have enough time to listen to the information that was presented.

The pre-interview meeting was arranged at a place of their choice and took 30 minutes of their time. An example of what was presented at the in-person meeting is a packet that has the informed consent and the initial letter of invitation. Each potential participant was advised to read over each document on their own time to make sure they understood the study. The initial letter of invitation included information about the study and the researcher's contact information in case the potential participants had any questions. Assurance of confidentiality was offered to all participants to establish a research/participant relationship (Creswell, 2011). Interviews were held in a library that was convenient for the participants and was audio-recorded.

Data Collection

Data were collected through semistructured, in-person interviews along with a guided list of questions, but diverging questions may have to be asked if different and relevant topics emerge during the interviews. That will allow participants to emphasize and construct their unique story about their experiences (Hamby et al., 2016; Phoenix et al., 2016). Interviews were administered in person in a private local library that is

convenient for the participants. Before the interviews, participants were recruited by using snowball sampling.

If the participant qualified, the documents were handed back to the researcher in-person, giving the researcher permission to contact the participant for an interview.

Interviews were audio-recorded and transcripts were written verbatim from the digital and audio tapes. If the researcher needed clarification, he or she asked the participant for clarification of their information and to verify that the information is correct (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015; Phoenix et al., 2016).

Member checking ensures that data from the interview and interpretations are authentic (Probst, 2015). Member checks also allow for additional participant explanations and review of interpretations. The interviews and all recorders, flash drives, and other records associated with this research were stored in a fireproof filing cabinet in the researcher's home office. Additional details of the data collection are presented in Chapter 4.

Protocols and Procedure

Protocols and procedures for conducting a narrative qualitative study follow a general guide rather than a step-by-step approach (Brady, 2015; Creswell, 2013). It is important for the researcher to make sure that the research question fits the narrative approach. When creating the research criteria, it is important to select individuals who may have stories to tell. Strategies for gaining access to each participant were the same.

The recruiting method was snowball sampling. A package was passed out in a manila envelope to professional and private contacts of interest (Emerson, 2015). The

package had a detailed letter explaining the study and the informed consent form. The detailed letter explained the potential participant's rights even after each participant signed the informed consent form to participate. There was a checklist separate from the detailed letter about the study that asked each potential participant to check off their qualifications for the study criteria. There was an informed consent form available for potential participants to sign if they wish to participate in the study.

The one-on-one interviews were conducted at a time and library convenient for the participants. According to Brady (2015), the interviewer should not make the interview too long and should stay within the allotted time period. The in-person interviews ranged from 60 to 90 minutes. After the participant's responses were transcribed, a copy of the interview transcript with the researcher's initial interpretations and findings were sent to each participant by mail or e-mail. The participant may change the script in any way to better reflect their beliefs or to correct the researcher's transcription of their answers. After completion of the study, each participant can pick from one of three \$5.00 gift cards to these coffee shops: Dunkin Donuts, Starbucks, or Mary-Lous.

Being in this type of study involves some risk of the minor discomforts that can be encountered in daily life, such as becoming upset and stressed. Due to the nature of this study, it is possible for a participant to encounter a more than minimal risk of harm that goes beyond normal daily experiences that could be triggered, such as distress, depression, and other negative emotions. The likelihood of a participant encountering

minor discomforts in daily life on a 1-4 scale with 1- not likely, 2- somewhat likely, 3- very likely, and 4- extremely likely would range for this study “2- somewhat likely”.

The likelihood of a participant encountering more than minimal risk of harm that goes beyond normal daily experiences on a scale 1-4 with 1- not likely, 2- somewhat likely, 3- very likely, and 4- extremely likely would range for this study as 1- not likely. Although the more than minimal risk of harm that goes beyond normal daily experiences was not likely in this study, participants were informed that not likely does not mean not a possibility. The risk was minimized by paying attention to the changes in tone of voice, emotions, and physical actions made by the participants. When changes were detected, the researcher checked with the participant to see if he or she wanted to continue with the interview or stop. Emerson (2015), suggested if any participant shows signs of risk that the interview stops and no longer continues the study with the participant. No changes were detected at a serious level. If there were any serious changes, the protocol was to stop the interview immediately.

Data Analysis Plan

Organized and analyzed data were completed according to the technique of coding to develop themes from the participants' lived experiences. A code was assigned by capturing the symbolic form of visual data (Barbour, 2001; Bryman, 2006). Using codes to identify themes will reveal patterns and relationships leading to a description of the primary research question of “How do police officers view the media having an influence on domestic extremists and their negative emotions?”

The three types of coding used for this qualitative narrative study were open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. The opening coding builds categories of information for axial coding to have something to compare. The axial coding involves constant comparison to developing themes to related categories of data (Brown, 2001; Jones & McEwen, 2000). The selective coding will integrate categories and subcategories that will possibly develop during axial coding to reveal relationships. The procedures for coding involved gathering the data from the semistructured interviews.

After the data from each interview was transcribed, the researcher used Microsoft Office Onenote and Excel for organizing the data. When the coding process started, open coding, which develops categories, was used first. Once the categories were developed, then axial coding was used with a primary focus on comparing themes of related categories and subcategories (Brown, 2001; Jones & McEwen, 2000).

The last coding technique was selective and allowed for integrated categories and subcategories to build stories (Brown, 2001; Jones & McEwen, 2000). In the process of analyzing the data, if any discrepancies were noticed in data patterns, then that indicated the need to go deeper into the data (Patton, 2002). The data that did not fit the overall pattern of themes were noted in the coding as different perceptions and additionally analyzed the significance of this research.

Reliability and Validity

In qualitative research, the concepts of reliability and validity refer to the organization, quality, and consistency throughout the whole project (Busby & Iszatt-White, 2014; Creswell, 2009). In contrast, in quantitative research, reliability refers to

whether or not results can be replicated, and validity refers to whether the tool was able to measure what was intended to be measured and was it accurate (Creswell, 2009; Ho, Gabriel & Kohl, 2015). Strategies such as data triangulation and member checking can be used to promote reliability and validity results.

It is important to develop specific procedures to ensure the trustworthiness of the approach and results of the study. Conducting research requires an unbiased researcher throughout the process. However, it is difficult to leave out bias even in research (Grimes & Schulz, 2002). Data collection can be influenced in qualitative research by research biases (Stern & Simes, 1997). Member checking is one way to check for accuracy of qualitative findings by taking the final report to the participants to have them read what was written (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002; Stern & Simes, 1997). As the researcher, it is important that each participant feels comfortable with the answers they give. Therefore, the researcher's plan for sharing the results with each participant includes sending him or her the transcribed interview for review. Once the data was okay, then participants were sent a copy of the final summary results page. Each participant who requested to have the results mailed was given a stamp to return the copy because of alterations. In-person or e-mail does not need a stamp. Each participant will have one week to review their results for errors or incorrect transcription.

Trustworthiness

It is important to form specific procedures to ensure the trustworthiness of the design and outcomes of the study. Conducting research requires the researcher to remain bias-free throughout the process (Stern & Simes, 1997). It is important for the researcher

to be truthful when transcribing data from interviews and writing the final report.

However, it is hard to be bias-free, but the researcher can remain aware of self-biases through the whole process of study (Busby & Iszatt-White, 2014; Stern & Simes, 1997).

Issues of trustworthiness involve qualitative creditability, transferability, dependability, confirmability, and intra- and intercoder reliability.

Credibility

Since it is hard for a researcher to stay unbiased, member checking and data triangulation are good ways of checking for accuracy and establishing credibility. To establish credibility, which is also called internal validity, the results from the research must be from the participants of the study. The participants are the only ones who can evaluate the credibility of the results from the point of view is through their eyes (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Williams, 2006). Member checks will help with making sure that participants' information is credible (Patton, 2002; Stern & Simes, 1997).

The sample size helped with saturation and spent prolonged time in the field of interest to better understand the phenomena of interest (Cutcliffe & McKenna, 1999; Patton, 2002). Researchers should practice flexibility when conducting interviews and transcribe data. After the final report was written, the researcher allowed each participant to read it and take out of the script any discrepancies and replace it with their own thoughts.

Transferability

Transferability means that results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings (William, 2006). To ensure transferability, also

known as external validity, the researcher would need to make sure to have an information-rich context that is central to the research (William, 2006). It is important to have an information-rich context so that the information is transferable.

The variations in participant selection will start with the sampling strategy, which is snowball sampling (Emerson, 2015). The criteria for the participants' selection are as follows: 1. must be a patrol officer, 2. employed as a law enforcement officer for at least six years, 3. worked as a patrol officer, 4. live in the state of Massachusetts, and 5. a full- or part-time employee of a police department. Although the patrol officers limit the participant selection, the gender and location of the patrol officers give variation to the selection of participant.

Dependability

Schwandt (2015) mentioned an audit trail when a third-party reviews the work of the researcher. He also mentions that the purpose of an audit trail is to render a judgment about the dependability of procedures employed in the researcher's final report. This system is an organized documentation system that included information that was generated during the study (Creswell, 2009; Schwandt, 2015).

Triangulation is used so that researchers can corroborate different courses, methods, investigators, and theories (Creswell, 2013). The researcher will compare information from the study and other sources to build a justified reason for themes (Creswell, 2009; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). According to Schwandt (2015), this method is also used to establish that the criteria of validity were met. Methods of

triangulation include peer review, negative case analysis, and clarifying the bias of the researcher (Creswell, 2013; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015).

Conformability

Conformability helps to ensure that the data collected were not just a fictional figment of the researcher's imagination (Schwandt, 2015). This will allow for the auditor to link assertions with actual findings and facts to the data (Schwandt, 2015). This will allow for the researcher's study to be more trustable because all the facts would be checked by a third party who will ensure the researcher's findings.

Another important aspect of conformability is reflexivity. Reflexivity should be practiced by every qualitative researcher (Probst, 2015). The term reflexivity refers to the researcher being able to practice critical thinking on his or her own bias (Schwandt, 2015). It is a good self-inspection that will work regardless of the type of inquiry the researcher decides to use (Probst, 2015; Schwandt, 2015).

Intra and Intercoder Reliability

In qualitative research, qualitative reliability refers to the method in which the researcher can be consistent across different projects (Creswell, 2009; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Since qualitative researchers should document their procedures in as many steps as possible, there are several reliability procedures another researcher can follow. Some of the steps include the researcher checking the manuscript for mistakes and cross-check codes (Creswell, 2009; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015).

Under qualitative reliability, there is something called the intercoder agreement. This agreement is the use of multiple coders to analyze transcript data to see if codes are

agreed upon (Creswell, 2013; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015; Probst, 2015). This agreement also means that once a specific code has been assigned, then all the coders will use the same code (Creswell, 2013; Probst, 2015). However, Creswell (2013) states that it does not mean that the same passages or lines in the transcript have to be coded.

Ethical Considerations

The research presented minimal risk to research participants, but raised ethical considerations. All participants were treated according to the ethical guidelines of the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB). Prior to contacting potential participants or completing any research for this current study, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Walden University assessed and approved the study plan. The IRB approval number for this study is 03-06-17-0315874 with an expiration date of March 5, 2018. The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certification for protecting human research participants' number is 1202827. As the research, consulting with the dissertation committee chairperson and methodologist before taking any action in the field will ensure the highest level of ethical performance and uphold the integrity of the research, protect the anonymity of participants, and ensure there were no risks associated with participation in this study.

Informed Consent/IRB

Study participants were expected to sign an informed consent before the interviews based on the conditions of the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The signed consent forms are stored in a locked fireproof file safe in the researcher's home office. Recruitment of potential study participants began after IRB

approval was granted. The IRB approval letter is in Appendix D. The IRB convenes under federal regulatory authority to protect research participants and ensure procedures comply with the congressional law. No research, request for participants, arrangements for interviews, or collection of data was conducted until the IRB approval was officially received. The IRB approval number for this study is 03-06-17-0315874 with an expiration date of March 5, 2018. The IRB approval letter can be found in Appendix E.

Confidentiality and Data Storage

All records related to this research are stored on a flash drive and hard drive and both are password protected. No data will remain on the computer without being password protected (Patton, 2002). Participants were identified by three random numbers that will have no significance to the participants or the departments where they are employed. Confidentiality is protected by using coding, such as Participant 101. No police departments were named or associated with the participants involved in the study to help protect confidentiality. The researcher explained the purpose of this study to each potential participant and how the input is important. Before beginning the study, the researcher explained to each potential participant that he or she was free to discontinue the interview at any time and for any reason.

Digital and tape recorders, flash drives, and transcripts of interviews are stored in a locked fireproof file cabinet in the researcher's home office and only the researcher has access. Any information that may identify participants was removed from written records. All files will be kept for a minimum of five years following completion of the study. After that time, all files will be destroyed.

Summary

The purpose of the qualitative study was to understand the perceptions of police and how media influences domestic extremists and negative emotions (Belfer, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Pfeiffer, 2012; Silber & Frey, 2013). The researcher recruited 15 full-time members of law enforcement using the snowball sampling, who considered themselves at one-time patrol officers in the United States. The first goal of this study was to understand how the police view media effects on domestic extremists (Belfer, 2014; Pfeiffer, 2012).

The second goal of this study was to understand how police officers view media effects on negative emotions among police from being targets of domestic extremists (Larsson, 2014; Silber & Frey, 2013). The narrative method remains the most efficient inquiry for this investigation because it allowed for unique story-telling of complex meanings (Brady, 2015; Probst, 2015). A demographic questionnaire and an interview guide were used to ensure the consistency of interviews with each participant.

This chapter provided a description of the methodology that was used for this qualitative study, including a discussion of the research design and the rationale for selecting a narrative. A description of the target population, sampling procedures, and protocols, researcher's role, data analysis, trustworthiness, and ethical considerations are also described in this chapter. Research literature was provided for further understanding of the identified trends. Participants were recruited from snowball sampling method (Emerson, 2015; Phoenix et al., 2016). Opening, axial, and selective coding were used to

provide rich descriptive stories of the phenomena (Brown, 2001; Jones & McEwen, 2000).

Measures that will strengthen the quality of the study include audio tapes, transcripts of interviews, and member checking. All taped and transcribed data were coded and stored along with consent forms in a secured and locked fireproof filing cabinet and kept for five years after the study. After five years, all data from this research will be destroyed. Chapter 4 reports the data analysis and the study results and Chapter 5 interprets the study results, conclusions, and recommendations.

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter 4 presents the results of this study. The purpose of this narrative study was to understand police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Frequin, Stephens & Tuffin, 2006; Walvekar, Ambekar, & Devaranavadagi, 2015). The conceptual framework that was examined with the problem of the study includes media effects, framing theory, and the James-Lange theory of emotion. The following research questions were used in this narrative study and provided the foundation for the in-depth interview questions: (a) How do police officers view the media having an influence on domestic extremists and negative emotions among the police? (2) How do police officers view the media's influence on domestic extremism? and (3) How do police officers view the media's influence on negative emotions among the police?

There were two primary goals for this study. The first goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on domestic extremists. The second goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on negative emotions in the police. This chapter includes research design, methodology, reliability and validity, ethical considerations and the chapter summary. The subsequent sections include research purpose, research questions, and the role of the researcher, setting and sample. The criteria for participants, gaining access to participants, data collection, protocols, and procedures, trustworthiness, IRB, and informed consent are all covered.

Research Design and Approach

This qualitative narrative method studies investigated media effects and how police officers were affected. The purpose of this study was to understand the perceptions of those who experience the phenomenon. This research included face-to-face interviews to gather rich data to investigate the similarities and differences between media effects on police being the targets of domestic extremist and media effects on negative emotions among police officers (Brady, 2015). Narrative inquiry, driven by media effects, framing theory, and James-Lange theory of emotion, continues to be the most insightful method for such research (Hamby et al., 2016; Probst, 2015).

Research Purpose

The purpose of this narrative qualitative research study was to understand the perceptions of police officers of media effects. Approval to conduct this study was granted by the Walden University Institutional Review Board (03-06-17-0315874). The approval letter for this study can be found in Appendix E. The study was conducted with 15 participants who were or currently are patrol officers. Domestic extremists are targeting police officers because of media influences, which affect their negative emotions, such as distress, fear, frustration, and other negative emotions (Biggs et al., 2014; Frequin, Stephens & Tuffin, 2006; Walvekar, Ambekar, & Devaranavadagi, 2015).

This chapter describes the narrative qualitative approach that was used to understand police perceptions of how the media have influenced domestic extremist to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police (Khruakham & Joongyeup, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Pfeoffer, 2012; Santifort, Sandler, & Brandt, 2013).

In addition to the narrative data derived from the interview, a demographic questionnaire including information on personal information, such as race, year graduated, pre- or post-911 patrol officer, was obtained. This purpose of the questionnaire was to provide additional descriptive information about each participant. Although the use of qualitative data in qualitative projects is allowed, this information was primarily for comparison reasons between yes or no, pre- or post-911, and information of the sort (Hamby et al., 2016). There were two primary goals of this study. The first goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on domestic extremists. The second goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on negative emotions in the police. Both objectives were met in this study.

In limiting participants to police officers who were or still are patrol officers, all of whom live in one state and worked at least six years as a police officer, the study satisfied criteria for both appropriateness and adequacy. The conceptual and methodological perspectives, as well as the purposes of this study, influenced the research methods chosen for this investigation. Particular attention was paid to ensuring that the methods were consistent with media effects, framing theory, James-Lange theory or emotion and narrative inquiry, as well as the distinctiveness of each experience from the police officers.

The narrative design allowed gathering and analyzing data and synthesizing personal testimonies and unique stories (Hamby et al., 2016; Patton, 2002). The narrative inquiry is a broad term involved in “generating and analyzing stories of life experiences

and reporting that kind of research” (Schwandt, 2015, p.211).” The goal was to understand the stories and perceptions of police officers of the phenomenon (Patton, 2002). McCusker and Gunaydin (2015) stated that the researcher “important to ensure the quality of the process, since he/she will need to interpret data after its acquisition (p. 537).

Data Collection

Data collection was conducted through semistructured face-to-face interviews that lasted up to 60 minutes, with 15 participants over two weeks. The length of the interviews depended on the responses from participants. All interviews were digitally recorded and are stored on a password-protected computer external hard drive. Throughout the process, the researcher was the only one who had access to the data and any files associated with the study. This study was conducted to understand the lived experiences of police officers, especially those who work patrol, and their perceptions of media effects in specific areas. The interview questions were written with the research questions in mind. Each participant has a chance to review each question and answer to ensure quality of the interpret data (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). The primary research questions were

- 1) How do police officers view the media having an influence on domestic extremists and negative emotions among the police?
- 2) How do police officers view the media’s influence on domestic extremism?

- 3) How do police officers view the media's influence on negative emotions among the police?

After the first interview, the researcher modified two questions and changed the order of several others to provide sequential flow for all the questions. In addition to the main questions that were asked, follow-up questions and prompts were used to elicit more detailed responses or gain additional information about participants.

A snowball sampling approach was used to identify those who met criteria: a law enforcement officer for at least six years, is or was (retired or rank change) a patrol officer during or after September 11 terrorist attacks. Participants were initially identified through personal contacts. Initially, 20 participants were estimated for this study, but saturation was met at 15 participants. All participants were residents of the United States and all interviews were conducted in a mutually agreed upon library from the three choices. Before interviewing, a detailed explanation regarding informed consent was given to each participant explaining that participation was voluntary and that they could choose not to answer certain questions or choose not to continue with the interview at any time or for any reason. Emerson (2015) suggests that participants should remain anonymous and have a identifier instead that they can be referred by. The researcher coded all material to protect participant confidentiality by replacing names with unique identifiers (i.e., 1234).

Protocol and Procedure

Data collection for this IRB-approved study commenced with the single researcher contacting professional acquaintances and friends and research readiness to

collect data. Each welcoming letter, Appendix C, was given to an initial contact to pass on to others who might be interested in participating in a study. The detailed letter also explained the potential participant's rights, even after signing the permission to participate. It is important to remember that protocols and procedures for conducting a narrative qualitative study follow a general guide rather than a step-by-step approach (Brady, 2015; Creswell, 2013).

The informed consent form had the criteria and other important information for the participants to read before deciding if they wanted to participate in this research study. Approximately seven participants were not direct affiliations of mine but were identified through professional referrals. One-on-one interviews were conducted at a time and library convenient for the participant (Probst, 2015). The interviews lasted up to 60 minutes. After the participants' responses were transcribed, a copy of the interview transcript was provided with the researcher's initial interpretations and findings that the participant could change any way they like to reflect beliefs better or to correct the researcher's transcription of the answers (Bryman, 2006).

After completion of the study, each participant picked from one of three \$5.00 gift cards to these coffee shops: Dunkin Donuts, Starbucks, or Mary-Lous. Although the majority of participants declined the offer, some participants did accept the 'thank you' and thought about giving the gift to someone else.

Data Handling, Protection, and Management

Data handling, protection, and management involved protecting participants identity, procedures for handling raw data, documenting collected data, and long-term

security of stored data (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015; Probst, 2015). Electronic database security arrangements provided protection from database access by any individual except the researcher. These documents used electronically were all password protected. The researcher took eight hours to transcribe the longest interview and three to four hours to transcribe the rest of the interviews, which were less than 45 minutes. All transcribing was completed by the researcher. The researcher used code identifiers that varied mapping of common perceptions and anything that pertained to this study (Barbour, 2001). Although the researcher transcribed the interview, to protect identities, the participants' codes were always used. Only the researcher had access to the cross-referenced document that associated participant identity with data. Participant identities were protected in all cases and circumstances.

The researcher performed all audio-recorded interviews in a one-on-one controlled setting. Separate informed consent documents used for the interviews were secured separately from transcripts and audio recordings. After the data from each interview were transcribed, then OneNote and Excel were used to help the mapping and coding process. Before the researcher started coding, the mapping process started and revealed common and uncommon perceptions of the participants based on answers to the questions. When the actual coding, the researcher started with open coding, which develops categories (Brown, 2001; Jones & McEwen, 2000).

Once the categories were developed, axial coding was used with a primary focus on comparing themes of related categories and subcategories. The last coding technique was selective and this allowed the researcher to integrate categories and subcategories to

build stories (Bryman, 2006). Although participants had similar and different opinions for some of their answers, 60 percent of participants' opinions would be considered themes and if 50 percent of participants agreed, these would be subthemes. Although there weren't enough perceptions to create subthemes, the different opinions were discussed in the study for comparison.

Trustworthiness of the approach and results of the study were guaranteed by keeping an unbiased opinion throughout the process. It is difficult to leave out bias even in research (Grimes & Schulz, 2002). Data collection can be influenced in qualitative research by research biases (Stern & Simes, 1997). Member checking was one way to check for accuracy of qualitative findings by taking the final report to the participants to have them read what was written (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002; Stern & Simes, 1997). Therefore, the results were shared with the participants. This process included sending each participant the transcribed interview for their review. Once they were okay with the data, then, if needed, the researcher made any alterations and sent them a summary of the final summary results page. Each participant who requested to have their results mailed had a stamp to mail back the copy because of alterations. In-person or e-mail would not need a stamp. Each participant had one week to review their results for errors or incorrect transcription.

Record Retention

Study records will be retained for five years after study completion, through March 8, 2022, in compliance with the IRB. Original records include: (a) participant consent forms, (b) interview audio recordings, (c) microsoft OneNote and Excel data

analyses, and (d) password-protected backup flash drive electronic data files. Only the researcher will have access to stored files during the record retention period. Each document will be locked in a file cabinet in the researcher's home office.

Participants' Demographics

All participants were or currently are patrol officers who graduated from the police academy and reside in the United States. The demographics of the participants were seven police who identified as White, three participants who identified as Black, one who identified as Latino/Hispanic, and four who identified as mixed or multiracial.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Participant Demographics	Value
Race/Ethnicity	
White	7
Black	3
Hispanic/Latino	1
Mixed/Multiracial	4
Marital Status	
Single	1
Married	11
Divorced	3
Separated	0
Sex/Gender	
Male	9
Female	6
Other	0

Table 2

Participants' Status

	Currently a Patrol Officer	Became patrol before 2000	Became patrol on or after 2000	Pre-911 patrol officer	Post-911 patrol officer
P512	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
P329	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
P477	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
P188	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
P984	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
P060	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
P306	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
P214	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
P118	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
P957	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
P409	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
P084	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
P327	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
P854	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
P164	No	Yes	No	Yes	No

Participants' Profiles

Participant 1

Participant 512, a graduate of the police academy, said his purpose for becoming a police officer was to help people. Being a police officer for over 30 years brought many challenging situations, negative and positive alike. Although it seemed that the negative outweighed the positive at times, 512 was not dissuaded from being a police officer and kept a positive attitude.

Participant 2

Participant 329 graduated from the police academy before becoming a police officer. His primary reason for becoming a police officer was to help people and make a difference. After graduating, he started working as a special patrol officer in Washington, D.C. in different government buildings. He experienced 911 when the Pentagon was hit and had to respond to the incident. He would like to make a change internally as well as externally.

Participant 3

Participant 477 is a police academy graduate who is a part of a long family line of police officer excellence. His family started a police department in the same town they have lived since the 1800s. He has kept the family tradition of protecting and serving the community.

Participant 4

A graduate of the police academy, 188 has been on the force since post-911. Graduating from the academy in 2005, he has 12 years of experience and loves to help people in the community. He would not hesitate to risk his life for others to keep his community safe.

Participant 5

Another police academy graduate, 984, is a double force police officer who works as a patrol officer and in the Special Ops K-9 unit. He was not good at sitting at a desk or good with people but liked to stay active. He decided to focus his strengths on following the motto of police officers, which is to protect and to serve the public. Since then, he has opened up to others and wants to make a difference by setting a good example.

Participant 6

Since graduating from the police academy for state troopers in 1987, 060 has been a police officer of all types, including his current title Sergeant at a college campus. He responded to both 911 and the Boston Marathon bombings. 060 has much experience with terrorism and extremism equally and understands what it means to protect communities.

Participant 7

Participant 306 is also a graduate of the police academy and is the first female in her family to become a police officer. While she was training at the police academy, her husband was out on patrol and was shot by a citizen who turned himself in later. After he healed, her purpose for wanting to become a police officer was more than just following

in her father's footsteps. She wanted to especially work with the youth to educate them and encourage them to be the best they can be.

Participant 8

Participant 214 is a graduate of the police academy and a couple of months after graduation found herself pregnant with her first child. This was very challenging for her because she was a new police officer and a new mother. At first, she found it challenging to balance out the long late nights and take care of her newborn, but with the help of her peers, she was able to balance sleep and other challenges. Her purpose for wanting to become a police officer is that she wants to protect the future (i.e., children). By protecting, this participant does not just mean physically, but mentally preparing for life and to be a good example.

Participant 9

Participant 118 graduated from the police academy in 2002 and grew up in a mixed-race home. She was bullied when she was younger and thinks that the lack of education in certain areas is what's tearing communities down. She feels that many community leaders can be a blessing and a curse at the same time. Participant 118 feels that she can be a good role model for the people in her community and is working towards building a program for her community.

Participant 10

Participant 957 graduated in 1990 from the police academy and wanted to make a difference and serve the community. Her father was against her becoming a police officer because he thought it would be too dangerous. After she graduated from the academy, she

trained in Washington D.C. and came back to Massachusetts ready to protect her community and others, when needed. Her father soon got over his fears of her becoming a police officer and now accepts what his daughter is doing for the community.

Participant 11

A police academy graduate, participant 409 works the third shift mostly and wants not only to be a good example for the public but also to his peers. He believes that peer support is one of the most important aspects of being a police officer because police officers are human beings who can make mistakes as well. He also believes that police can help each other with protecting and serving the community because they understand each other.

Participant 12

Participant 084 graduated the police academy in 1989 and considered himself a police veteran. He has worked with the state police, college police, local police, and worked with different cultural groups within the community. His primary reason for wanting to become a police officer was to work with the different cultural groups and help educate them on how police officers are in the United States. Growing up in a bi-racial home, he knows how it feels to be in a new environment and not know what to expect from those who are sworn in to serve and protect. He goes around to each cultural group when festivals take place or a special event and introduce himself. Participant 084 says that the best gift he can give people is the gift of education.

Participant 13

Participant 327 is another 1989 police academy graduate and is a first-generation police officer in her family. After she became a police officer, she wanted to focus on patrol to protect and serve the environment she cares so much for. She wants to make sure that her community can trust the police and thinks that police and community one-on-one interaction is very important to build that trust.

Participant 14

This participant is another first-generation police officer who started at a college police campus. Participant 854 graduated from the police academy in 2001 and worked the third shift ever since. A few times a year, 854 will make sure to show up at community events and help out. The most memorable time 854 had with the community was when they all worked on a community gardening project. He says he felt like they were all one unit for that whole week.

Participant 15

Participant 164 became a police officer pre- 911 and graduated from the police academy in 2000. This participant usually works the first shift to work more with the community and the community youth. Participant 164 works with teenagers and wants to make sure she educates them about life and decisions that could impact their lives.

Data Analyses

Following the data analysis process outlined in Chapter 3 led to the development of the themes. During data analysis, the researcher carefully listened to the audio-recorded interviews, read and re-read each interview transcript repeatedly over several weeks. During this stage, the goal of the researcher was to immerse herself in the

experiences and words so their experiences would permeate the researcher's consciousness. To identify themes, the researcher had predetermined that the criteria for identifying themes would be found in 60 percent of the participant responses. Sixty percent of this group of 15 is nine and 50 percent is seven.

Member checking was conducted to validate the interview data. After transcribing the interviews, participants were given an opportunity to review their transcript for accuracy. They were encouraged to make any change to anything that did not reflect or accurately depict their experiences. After member checking, the researcher began the analysis of the interview data. When working with the data, the researcher reviewed the interview transcripts and listened to the recordings to ensure that the two were identical. During this validation process, the researcher kept an open mind, looked and listened for any discrepancies or themes that may occur. The researcher was attentive to the nuances of language and intonation to glean perspectives and intended meanings of each statement. In doing this, the researcher extracted statements the meaning and significance of the words (Brown, 2001; Creswell, 2013; Phoenix et al., 2016).

The next step was a reduction of the data (Brown, 2001) and removing repetitive and overlapping statements (Bryman, 2006; Jones & McEwen, 2000) while keeping only the relevant statements. Those relevant expressions were grouped together and helped with theme development (Jones & McEwen, 2000). Next, colored markers were used to identify the different themes and possible subthemes (Brown, 2001; Vaismoradi, Jones, Turunen, & Snelgrove, 2016). The color coding led to the core themes of shared experiences about media effects. The researcher created a title that reflected the essence

of the theme. According to Jones and McEwen (2000), the transcripts are compared with each quotation to support each theme from the interviews while the themes were developed. The actual interview transcripts, for privacy reasons, may not be shown in the study. This would make the next step that of using the textual description of the meaning and perception of each participant, which included using direct quotes from the transcripts. During the next step, an individual structural description of the experience for each participant was constructed. Finally, the last data analysis step included integration that involved synthesizing the descriptions from the interview into a composite of the meaning of their perceptions. The analysis revealed five major themes, and no subthemes and Table 3 lists those themes that emerged during the interviews. Table 1 shows the demographic information of the participants.

Themes and Findings

The participants were asked general questions about their role and responsibilities as patrol officers, their perception of how the media influences extremism, and how the media influences their negative emotions. Each of their responses led to themes that had an impact on how they perceived each topic. According to Patton (2002), themes is the ability to see patterns in ostensibly random information. Table 3, Themes by Participants, will show how many participants responded to which themes. Five themes were developed from each of the participants' responses. Some of the police officers did not have the same opinion on certain topics, but their responses are discussed as well.

Table 3

Themes

	Had Similar Opinion	Had Different Opinion
Having a Positive Attitude	9	6
Motivational Factors	15	0
Meaning of Responsibility	15	0
Media Effects	15	0
Having a Support System	15	0

Theme 1: Having a Positive Attitude

Nine participants acknowledged that having a positive attitude each day on the job made the job easier. There were participants who mentioned that attitude is important for staying focused and performing well. They explained as a police officer, in general, each day is different and that is why being positive and trying to stay positive are important for many different reasons. Some participants focused on the significance of attitude and positivity is a major factor in how their day will be. One participant reported “you stay positive or at least try, that is the goal.” This statement made by this participant was strong and captured the positive vibe from each of the nine participants even though this is one participant’s statement.

The other participants did not say anything about positivity because they spoke more about the position of a police officer in general. For example, one participant who did not mention anything about staying positive made this statement, “Serve and protect

means you are willing to risk your life for those whom you are protecting if need be.”

Another statement from a different participant was “be honest with yourself each day you go to work because life as a police officer is nothing like they show in the movies.” The last four participants’ statements were very similar in that making sure, as a police officer, they were safe and ready for anything.

Theme 2: Motivational Factors

The second major theme emerged when participants described factors that motivated them to become a police officer. Of the 15 participants who identified this theme, 12 of the participants became a police officer because they primarily wanted to help people. One participant made this statement, “I became a police officer to help people and help those who cannot help themselves.” Another participant said, “I wanted to help people that were my reason for becoming a police officer.” Although many of the participants who said they wanted to help people did mention that they thought it seems like an easy response, but they assured this researcher it was their honest answer.

Out of the participants who said they wanted to help people, a few participants had different reasons for becoming police officers. One of the three participants (060) did not originally have his mind set on being a police officer. Participant 060 wanted to take the firefighters’ exam and become a firefighter, but didn’t take the exam due to the long wait. Participant 060 wanted to help people so he decided to take the police exam when the opportunity came up. Took the test and passed it and ever since then, 060 was happy he made that decision because he loves being a police officer. Participant 060 has been a police officer since 1987. The second participant to had a different reason, 118 wanted to

work with the youth and become a role model for the children in the community.

Participant 984, wanted to become a police officer to protect and serve the community.

Theme 3: Meaning of Responsibility

All 15 participants in this study had a similar meaning of responsibility. Eight participants focused their primary reason of responsibility on “doing what’s right or the right thing.” One participant pointed out that, “doing the right thing is important for being on this side of the law.” The other seven participants focused their primary reason of responsibility on integrity. Another participant stated, “integrity is responsibility and is something every officer should remember.”

Overall each response from all 15 participants came down to accountability. No matter the primary response each ended with accountability for the meaning of responsibility. One participant mentioned, “people sometimes forget that the police officers are human and make mistakes as well. It is not the mistake that bothers us, it is what the police officer does after the mistake and how the officer is trying to be accountable.” Another participant stated, “accountability is what makes a good officer.” All the responses led to this meaning of responsibility, which is being held accountable for your actions as the law. Brady (2015) mentioned that each participants' response does not have to be exactly the same but similar and in a recognizable pattern to be considered a theme.

Theme 4: Media Effects

All 15 participants responded extensively to media-related questions that were asked. Six participants focused on how the media influences ideas. These are ideas for

domestic extremist and sympathizers. One participant mentioned, “media reporting is not accurate and may provide untruthful ideas to domestic extremist.” Another participant said, “I have no confidence in how the media reports because they tell half-truths and not the whole story.” A third participant stated, “the media only cares about the media and getting their stories out regardless of how much of the truth it is which could help domestic extremists to hate police even more.”

Four participants focused their responses on how the media loves to include race and not explain the whole situation. “It is not about race; it is about complying with the law,” said one participant. Another participant mentioned that “complying with the law would help solve a lot of these shooting cases because it is not about race and hasn’t been about race for a long time.”

Another media effect response was how the media misrepresents police in their reports and a few participants focused their responses on this issue. “The media puts us out to be the bad guys like we want to shoot people, especially people of color,” said one participant. Another participant statement:

“The police sometimes handle reports very bad because they never tell the whole truth and I know for a fact because the case I am talking about, I was the officer working on the case. They like to include race in all reports”.

A third participant stated, “the media does a horrible job in representing police officers. They always make it seem like we want to do things even when we do not.” Many of the police officers spoke about how media reports bring more stress to the job. Sometimes they are angry because they know that most of the reports are not completely true.

Theme 5: Having a Support System

All 15 participants have some support system that helps them get through their shift and off shift. One participant spoke about police policing. “Police policing is probably one of the most important support systems used today by multiple police departments.” Another participant explained, “policing police is making sure that your fellow police officers are doing the right thing and helping each other get through our shifts.” Not only was police policing revealed by a couple of participants, but peer talking was also another that came up with the other participants. Other police officers spoke about religious beliefs helping them get through their work shifts. “I do not worry about things that I cannot handle, and I try not to stress, but sometimes it is easier said than done. I leave it in the hands of God” said one participant strongly! The second participant who focused on religious beliefs said, “prayer is strong and can get you through a lot.”

Family support was another focus for the response of having a support system. One participant mentioned that his wife was his best supporter. Another participant stated that her dad and husband were her best supports and easy people to talk to. One participant was not married and mentioned how much of help his girlfriend is to him when he needs someone to talk to. All 15 participants said that it is even stressful and difficult to their families and they are really happy to have such a great support system behind them.

Table 4 shows the opinions of each participant from each of the five developed themes. There weren't enough participants for each of these opinions to be considered

subthemes. The researcher would like to show their different and similar opinions without showing any transcripts.

Table 4

Subthemes

	Similar Opinion	Different Opinion
Motivational Factors		
To Help Others	6	9
To Protect and Serve	4	11
To be a Role Model/Educate	5	10
Meaning of Responsibility		
Accountability	6	9
Doing What's Right	3	12
Integrity	6	9
Media Effects		
No Trust in Media Reporting	6	9
Media Cares for the Media	5	10
About Not Complying Not	4	11
Race		
Media Misrepresents Police	6	9
Having a Support System		
Police Policing/Peer Talk	6	9
Religion	4	11
Family Support	6	9
Managing Priorities	3	12

Evidence of Quality

Grimes and Schulz stated that it is important for the researcher to remain as bias-free as possible. To remain unbiased, the researcher practiced and integrated reflexivity to minimize research bias (Probst, 2015). Preconceptions and any biases were set aside for the population and noted in the researcher's personal journal of thoughts and feelings regarding any experiences with police officers in general. The researcher sought to conduct interviews with an open mind and kept a journal in which the researcher recorded reflections, observations, and any other relevant information (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Grimes & Schulz, 2002). Also, the journal includes contact information and dates and times of the all the interviews.

According to Patton, member checking can validate the credibility of interview data. After transcribing the interviews, member checking was accomplished by providing participants with an opportunity to review the accuracy of their transcript. Participants were asked, via mail or e-mail, to review their interview transcripts and make any necessary corrections to anything that did not accurately reflect their experiences. Of the 15 participants, only one participant made a change to the support system. No corrections changed the meaning of the content of the responses.

Cohen and Crabtree suggested the use of triangulation to ensure that the rigorous qualitative research, as triangulation of data promotes validity and reliability. Member checking, verbatim transcripts, and journal notes provided data triangulation for this study. The interviews lasted from 30 minutes to 60 minutes each and the researcher typed

a verbatim transcript for each participant immediately after each interview. The interviews produced 155 pages of transcript in total that were read, and the researcher noted relevant and significant information in the margins. Strict adherence to the data college protocol and procedure was maintained throughout the process. Many participants did not like interviewing outside of the police department. Although all participants did not mind interviewing at a library, most preferred to interview in their police department. Williams (2006) recommended validation of the data after reducing the data to cluster the remaining data into major themes. In validating themes, the researcher reviewed the transcripts several times to make sure they were supported. The data were synthesized to provide a description of the entire group, using rich, thick descriptions to convey the meanings and the essences of the perceptions of police officers (Stern & Simes, 1997; Williams, 2006).

Summary

Chapter 4 presented the findings. Using a narrative research design, the researcher wanted to gain the lived experiences and perceptions of police officers. The goal was to understand the phenomena related to how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions among the police. The first goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on domestic extremists. The second goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on negative emotions in the police. This study focused on the media effects related to influence of domestic extremist and negative emotions. For analyzing narrative data, 15 police

officers were asked to respond to 15 interview questions that are specific to their perceptions and experiences.

Analysis of the interview transcripts revealed five major themes: (a) having a positive attitude, (b) motivational factors, (c) meaning of responsibility, (d) media effects and (e) having a support system. These themes answered the research questions. All themes were presented along with a composite of the collective experiences and perceptions of police officers who is or was a patrol officer.

Chapter 5 will include the interpretation of findings, implications for social change, and limitations of the study. Recommendations for future research will also be addressed. Chapter 5 will also present comparisons to the literature and the framework of the study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusion, Recommendations

The purpose of this narrative qualitative study was to understand the police perception of how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police officers, which affects negative emotions among the police, such as distress, fear, and frustration (Belfer, 2014; Hartley et al., 2013; Frequin, Stephens & Tuffin, 2006; Kaur, Chodagiri, & Reddi, 2013; Walvekar, Ambekar, & Devaranavadagi, 2015). There were two primary objectives of this study. The first goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on domestic extremists. The second goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on negative emotions among the police.

A thick and rich description of each of the participant's experiences and perceptions resulted from face-to-face interviews with 15 participants. The original number of participants was 20, but saturation was met at 15. Creswell and Emerson both suggested that it is better to have a small number of participants for developing detailed stories for the qualitative methodologies. The criteria for participants included law enforcement officer for at least six years and were (currently, retired or rank change) a patrol officer. All participants were patrol officers either during or after the 9- 11 terrorist attacks. The following research questions were used in this narrative qualitative study:

- a) How do police officers view the media having an influence on domestic extremists and negative emotions among the police?
- b) How do police officers view media influence on domestic extremism?
- c) How do police officers view media influences on negative emotions in the police?

Interpretation of Findings

Five major themes emerged from the analysis of the interviews. These themes are an overall look at the perceptions of police officers and their stories of media influences: (a) having a positive attitude, (b) motivational factors, (c) meaning of responsibility, (d) media effects, and (e) having a support system. Each of the participants responded to these major themes, which provided good insight on emotion among the police. As explained in Chapter 2, Gross and John mentioned that emotion could fade and change over time, but emotional regulation is based on two things: one antecedent-focused and two response-focused (Gross, 2001). Many themes were antecedent-focused. Antecedent-focused refers to prior events of emotional responses compared to its opposite the response-focused which refers to the aftermath response tendency that has already taken place (Gross, 2001).

Positive Attitude

The positive attitude theme was important for a good work shift, which was determined by nine participants. “To serve and protect” and “preparing to be safe and ready for anything” was determined by the other participants. Although the other participants did not state a positive attitude, this does not mean they did not believe this to be true. Their answer to this question was primarily another perception of a police officer. Almost all the participants believe in to serve and protect but wanted to give another meaning to what keeps them strong while they work their shifts. Although many of the participants felt that having a positive attitude was important, five participants reported that they had felt fear at least once or twice in their career as police officers.

Motivational Factors

This study revealed the motivational factors theme for wanting to become a police officer. Participants primarily focused on the answer to “helping others” for wanting to become a police officer. Other participants wanted to become a police officer because they wanted “to protect and serve” the community they loved and grew up in. The remaining participants wanted to focus on being exceptional “role models to the community and educate the youth.” For there to be considered major themes, nine or more participants must agree so the theme can be developed. Each participant answered differently, making the numbers of agreed participants less than six for these to be subthemes: “To help others,” “protect and serve,” and “to be a role model and to educate.”

Meaning of Responsibility

Participants had their meanings of responsibly, which showed that they understood what it means to be responsible working for the law. Some participants believed that responsibility means “accountability.” Three participants answered it means “doing what’s right.” The rest of the participants in the study answered “integrity” for their “meaning of responsibility.”

Media Effects

All 15 of the participants answered the media questions in full detail. Many of the participants had similar responses to each other; however, some responses stood out in different ways than others. Table 3 will show the different types of responses. The majority of participants felt that media reports can place ideas in domestic extremists’

heads that are not correct about police officers. Many participants used the Mike Brown case as an example of the media not putting out all the facts or the whole story.

The participants reported how bad the media make the police look by enhancing the false fact that a white police officer killed an unarmed black man. A few of the participants told the researcher that they got a chance to review the Mike Brown case as part of their training and they told the researcher that the media did not show what happened before the police officer pulled his gun. The incorrect information the media presents to the public about police officers makes domestic extremists, or so many of the participants believe (Maier et al., 2014; Potter & Riddle, 2007).

Having a Support System

The last theme focused on the type of support system each police officer has. Many police officers found that police policing and talking with peers is very helpful. Others felt that having religious beliefs is what keeps them strong. Family support for some of the officers is very nice to have when work is finished. The last report was managing priorities before the shift starts. Many officers had reported feeling stress, fear, and sadness before they developed a system of support and even now sometimes they still feel the same emotions. They also reported that police policing helps them a lot and they would prefer to speak to their coworkers or other police officers than a psychiatrist who knows nothing about their career from the inside.

Conceptual Framework

Three theories from the literature review worked as a conceptual framework for the study: media effects, framing theory, and James-Lange theory of emotion. Within the

review of media effects, the role of the framing theory was evaluated, with a particular focus on media effectiveness of frames to influence perceptions of specific situations (Best & Chariness, 2015; Borah, 2011). A media effect was discussed, with consideration of media influence in general, such as emotions, perceptions, and other influences (Potter & Riddle, 2007; Sjoavaag, 2014). Lastly, the James-Lange theory was also examined and considered relevant to how one's perception is influenced, psychological, after an exciting event (Gasquoine, 2014; Palencik, 2007).

Media Effects

There are two sections that media effects are divided into to organize the different type of effects (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The term *media effects* are broad and have been defined based on the list of issues that helped to develop the definition (Potter & Riddle, 2007). The definition of media effects “are those things that occur as a result—either in part or whole—from media influence” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 38). The eight key issues, as discussed in Chapter 1, of media effects, are timing, duration, valence, change, intention, the level of effect, direct, and manifestation (Potter & Riddle, 2007).

According to Potter and Riddle (2007), there are six types of effects the media can have on an individual from the organizing level: “cognition, belief, attitude, affect, physiology, and behavior” (Potter & Riddle, 2007, p. 41). According to Potter and Riddle (2007), there are six types of effects the media can have on an individual from the organizing level: “cognition, belief, attitude, affect, physiology, and behavior” (p. 41). On the media-influenced level, there are four effects: acquiring, triggering, altering, and reinforcing (Potter & Riddle, 2007). Both organizational levels are discussed in depth in

Chapter 2. A theory of media effects is the framing theory. This theory plays a different role from other effects by the media that is imperative for possibly understanding media influence.

The Framing Theory

One of the many effects caused by the media is the framing theory. This theory is used by the media to amplify specific issues in different perspectives (Satti, 2015; TheoryClusters, n.d.). Framing refers to the “process by which people develop a particular conceptualization of an issue or reorient their thinking about an issue” (Chong & Druckman, 2007, p. 104).

According to Tversky and Kahneman (1981), framing might be a psychological principle that governs the probabilities and outcomes to an identical issue that was framed in different ways. The media frames a particular issue to gain public attention to the specific topic (Borah, 2011; Satti, 2015; TheoryClusters, n.d.). The media then decide how that information should be organized and presented (Borah, 2011; TheoryClusters, n.d.). The news is notorious for making some issues more important than others by bringing them up more than once (TheoryClusters, n.d.). Another way that framing creates psychological reactions is based on loss and gain news (Borah, 2011; Boydston & Glazier, 2013).

Heilman and Miclea investigated the consistency of the framing theory across three decisional domains, health, and others. More specifically, they compared the results of Tversky and Kahneman that emphasized the preference of sure outcome over losses.

The results of the study that Hilman and Miclea conducted showed different issues from the corresponding decisional domains elicit varying levels of framing effects.

The researchers felt that the contrast found within decisional domains might affect emotional reaction triggered by the decisional dilemmas (Heilman & Miclea, 2016).

When the media believe their efforts have been a gain rather than a loss, they start working on another frame (Powell, 2011; Satti, 2015; Xiaobo, Hongning, Xiaodong, & Juli, 2015). Since media networks work for multiple audiences, more than one frame can be focused on depending on the network (Powell, 2011; Rahman, 2014).

James-Lange Theory of Emotion

The James-Lange theory of emotion suggested that psychological change is followed by the perception of an “exciting event” (Fehr & Stern, 1970, p. 412).

According to Newman, Perkins, and Wheeler (1930), James and Lange did not work together on this theory. James focused on the emotion of bodily and visceral changes after an exciting event (Newman et al., 1930, p.305). Conversely, Lange placed great emphasis on circulatory system changes (Newman et al., 1930, p. 305). Although James and Lange did not work together on this theory, the two ideas were combined to create the James-Lange theory of emotion (Newman et al., 1930). James stated that this suggestion implied that emotion goes with behavioral responses that emphasized primary and secondary reactions to the exciting event (Fehr & Stern, 1970).

Gasquoine researched emotional behavior and the limbic system and found the results similar to the James-Lange theory of emotion. A concept that Gasquoine and Dalgleish noted from the James-Lange theory of emotion was that diverse emotional

states humans present by interpreting external cues are associated that generalized internal physiological response. Gasquoine researched emotional behavior and the limbic system and found the results similar to the James-Lange theory of emotion. A concept that Gasquoine and Dalgleish noted from the James-Lange theory of emotion was that different emotional states humans present by interpreting external cues are associated that generalized internal physiological response. Dalgleish evaluated the James-Lange theory of emotion and found that “changes in the bodily concomitants of emotions can alter their experienced intensity (p. 583).”

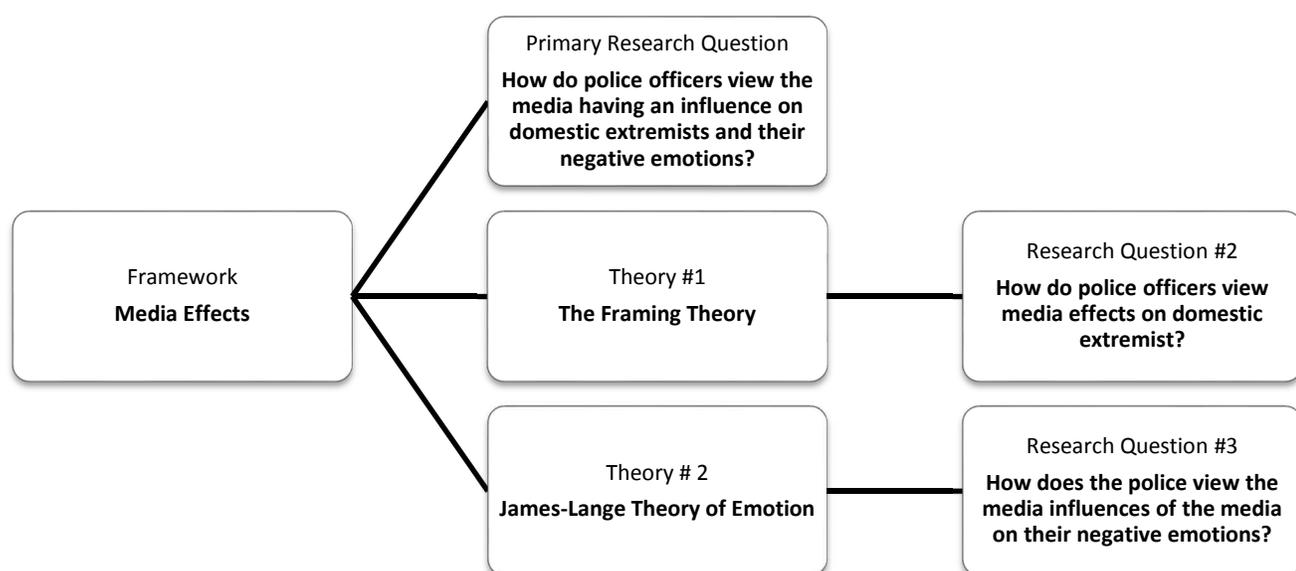
The James-Lange theory was important because this theory was used to explain how the media uses influence to affect police perceptions about a specific event. Once an exciting event has happened, changes in perception and reactions about that event start to form (Fehr & Stern, 1970). According to Fehr and Stern, a researcher by the name of Goldstein examined the theory and stated that a limitation is that it only explains human perceptions and responses (p. 421).

Framing theory addressed the importance of a media effect and how the media influences others by focusing on specific events to draw attention to certain crowds (Heilman & Miclea, 2016). The James-Lange theory of emotion enhanced the understanding of how individuals interpret external emotional that are associated with internal psychological demands. Gasquoine suggested that research is conducted that would reveal how internal and external emotions drive specific behavior.

Both theories were appropriate for attempting to understand how media effects could influence domestic extremism and negative emotions. Combining these two

theories with the overall mainframe of media effects provided a broader understanding of police officers' views on how media effects may influence domestic extremist and negative emotions. Each of the theories, media effects, framing theory, and James-Lang theory of emotion were used for guiding research paradigms and narrative as a methodology (Patton, 2002).

Figure 1. Research Questions and Conceptual Framework



Implications for Social Change

The last few years have witnessed major changes in police officers and citizens (Belli, 2012). However, the media and police officer changes have been around for at least a century and progressively got worse over the years (Altheide, 2013; Beaudoin, 2004). No studies exist in which the narratives of police officers' perceptions of media influence on domestic extremism and negative emotions were compared. Police officers

are being targeted by domestic extremists due to media influences (Belfer, 2014). There is a gap in the literature on police perception of media influencing domestic extremists and police perceptions on media effects on negative emotion in the police (Biggs et al., 2014; Ferrara & Yang, 2015; Khruakham & Joongyeup, 2014; Larsson, 2014; Santifort, Sandler & Brandt, 2013).

The themes in this study revealed a connection between media effects and the perceptions of police officers. The participants often spoke of how they have no confidence in media reports, media not caring about the true story, media influence domestic extremist by giving them a false perception of police officers, and media misrepresentation of police. Subsequently, the narratives of two distinct groups of police officers, those who served pre-911 and those who served post-911, who had similar ideas about the media, domestic extremists, and emotions that are negative such as stress or fear.

There are a few training programs such as state and local anti-terrorism training, which trains state and local law enforcement against terrorism and extremist threats against the public, but not specifically for reducing police officers' negative emotional levels (SLATT.org, 2015). Reports from this study also showed that many agencies have started to focus on police policing, which focuses on helping police manage their emotions, making sure each police officer is staying accountable and using integrity, but it does not focus on training for media and domestic extremism. The positive social change implication this research could provide a better understanding of police perceptions and the potential to educate the public about the actual work of police

officers, to create understanding between the police and the public; and by identifying strategies to update future training programs for the police.

Limitations

In qualitative narrative methodology, the sample size can determine how balanced and in-depth achieving rich stories (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015; Patton, 2002). For example, the sample size should be big enough to achieve saturation and themes to compare and code to create an in-depth story (Creswell, 2011; Murray et al., 2016). The goal of narrative inquiry is to provide an interpretation of the participants' lived experiences (Brady, 2015).

The goal of the study was 20 participants, but only 15 participants were needed. Creswell and Emerson both suggested that it is better to have a small number of participants for developing detailed stories for the qualitative methodologies. The number of participants in this study is not focused on keeping a small number but rather achieving saturation for the study. The criterion for this study limits the participants to the United States. The responses may not be the same and other geographic areas. Another limitation was that interviews would be held in the police departments of each patrol officer since it is their natural setting. This is not possible because there is red tape involved with working with police departments, in general.

Recommendations for Future Study

Research on police officers, media effects, and domestic extremist exists, but little information on police perception on how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police, which affects negative emotions in the police, is available and

in separate content or as a comparison of two, i.e., police officers and media or domestic extremists and media. According to Berger and Cozine the media reports stories to the public that don't always agree with the true findings from police reports. The media is famous for framing ideas, so it will work best for their ratings (Cozine, 2016).

Future researchers might look at police officers of a different rank and ask them about their perceptions. Although some officers in this research were of different rank, the questions were focused on their position when they were a patrol officer. By asking different ranked officers as well as different types of law enforcement personnel responses may be different. Different types of law enforcement would include only correctional officers, federal police officers, state troopers, detectives, and other different ranks. Also comparing how the media effects influence positive versus negative emotions in law enforcement would be something to look into (Cozine, 2016).

This study was limited to police officers in the United States, it would be interesting to know if other police officers from different countries have the same responses as the United States police officers. The last recommendation for future research has to do with location. Future research might want to look into surveys only or conducting interviews within a police department. Many participants in this study would have liked to be in their own 'safe zone' which is their police department. Although they all agreed to conduct the interviews in libraries, the researcher wonders if they would have said something else or added something to their interview responses if they were a little more comfortable.

Researcher Reflections

My experiences and passion for working with this population were the reason I wanted to conduct this study and gain a better understanding of what methods police officers used to be successful and not burnt out from their careers. To reduce any biases and preconceived thoughts, I reflected on my personal experiences working with police officers. I realized those experiences might influence my opinion, so I listed my impressions of police officers to be fully aware of any preconceived notions I had. Also, remember that the positive experiences outweighed the not so positive experiences. It was also good to remind myself that just like me police officers are human beings who make mistakes as well.

I believe many of the police officers in my study wanted to get the point that they are human beings. Although they reported not seeing the world in multiple colors, they consider each other blue. Not any specific shade of blue but they are all one unit. They do not see themselves as individual colors because when one officer needs help, like one body or a family, they will help each other out without hesitation.

During the interviews, I felt that the police officers wanted to say a lot more things to me, but they did not. After the digital recorder was off, many of the police officers started talking about other possible research issues openly and freely. Most of them did not want me to include these issues in this study, but they would not mind me recommending them to other inspiring students who may be interested. This showed me that police officers care about their environment and the people they are sworn to protect.

This study also showed me that police officers are not afraid to admit when they are wrong. Just like non-law enforcement, police officers have dreams, fears, happy times, and bad times just like anyone else. The majority of my participants keep work at work and home life at home. The understanding of police perceptions on media effects, domestic extremist and negative emotions that equip me to help other police officers who are struggling.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to understand the perception of police officers about media effects of domestic extremist and negative emotions. Maier et al., Walvekar et al., Gackowski all suggested that additional research is needed for perceptions of police officers on media effects especially since media and police relations have decreased in the last decade. The positive experiences of the participants in this study and the ways they can help each other may inspire other or new police officers. More importantly, they may learn from the participants' disclosures the tools needed to successfully manage all of the demands in their lives and on the job.

Results from previously reviewed literature indicated that the media had influenced perception and emotion. McCusker and Gunaydin mentioned how qualitative methods are aimed to understand experiences and attitudes. Qualitative research provided a deeper understanding of complex meanings connected with a phenomenon (Brady, 2015). Probst conducted a qualitative study to understand researchers' perception of the role of reflexivity, looking at the positives and negatives. Based on her study, Probst

concluded that time “constraints and pressure to produce research with hard findings (p.45)” may inhibit the incorporation of reflexivity into the report and research process.

The conceptual framework for this study was based on three working theories: media effects, framing theory, and James-Lange theory of emotion. There were two primary goals of this study. The first goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on domestic extremists. The second goal was to understand how police officers perceive media influences on negative emotions in the police. Five major themes were created from participant responses and no subthemes. Each of the research questions was answered from the five major themes. Using a narrative inquiry, the researcher was able to recruit 15 law enforcement officers who are patrol officers in the United States. The narrative method was the well-organized inquiry for this investigation because it allowed for unique story telling of complex meanings (Brady, 2015; Probst, 2015). Then the traditional protectors of society are allowed to express themselves and know that their opinions matter in society along with those who support them, their well-being, in general, becomes healthier.

References

- Anti-defamation league. (2016, January 05). *Murder and Extremism in the United States in 2015*. Retrieved from <http://www.adl.org/assets/pdf/combating-hate/Murder-and-Extremism-in-the-United-States-in-2015-web.pdf>
- Agbibo, D. E. (2013). (Sp)oilng domestic terrorism? Boko Haram and state response. *Peace Review Journal*, 25(3), 431-438. doi:10.1080/10402659.2013.816571
- Alexander, Y. (1978). Terrorism, the media and the police. *Journal of International Affairs*, 32(1), 101.
- Altheide, D. L. (2013). Media logic, social control, and fear. *Communication Theory*, 23(3), 223-238. doi:10.1111/comt.12017
- Anti-defamation league. (2016, January 05). *Murder and extremism in the United States in 2015*. Retrieved from <http://www.adl.org/assets/pdf/combating-hate/Murder-and-Extremism-in-the-United-States-in-2015-web.pdf>
- Archetti, C. (2015). Terrorism, communication and new media: Explaining radicalization in the digital age. *Perspectives on Terrorism*, 9(1), 49-59.
- Archick, K., Belkin, P., Blanchard, C. M., Humud, C. E., & Mix, D. E. (2015). European fighters in syria and iraq: Assessments, responses, and issues for the United States. *International Journal of Terrorism and Political Hot Spots*, 10(1), 1-44.
- Awan, I. (2013). Muslim prisoners, radicalization and rehabilitation in British prisons. *Journal of Muslim Minority Affairs*, 33(3), 371-384.
doi:10.1080/13602004.2013.853979

- Bain, A., Robinson, B. K., & Conser, J. (2014). Perceptions of policing: improving communication in local communities. *International Journal of Police Science & Management, 16*(4), 267-276. doi:10.1350/ijps.2014.16.4.345
- Bechtoldt, M. N., Rohrman, S., De Pater, I. E., & Beersma, B. (2011). The primacy of perceiving: Emotion recognition buffers negative effects of emotional labor. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(5), 1087-1094. doi:10.1037/a0023683
- Bakker, E. (2006). *Jihadi terrorists in Europe, their characteristics and the circumstances in which they joined the jihad: An exploratory study*. Clingendael, Netherlands: Netherlands Institute of International Relations. Retrieved from http://www.clingendael.nl/publications/2006/20061200_cscp_csp_bakker.pdf
- Bakker, E., & de Graaf, B. (2011). Preventing lone wolf terrorism: some CT approaches addressed. *Perspectives on Terrorism, 5*(5/6), 43-50.
- Bale, J. M. (2013). Denying the link between Islamist ideology and jihadist terrorism: “Political correctness” and the undermining of counterterrorism. *Perspectives on Terrorism, 7*(5), 5-46.
- Bamidele, O. (2013). Domestic terrorism in Nigeria: The grown ‘monster’ within!. *Defence Studies, 13*(4), 413-436. doi:10.1080/14702436.2013.845382
- Barbour, R. S. (2001). Checklists for improving rigour in qualitative research: a case of the tail wagging the dog?. *British medical journal, 322*(7294), 1115.
- Barnes, B. D. (2012). Confronting the one-man wolf pack: Adapting law enforcement and prosecution responses of the threat of lone wolf terrorism. *Boston University Law Review, 92*(5), 1613-1662.

- Baysura, O. O., Altun, S. S., & Yucel-Toy, B. B. (2016). Perceptions of teacher candidates regarding project-based learning. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research (EJER)*, (62), 33-54. doi:10.14689/ejer.2016.62.3
- Beaudoin, C. E., & Thorson, E. (2004). Social capital in rural and urban communities: Testing differences in media effects and models. *Journalism and mass communication quarterly*, 81(2), 378-399. Retrieved from <http://jmq.sagepub.com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/content/81/2/378>
- Belli, R. (2012). *Financial crime and political extremism in the U.S. START Research Briefs*, 1-2.
- Berger, J. M. (2015). The Metronome of apocalyptic time: Social media as carrier wave for millenarian contagion. *Perspectives on Terrorism*, 9(4), 61-71.
- Biggs, A., Brough, P., & Barbour, J. P. (2014). Exposure to extraorganizational stressors: Impact on mental health and organizational perceptions for police officers. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 21(3), 255-282.
doi:10.1037/a0037297
- Bjelopera, J. P. (2014). Domestic terrorism appears to be reemerging as a priority at the Department of Justice. *Congressional Research Service: Report*, 34.
- Bloom, M. (2011). Bombshells: Women and terror. *Gender Issues*, 28(1/2), 1-21.
doi:10.1007/s12147-011-9098-z
- Borah, P. (2011). Conceptual issues in framing theory: A systematic examination of a decade's literature. *Journal of Communication*, 61(2), 246-263.
doi:10.1111/j.1460-2466.2011.01539.x

- Botha, A. (2015). Radicalization to terrorism in Kenya and Uganda: A political socialization perspective. *Perspectives on Terrorism*, 9(5), 2-14.
- Brady, S. R. (2015). Utilizing and adapting the delphi method for use in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 14(5), 1-6.
doi:10.1177/1609406915621381
- Breckenridge, J. N., Zimbardo, P. G., & Sweeton, J. L. (2010). After years of media coverage, can one more video report trigger heuristic judgments? A national study of American terrorism risk perceptions. *Behavioral Sciences of Terrorism & Political Aggression*, 2(3), 163-178. doi:10.1080/19434471003768826
- Brooks, R. A. (2011). Muslim “homegrown” Terrorism in the United States. *International Security*, 36(2), 7-47.
- Brown, R. E. (2001). The process of community-building in distance learning classes. *Journal of asynchronous learning networks*, 5(2), 18-35.
- Bruehlman-Senecal, E., & Ayduk, O. (2015). This too shall pass: Temporal distance and the regulation of emotional distress. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 108(2), 356-375. doi:10.1037/a0038324
- Brüggemann, M., Engesser, S., Büchel, F., Humprecht, E., & Castro, L. (2014). Hallin and Mancini revisited: Four empirical types of western media systems. *Journal of Communication*, 64(6), 1037-1065. doi:10.1111/jcom.12127
- Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: how is it done?. *Qualitative research*, 6(1), 97-113.

- Busby, J., & Iszatt-White, M. (2014). The relational aspect to high reliability organization. *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management*, 22(2), 69-80. doi:10.1111/1468-5973.12045
- Chermak, S., Freilich, J., Parkin, W., & Lynch, J. (2012). American terrorism and extremist crime data sources and selectivity bias: An investigation focusing on homicide events committed by far-right extremists. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 28(1), 191-218. doi:10.1007/s10940-011-9156-4
- Chermak, S. M., Freilich, J. D., & Simone, J. (2010). Surveying American state police agencies about lone wolves, far-right criminality, and far-right and Islamic jihadist criminal collaboration. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, 33(11), 1019-1041. doi:10.1080/1057610X.2010.514698
- Chertoff, M. (2008). The ideology of terrorism: Radicalism revisited. *Brown Journal of World Affairs*, 15(1), 11-20.
- Choi, S., Song, J., Kim, S., & Kim, S. (2014). A model of analyzing cyber threats trend and tracing potential attackers based on darknet traffic. *Security & Communication Networks*, 7(10), 1612-1621. doi:10.1002/sec.796
- Chopko, B. A. (2011). Walk in balance: Training crisis intervention team police officers as compassionate warriors. *Journal of Creativity in Mental Health*, 6(4), 315-328.
- CNN. (2016, January 8). *ISIS inspired attempted execution of Philadelphia cop* - CNN Video. Retrieved from <http://www.cnn.com/videos/us/2016/01/08/attempted-execution-cop-philly-dnt-marquez-lead.cnn>

- Cohen, D., & Crabtree, B. (2006, July). *Reflexivity*. Retrieved from <http://www.qualres.org/HomeRefl-3703.html>
- Conway, M., & McInerney, L. (2012). What's love got to do with it? Framing 'jihadjane' in the US press. *Media, War and Conflict*, 5(1), 6-21.
doi:10.1177/1750635211434373
- Cook, D. (2009). Islamism and Jihadism: The transformation of classical notions of Jihad into an ideology of terrorism. *Totalitarian Movements and Political Religions*, 10(2), 177-187. doi:10.1080/14690760903119100
- Costanza, W. A. (2015). Adjusting our gaze: An alternative approach to understanding youth radicalization. *Journal of Strategic Security*, 8(1/2), 1-15.
doi:10.5038/1944-0472.8.1.1428
- Cozine, K. (2016). Social media and the globalization of the sicarii. *Global Security Studies*, 7(1), 1-12.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Cutcliffe, J. R., & McKenna, H. P. (1999). Establishing the credibility of qualitative research findings: the plot thickens. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 30(2), 374-380.
- Dalgleish, T. (2004). The emotional brain. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 5(7), 582-589.
doi:10.1038/nrn1432

- Davidson, C. c., Ewert, A., & Chang, Y. (2016). Multiple methods for identifying outcomes of a high challenge adventure activity. *Journal of Experiential Education, 39(2)*, 164-178. doi:10.1177/1053825916634116
- del Fresno García, M., Daly, A. J., & Segado Sánchez-Cabezudo, S. (2016). Identifying the new Influences in the internet era: Social media and social network analysis. *Revista Española De Investigaciones Sociológicas, (153)*, 23-40. doi:10.5477/cis/reis.153.23
- Dean, G., Bell, P., & Newman, J. (2012). The Dark side of social media: Review of online terrorism. *Pakistan Journal of Criminology, 3(3)*, 107-126.
- Dirikx, A., Gelders, D., & Van den Bulck, J. (2013). Adolescent perceptions of the performance and fairness of the police: Examining the impact of television exposure. *Mass Communication & Society, 16(1)*, 109-132. doi:10.1080/15205436.2011.650341
- Dirikx, A., Van den Bulck, J., & Parmentier, S. (2012). The Police as societal moral agents: “Procedural justice” and the analysis of police fiction. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media, 56(1)*, 38-54. doi:10.1080/08838151.2011.651187
- Elson, M., & Ferguson, C. J. (2014). Does doing media violence research make one aggressive? The ideological rigidity of social-cognitive theories of media violence and a response to Bushman and Huesmann (2013), Krahé (2013), and Warburton (2013). *European Psychologist, 19(1)*, 68-75. doi:10.1027/1016-9040/a000185

- Emerson, R. W. (2015). Convenience sampling, random sampling, and snowball sampling: How does sampling affect the validity of research?. *Journal of Visual Impairment and Blindness*, 109(2), 164-168 5p.
- Epkins, H. D. (2012). Working the 'front lines' in Washington, DC: Digital age terrorism reporting by national security prestige press. *Media, War and Conflict*, 5(1), 22-36. doi:10.1177/1750635211434365
- Farwell, J. P. (2010). Jihadi video in the 'War of Ideas'. *Survival (00396338)*, 52(6), 127-150. doi:10.1080/00396338.2010.540787
- FBI - Terrorism. (2010). Retrieved from <https://www.fbi.gov/about-us/investigate/terrorism>
- FBI-Terrorism_JTTFS. (2010). Our joint terrorism task forces. Retrieved from https://www.fbi.gov/about-us/investigate/terrorism/terrorism_jttfs
- Feeley, C., & Thomson, G. (2016). Why do some women choose to freebirth in the UK? An interpretative phenomenological study. *BMC Pregnancy & Childbirth*, 161-12. doi:10.1186/s12884-016-0847-6
- Ferenčík, M. (2015). Je ne suis pas Charlie. Meta discourses of impoliteness following 'France's 9/11' in selected print media. *Topics in Linguistics*, (16), 42-58. doi:10.2478/topling-2015-0010
- Ferguson, N., & Binks, E. (2015). Understanding radicalization and engagement in terrorism through religious conversion motifs. *Journal of Strategic Security*, 8(1/2), 16-26. doi:10.5038/1944-0472.8.1.1430

- Ferrara, E., & Yang, Z. (2015). Measuring Emotional Contagion in Social Media. *Plos ONE*, *10*(10), 1-14. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0142390
- Finney, C., Stergiopoulos, E., Hensel, J., Bonato, S., & Dewa, C. S. (2013). Organizational stressors associated with job stress and burnout in correctional officers: a systematic review. *BMC Public Health*, *13*(82). doi:10.1186/1471-2458-13-82
- Frewin, K., Stephens, C., & Tuffin, K. (2006). Re-arranging fear: Police officers' discursive constructions of emotion. *Policing and Society: An International Journal of Research and Policy*, *16*(3), 243-260. doi:10.1080/10439460600811901
- Flaherty, L. T. (2003). Youth, ideology, and terrorism. *Adolescent Psychiatry*, *27*, 29-58.
- Freilich, J. D., & Chermak, S. (2012). Building the United States extremists crime database (ECDB): Lessons learned. *Canadian Diversity / Canadian Diversité*, *9*(4), 18-22.
- Freilich, J. D., Chermak, S. M., & Caspi, D. (2009). Critical events in the life trajectories of domestic extremist white supremacist groups. *Criminology and Public Policy*, *8*(3), 497-530. doi:10.1111/j.1745-9133.2009.00572.x
- Gackowski, T. (2014). What Power Resides in the Mass Media? Typology of Media's Power - A Proposal. *Political Sciences / Politické Vedy*, *17*(4), 109-141.
- Galatzer-Levy, I. R., Brown, A. D., Henn-Haase, C., Metzler, T. J., Neylan, T. C., & Marmar, C. R. (2013). Positive and negative emotion prospectively predict

- trajectories of resilience and distress among high-exposure police officers. *Emotion*, 13(3), 545-553. doi:10.1037/a0031314
- Garner, R. (2008). Police stress: Effects of criticism management training on health. *Applied Psychology in Criminal Justice*, 4(2), 243-259.
- Gasquoine, P. G. (2014). Contributions of the insula to cognition and emotion. *Neuropsychology Review*, 24(2), 77-87. doi:10.1007/s11065-014-9246-9
- Gates, S., & Podder, S. (2015). Social media, recruitment, allegiance and the Islamic State. *Perspectives on Terrorism*, 9(4), 107-116.
- Goldin, P. R., McRae, K., Ramel, W., & Gross, J. J. (2008). The neural bases of emotion regulation: Reappraisal and suppression of negative emotion. *Biological Psychiatry*, 63(6), 577-586. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2007.05.031>
- Grimes, D. A., & Schulz, K. F. (2002). Bias and causal associations in observational research. *The Lancet*, 359(9302), 248-252.
- Gross, J. J. (2001). Emotion regulation in adulthood: Timing is everything. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 10, 214-219.
- Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation Processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(2), 348-362. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.85.2.348
- Gruenewald, J., Chermak, S., & Freilich, J. D. (2013). Distinguishing 'Loner' attacks from other domestic extremist violence. *Criminology and Public Policy*, 12(1), 65-91. doi:10.1111/1745-9133.12008

- Gruenewald, J., & Pridemore, W. (2012). A Comparison of ideologically-motivated homicides from the new extremist crime database and homicides from the supplementary homicide reports using multiple imputation by chained equations to handle missing values. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 28(1), 141-162. doi:10.1007/s10940-011-9155-5
- Gunaratna, R., & Haynal, C. (2013). Current and emerging threats of homegrown terrorism: The case of the Boston Bombings. *Perspectives on Terrorism*, 7(3), 44-63.
- Gunaratna, R., & Jayasena, K. (2011). Global Support for Al Qaeda and Osama Bin Laden: An Increase or Decrease?. *UNISCI Discussion Papers*, (25), 199-214.
- Halverson, J. R., & Way, A. K. (2012). The curious case of Colleen LaRose: Social margins, new media, and online radicalization. *Media, War and Conflict*, 5(2), 139-153. doi:10.1177/1750635212440917
- Hamby, S., Taylor, E., Grych, J., & Banyard, V. (2016). A Naturalistic Study of Narrative: Exploring the Choice and Impact of Adversity Versus Other Narrative Topics. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*, doi:10.1037/tra0000133
- Hart, P. M., Wearing, A. J., & Headey, B. (1995). Police stress and well-being: Integrating personality, coping and daily work experiences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 68(2), 133-156. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8325.1995.tb00578.x

- Hartley, D. J., Davila, M. A., Marquart, J. W., & Mullings, J. L. (2013). Fear is a disease: The impact of fear and exposure to infectious disease on correctional officer job stress and satisfaction. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 38*(2), 323-340. doi:10.1007/s12103-012-9175-1
- Heilman, R. M., & Miclea, M. (2016). Risk seeking preferences: An Investigation of framing effects across decisional domains. *Cognitive, Crier, Comportment/Cognition, Brain, Behavior, 20*(1), 1-17.
- Herndon, J. N. (2006, May 29). *New Research Tool Predicts Landslide for Gore in 2008, Defeat for Clinton*. Retrieved from <http://www.prweb.com/releases/2006/05/prweb391395.htm>
- Hinkkainen, K. (2013). Homegrown terrorism: The known unknown. *Peace Economics, Peace Science, and Public Policy, 19*(2), 157-182. doi:10.1515/peps-2012-0001
- Hills, S., Jackson, T., & Sykora, M. (2015). Open-Source intelligence monitoring for the detection of domestic terrorist activity: Exploring inexplicit linguistic cues to threat and persuasion for natural language processing. *Proceedings of The European Conference on E-Learning, 622-625*.
- Ho, H., Gabriel, K. P., & Kohl III, H. W. (2015). Evaluations of validity and reliability of a transtheoretical model for sedentary behavior among college students. *American Journal of Health Behavior, 39*(5), 601-609 9p. doi:10.5993/AJHB.39.5.2
- İnal, H. (2014). A Generalization of the lone wolf theorem. *Macroeconomic, 65*(4), 541-547. doi:10.1111/meca.12048

- Iqbal, Z., & Zubair, Z. (2014). Construction of Pakistan army in the western media: Discourse analysis of leading articles of time and the economist. *Journal of Political Studies, 21(2)*, 143-167.
- Jones, S. R., & McEwen, M. K. (2000). A conceptual model of multiple dimensions of identity. *Journal of College Student Development, 41(4)*, 405-414.
- Kampf, Z. (2014). News-Media and terrorism: Changing relationship, changing definitions. *Sociology Compass, 8(1)*, 1-9. doi:10.1111/soc4.12099
- Katz, E. (1957). The Two-Step Flow of communication: An Up-To-Date report on an hypothesis. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 21(1)*, 61-78.
- Kaur, R., Chodagiri, V. K., & Reddi, N. K. (2013). A psychological study of stress, personality and coping in police personnel. *Indian Journal of Psychological Medicine, 35(2)*, 141-147. doi:10.4103/0253-7176.116240
- Khruakham, S., & Joongyeup, L. (2014). Terrorism and other determinants of fear of crime in the Philippines. *International Journal of Police Science & Management, 16(1)*, 1-15. doi:10.1350/ijps.2014.16.1.323
- King, A., Huffaker, B., Dainotti, A., & Claffy, k. (2014). A coordinated view of the temporal evolution of large-scale Internet events. *Computing, 96(1)*, 53-65. doi:10.1007/s00607-013-0288-2
- Kopak, A. (2014). Lights, Cameras, Action: A Mixed methods analysis of police perceptions of citizens who video record officers in the line of duty in the United States. *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences, 9(2)*, 225-240.

- Kopp, C. B. (1989). Regulation of distress and negative emotions: A developmental view. *Developmental Psychology, 25*(3), 343-354. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.25.3.343
- LaFree, G. (2013). Lone-Offender terrorists. *Criminology and Public Policy, 12*(1), 59-62. doi:10.1111/1745-9133.12018
- LaFree, G., & Dugan, L. (2007). Introducing the global terrorism database. *Terrorism and Political Violence, 19*, 181-204. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Laura_Dugan/publication/251731816_Introducing_the_Global_Terrorism_Database/links/555c94ad08ae86c06b5d39f0.pdf.
- Larsson, A. O. (2014). Everyday elites, citizens, or extremists. *Journal of Media and Communication Research, 30*(56), 61-78.
- Lee, J., & Gibbs, J. (2015). Race and attitudes toward police: The mediating effect of social distance. *Policing, 38*(2), 314-332. Retrieved from <http://ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/1681496367?accountid=14872>
- Lehrman, J. (2015). Podiatrists prevent diabetic amputations: Spread the word! Use the internet to tell patients and referrers what we do. *Podiatry Management, 34*(9), 87-91 3p.
- Maier, J. A., Gentile, D. A., Vogel, D. L., & Kaplan, S. A. (2014). Media influences on self-stigma of seeking psychological services: The importance of media portrayals and person perception. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture, 3*(4), 239-256. doi:10.1037/a0034504

- Majchrzak, A., Faraj, S., Kane, G. C., & Azad, B. (2013). The Contradictory influence of social media affordances on online communal knowledge sharing. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 19*(1), 38-55. doi:10.1111/jcc4.12030
- Mancini, D. E. (2013). The “CSI Effect” in an actual juror sample: Why crime show genre may matter. *North American Journal of Psychology, 15*(3), 543-564.
- Mantri, G. (2011). Homegrown terrorism. *Harvard International Review, 33*(1), 88-94.
- Marshall, B., Wagner, V. H., & Nguyen, N. (2015). The effect of visual and contextual stimuli on emotional regulation measured by functional neuroimaging techniques: A systematic review. *Psychology and Neuroscience, 8*(3), 321-332.
doi:10.1037/pne0000018
- Martin, E. (2011). Issues in teaching terrorism as cultural artifact. *Critical Studies on Terrorism, 4*(3), 451-458. doi:10.1080/17539153.2011.623426
- McCauley, C., Moskalenko, S., & Van Son, B. (2013). Characteristics of lone-wolf violent offenders: A Comparison of assassins and school attackers. *Perspectives on Terrorism, 7*(1), 4-24.
- McGovern, A., & Lee, M. (2010). ‘Cop[ying] it Sweet’: Police media units and the making of news. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology, 43*(3), 444-464. doi:10.1375/acri.43.3.444
- McCusker, K., & Gunaydin, S. (2015). Research using qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods and choice based on the research. *Perfusion, 30*(7), 537-542 6p.
doi:10.1177/0267659114559116

- Michael, G. (2013). Domestic terrorist or lone nut? Deciphering christopher dorner's rampage. *Journal of Counterterrorism and Homeland Security International*, 19(2), 20-25.
- Miller, E., LaFree, G., & Dugan, L. (2014). Terrorist attacks in the United States between 1970 and 2012: Data from the terrorism database (GTD). *START Research Briefs*, 1-13.
- Miller, E., & Smarick, K. (2014). Profiles of perpetrators of terrorism in the United States. *START Research Briefs*, 1-19.
- Moloney, R. R., & Wang, D. D. (2016). Limiting professional trajectories: a dual narrative study in Chinese language education. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 1(1), 1-15. doi:10.1186/s40862-016-0007-6
- Moskalenko, S., & McCauley, C. (2011). The psychology of lone-wolf terrorism. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 24(2), 115-126 12p.
doi:10.1080/09515070.2011.581835
- Murry Jr., J. P., & Dacin, P. A. (1996). Cognitive moderators of negative-emotion effects: Implications for understanding media context. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(4), 439-447.
- Mutz, D. (1989). The Influence of perceptions of media influence: Third person effects and the public expression of opinions. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 1(1), 3-23. doi:10.1093/ijpor/1.1.3

- Napps, C., & Enders, W. (2015). A regional investigation of the interrelationships between domestic and transnational terrorism: A time series analysis. *Defence and Peace Economics*, 26(2). doi:10.1080/10242694.2014.893705
- Nassauer, A. (2015). Effective crowd policing: Empirical insights on avoiding protest violence. *Policing*, 38(1), 3. Retrieved from <http://ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/1660587959?accountid=14872>
- National Counterterrorism Center (NCTC). (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.nctc.gov/>
- Nelson, A. J., & Irwin, J. (2014). "Defining what we do—all over again": occupational Identity, technological change, and the librarian/internet-search relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(3), 892-928. doi:10.5465/amj.2012.0201
- Nelson, T. E., Oxley, Z. M., & Clawson, R. A. (1997). Toward a psychology of framing effects. *Political Behavior*, 19(3), 221-246.
- Newman, Z. (2015). Hands up, don't shoot: Policing, fatal force, and equal protection in the age of colorblindness. *Hastings Const. LQ*, 43, 117.
- Olson, D. T. (2014). Lone-wolf terrorism and the misuse of the term. *Counter Terrorist*, 7(5), 58-66.
- Orsini, A. (2012). Poverty, ideology and terrorism: The STAM bond. *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism*, 35(10), 665-692. doi:10.1080/1057610X.2012.712030
- Pantucci, R. (2011). What have we learned about lone wolves from anders behring breivik?. *Perspectives on Terrorism*, 5(5/6), 27-42.

- Papazoglou, K., & Andersen, J. P. (2014). A guide to utilizing police training as a tool to promote resilience and improve health outcomes among police officers. *Traumatology: An International Journal*, 20(2), 103-111. doi:10.1037/h0099394
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pearson, M. (2016, February 12). *Columbus, Ohio, machete attack: Suspect a possible 'lone wolf'* Retrieved from <http://www.cnn.com/2016/02/12/us/columbus-machete-attack-motive/index.html>
- Perrone-McGovern, K. M., Simon-Dack, S. L., Beduna, K. N., Williams, C. C., & Esche, A. M. (2015). Emotions, cognitions, and well-being: The role of perfectionism, emotional overexcitability, and emotion regulation. *Journal for The Education of the Gifted*, 38(4), 343-357.
- Pfeiffer, C. P. (2012). Terrorism and its oxygen: a game-theoretic perspective on terrorism and the media. *Behavioral Sciences of Terrorism & Political Aggression*, 4(3), 212-228. doi:10.1080/19434472.2011.594629
- Phillips, P. J. (2011). Lone Wolf Terrorism. *Peace Economics, Peace Science, & Public Policy*, 17(1), 1-29. doi:10.2202/1554-8597.1207
- Phillips, P. J. (2012). The lone wolf terrorist: sprees of violence. *Peace Economics, Peace Science, & Public Policy*, 18(3), 1-11. doi:10.1515/peps-2012-0010
- Phoenix, A., Brannen, J., Elliott, H., Smithson, J., Morris, P., Smart, C., & Bauer, E. (2016). Group analysis in practice: Narrative approaches. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 17(2), 19.

- Potter, W., & Riddle, K. (2007). What is a media effect? *Journalism and Mass Communication, 1*(84), 90-104. doi:10.1177/107769900708400107
- Probst, B. (2015). The Eye regards itself: Benefits and challenges of reflexivity in qualitative social work research. *Social Work Research, 39*(1), 37-48 12p. doi:swr/svu028
- Rahman, B. H. (2014). Conditional influence of media: Media credibility and opinion formation. *Journal of Political Studies, 21*(1), 299-314.
- Rascoff, S. J. (2010). The Law of homegrown (counter) terrorism. *Texas Law Review, 88*(7), 1715-1749.
- Rawstory. (2006). *The Raw story | little-known media psychology firm sees Gore landslide, Clinton flop*. Retrieved from http://www.rawstory.com/news/2006/Littleknown_media_psychology_firm_sees_Gore_0601.html
- Reid Meloy, J., & Yakeley, J. (2014). The Violent true believer as a 'Lone Wolf' - psychoanalytic perspectives on terrorism. *Behavioral Sciences and The Law, 32*(3), 347-365. doi:10.1002/bsl.2109
- Rosman, Y., Eisenkraft, A., Milk, N., Shiyovich, A., Ophir, N., Shrot, S., & Kassirer, M. (2014). Lessons learned from the Syrian sarin attack: evaluation of a clinical syndrome through social media. *Annals of Internal Medicine, 160*(9), 644-648. doi:10.7326/M13-2799

- Rothenberger, L. (2012). Terrorist groups: Using internet and social media for disseminating ideas. New tools for promoting political change. *Romanian Journal of Communication and Public Relations*, 14(3), 7-23.
- Sadler, G., Lee, H., Lim, R., & Fullerton, J. (2010). Recruitment of hard-to-reach population subgroups via adaptations of the snowball sampling strategy. *Nursing and Health Sciences*, 12(3), 369-374 6p. doi:10.1111/j.1442-2018.2010.00541.x
- Saleem, M., & Tahir, M. A. (2014). On defining terrorism: Text and context - a qualitative approach. *Dialogue (Pakistan)*, 9(1), 27-38.
- Santifast, C., Sandler, T., & Brandt, P. (2013). Terrorist attack and target diversity: Changepoints and their drivers. *Journal of Peace Research*, 50(1), 75-90.
Retrieved from SAGE. Doi:10.1177/0022343312445651
- Satti, M. (2015). Framing the Islamic State on Al Jazeera English and the BBC websites. *Journal of Arab and Muslim Media Research*, 8(1), 37-53.
doi:10.1386/jamr.8.1.37_1
- Schbley, A. (2004). Religious terrorism, the media, and international Islamization terrorism: Justifying the unjustifiable. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, 27(3), 207-233. doi:10.1080/10576100490438273
- Schulenberg, J. L., & Chenier, A. (2014). International protest events and the hierarchy of credibility: Media frames defining the police and protestors as social problems. *Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice*, 56(3), 261-294.
doi:10.3138/cjccj.2012.E12
- Schwandt, T. A. (2015). *The Sage dictionary of qualitative inquiry*. Los Angeles: Sage.

- Shane, J. M. (2010). Performance management in police agencies: A conceptual framework. *Policing Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 33(1), 6-29. doi:10.1108/13639511011020575
- Shaya, G. (2010). How to make an Anarchist-Terrorist: An Essay on the Political Imaginary in FIN-DE-SIÈCLE FRANCE. *Journal of Social History*, 44(2), 521-543.
- Silber, M., & Frey, A. (2013). Defect, disrupt, and detain: Local law enforcement's critical roles in combating homegrown extremism and the extremism evolving terrorism threat. *Fordham Urban Law Journal*, 41(1), 217-176.
- Sinai, J. (2014). The Terrorist threats against Canada and its counterterrorism responses. *Journal of Counterterrorism and Homeland Security International*, 20(1), 24-27.
- Sjøvaag, H. (2014). The principles of regulation and the assumption of media effects. *Journal of Media Business Studies (Journal of Media Business Studies)*, 11(1), 5-20.
- Soares, J. (2007). Terrorism as ideology in international relations. *Peace Review*, 19(1), 113-118. doi:10.1080/10402650601182129
- START. (2013). *The Terrorism and extremist violence in the United States (TEVUS) database*. Retrieved from <http://www.start.umd.edu/research-projects/terrorism-and-extremist-violence-united-states-tevus-database>
- Stern, J. M., & Simes, R. J. (1997). Publication bias: evidence of delayed publication in a cohort study of clinical research projects. *Bmj*, 315(7109), 640-645.

- Sutton, J., Gibson, C. B., Spiro, E. S., League, C., Fitzhugh, S. M., & Butts, C. T. (2015). What it takes to get passed on: Message content, style, and structure as predictors of retransmission in the Boston marathon bombing response. *Plos ONE*, *10*(8), 1-20. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0134452
- Theory Clusters. (n.d.). Theory clusters. Retrieved from <http://www.utwente.nl/cw/theorieenoverzicht/Theory Clusters/>
- Thompson, R. (2011). Radicalization and the use of social media. *Journal of Strategic Security*, *4*(4), 167-189. doi:10.5038/1944-0472.4.4.8
- Vaismoradi, M., Jones, J., Turunen, H., & Snelgrove, S. (2016). Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, *6*(5). doi:10.5430/jnep.v6n5p100
- van Gelderen, B. R., Bakker, A. B., Konijn, E. A., & Demerouti, E. (2011). Daily suppression of discrete emotions during the work of police service workers and criminal investigation officers. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, *24*(5), 515-537. doi:10.1080/10615806.2011.560665
- van Hoeven, L. R., Janssen, M. P., Roes, K. B., & Koffijberg, H. (2015). Aiming for a representative sample: Simulating random versus purposive strategies for hospital selection. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, *15*90. doi:10.1186/s12874-015-0089-8
- Vidino, L. (2009). Homegrown jihadist terrorism in the United States: A New and occasional phenomenon?. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, *32*(1), 1-17. doi:10.1080/10576100802564022

- Von Knop, K. (2007). The female jihad: Al Qaeda's women. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism, 30*(5), 397-414. doi:10.1080/10576100701258585
- Walvekar, S. S., Ambekar, J. G., & Devaranavadagi, B. B. (2015). Study on serum cortisol and perceived stress scale in the police constables. *Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research, 9*(2), 10-14. doi:10.7860/JCDR/2015/12015.5576
- Watson, B. R., & Riffe, D. (2013). Perceived threat, immigration policy support, and media coverage: Hostile media and presumed influence. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research, 25*(4), 459-479.
- Weimann, G. (2004). The theater of terror: the psychology of terrorism and the mass media. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 9*(3/4), 379-390 12p.
- Weimann, G. (2015). Terrorist migration to social media. *Georgetown Journal of International Affairs, 16*(1), 180-187.
- William, M. (2006, October 20). *Qualitative validity*. Retrieved from <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/qualval.php>
- Xiaobo, Y., Hongning, Z., Xiaodong, Y., & Juli, Z. (2015). Impact of self-framing on decision making: Timing matters. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 43*(4), 629-639. doi:10.2224/sbp.2015.43.4.629
- Xiaowen, C., Xiaowei, C., Jia, A. L., Pouwelse, J. A., & Epema, D. J. (2014). Dissecting darknets: Measurement and performance analysis. *Acm transactions on Internet Technology, 13*(3), 7-1-7-25. doi:10.1145/2611527

- Yarchi, M. (2014). The Effect of female suicide attacks on foreign media framing of conflicts: The Case of the Palestinian–Israeli conflict. *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism*, 37(8), 674-688. doi:10.1080/1057610X.2014.921768
- Yarchi, M., Wolfsfeld, G., Sheaffer, T., & Shenhav, S. R. (2013). Promoting stories about terrorism to the international news media: A study of public diplomacy. *Media, War and Conflict*, 6(3), 263-278. doi:10.1177/1750635213491179
- Zhang, D., Shoemaker, P. J., & Wang, X. (2013). Reality and newsworthiness: Press coverage of international terrorism by China and the United States. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 23(5), 449-471. doi:10.1080/01292986.2013.764904
- Zięba, A., & Szlachter, D. (2015). Countering radicalization of muslim community opinions on the european union level. *International Studies: Interdisciplinary Political and Cultural Journal*, 17(1), 119-144. doi:10.1515/ipcj-2015-0009

Appendix A: Guided Interview Questions and Probes

<Researcher Note> Research Question 1: How do police officers view the media having an influence on domestic extremists and negative emotions in the police?

We are ready to begin our first series of questions. In this series, we will discuss the role and responsibilities of a patrol officer.

1. Tell me how you feel or about your general mood each day as a patrol officer.
 - 1.1. Can you describe a typical day as a patrol officer?
 - 1.2. Can you give me an example of a negative experience or situation?
 - 1.3. Can you give me an example of a positive experience or situation?

2. What shifts do you work and why?
 - 2.1. Which days and shift would you least likely to work and why?
 - 2.2. Which days and shift would you most likely to work and why?

3. Describe for me what you think the primary reason was for you wanted to become a police officer.
 - 3.1. Can you elaborate on the event or events that helped you make the decision?

4. Explain to be your opinion of what ‘responsibility’ means to you and why?
 - 4.1. What is a primary responsibility that equally important to have as both a police officer and a citizen?
 - 4.2. Can you elaborate on why (if needed)?

5. Explain to me your opinion of how the media influences and why?
 - 5.1. Describe your thoughts to me on media scrutiny?
 - 5.2. Explain how the media can be helpful in extremist attacks and why you think that way?

<Researcher Note: Obj 1> Research Question 2: How do police officers view media influence on domestic extremism?

We are ready to begin our second series of questions. In this series, we will discuss how media influences terrorism.

6. Can you explain what domestic extremism means to you and why?

7. Describe for me, if any, factors you believe the media plays in influencing domestic extremism targets and attacks and why?
 - 7.1. Can you tell me if you fell that police officers are targets of domestic extremist attacks and why?

8. Describe for me, if any, a time in which you faced or heard on public television, the media interpretation of how police officers, in general, handled domestic extremism attacks and your opinion or feelings about it and why?

8.1. (If did) Explain to me what your opinion and feelings are about media interpretations and why?

8.2. Was there a particular incident or situation that influence your current opinion about the media and why?

<Researcher Note: Obj 2> Research Question 3: How do police officers view media influences on negative emotions in the police?

We are ready to begin our first series of questions. In this series, we will discuss the media influences on negative emotions.

9. Describe for me your opinion, if any, how your personal emotions (are/were) primarily affected from work situations and what strategies did you use to help successfully handle these primary emotions?

9.1. Explain which emotions have been effected from home situations and which strategies, if multiple strategies were used, worked the best for which situation?

9.2. Explain which emotions have been effected from social life situations and which strategies, if multiple strategies were used, worked the best for which situation?

10. Tell me about your opinion, if any, of your emotions being affected by media influences and why?

11. Is there anything I have not asked that you want to share that gives a fuller picture of you as a patrol officer?

11.1. Can you say something more about that?

11.2. What advice would you give new patrol officer who may have responsibilities similar to yours?

11.3. Can you elaborate on your advice?

11.4. In addition to that advice, would you talk specifically about what you did that helped you succeed as a patrol officer?

Can you elaborate on (a specific topic)?

Appendix B: Preliminary Demographic Questionnaire

1. Name _____
2. Best Contact _____
3. Did you go to the police academy? **Circle One** yes no
 - a. If yes, what year did you graduate _____
 - b. If no, how did you become a police officer? _____
4. What is your ethnicity/race? _____
5. Are you currently a patrol officer? **Circle One** yes no
 - a. If no, when were you a patrol officer? _____
 - b. For how long? _____
6. How long have you been a patrol officer? _____
7. Did you become a police officer Post-911? **Circle One** yes no
8. Did you become a patrol officer Pre-911 or Post-911? _____
9. What (are/were) your patrol officer shift(s)? _____
10. Marital Status _____
11. Gender _____
 - a. If female, any chance of pregnancy? **Circle One** yes no not sure

Appendix C: Initial Letter of Invitation

Dear _____,

I am writing to you about a psychology research study that I, Jamie Porter, am conducting. I am a PhD doctoral candidate at Walden University, which is based in Minneapolis. I am contacting you because I thought that you might be interested in taking part in this study.

The study is about police perception on how the media have influenced domestic extremists to target police officers which affects negative emotions in the police. Your participation would consist of a single interview with me asking you questions about being a police officer post-911, targets of domestic extremism and how emotions are altered all due to the effects of the media. I am limiting the number of participants to 15 police officers who are patrol officers now or was a patrol officer for at least six years, Post-911. No names or places of work given in the study. All names of participants replaced with random letters of the alphabet and work environments generalized such as “town” or “city.” All inquiries and interviews maintained with the strictest confidence.

If you are interested in being in this study, or would like to learn more about it, please provide your name and phone on the bottom of this form. Jamie will then arrange a time to meet with you to explain the study in more detail and obtain formal consent. If you have any questions you may call me at 508-851-0025 or e-mail me at

Jamie.porter@waldenu.edu.

Sincerely,

Appendix D: IRB Approval Letter

Dear Ms. Porter,

This email is to notify you that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has approved your application for the study entitled, "A Narrative on Media Influencing Domestic Extremist and Negative Emotions in Police."

Your approval # is 03-06-17-0315874. You will need to reference this number in your dissertation and in any future funding or publication submissions. Also attached to this e-mail is the IRB approved consent form. Please note, if this is already in an on-line format, you will need to update that consent document to include the IRB approval number and expiration date.

Your IRB approval expires on March 5, 2018. One month before this expiration date, you will be sent a Continuing Review Form, which must be submitted if you wish to collect data beyond the approval expiration date.

Your IRB approval is contingent upon your adherence to the exact procedures described in the final version of the IRB application document that has been submitted as of this date. This includes maintaining your current status with the university. Your IRB approval is only valid while you are an actively enrolled student at Walden University. If you need to take a leave of absence or are otherwise unable to remain actively enrolled, your IRB approval is suspended. Absolutely NO participant recruitment or data collection may occur while a student is not actively enrolled.

If you need to make any changes to your research staff or procedures, you must obtain IRB approval by submitting the IRB Request for Change in Procedures Form. You will receive confirmation with a status update of the request within 1 week of submitting the change request form and are not permitted to implement changes prior to receiving approval. Please note that Walden University does not accept responsibility or liability for research activities conducted without the IRB's approval, and the University will not accept or grant credit for student work that fails to comply with the policies and procedures related to ethical standards in research.

When you submitted your IRB application, you made a commitment to communicate both discrete adverse events and general problems to the IRB within 1 week of their occurrence/realization. Failure to do so may result in invalidation of data, loss of academic credit, and/or loss of legal protections otherwise available to the researcher.

Both the Adverse Event Reporting form and Request for Change in Procedures form can be obtained at the IRB section of the Walden website: <http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec>
Researchers are expected to keep detailed records of their research activities (i.e., participant log sheets, completed consent forms, etc.) for the same period of time they retain the original data. If, in the future, you require copies of the originally submitted IRB materials, you may request them from Institutional Review Board.

Both students and faculty are invited to provide feedback on this IRB experience at the link below:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=qHBJzkJMUx43pZegKlmdiQ_3d_3d

Sincerely,
Libby Munson
Research Ethics Support Specialist
Office of Research Ethics and Compliance
Email: irb@waldenu.edu
Fax: [626-605-0472](tel:626-605-0472)
Phone: [612-312-1283](tel:612-312-1283)

Office address for Walden University:
100 Washington Avenue South, Suite 900
Minneapolis, MN 55401

Information about the Walden University Institutional Review Board, including instructions for application, may be found at this link: <http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec>