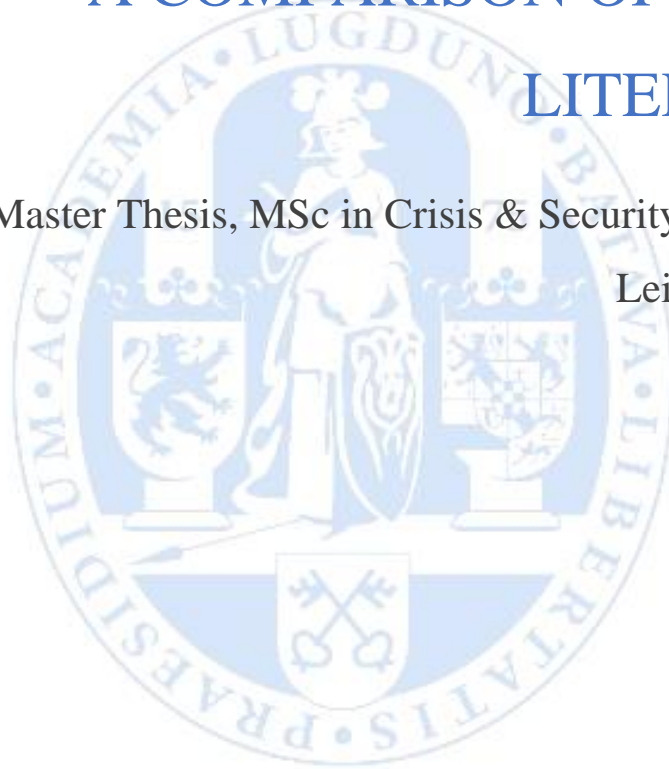


THE DETERMINANTS OF FEAR
OF CRIME & TERRORISM—
A COMPARISON OF SELECT
LITERATURE

Master Thesis, MSc in Crisis & Security Management,
Leiden University



Universiteit Leiden

"[Further] Research should focus on analyzing the determinants of fear of terrorism."
(Veldhuis & Bakker, 2013)

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Table of Contents

Abstract	4
Preface & Acknowledgements	5
1 Introduction	6
2 Theory	8
2.1 Security, Fear of Crime & Determinants	8
2.1.1 Theoretical overview of Fear of crime	9
2.1.2 Fear of Crime research in Germany and The Netherlands	12
2.2 Dynamics of Fear of Crime and measurement	15
2.3 Fear of Terrorism and its Determinants	17
3 Method	20
3.1 Design	20
3.2 Units of analysis, Observation & Research Question	22
3.2.1 Selection of articles	22
3.2.2 Summary of the SOEP and Brück & Müller article	23
3.2.3 Overview of the Dutch Safety Monitor	24
3.3 Operationalization	25
3.4 Data gathering: Triangulation of methods	28
3.4.1 Desk Research – finding relevant materials	28
3.4.2 Document Analysis – units of observation	29
3.5 Data Exploitation	30
3.5.1 Desk top analysis – literature review	30
3.5.2 Document analysis – in-depth evaluation	30
4 Results	31
4.1 Background & Motivation	32
4.1.1 Brück & Müller article	32
4.1.2 SOEP Manual	33

4.1.3	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual & Report of 2016	33
4.1.4	Comparison	33
4.2	Application of Theory	34
4.2.1	Brück & Müller article	34
4.2.2	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual & Report of 2016	35
4.2.3	Comparison	36
4.3	Research Design, quality of the gathered data, and exploitation of data.....	37
4.3.1	Brück and Müller article & SOEP Manual	37
4.3.2	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual & Report of 2016	38
4.3.3	Comparison	39
4.4	Conclusions in both monitors	40
4.4.1	Brück & Müller article	40
4.4.2	Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016.....	40
4.4.3	Comparison	40
4.5	Summary of Results.....	41
4.6	Deviations in application of method.....	42
5	Conclusion.....	43
5.1	Research Question and Answer	43
6	Pitfalls & Recommendations.....	45
6.1	Shortcomings of the design	45
6.2	Shortcomings of the Conclusion.....	47
6.3	Research & Policy Recommendations	47
	References	48
	Appendix I – Abstract of the 2010 Brück and Müller Study	52

Abstract

“In order to gain a better understanding of both fear of crime and fear of terrorism, this Crisis & Security MSc thesis contains a comparative review between the methodologies of a German Socio-economic Panel study by Tilman Brück and Cathérine Müller and the Dutch Safety Monitor. This comparison is made by extensively and systematically contrasting the respective aims, theory, methodologies, results, and conclusions of both studies. With this contrast, recommendations have subsequently been made to better guide future fear of crime and fear of terrorism research.”

Key words: Fear of crime, Fear of terrorism, comparative review, determinants of fear

Word count: 16645

Preface & Acknowledgements

The manuscript that lies before you is intended to be the crown jewel of my formal education – a potential PhD notwithstanding. What started with stacking brightly colored blocs in kindergarten, ends here with an academic discussion of how to better measure feelings of insecurity. While learning never stops, this special phase of my life is herewith wrapped-up.

It has been a major strain on me both mentally and physically to finish this document. It took me a long time to settle and define my topic, ages to find my voice and get over myself, and finally, an eternity to concentrate and focus. I have had many lows and sadly few highs in the process. What finally helped me finish it, was the realization that a thesis is also just a paper, like all those other ones I have written previously: just longer, better sourced, more formal, and more exhaustive.

During the process, I stumbled upon and settled on the interesting - and to my taste - understudied topic of how to study the feelings of insecurity, partially because an interesting “*gap in the literature*” had presented itself, but mostly out of sheer interest and curiosity.

The topic is however one that does allow for easy deviations, and I required a lot of help in centering me and focusing me. Furthermore, I required a lot of support to get me going again after almost having given up. For her role in getting me through that phase, for her guidance, kindness, practical support, and much more, I would like to sincerely thank Elke, my supervisor. Secondly, I would like to thank Anouk, for her initial guidance in the process. Thirdly, I would like to thank Catherine Müller, the German Institute for Economic Research, and the Dutch Bureau for Statistics, who were all very forthcoming in assisting me and providing me with useful data and feedback. Fourthly, I would like to thank Johan Christensen, for finding the time to review the thesis in its final state. Finally, I would like to give a shoot-out to all of those who have proofread my work, provided me with support and counselling, and/or kept pushing me. Critical among those were my friends and housemates Roy and Rick.

1 Introduction

The academic understanding and application of the concept of security is shifting (COT Institute, 2007). However, too little is known with regard to the key determinants of new areas of concern within security studies, such as fear of terrorism (Veldhuis & Bakker, 2013). Furthermore, how security feelings are measured in government-sponsored surveys have not shifted concurrently with our new (inflated) definition of security, as the main security surveys in the Netherlands and Europe, such as the Dutch Safety Monitor and the Eurobarometer, have inherently been relatively static (Zedner, *Too Much Security?*, 2003) (Necis Instituut, 2011) (European Commission, 2015).

This study presents a comparative review that cross-examines how the German Socio-economic Panel, in a study conducted by Brück Tilman and Cathérine Müller, isolates so-called “determinants” of “fear of terrorism” with how the Dutch Safety Monitor (DSM, Dutch: *Nationale Veiligheidsmonitor*) sets up its traditional fear of crime research (Brück & Müller, 2010). By contrasting the two studies, this study aims to, firstly, critically assess the strong and weak points of both studies and their respective methodologies, and secondly, draw conclusions with regard to the overall theory of fear of crime and fear of terrorism.

A major component of numerous government-sponsored surveys, such as the Dutch Safety Monitor, the EU’s Eurobarometer, or the International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS) (UNICRI, 2017), is traditional ‘*fear of crime*’ research – a criminological focal point with its own substantive body of work, most often operationalized as the perceived vulnerability to be a victim of an illegal offense, and rooted in US Surveys since the 1960s such as the (US) National Crime Survey (Hale, 1996). However, despite ongoing ethical and methodological challenges to current fear of crime research, the concept is still central to political and academic discourse related to security (Hale, 1996) (Lee, 2007) (Hardyns & Pauwels, 2010).¹

Existing security surveys thus focus almost exclusively on a respondent’s perceived vulnerability to crimes as defined within a respective State’s penal code (Hale, 1996). Security-related concerns such as war or terrorism are thus not (explicitly) tested for in current security surveys (COT Institute, 2007). With the concept of terrorism becoming increasingly central in our international and national security debates amidst numerous recent terrorist strikes in

¹ Murray Lee has argued that the focus on fear of crime contributes to the securitization of society (Lee, *Inventing Fear of Crime: Criminology and the Politics of Anxiety*, 2007). Authors such as Hardyns & Pauwels argue firstly that the theoretical and framework of ‘fear of crime’ is weak, and secondly, that many surveys use “conservative outdated methodologies and measures of fear of crime” (Hardyns & Pauwels, 2010).

Europe, there is a growing societal and scientific need to measure perceived vulnerability towards terrorism, the key determinants of that perceived vulnerability also. Eurobarometer publications have for example surveyed and ordinarily ranked the most mentioned “concerns” of citizens on European and national levels (European Commission, 2015). These concerns vary from a wide range of container-categories such as “immigration” to “climate change”. In its March 2015 report, a survey concluded that terrorism is now either the most prominent or second-most prominent concern in Europe, depending on the exact question, with half of all respondents indicating that terrorism is an important challenge to the security of EU citizens, whereas this was only one-third of respondents in 2011 (European Commission, 2015).

While rankings such as these can provide helpful guidance as an agenda-setting tool for politicians and policy-makers, such surveys have little explanatory value as they do not focus on any determinants and causes of these fears: “*why are respondents concerned?*”

The examined study by Brück Tilman and Cathérine Müller in 2010 conducted a preliminary quantitative study ($n=1057$) that suggests that these key determinants for *fear of crime* and *fear of terrorism* may be significantly similar. To more closely examine this conclusion, it therefore makes sense to compare this study with existing *fear of crime* methodologies.

Therefore, firstly, as a scientific exercise in the tradition of critical review and replication, and secondly in order to ultimately aid in developing better tools for policy-makers in the area of security, more specifically with regard to terrorism, this study attempts to address the question: “*What new insights can a comparison between Brück and Müller and Dutch Safety Monitor bring to the methodological scientific debate on monitoring feelings of safety and security?*”

This study is divided into five chapters. The second chapter provides a detailed literature review of fear of crime- and fear of terrorism-related research, and more narrowly defines the concepts of fear of crime and fear of terrorism. The third chapter provides the methodological chapter, and details the comparative design set up for this research. In this chapter the comparative elements, the methodologies of the Brück and Müller article and the Dutch Safety Monitor, will be presented. The fourth chapter presents the empirical results of the systematic comparison between the ‘fear of terrorism’ instrument and the ‘fear of crime’ instruments of both countries. The fifth chapter, the conclusion, provides an answer to the research question and summaries the most important research findings. The last chapter discusses the shortcomings of the research and provides recommendations for future fear of terrorism or fear of crime research.

2 Theory

This chapter provides the theoretical foundation of this thesis. In a first paragraph, a literature review will be presented on security and fear of crime. In a second paragraph, research into the determinants of fear of crime and their meaning is explored. In a third paragraph, the concept of fear of terrorism is introduced, and the knowledge gap with regard to the determinants of fear of crime and fear of terrorism is examined, which this study attempts to diminish by conducting a comparative study between the instrument introduced by Brück & Müller and the Dutch Safety Monitor (Brück & Müller, 2010).

2.1 Security, Fear of Crime & Determinants

David A. Baldwin starts his much-publicized article “the concept of security” by saying that “*redefining ‘security’ has recently become something of a cottage industry*” (Baldwin, 2001). This is as true twenty years later as it was in 1997, as issues such as human rights, economics, the environment, drug traffic, epidemics, crime, or social injustice are still being tied both academically and in public discourse to the concept of security. As such, the concept of security might not necessarily be applied fundamentally differently now than then when it was applied in 1997, but the frequency and primacy of the concept might have increased, as argued by for example Lucia Zedner and the Dutch COT institute (Zedner, *Too Much Security?*, 2003) (COT Institute, 2007). Thus, security as a concept is as contested as it ever was, albeit now more prominently.

Despite its contention, many authors originating from a wide range of disciplines, have attempted to survey everyday perceptions and interpretations of “security” – from workplace safety to a respondent’s self-identified economic security. Most of these “security surveys”², designed to keep track of our perceptions of security since their inception in the 60s, measure a crime-centered, fear-centered, and quantitative application of a concept of security: *fear of crime* (Hale, 1996). This follows the assumption that most of our everyday security-related concerns are linked to crime and that the public is to a varying extent fearful of this crime.

The next part of this chapter will serve as an introductory read into this concept of fear of crime, its application, and its shortcomings. In doing so, this paragraph borrows heavily from the literature review written by Christopher Hale in 1996 and the review and critique provided by Murray Lee in 2007.

² E.g. the *Dutch Safety Monitor* and the *Eurobarometer*

2.1.1 Theoretical overview of Fear of crime

“If you are distressed by anything external, the pain is not due to the thing itself, but to your estimate of it; and thus you have the power to revoke at any moment.” – Marcus Aurelius, date unknown

Fear of crime is a mainly a sociological or criminological “empirically discovered” concept (Hardyns & Pauwels, 2010). Its use as a concept starts in the 1960s in the United States. It was socially constructed when the United States President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice started to survey respondent's attitudes towards a perceived vulnerability towards crime (Hale, 1996). Note that this perceived, subjective vulnerability is different from a respondent's actual, “objective” security.

Ever after being cast, the concept has been contested and has meant different things at different times with a lack of consensus. The lack of consensus with regard to fear of crime will play a central role within this chapter, as it extends to almost all aspects of the concept.

This lack of consensus combined with its weak theoretical and conceptual framework have made it easy to get bogged down in a lengthy ontological debate with regard to the concept. In order to avoid this debate, since it is beyond the scope of this study and such reviews have also been conducted more thoroughly by superior scholars such as Hale, Lee, and Vanderveen, it is best to examine the main points of contention, and by doing so explore the concept as a whole. A non-exhaustive summary of these points of contention can be found in Table 1.

Table 1 - Non-Exhaustive overview of approaches towards Fear of Crime

Nature	Cognitive		Emotional/Affective		Behavioral/Conative	
Perspective	Victimization		Social Control		Social Problem	
Determinants	Individual	Social	Control	Risk	Harm	Normalcy

The first point of contention within the fear of crime literature regard its nature: fear of crime is treated occasionally either as a cognitive function, an emotional, a behavioral, or a mix of these (Hale, 1996) (Hardyns & Pauwels, 2010). This has methodological implications with regard to its validity and with regard to appropriate measurement.

Furthermore, there are broadly three main complementary perspectives on fear of crime (Hale, 1996) (Dittmann, 2005). Firstly, a classical perspective on fear of crime is one of victimization.

This perspective traditionally emphasizes the difference between “objective” (e.g. fact-based statistics on crime) and “subjective” security (e.g. perceived levels of vulnerability towards crime), and tries to measure the differences between these two concept through surveys, interviews, or both. Underlying this theory is the idea that direct or indirect experiences with crime have a disproportionate effect on an individual’s perceived vulnerability to a crime. It is within this perspective that we can put the majority of the research and debate surrounding fear of crime, such as Killias’ framework on fear of crime (Hale, 1996) (Killias, 1990).

The second and younger perspective, the Social Control Perspective, is extensively explored by authors such as Skogan, Warr, and Graber, and focuses mainly on the effects of public discourse and media on attitudes, perceptions, and behavior surrounding fear of crime (Dittmann, 2005) (Skogan & Maxfield, 1981) (Warr, 1994) (Graber, 1980). Therewith, this perspective is less interested in the exact discrepancies between “perceived” and “actual” security –treating these differences as a given– but focuses more on which and how societal dynamics shape perceived security and how it is socially constructed. Typical methodologies focus on for example the correlation between media coverage of a type of crime and perceived vulnerability towards said crime.

The third and youngest perspective is a criminology-based and environmental of nature: Social Problem Perspective (Dittmann, 2005). It tries to explain fear of crime by looking at a wider variety of often local and individual environmental factors such as (mental) health, (dis)organization of the neighborhood, and family violence, and centers around the idea that crime and fear of crime should be treated as a public health concern (Doran & Burgess, 2011). Typical methodologies imbed physical and environmental factors in their design. This perspective can also be linked to theories such as broken windows theory and the disorder and decline hypothesis (Doran & Burgess, 2011).

While the three perspectives are distinct, they can overlap and/or used in conjunction. For example, Boers & Kurz have made an attempt to synthesize the perspectives in a grand model (Boers & Kurz, 1999). Furthermore, each perspective is home to their own subsets of accents and focal areas. For example, when considering victimization, there is a lack of consensus surrounding the dimension of proximity: how to best measure (what determines) fear of crime (fearful of individual victimization versus victimization of close others; *individual/personal* versus *social*) and what can best explain fear of crime (previous individual experiences versus experiences of close others) (Hale, 1996) (Gerber, Hirtenlehner, & Jackson, 2010).

When considering either of the three perspectives, other relevant factors that are used to breakdown fear of crime are time (day versus night) and location (e.g.: urban versus rural), that influence determinants such as the risk-assessment (negligible versus imminent), level of control (ability to negate effects versus inability to negate effects), the level of harm (nuisance, financial, psychological, physical, lethal) and the level of public acceptance and anticipation of an event (normal versus abnormal). Much criticism within the body of work on fear of crime is directed at methodologies failing to take into account one or more of the abovementioned determinants, and different sets of determinants are used in different studies, without a generally accepted overarching framework (Hale, 1996).

An attempt towards synthesizing such an overarching framework has been made by Martin Kilias - who calls determinants dimensions - with his framework of different dimensions of vulnerability in 1990, bringing together level of control, level of harm, and risk assessment. An overview of this framework can be found in Table 2.

Table 2 - Kilias' Analytical Framework for Different Dimensions of Vulnerability (in connection with Fear of Crime) (Killias, 1990)

Dimensions of Vulnerability	Exposure to Risk (higher in the case of...)	Seriousness of Consequences (more serious in the case of...)	Loss of Control (in case of an attack by a young man, not much can be done by...)
Physical Factors	- Woman (in connection with sexual attacks)	- Women (rape produces serious long-term consequences; rape victims often injured) - Elderly and people in bad health (consequences more serious and lasting)	- Woman - Elderly - Physically vulnerable person
Social Factors	- "Risky" Jobs: taxi drivers, bank employees, jobs with late closing hours, prostitutes, etc.	- Victims without network of social support and/or adequate resources	- Lonely Victim, especially when more than one offender - Victim of Dubious Reputation
Situational Factors	- Residence in high crime area (or with signs of inclivity (disorder))	- Victimization (injury) in deserted area (where no help is available within reasonable time)	- Victim in deserted area (especially after dark) - Victim in area without formal or natural surveillance - Victim exposed to high risk without adequate (technical) protection

There is however some consensus with regard to other aspects of fear of crime debate, for example with regard to its consequences: in general, authors argue that the most significant effect of fear of crime is in its reduction of quality of life (Doran & Burgess, 2011).

Furthermore, the practical application of fear of crime, despite vehement criticism, is subject to a lack of innovation and remains relatively consistent and conservative. Or, as Stephen Farall and Murray Lee argued in 2008:

“Such is the generally repetitive nature of most research on the fear of crime that Hale’s review (drafted in the early 1990s and published in 1996) is still an excellent summary of the field”

This conservatism in design has co-contributed to the fact that many studies are said to be structurally and “seriously biased in race, gender, and social class” (Hardyns & Pauwels, 2010). Furthermore, most vulnerability-oriented surveys are severely flawed in both reliability and validity caused by its positivist methodologies and policy-driven character (Pleysier, Pauwels, Vervaeke, & Goethals, 2005).

Yet despite a lack of consensus with regard to many aspects of the concept of fear of crime and its severe shortcoming in its science, it is still regularly imbedded in many state-sponsored surveys and has a significant impact on policy by influencing the public debate and agenda (Lee, 2007). A notable exception of a Western country in which the influence of security-surveys has been reduced is Belgium and criminologists now more focus on the criminal justice system rather than on the causes of victimization (Hardyns & Pauwels, 2010). That being said, the literature and focus in different countries thus varies.

In the next paragraph, the highlights with regard to fear of crime literature of the two countries this study pertains to are presented.

2.1.2 Fear of Crime research in Germany and The Netherlands

Authors that have written extensively on fear of crime research in the Netherlands include Gabry Vanderveen, Elke Devroe, and Henk Elffers. For example, Vanderveen has written an exhaustive literature review in 2006 (Vanderveen, 2006). This review details how fear of crime research and surveys in the Netherlands followed international trends in terms of intent, methodology, and starting era, with the first large-scale survey being conducted in 1973, and being followed-up on after parliamentary requests (Vanderveen, 2006). Other trend-following

developments in the Dutch literature on fear of crime is a peak in interest during a period of increased crime in the 90s and a surge in criticism on fear of crime during the 00s,

Multiple instruments for measuring fear of crime have spawned in the Netherlands throughout the 70s, 80s, and 90s, with the three most prominent ones (POLs, PMB, and GSB) being merged in 2005 into the Dutch Safety Monitor conducted by the Dutch Bureau of Statistics. Other significant instruments are still being applied and developed through the International Comparison of Crime and Victimization (ICVS), and with the Eurobarometer (Vanderveen, Fear of crime: its social construction in the Netherlands, 2011). Finally, Dutch data is also incorporated in the 'European Sourcebook of Crime and Criminal Justice Statistics' and the 'United Nations Survey on Crime Trends and the Operations of Criminal Justice Systems' (Devroe & van der Eng, Data uit de strafrechtsketen in internationaal vergelijkend perspectief, 2016).

Other significant authors within the Dutch fear of crime body of work include Henk Elffers and Elke Devroe. Henk Elffers has written extensively on hidden (unreported) crime, and by extension on unreported fear of crime. By doing so, he zooms in on non-responsiveness during surveys and its meaning (Elffers & van der Kemp, 2016) (Averdijk & Elffers, 2012). Furthermore, Elke Devroe has written extensively on the intersection between fear of crime research (ICVS), (urban) policing, and the politics of policy making (Devroe, 2013) (Devroe & van der Eng, Data uit de strafrechtsketen in internationaal vergelijkend perspectief, 2016).

Within Germany, authoritative scholars in the field of fear of crime are Boers, Kurz & Kury (Gerber, Hirtenlehner, & Jackson, 2010). Most of the literature in Germany with regard to fear of crime has followed international trends, with notable deviations in focus caused by the reunification of West-Germany and East-Germany, which has provided academics with two distinct, yet similar, populations from which crime and fear of crime data could be collected and compared (Gerber, Hirtenlehner, & Jackson, 2010).

The first German instrument for measuring fear of crime was designed by the German *Institut für Demoskopie Allendbach*. Important current surveys are the ICVS, the Eurobarometer, and the more Social Problem Perspective-centered German Socio-economic Panel (SOEP) (Kury, 2008).

The Social Problem-centered approach employed by the German SOEP is remarkable when compared with the Anglo-Saxon, victimization-focused fear of crime instruments found elsewhere. In its design, philosophy and research-paradigm, it treats fear of crime not as its

central and core variable, but as one in an assortment of physical and mental components of “well-being”, as for example in the 2015 article by Daniel Avdic and Christian Bünnings (Avdic & Bünnings, 2015).

This exposes one of the shortcomings in a large sum of the contemporary instruments that aim to measure security perceptions in the West: a relative lack in triangulation and a too narrow focus on the earlier-mentioned determinants of fear of crime: the data *behind* the data. A striking example is the Eurobarometer, which has often asked respondents to rank their most prominent concerns, without gathering any additional information on *why* (the determinants) or *how* (attitude-strength) concerned the respondent is, thereby leaving room for varying interpretation and prescriptions for policy-makers. A respondent might for example indicate he or she is concerned for a particular type of situation, not for the situation itself, but due to the standard “prescribed” public and political reaction to the respective situation. If no data is available with regard to the determinants of the respondent’s fear, a policy-maker might then misinterpret a concern for a call to action, whereas such a misinterpretation could potentially confirm that fear, not alleviate it.

This paradoxical and negative feedback-loop is particularly striking when firstly considering other security-related concerns such as fear for terrorism and the instruments that measure them, and secondly considering corresponding policy-reactions such as the suspension of certain fundamental rights in France in wake of the 2015 Paris attacks (BBC, 2017).

The next paragraph is devoted to precisely those intricacies of fear of crime and its determinants, with the final paragraph of this chapter dealing with fear of terrorism and its determinants.

2.2 Dynamics of Fear of Crime and measurement

For the purposes of this study, a ‘determinant’ of fear of crime is defined as a container-variable that influences an individual’s fear of crime through a particular type of rational, emotional, or behavioral processing. Due to the prevalence of bicycle theft, one might for example find bicycle theft to be “normal”, therefore fear it less and as such, it might not have a significant impact on one’s conduct. The type of processing – in this case the “normalcy” - is then the “determinant”, and the prevalence of bicycle theft a situational “factor”³.

In Table 1, an advance was made with regard to a non-exhaustive overview of the determinants and factors influencing fear of crime. These determinants and factors, as can also be found in the victimization-oriented model provided by Kilias (Table 2), can be traced back to a number of demographic factors such as gender, age, and/or race, a number of situational factors such as location, season, weather, and time of day, and a number of social factors such as the existence of a support network and the responsive strength of a support network. However, determinants for fear of crime can also be influenced, according to a Social-Control perspective, by factors such as the frequency of a particular kind of crime making news (public discourse) or by the relevant history and culture that affect fear of crime attitudes. By adding these factors to Table 1, a reinforced Table 3 emerges.

Table 3 - Non-Exhaustive overview of approaches towards Fear of Crime (reinforced)

<i>Nature</i>	Cognitive		Emotional/Affective		Behavioral/Conative	
<i>Perspective</i>	Victimization		Social Control		Social Problem	
<i>Determinants</i>	Normalcy	Context	Control	Risk	Harm	Proximity
<i>Factors</i>	Demographics/ Socio- economic	Situational	Social	Public Discourse	History	Culture

³ To the same extent there is consensus with regard to how to best measure fear of crime, to that same extent there is consistent usage in vocabulary within the fear of crime literature. I have chosen to use the term “determinant” as the first-level derivative of fear of crime, and “factor” as the second-level derivative (see Figure 1). As stated before, this is inconsistent with Kilias’ use of the word “dimension” for “determinant”. It does however conform to the vocabulary used by Brück and Müller. Their article does not make a distinction between the factors that influence fear of crime, and the type of process (“logic”) through which fear of crime is influenced, thereby calling some of the variables that this thesis would call factors determinants. However, since Brück and Müller group together the “factors” and “determinants” as a single group “determinants”, there is similarity: both this study and the Brück and Müller call the first-level derivative of fear of crime “determinants”; Brück and Müller just skip the “process” step in their approach to fear of crime.

The nature of interaction between the components of Table 3 is presented in Figure 1. A single factor can influence multiple determinants. Determinants can influence multiple “fear of crimes” (e.g.: both fear for sexual intimidation and fear for identity fraud).

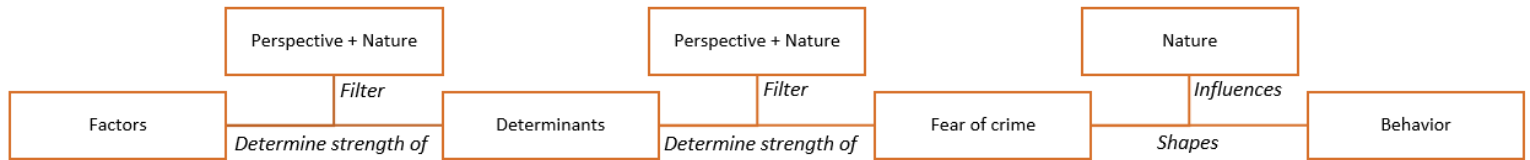


Figure 1 – The different interactions between components of Table 3.

As can be deduced from Table 3 and Figure 1, a different take on the nature and academic perspective on fear of crime can lead to a radically different assortment of factors to be used as focal points in respective research designs.⁴ As such, some of these designs focus on “input” – the factors and determinants that influence the level of fear of crime – and some on “output” – changes in behavior caused by fear of crime. Thus, approaches to measuring fear of crime vary largely. This has made valid academic comparisons between different data-sets and studies impractical and unfeasible. Furthermore, an integral part of many fear of crime methodologies is that they are designed to be static over time in order to allow for time series analysis, but therewith disallowing for innovation and the integration of best practices with regard measuring fear of crime.

As such, most of the debate within the fear of crime literature can thus be divided into the following categories: “*should we measure it*”, “*what does it mean when we do measure it*” and most succinctly: “*how should we measure it if we do measure it*”. This thesis tries to come up with better answers to these three questions by comparing and analyzing how two fear of crime studies have previously addressed them.

The next paragraph will introduce the concept of fear of terrorism, and will address how by comparing a fear of terrorism study with current fear of crime research could potentially lead to a reinforced understanding and cross-pollination between the two concepts.

⁴ In an interesting twist, some of the factors are occasionally also treated as the *dependent* variables in research. For example, some authors have also studied the effect of fear of crime on for example public discourse and demographic factors such as income (Lee, 2007).

2.3 Fear of Terrorism and its Determinants

Despite a surge in academic interest in terrorism and all of its related facets in the wake of 9/11 and other Al-Qaeda- and IS-related terrorist strikes in the West, the literature available on fear of terror remains relatively scarce. For this reason, authors such as Veldhuis & Bakker in 2013 have argued that more research should be conducted towards the uncovering and untangling of factors and determinants that actually influence a population's fear of terrorism, while also implying that much can be learned with regard to how to best study fear of terrorism by drawing on lessons learned from studying fear of crime (Veldhuis & Bakker, 2013).

Brian Frost, a criminologist who has studied the concept of fear of terrorism extensively, describes the key difference between fear of crime and fear of terrorism as that fear of crime is a byproduct of the occurrence of crime, whereas with terrorism, the maximalization of fear is one of the strategic objectives of terrorism (Frost, 2008). As such, an aware terrorist will always attempt to use the interplay between fear of terrorism, its determinants, and its factors to his advantage, whereas a "professional criminal" would tend to ignore these dynamics - or even try to diminish levels of fear if that is in his interest. Furthermore, Brian Frost (2008) makes an additional distinction between fear of crime and fear of terrorism:

"Terror means fear in the extreme largely because terrorism is crime in the extreme"

As such, fear of crime and fear of terrorism can be treated as distinct, yet related concepts. Due to their familiarity, similar debates with regard to the nature of, perspective on, determinants of, and factors relevant with regard to fear of crime can also be had with regard to fear of terrorism; the academic debate surrounding fear of terrorism just has not sufficiently matured yet. Furthermore, as Veldhuis & Bakker argue, the determinants that might be or not be relevant have not yet been mapped to the same extent as they have been with regard to fear of crime. More research is thus required into the relevant determinants of factors when considering fear of terrorism, and if indeed the same set of factors and determinants that are applied for fear of crime can actually be copied for fear of terrorism.

To bring back a previous example that also applies here, surveys such as the Eurobarometer, that are being conducted to measure respondents' levels of fear with regard to terrorism, still pay insignificant attention to the "factors" and "determinants" that drive those exact levels of fear (European Commission, 2015). According to the Eurobarometer, fear of terrorism has during the 00s overtaken fear of crime in Europe as either our most or second-most prominent

security concern. Eurobarometer presents these statistics without shedding light on the causes of this rise – the *why* – which are, if the statistic is accurate, urgent to uncover.

Two studies that have actually have been conducted towards the uncovering and mapping of the determinants of fear of terrorism, include a 2010 study by Brück & Müller, which contains both victimization elements and social problem elements when dealing with fear of terrorism, and a 2010 study by Drakos & Müller⁵, which contains a mesh of victimization components and social control with regard to fear of terrorism:

The Brück & Müller study focuses on which demographics best predict a higher potential fear of crime and terrorism, whereas the Drakos & Müller study relates the presence and absence of terrorist activity within separate European countries with fear of terrorism in these respective countries (Brück & Müller, 2010) (Drakos & Müller, 2010). Put differently, the Brück & Müller study thus focuses on the respondent's perceived vulnerability influenced by demographics such as gender or level of education in a single given moment, whereas the Drakos & Müller study mainly focusses on perceived vulnerability influenced by an increase or decline in terrorist activity within an area over time, set against increases and/or declines in alternative concerns such poverty risk.

A third study has been published by Seksan Khruakham and Joongyeup Lee in 2014 that analyses and compares the determinants of fear of crime and fear of terrorism in an Asian context, more specifically The Philippines. Khruakham and Lee find that "*the results suggest that concern about terrorism significantly predicted public perceptions of fear of crime in the Philippines*" (Khruakham & Lee, 2014). As Brück and Müller, Khruakham and Lee treat concern for terrorism similarly as how they treat fear of crime in theory, operationalization, and exploitation.

Notable is that Brück & Müller also strongly connected the concept of fear of terrorism to the concept of fear of crime in its determinants, framing, and treatment; not as two distinct concepts both requiring a separate methodological framework for analysis and evaluation. However, in discussing the literature of fear of terrorism, Brück and Müller do also underwrite that the concept of fear of terrorism is distinct. Nevertheless, lacking in the article is a thorough

⁵ The Brück & Müller study refers to fear of terrorism as *fear of terrorism*, whereas Drakos & Müller refer to the same concept as *Terrorism Risk Concern*. The wording is differently, but the meaning of *concern* and *fear* in these case are interchangeable.

literature review on the concept of fear of terrorism, which is, as Brück and Müller also claim is “*quite sparse*” (Brück & Müller, 2010).

In any case, according to Eurobarometer reports and surveys (European Commission, 2015), terrorism is still the most prominent or second-most prominent concern in Europe. Following an “urgency” or “contemporary relevant” argument, fear of terrorism is therefore more deserving of additional research, especially with regard to its determinants.

To summarize, the objective of this study is therefore to come to a better understanding of fear of crime and fear of terrorism, and to hopefully slightly move the needle in the academic debate surrounding the best approaches to fear of crime and fear of terrorism. It tries to do so by trying to establish cross-pollination between a fear of terrorism study and a fear of crime study.

3 Method

In order to meet the objectives that have been formulated at the end of the theory chapter – to improve upon the existing research into the determinants of fear of crime, and more specifically, fear of terrorism – a qualitative comparative research design has been chosen for this thesis. To that end, the more “unorthodox” SOEP methodology, more specifically an exponent of it in the guise of the Brück and Müller article, has been selected to be compared with a more traditional Dutch fear of crime methodology, in this case the Dutch Safety Monitor. These two studies therefore form the units of analysis of this thesis. The research question as such reads: *“What new insights can a comparison between Brück and Müller and Dutch Safety Monitor bring to the methodological scientific debate on monitoring feelings of safety and security?”*

This chapter describes the design choices that have been made to that end. In the first paragraph, an explanation is provided regarding the choices in the overall design of the research. In a second paragraph, the selection of units of observation is elucidated. In a third paragraph, the operationalization of the theoretic concepts is presented. In a fourth paragraph, the methods with regard to data gathering are illustrated. In a final and fifth paragraph, light is shed upon the exploitation and treatment of that data.

3.1 Design

“Since social phenomena clearly rule out any control by the experimenter, the comparative method is the sole one suitable for sociology” – Emile Durkheim, 1982

This paragraph describes the design choices made for this thesis. In order to learn as much as possible from existing fear of crime and fear of terrorism, a qualitative approach has been selected. A qualitative approach has the potential to better reveal the strong and weak points within research methodologies than a quantitative analysis of for example available raw data. Furthermore, an inductive and explorative approach has been taken: theory is not tested, but rather generated. As the study is observational – no experimentation or manipulation takes place – there are no separate independent and dependent variables.

Since there is already plenty of research on fear of crime and some on fear of terrorism available, and since it is resource-intensive to conduct new fear of crime or fear of terrorism research through e.g. surveys, a choice has been made to look at the already available literature, and conduct a comparative review between multiple studies. The scientific relevance of conducting a comparative review is that it allows for a comparison of multiple elements of two studies, and

through the emerging contrast, new insights might be revealed. Moreover, since the units of analysis in this case are the methodologies of two studies, this method pays homage to the overall academic tradition of replication and review. More studies could have been compared in order to lend more depth and validity to the design, but this was ultimately deemed unfeasible.

The focus within the comparative review has been on answering the following three questions with regard to fear of crime: “*should we measure it*”, “*what does it mean when we do measure it*” and “*how should we measure it if we do measure it*”. Based on this focus, the following topics have been selected to be reviewed and compared between the units of observation:

- Background;
- The theoretical framework;
- The research design;
- The quality of the data;
- The treatment of the data;
- Conclusions of the studies.

These multiple topics have different levels of relevance and importance to the overall aims of this thesis, as the research question is of a more in-depth methodological nature. For example, the background of the reviewed material can provide some clarity with regard to the question of “*should we measure it*”, but has little relevance to the question of “*how should we measure it*”. Therefore, to focus the review on the phenomena relevant to fear of crime and fear of terrorism, particular attention has been paid to firstly, the theoretical approaches taken within the reviewed material, secondly, the research design that is connected to these theoretical approaches, and thirdly, the recommendations made and their foundation in theory. The primary objective has therefore not been to critique or falsify the examined material, but to draw parallels and contrasts between the two examined methodologies in their approach towards fear of crime and fear of terrorism. Nevertheless, despite the focus on particular topics, the whole set of identified topics has been at least partially exploited and analyzed.

A major advantage of the design of this thesis is that it partially helps overcome one of the main shortcomings of the current literature on fear of crime, as also identified by Hale in 1996: there is a lack of comparability in fear of crime literature caused by the differences in approaches taken towards fear of crime. This thesis overcomes this shortcoming by providing a framework through which fear of crime (and fear of terrorism) literature can actually be compared with and by focusing on the qualitative components, not the quantitative components.

3.2 Units of analysis, Observation & Research Question

This paragraph describes the units of analysis and units of observation, and how the selection of these units came to be. Furthermore, it describes the research question of this thesis, and the sub-questions devised to help answer this research question.

3.2.1 Selection of articles

The units of analysis – the units of comparison – selected for this comparative review are the German Socio-economic panel (SOEP) research pertaining fear of crime and fear of terrorism and the Dutch Safety Monitor's research pertaining fear of crime and fear of terrorism. In order to closely examine these studies, the respective units of observation for the comparative review are the Brück and Müller article of 2010 and the Dutch Safety Monitor's manual of 2016 and its corresponding 2016 report. A fourth document, a SOEP manual by Nico A. Siegel, Bernhard von Rosenblatt, and Andreas Stocker, could be considered to be the fourth unit of observation⁶. This manual is however only used extensively in order to review the SOEP data that Brück and Müller used as the data-input for their article.

The first unit of analysis, the SOEP research pertaining fear of crime, and its corresponding units of observation, a 2010 Brück and Müller article and the SOEP manual, have been selected for the following reasons: firstly, the SOEP enjoys an excellent reputation for its consistent, responsive, and representative panel design. Secondly, a Social Problem Perspective with regard to both fear of crime and fear of terrorism is imbedded in the designs, which offers a change of pace where most fear of crime studies adhere to a victimization perspective. Thirdly, the article is the sole study conducted in a Western-European context which directly tests for the relation between the determinants of fear of crime and fear of terrorism⁷.

The second unit of analysis, the Dutch Safety Monitor, and its corresponding units of observation, the Dutch Safety Monitor manual of 2016 and the Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016, have been selected for the following reasons: firstly, the author of this thesis was already familiar with the selected literature prior to writing this thesis, allowing for increased feasibility and potential additional insight. Secondly, the Dutch Safety Monitor has been a recurring, large-scale, and robust victimization survey that much of the literature on fear of

⁶ Full title: "Online survey SOEP 2007: "private life and community", methodology, August 2007. Literally translated from German: "Online-Befragung SOEP 2007: „Privatleben und Gemeinschaft“ Methodenbericht August 2007.

⁷ The 2014 Khruakham and Lee study was conducted in an Asian context, and therefore makes comparison less valid.

crime in the Netherlands focuses on. Nevertheless, an alternative choice could have been made to focus on for example the ICVS or other local, non-Dutch fear of crime surveys and methodologies.

Since this thesis thus focusses on a comparative review between the aforementioned units of observation, the following research question emerges: *“What new insights can a comparison between Brück and Müller and Dutch Safety Monitor bring to the methodological scientific debate on monitoring feelings of safety and security?”*

To come to an answer towards this central research question, the following sub-questions have been devised:

1. What is the SOEP?
2. What is the theoretical framework used by the Brück and Müller article?
3. What was the method used in the Brück and Müller article?
4. What were the results of the study by Brück and Müller?
5. What was the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016?
6. What was the theoretical framework used by the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016?
7. What was the method used by the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016?
8. What were the results of the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016?

In the following two parts, short overviews of both units of observation are presented. This provides preliminary answers to the sub-questions of the research question.

3.2.2 Summary of the SOEP and Brück & Müller article

This paragraph provides preliminary answers to the sub-questions 1 to 4 regarding the SOEP, and the method and results of the Brück and Müller article. These questions will be answered more in-depth in the results part of this thesis.

Since 1984, The German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP) is a *“wide-ranging representative longitudinal study of private households, located at the German Institute for Economic Research, DIW Berlin. Every year, there were nearly 11,000 households, and about 30,000 persons sampled by the fieldwork organization Kantar Public Germany”* (DIW Berlin, 2017).

DIW Berlin also irregularly conducts additional extensive surveys in Germany with the aim to gather new insights that can be used to tweak and improve upon the current panel design. The data gathered in one of these additional surveys has been used by then-DIW-economists Tilman Brück and C atherine M uller to conduct a statistical analysis on the correlation between the

statistical predictive variables for fear of crime and those for fear of terrorism. Brück and Müller concluded that the determinants of fear of crime and fear of terrorism are indeed statistically correlated and therefore likely similar in nature. For this survey, which was electronically conducted through e-mail, 1057 participants responded.

In Appendix I, the abstract of the Brück and Müller article can be found.

3.2.3 Overview of the Dutch Safety Monitor

This paragraph provides a preliminary answer to the sub-questions 5 to 8 regarding the Dutch Safety Monitor, its methodology, and its results. These questions will be answered more exhaustively in the results part of this thesis.

The Dutch Safety Monitor, officially the “Netherlands’ Safety Monitor” (Dutch project title: *Veiligheidsmonitor-VM*), is an annual survey of “*the attitudes and experiences of the general population of the Netherlands regarding habitability and safety of the neighbourhood, fear and prevention of crime, victimisation and the attitudes towards the police and municipality*” (Dutch Bureau for Statistics, 2017). At least a minimum of 65.000 people participate annually in this survey in order to be valid on police-district level. Survey data is gathered according to a ‘mixed mode’, namely Computer Assisted Web Interviewing.

The results of each annual survey are presented in a report, which also compares the survey data with previous editions. This report does not provide any conclusions and/or research and academic recommendations, therewith focusing solely on providing for a comprehensive and easy-to-understand overview of the various (fear of) crime statistics.

3.3 Operationalization

To come to a more in-depth answer to the research question and its sub-questions, this paragraph describes how the process of answering these is operationalized and imbedded in theory. As such, it also describes how the findings with regard to the literature on fear of crime and fear of terrorism from chapter 2 can be best put into the context of the comparative review design of this thesis.

For any comparative review, it is of paramount importance that a common and consistent language is used when describing the different elements of the approaches taken by Brück and Müller and the Dutch Safety Monitor in their respective methodologies towards to measure fear of crime and fear of terrorism.

To address the sub-questions, multiple components -topics- from the units of observation will be reviewed, namely the background, the applied theoretical framework, the research design, the quality of the data, the treatment of the data, and the conclusions of the research. As explained previously, the primary focus will be on the topics relevant to the development of the concepts of fear of crime and fear of terrorism. Therefore, topics not related to these concepts are still reviewed, but on a more ad-hoc basis.

The following structure (Table 4) will be maintained to analyze the topics and the sub-topics for of the relevant units of observation, in order to answer the sub-questions of this thesis. The sub-questions have been grouped together topically.

Table 4 – Structure for all topics of review for each relevant unit of observation

- Background – *relevant for answering sub-questions 1 and 5*
 - What is the (institutional) background of the author(s)?
 - How is the research funded?
 - What is the context of the research?
 - What has prompted the research?
 - What is the aim of the research?
- The theoretical framework *relevant for answering sub-questions 2 and 6*
 - Is a distinction made between fear of crime and fear of terrorism?
 - What is the nature ascribed to fear of crime/fear of terrorism in the research?
 - Which theoretical perspective is taken on fear of crime/fear of terrorism?
 - Which determinants are identified and investigated when measuring fear of crime?

- Which relevant factors are identified and investigated when measuring fear of crime?
- The research design – *relevant for answering sub-questions 3 and 7*
 - What type of research is conducted?
- The quality of the data – *relevant for answering sub-questions 3 and 7*
 - How is the data collected?
 - What type of data is collected?
- The treatment of the data – *relevant for answering sub-questions 3, 4, 7, and 8*
 - How is the data used and/or treated?
 - Which statistical tests are used to gain more insight in the data?
 - Which statistics are available with regard to the data?
- Conclusions of the studies – *relevant for answering sub-question 4 and 8*
 - Which conclusions are drawn?
 - Which pitfalls and recommendations are identified?

After each topic has been reviewed, the findings from each of the respective units of observation with regard to that element will be compared. After the findings from all the topics have been compared, a final overview – a synthesis – of these comparisons will be provided.

With regard to the theoretical approaches to fear of crime and fear of terrorism, Table 3 (below) will be used as a an operationalization tool to identify the approaches taken to fear of crime and fear of terrorism within the units of observation material. This table is based on the findings from the literature review. While some of components from Table 3 are already uncovered, such as which perspectives are taken in the respective studies – Social Problem Perspective in the Brück and Müller article and the victimization perspective in the Dutch Safety Monitor – its structure provides a meaningful system through which other elements of the respective theoretical framework can be examined.

Table 3 - Non-Exhaustive overview of approaches towards Fear of Crime (reinforced)

<i>Nature</i>	Cognitive		Emotional/Affective		Behavioral/Conative	
<i>Perspective</i>	Victimization		Social Control		Social Problem	
<i>Determinants</i>	Normalcy	Context	Control	Risk	Harm	Proximity
<i>Factors</i>	Demographics/ Socio- economic	Situational	Social	Public Discourse	History	Culture

When reviewing the numerous topics of the Brück and Müller article and the Dutch Safety Monitor, of specific interest will be how the studies approach fear of crime and fear of terrorism with regard to *their nature, their perspective, their determinants, and which relevant factors they identify*. By focusing on the nature of these approaches, it is intended to create a concise image of the unit of observations' approach towards fear of crime and/or fear of terrorism.

Its nature can be identified by looking how the study describes the process behind fear of crime. For example, does the study measure and/or describe opinions (rational), feelings (emotion), or behavior (conative) stances towards fear of crime and/or fear of terrorism?

The perspective of the study can be identified by looking at the type of determinants and factors employed. A study which focuses on harm and past events can be said to adhere to a victimization perspective, a study which focuses on public discourse to be regarded as taking a Social Control Perspective, and a study which focuses on elements such as the environment and context can be broadly said to be observing a Social Problem Perspective.

The next two paragraphs explain in more detail how data towards this end is, firstly, generated, and secondly, exploited.

3.4 Data gathering: Triangulation of methods

There are two types of data gathered towards conducting this study: data gathered through document analysis and data gathered through desk research. This paragraph describes these two types of data gathering more in-depth.

A majority of the data is however generated through document analysis by manually comparing the 2010 article by Brück and Müller and the SOEP manual with the 2016 manual of the Dutch Safety Monitor and the 2016 Dutch Safety Monitor Report. Desk research has been conducted to provide maximum context to both studies, for example by examining more in-depth the SOEP data and methodology the Brück and Müller study is based on, or for example how either study was financed and/or governed. Brief contact was had with both Catherine Müller, the Dutch Bureau for Statistics, and the director of the Dutch Institute for Social Research (SCP), but a choice was made not to include interviews for triangulation due to limits in scope.

3.4.1 Desk Research – finding relevant materials

All initial research for this thesis was conducted by gathering a wide variety of articles to provide a solid context for any fear of crime research. Particular attention has been paid to the geographical and up-to-date relevance of publications. Lessons learned and recommendations harvested from these documents form the theoretical foundation of this study, and provide direction in its methodology. Furthermore, desk research was decisive in selecting the four manuscripts for document analysis and comparison: the 2010 Brück and Müller article, the corresponding SOEP manual, the 2016 Manual for the Dutch Safety Monitor, and the 2016 Dutch Safety Monitor Report.

Moreover, desk research was conducted to provide more context to the four articles examined in this study. As such, two types of desk research were conducted: internal and external. Internally, documents produced by either SOEP or Dutch Bureau for Statistics were collected, including, but not limited to: other SOEP manuals, older Dutch Safety Monitor Manuals, a template survey that is used for the Dutch Safety Monitor, and disclaimers from both DIW Berlin and the Dutch Bureau for Statistics.

A major effort was required to gain access to SOEP data and supporting documents, requiring the collection of various signatures and waivers from various instances, including from this thesis' supervisor and the director of the SOEP. Nevertheless, the author is very grateful for the SOEP's assistance and the large cache of information that was provided for.

External desk research was used to collect relevant literature reviews and studies written by authors from outside the SOEP and the Dutch Bureau for Statistics, such as the literature reviews conducted by Hale on the literature in general (1996), Vanderveen on Dutch fear of crime tradition (2006), Henk Ellffers (2016) and Beukenhorst and Wetzels (2009) on the Dutch Safety Monitor, and Gerber, Hirtenlehner and Jackson on the German fear of crime body of work (2010).

3.4.2 Document Analysis – units of observation

Only four documents - the units of observation - have received a structured analysis for this study in order to make their comparison possible: the 2016 manual for the Dutch Safety Monitor and its corresponding 2016 report, and the 2010 Brück and Müller article and the corresponding SOEP manual. These documents have all been accessed electronically.

These documents were written and analyzed in three different languages: English (Brück and Müller article), German (SOEP Manual), and Dutch (Dutch Safety Monitor Manual and Report).

Two versions of the Brück and Müller article have been accessed and two versions of the Dutch Safety Monitor Manual. For the document analysis, the slightly-edited 2010 journal version from Global Crime has been used, not the 2009 DIW Berlin Discussion paper. This preference is based on the increased scientific value of the more recent version, which is provided by the additional editing that was required to publish the article in a peer-reviewed journal. With regard to set of the Manual for the Dutch Safety Monitor and its corresponding 2016 report, a conscious choice was made to use the 2016 edition over for example the 2017 edition, since it offers the latest complete iteration, as the 2017 final report has not been published yet, thereby making the 2016 set the most relevant and up-to-date.

For both the Dutch Safety Monitor and the Brück and Müller article, an analysis of the underlying data have been deemed beyond the scope of this study: while through such analysis some relevant lessons with regard to its respective methodologies and its respective conclusions could come to light, due to practical reasons (unknown treatments) and feasibility issues, such analysis has been disregarded.

3.5 Data Exploitation

The data gathered through the methods mentioned in the previous section require structured analysis and exploitation. This paragraph describes the selected methods for the gathered documents for each of the respective data gathering techniques, and how this data is extracted and triangulated in order to lend more internal validity to this study.

3.5.1 Desk top analysis – literature review

All the articles and reviews collected for this study have been thematically analyzed and evaluated. The themes that have been analyzed are: their relevance, their evaluation of fear of crime as a concept, their approach and perspective on fear of crime, and any recommendations with regard to further fear of crime methodologies. Through this, a detailed, triangulated view of the fear of crime scientific body of work emerged, which makes the theoretical foundation of this study.

3.5.2 Document analysis – in-depth evaluation

The four documents compared for this thesis have been systematically compared on the basis of the operational design provided in the previous paragraph. Following this design, the topics have been systematically compared. As such, as much as possible internal validity is established, but with severe limitations to its external validity and reliability. However: these limitations are intrinsic and a logical trade-off caused by the choice for a comparative review of two research methodologies. A similar treatment is used for the fourth document, the SOEP Private life and community methodology paper.

Since not all units of observation contain relevant information on all topics of the two studies, they are not reviewed for each separate topic. For example, if the Dutch Safety Monitor manual does not contain or exploit any data, this document will be disregarded in the analysis of the quality of the gathered data. Furthermore, as mentioned before, particular attention has been paid to topics and sub-topics relevant to the concepts of fear of crime and fear of terrorism, and as such, have been imbedded as sub-topics in the structural review. Thus, not all the topics that might for example be required for in-depth evaluative review have been analyzed, since this is considered to be beyond the scope of this thesis.

4 Results

This chapter presents the results from the research conducted as described in the previous chapter. This chapter's organization approximates the structure as described in the previous chapter through which the units of observation were to be analyzed, with an added paragraph exhibiting the deviations made on the actual intended design. Since the two units of analysis are the Brück and Müller study and the Dutch Safety Monitor study, the findings pertaining to the respective units of observations have been grouped together. Thus: separate findings with regard to the topics of the Brück & Müller article and the SOEP Manual been grouped together into single paragraphs, as have the Dutch Safety Monitor Manual of 2016 and the Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016.

Contrary to convention, due to the strong focus of this thesis on review and methodology, this chapter already links some of the results immediately to theory.

Not each of the observed documents was deemed relevant for each topical exploration of the research question and its sub-questions. For this reason, Table 5 provides an overview of each relevant unit of observation for each of the topics explored and analyzed.

Table 5 – Relevance of each unit of observation for each examined topic

	Brück and Müller article	SOEP Manual	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual of 2016	Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016
Background	X	X	X	X
The theoretical framework	X		X	
The research design	X	X	X	
The quality of the data	X	X		X
The treatment of the data	X	X		X
Conclusions of the studies	X			X

4.1 Background & Motivation

In this paragraph, a comparison is presented with regard to the backgrounds of the respective documents. It first looks at the background of the Brück and Müller article, after which it analyses the backgrounds of both the Dutch Safety Monitor manual of 2016 and its corresponding report. The paragraph is wrapped up with a summary of the parallels and deviations between the respective backgrounds. As such, it answers sub-question 1: *what is the SOEP* and sub-question 5: *what was the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016*.

Table 5 – Relevance of each unit of observation for each examined topic (condensed version)

	Brück and Müller article	SOEP Manual	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual of 2016	Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016
Background	X	X	X	X

4.1.1 Brück & Müller article

DIW Berlin, or the German Institute for Economic Research (German: Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung Berlin) is an independent, socio-economic research institute in Germany that was founded in 1925.

The crown-jewel of DIW Berlin's activities is the German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP). This annual panel conducted by Kantar Public Germany tracks around 11,000 private households and over 30.000 persons with regard to inter alia their: *“household composition, occupational biographies, employment, earnings, health and satisfaction indicators”* (DIW Berlin, 2017).

The Brück and Müller article has been written by Tilman Brück and C atherine M uller as part of DIW Berlin's regular operations. Tilman Br uck is German economist and professor who was affiliated with the Humboldt University in Berlin and who is specialized in the economics of development, conflict, and terrorism, and who has been the director of the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIRPRI) between January 2013 and June 2014. C atherine M uller is an applied economist specialized in the study of gender, violence, popular politics, and governance. The research was funded as part of DIW Berlin's regular research projects. The stated aim of the study was to make visible which groups require more attention than others when formulating policy that addresses the (security) concerns of citizens and to test whether the determinants of fear of crime are similar to those of fear of terrorism.

4.1.2 SOEP Manual

The data used by Brück and Müller for their article and analysis have been generated by a survey developed and conducted by Nico A. Siegel, Bernard von Rasenblatt, and Andreas Stoker. These three men are all economists affiliated with TNS Infratest Sozialforschung (currently rebranded as Kantar Public Germany). The survey was commissioned and paid for by DIW Berlin for the purpose of conducting a preliminary test, which results were intended to be used to ultimately enhance and improve upon the current SOEP research.

4.1.3 Dutch Safety Monitor Manual & Report of 2016

The aim of the Dutch Safety monitor is to monitor “*the attitudes and experiences of the general population of the Netherlands regarding habitability and safety of the neighbourhood [SIC], fear and prevention of crime, victimization [SIC] and the attitudes towards the police and municipality*” (Dutch Bureau for Statistics, 2017). It is important to note that the Dutch Safety Monitor Report does not draw any conclusions based on the data, or makes any scientific and/or policy recommendations.

The Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016 was commissioned by the Dutch Bureau for Statistics (“Statistics Netherlands”), the Ministry of Security and Justice, and local (government) agencies. Its first iteration saw the light of day in 2005. The content of the survey has remained unchanged since 2012, only a few small changes have been made with regard to the stratification of the data.

The Dutch Safety Monitor manual of 2016 is a copy of earlier iterations of the same manual, and is edited by Peter van Teeffelen, a researcher affiliated with the Dutch Bureau of Statistics. The Dutch Safety Monitor report of 2016 was written by Math Akkermans, Rianne Kloosterman, Kim Knoops, Ger Linden, and Elke Moons, all statisticians employed by the Dutch Bureau for Statistics.

4.1.4 Comparison

No significant conclusions could be drawn from comparing the backgrounds of the respective units of observation. Both studies indicate that there is a societal need to study for of crime in order to better tailor public policy.

4.2 Application of Theory

This paragraph provides an overview of the theoretical backgrounds of the exploited documents. It first looks at the selection and application of theory within the Brück and Müller article, after which it analyses the academic foundation of both the Dutch Safety Monitor manual of 2016. The paragraph is wrapped up with a summary of the parallels and differences between the respective theoretical frameworks. As such, it answers sub-question 2: *What is the theoretical framework used by the Brück and Müller article?* and sub-question 6: *what was the theoretical framework used by the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016.*

Table 5 – Relevance of each unit of observation for each examined topic (condensed version)

	Brück and Müller article	SOEP Manual	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual of 2016	Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016
The theoretical framework	X		X	X

4.2.1 Brück & Müller article

The Brück and Müller article analyzes a larger set of concerns which include “public” and “private” goods - public goods for example being the state of the environment, the conservation of peace, and the acceptance of foreigners and minorities; with private goods being the economic or physical wellbeing of the respondent. Respondents were asked how concerned they were regarding the state of these goods, with respondents being asked to indicate their concern on a three point scale (“very concerned – “some concern”, and “not concerned”⁸). Among these goods were the state of “global terrorism” and “crime in Germany”.

The Brück and Müller article thus treats both fear of crime and fear of terrorism, but places these concepts into a larger framework of “concerns”, and does not treat these items as separate, individual concepts. This treatment might be more the result of a preference for the utilized dataset than a conscious design choice, but it offers a stark contrast with many of the fear of crime studies, which focus relatively exclusively on fear of crime or crime-related concepts.

The approach taken towards fear of crime and fear of terrorism can be considered an example of a Social Problem Perspective, since it places both concepts in a larger (public health) context, does not focus on past (victimization) events, and does not take into account public discourse regarding the subject.

⁸ In German: “Wie ist es mit den folgenden Gebieten machen Sie sich da Sorgen? – “Große Sorgen” - “Einige Sorgen” - “Keine Sorgen” “

With regard to the nature of fear of crime, the Brück and Müller article reveals very little, only repeatedly indicating that respondents *express* their fear of crime, hinting at a conative/behavioral approach to fear of crime – which would be congruent with the Social Problem classification of the approach taken towards fear of crime and fear of terrorism in the article.

The potential factors identified include demographic and socio-economic traits of the respondents, including: gender, age, age squared, and level of education. Social factors identified include: community size, number of household members, and living situation. Historic and cultural factors identified include: location in either West or East Germany and the heritage of parents. No factors with regard to public discourse or the current situation of the respondent have been included in the design.

When discussing how the factors might influence fear of crime, determinants such as proximity, harm, and risk were included. Absent were determinants such as normalcy and location, as are the corresponding factors that influence the determinants of normalcy and location, such as a discourse factor or a situational factor.

Notable however is the lack of a “control” determinant or logic, which is usually present when “harm” and “proximity” determinants are applied, as in Kilius’ model of the dimensions of fear of crime.

It should be noted that additional “factors” were available on the basis of the SOEP dataset, but were disregarded by Brück and Müller in their article. No explanation has been given as to why. Examples of these other factors are: additional demographic and socio-economic factors such as denomination, income, and sexual orientation, but also situational factors such as current health and mood.

4.2.2 Dutch Safety Monitor Manual & Report of 2016

The Dutch Safety Monitor measures the following components: perceived neighborhood safety, fear of crime, (recent) victimization, attitude towards the police, and attitude towards the municipality’s security policy.

The questionnaire does not contain any references to terrorism or fear of terrorism. Types of crime that are separately explored are: burglary, various forms of theft, assault, vandalism and destruction of property, fraud, identity theft, and cybercrime.

The manual treats fear of crime as emotional in nature, focusing on the respondents' *feelings* of insecurity. Through the focus on previous victimization, the monitor can be regarded as an excellent example of a survey that takes a Victimization perspective on fear of crime, as it also disregards relevant public discourse and situational factors. While the monitor includes questions with regard to ethnicity and background, it does not inquire any further into the history, cultural, and social backgrounds of the respondents.

As such, the sole factors in the Dutch Safety Monitor are demographic and socio-economic in nature. These factors include: gender, age, education, occupation, employment, sexual orientation, and living situation.

When examining the logic, wording, and reasoning in the manual, survey, and report, the focus is on the determinants of proximity and harm. In general, the report does not make any attempts to infer conclusions based on the data, mainly focusing on presenting the data in a clear and concise manner.

4.2.3 Comparison

There are two main differences between the theoretical approach in the Brück and Müller article and the Dutch Safety Monitor. Firstly, Brück and Müller include both fear of crime and fear of terrorism in their theoretical approach, whereas the Dutch Safety Monitor only focuses on fear of crime. Secondly, Brück and Müller take a Social Problem Perspective on fear of crime and fear of terrorism, whereas the Dutch Safety Monitor takes a classical victimization perspective. As a consequence, both studies have adopted determinants and factors fitting with their perspectives on fear of crime (and fear of terrorism).

Finally, comparing the article and the report, it is notable that the Dutch Bureau for Statistics does not infer any conclusions from the data, whereas the article tries to explain why the observed phenomena take place. Ironically, even though the Dutch Bureau for Statistics therewith attempts to avoid making any “*political*” observations, inherent in its design is imbedded a “*political*” choice for a victimization perspective on fear of crime.

4.3 Research Design, quality of the gathered data, and exploitation of data

In this paragraph, the respective research designs, data gathering, and data exploitation of the respective articles are reviewed and summarized. It first looks at the methodology as applied by Brück and Müller in specific, and the SOEP in general, after which it reviews the research specifications on design, data gathering, and data exploitation found in the Dutch Safety Monitor manual of 2016 and the scientific disclaimer as presented in the Dutch Safety Monitor report of 2016. The paragraph is wrapped up with an overview of the parallels and deviations between the respective theoretical framework. As such, it fully answers sub-question 3, *what was the method used in the Brück and Müller article*, and sub-question 7: *what was the method used by the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016*, and partially answers sub-question 4, *what were the results of the study by Brück and Müller*, and sub-question 8: *what were the results of the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016*.

Table 5 – Relevance of each unit of observation for each examined topic (condensed version)

	Brück and Müller article	SOEP Manual	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual of 2016	Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016
The research design	X	X	X	

4.3.1 Brück and Müller article & SOEP Manual

The Brück and Müller article offers a quantitative analysis of the data that was generated in an earlier SOEP survey. The Brück and Müller article only used survey data, so no triangulation took place. The intended unit of analysis is the German population, with the unit of observation being the sample of 2600 respondents, of which 1057 participated (response rate of 40,7%). No research question and no hypothesis were formulated, but the article does attempt to test a central question: *are the determinants of fear of crime the same as those of fear of terrorism?*

Fear of crime and fear of terrorism were both measured with a single multiple choice question on a three-point scale likert scale, as were the other “goods”.

Due to the ordinal nature of the dependent variables (if the respondent was concerned with regard to a certain “good”), nonlinear probability models were applied to compute the derivatives of the level of concern. This means that ordinal data (“no concern”, “some concern”, and “very concerned”) were grouped in various combinations to gain insight into the cumulative frequency of the various categories. Subsequently, a generalized ordered probit function was used to order the selected variables cumulatively and to add depth and contrast to the data. A

bivariate ordered probit regression was run to answer the main question of the study: if the determinants of fear of terrorism are similar to the determinants of fear of crime. This bivariate regression had an R-value of 0,61. Confidence levels of 1% and 5% were used to filter for significant results.

4.3.2 Dutch Safety Monitor Manual & Report of 2016

The Dutch Safety Monitor is set-up as a times-series, quantitative analysis of survey data generated through a mixed methods approach. The unit of analysis that is maintained is the Dutch population – stratified into police districts, municipalities and even some neighborhoods – with the unit of observation being a sample randomly drawn out of all Dutch citizens over the age of 15 living in private households. The monitor is conducted annually, with the first version having taken place in 2005. The research design of the monitor has remained constant since 2012. No research question and no hypothesis were formulated. Survey data is gathered according to a ‘mixed mode’ design: respondents are invited by letter to participate via the internet (CAWI – Computer Assisted Web Interviewing).⁹

The number of respondents varies annually. A nationwide threshold of 65 thousand respondents is maintained in order to ensure reliable data on all police district levels. The total number of respondents has ranged from 80 thousand to 145 thousand in between 2012 and 2016. In the 2016 edition, more than 210,000 people were invited to participate. Almost 81,000 people participated, leading to a relatively low response rate of 38,5%. This response rate could have severely impacted the reliability of the resulting data. Most of the available data is biased towards urban environments due to disproportionate stratification.

Fear of crime was measured on the basis of a wide variety of questions pertaining to a large assortment of types of crime, while including either three-point, five-point, and ten-point likert scales for response. As indicated previously, fear of terrorism was not tested for.

No specific methods for data exploitation could be identified with regard to fear of crime. Also no aggregate statistic with regard to fear of crime is presented in the report. An aggregate statistic with regard to victimization of crime in 2016 is presented: 17% of respondents has indicated to have been the victim of a traditional crime in the previous year. A confidence level of 5% was used to filter for significant results. This has mainly led to the expulsion of various neighborhood-level data, due to too little respondents.

⁹ Beukenhorst and Wetzels have in 2009 conducted an extensive review of this ‘mixed method’ design.

4.3.3 Comparison

The Brück and Müller study and the Dutch Safety Monitor have similar designs: both are quantitative in nature, and gather data through anonymous surveys on the nation state level. Differences can be found in the following aspects:

- The sample size of the Dutch Safety Monitor is significantly larger: 81,000 versus 1057 respondents. However, even though the Dutch Safety Monitor uses a more advanced system for dealing with non-response, both studies suffer from low response rates which significantly reduces their reliability;
- The Dutch Safety Monitor collects and analysis data over time, the Brück and Müller study does not;
- Both studies limit their use of regression, overall preferring cumulative frequency tables;
- The Dutch Safety Monitor utilizes a multifaceted approach fear of crime, splitting the concept into multiple sub-“fears”, whereas the Brück and Müller article builds its entire case on the assumption that a single question with regard to a respondent’s concern for crime is sufficient to measure a respondent’s fear of crime;
- Both the Dutch Safety Monitor and the Brück and Müller article allow for integration of “locational”, and to some extent, “cultural”, factors. However, the victimization approach taken in the Dutch Safety Monitor treats these variables solely as independent variables that might be factors of influence on the *context* and *risk* determinants (“*what are the odds of being hurt, knowing you are at [location] during [time of day] as a [background]?*”), whereas the Social Problem Perspective taken in the Brück and Müller article permits a more multidimensional and explorative stance, in which these factors influence multiple determinants, including: normalcy, context, control, risk, and harm (“*are you concerned, and if you are, what causes this concern?*”).
- When comparing the demographic and socio-economic information used by Brück and Müller and the Dutch Safety Monitor, it becomes apparent that the Dutch Safety Monitor includes more variables in its report than Brück and Müller, whereas ultimately Brück and Müller had an even larger range of variables at their disposal on the basis of the raw data. It is assumed that Brück and Müller made a conscious selection of the most relevant and/or significant variables.

4.4 Conclusions in both monitors

In this final sub-comparison, a review of the conclusions of both the Brück and Müller article and the Dutch Safety Monitor is presented. As such, it finishes the answers to sub-questions 4 and 8: *what were the results of the study by Brück and Müller* and *what were the results of the Dutch Safety Monitor of 2016*.

Table 5 – Synthesis and synopsis of the sub-comparisons

	Brück and Müller article	SOEP Manual	Dutch Safety Monitor Manual of 2016	Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016
Conclusions of the studies	X			X

4.4.1 Brück & Müller article

In the conclusion of the article, Brück and Müller argue that the “*worry levels about crime and global terrorism are explained by similar variables.*” They point at the relevance of education of fear of crime and fear of terrorism, and argue that a higher education would probably result in a lower risk-perceptions with regard to fear of crime and fear of terrorism.

With regard to policy recommendations, the authors argue that the determinants of fear of terrorism are indeed similar to those of fear of crime. They subsequently argue that fear of terrorism can therefore be reduced through the same measures that are able to reduce fear of crime, for example through the implementation of CCTV systems.

With this recommendation, Brück and Müller implicitly argue that research into fear of crime should be continued – if the determinants are indeed similar. Furthermore, additional research would be required to analyze which measures are effective in reducing fear of crime.

With regard to research recommendations, Brück and Müller argue that better research could have been conducted if larger and richer data sets were available and if the response rate would have been higher.

4.4.2 Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016

No conclusions and research and/or policy recommendations were made in the Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016.

4.4.3 Comparison

No comparison was possible, since no conclusions and research and/or policy recommendations were made in the Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016.

4.5 Summary of Results

This paragraph presents an overview of all the sub-comparisons made in the previous paragraphs. Adding all the sub-comparisons together yields the following Table (Table 6).

Table 6 – Synthesis and synopsis of the sub-comparisons

Unit of observation		Brück & Müller	Dutch Safety Monitor
Topic			
Background	Background & Funding	Academic	State-sponsored
	Authors	Economists	Economists/Econometrists
	Aim	-Map groups of interest. -Investigates similarity between FOC and FOT; -Some recommendations.	-Map geographical differences in fear of crime and victimization. -No recommendations.
Theory	Nature	Unknown	Emotional
	Perspective	Social Problem Perspective	Victimization Perspective
	Determinants	Risk, Harm and Proximity	Harm & Proximity
	Factors	Demographics/ Socio-economic, Social, Cultural, Historic	Demographics/ Socio-economic
Design, gathering and exploitation	Design	Survey, quantitative	Survey, quantitative
	Method of gathering data	E-mail	CAWI
	Sample Size (participants/invitees)	1057/2600	81000/21000
	Response rate	40,7%	38,5%
	R-value	0,61	N/a
	Used significance levels	1% and 5%	5%
Conclusion	Conclusions	Determinants of Fear of Crime and Fear of Terrorism similar	N/a

4.6 Deviations in application of method

This paragraph describes how the research as was conducted differed from the intended design.

Firstly, the method prescribed a separate analysis of the following topics: design, gathering of data, and exploitation of data. In practice, this turned out to be impractical, since it resulted in repetition caused by the inherent relatedness of the different topics. This was solved by merging the three different topics into a single topic. This deviation to the intended design did not lower or increase the validity and reliability of the comparative review.

Secondly, since the Dutch Safety Monitor offered no conclusions and policy and/or research recommendations, no comparison could be made between the conclusions of the Brück and Müller article and the Dutch Safety Monitor. In turn, the lack of this comparison, and thus of any parallels or contrast diminishes the value of the comparative review.

5 Conclusion

In this chapter, an attempt is made to answer the central research question of this thesis.

5.1 Research Question and Answer

The research question of this thesis reads: *“what new insights can a comparison between Brück and Müller and Dutch Safety Monitor bring to the methodological scientific debate on monitoring feelings of safety and security?”*

On the basis of the results found in the previous chapter, the following new insights have been gained:

Firstly, while a victimization approach to fear of crime has its use in explaining a clear relation between actual risk and perceived risk, it is one-dimensional in its treatment of the concept of fear of crime or fear of terrorism, therewith excluding various influential and explanative factors. A Social Problem Perspective, while more complicated to successfully imbed into a research design, allows for a multi-dimensional approach that permits for the inclusion of more determinants and factors, thereby leading to a higher explanatory value of the concept – and thus an improved monitoring of the feelings of safety and security.

Of course, this recommendation offers an excellent analogy for the trade-off inherent to every model or concept: that of complexity versus explanatory power. In this case, I would argue that the Victimization Perspective’s balance on this matter is sub-optimal, and that the Social Problem Perspective offers a broader mix.

For example, as is revealed in the comparison, adhering to a Social Problem Perspective over a Victimization approach allows for a better theoretical and methodological integration of cross-cultural comparison, integration sought after already by Hale in 1996 and by Pleysier, Pauwels, Vervaeke, and Goethals in 2005. Moreover, as Vanderveen argues in 2006: *“[...] many studies are concerned what might be called the prevalence of “fear of crime” in socio-demographic categories [...] less is known about the variety in the nature, meaning, relevance and experience of “fear of crime” in people’s personal lives”*. Taking a Social Problem Perspective partially addresses this question, since it draws fear of crime into a broader academic context of public health, instead of keeping it purely within its own constructed security and crime context. By moving it into this broader societal context, interesting new pathways for examination and for treatments might become available.

Secondly, the Brück and Müller article, enhanced with elements from the Dutch Safety Monitor, such as its size, its times-series component, and its multifaceted approach to fear of crime – also extrapolated to a multifaceted approach h to fear of terrorism, would constitute a solid basis for future fear of crime and/or fear of terrorism monitoring research.

Finally, it must be concluded that fear of terrorism and its determinants remains an understudied topic. Even a study such as Brück and Müller's examines the concept and its determinants only using a single survey-question with a three-point likert scale to make its case.

If fear of terrorism is as pervasive as surveys such as the Eurobarometer suggest, on the grounds of its urgency and relevance, the concept of fear of terrorism deserves an expansion of the literature describing it. The concept warrants a body of work that, just like the literature on fear of crime, includes a wide variety of rivalling and competing perspectives on its meaning, and how to best measure it – in turn potentially enriching the related literature on fear of crime.

6 Pitfalls & Recommendations

This final chapter discusses the shortcomings of the overall design of this thesis, the shortcomings of the conclusion of this thesis, and presents an overview of both the research and policy recommendations that arise from this thesis.

6.1 Shortcomings of the design

In this paragraph the main shortcomings of the research design of this thesis are discussed. These shortcomings can be grouped together into the following types of shortcomings: ontological, related to the overall design, related to the specific units of observation, related to the operationalization, related to the triangulation, and related to the proposed treatment. The paragraph borrows heavily from Reza Azarian's 2011 paper on the merits and limitations of comparative research.

Ontologically speaking, with regard to research on fear of crime in general, one of the most poignant general critiques on the literature, and by extension on fear of terrorism literature, is that it constructs its own empiric reality (Lee, 2007). Furthermore, fear of crime research paradoxically only exists at the grace of an alleged disconnect between actual reality and a perceived reality – a discrepancy it is ought to help overcome (Lee, 2007).

While this thesis insulates itself from the most common critiques that would result from “picking sides” within the debate on how to best approach fear of crime – through sticking to a meta-level of discussion – merely discussing fear of crime and fear of terrorism in itself also acknowledges the existence of the concepts. This creates a chicken-and-egg-situation in which fear of crime is relevant since it is studied, and it is studied since it is deemed relevant. This thesis does contribute to in aggravating this situation, not alleviating it.

Furthermore, any answers to the question “*should we measure fear of crime*” ultimately remain normative. This thesis could therefore only help address under which conditions and under which norms we perhaps should measure fear of crime.

While the design potentially allows for making strides in addressing the question “*what does it mean when we do measure fear of crime*” and “*how should we measure fear of crime*”, the foundation for making these strides is imperfect for the following reasons:

Firstly, in terms of its overall design, a comparative review of two research methodologies inherently has a relatively high internal validity, but a relatively low external validity and reliability. Many of the findings generated by contrasting the two approaches immediately loose

meaning outside of the context of the two research methodologies. Furthermore, while this thesis works under the assumption that the two methodologies are self-contained and autonomous, both methodologies are components of the very same fear of crime body of work and are undoubtedly influenced by the same literature – potentially even each other. Moreover, while an effort has been made to be as acquainted as possible with both methodologies, there exists asymmetric information which leaves room for potential misinterpretation of the methods, data, and conclusions. For example, this thesis requires at least a partial cross-cultural understanding of the German context. Finally, to add to the ontological complexity, drawing up a comparison is in itself also a construction, since it “*discerns which elements or segments of social reality are to be related to one another and along what dimensions*” (Azarian, 2011).

Secondly, with regard to the specific units of observation, the context of both studies differs: the studies have been conducted at different times – almost a decade apart (2007 versus 2016) – and on different populations (Dutch population versus German population). In itself, the comparison of dissimilar units is not a problem, but the dissimilarity weakens the reliability of claims with regard to the results of both studies (Azarian, 2011). Furthermore, the theoretical and operational methodology differs in both studies. While this adds contrast with regard to theory, which in turn might have led to additional qualitative insights with regard to fear of crime and fear of terrorism research, it disallows for a fair comparison between the quantitative data and results.

Thirdly, in terms of its operationalization, while an attempt was made to present an as exhaustive overview of the various approaches to fear of crime and fear of terrorism as possible, in order to be able to describe the theoretical foundation of the examined material, in a Popperian way it is impossible to be all-inclusive. Simply put: there are more approaches, perspectives and relevant factors out there with regard to fear of crime and fear of terrorism, but for now these remain elusive and an unknown unknown. This thinking also applies to the larger fear of crime literature: while a large-scale effort was made to be inclusive, even influential papers might have been missed.

Fourthly, in terms of triangulation, more types of sources could have been introduced to verify or add validity to certain claims. For example, the authors of the Dutch Safety Monitor or the Brück and Müller article could have been interviewed.

Fifthly and finally, in terms of how the data is exploited, a choice for alternative structures could have been made. The current structure allows for a synchronic and thematic contrast between

the two methodologies on (sub-)topics. Alternatively, a sequential structure could for example have been opted for, which might have led to better in-depth analysis of the singular topics.

To conclude, the current research design thus enjoys a relatively high internal validity, but a weak external validity and reliability. The design organizes its own empiric reality, where alternative structures have been possible. Regardless, insights developed with regard to the operationalization and insights provided through the emerged contrast and parallels might still be relevant outside the context of the Dutch Safety Monitor and the Brück and Müller article, and might nevertheless be relevant for fear of crime and/or fear of terrorism literature in general.

6.2 Shortcomings of the Conclusion

While some conclusions are made with regard to what would constitute “desirable” standards in approaches toward measuring fear of crime and fear of terrorism - as these standards would add deeper understanding of fear of crime and fear of terrorism - these standards remain inherently normative.

Finally, problematic is the lack of a conclusion in one of the units of observation: the Dutch Safety Monitor Report of 2016. This part was required in order to complete a full comparative review of the Brück and Müller article and the Dutch Safety Monitor.

6.3 Research & Policy Recommendations

Based on the conclusions and pitfalls of this thesis, the following research recommendations can be made:

- It would be valuable to have a time-series analysis of fear of terrorism, that includes data similar to the data used by Drakos & Müller that keeps track of terrorist attacks in Europe, while also accounting for demographic and socio-economic factors;
- Since there is still insufficient knowledge with regard to the dynamics of fear of terrorism, more qualitative and better triangulated research into this field would be valuable;
- More and similar comparisons to the one conducted in this thesis can be made, using the typology presented in this thesis;
- No policy recommendations came to mind while writhing this thesis.

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Appendix I – Abstract of the 2010 Brück and Müller Study

“Both crime and terrorism impose costs onto society through the channels of fear and worry. Identifying and targeting groups that are especially affected by worries might be one way to reduce the total costs of these two types of insecurity. However, compared with the drivers of the fear of crime, the determinants of concerns regarding global terrorism are less well known. Using nationally representative survey data, we analyse and compare the individual determinants of concern about global terrorism and crime. We show that worries about terrorism are driven by similar determinants as those about crime, which could have important policy implications. We, furthermore, provide an insight into the structure of the determinants of concerns regarding other public and private goods.” – abstract of the 2010 Brück and Müller article.