2019

Conceptions About Terrorism: How Fearful Are We and How Does That Affect Us?

Rebecca Jackson
University of Central Florida

University of
Central Florida

STARS
Showcase of Text, Archives, Research & Scholarship

CONCEPTIONS ABOUT TERRORISM: HOW FEARFUL ARE WE AND HOW DOES
THAT AFFECT US?

by

REBECCA JACKSON
University of Central Florida 2020

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Honors in the Major Program in Sociology
in the College of the Sciences
and in the Burnett Honors College
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

Spring Term
2019

Thesis Chair: Amy M. Donley

Abstract

Since the crusades, terrorism has been a form of violence used to promote some kind of agenda, whether political, social, religious or ideological (Martin 2018). With many different definitions of what constitutes terrorism, it is somewhat difficult to measure what exact impact terrorism has had globally. Attacks such as those on 9/11 in the United States and the Manchester bombings have been accepted worldwide as examples of acts of international terrorism. International terrorist attacks have lasting effects on both those directly affected as well as the larger community and beyond. Studies have shown that Americans are overly afraid of terrorism given their risk and want to put a complete and 'final' end to terrorism (Friedman 2011; Mueller 2005). Additionally, media outlets and politicians speak of threats and demand action which spreads fear and perceived risk (Bloch-Elkon 2011; Nellis and Savage 2012). This study seeks to contribute to the previous literature on people's fears regarding terrorism and how their emotions affect the desires to have action done regarding terrorist attacks. The current research uses a sample of 302 people to compare the levels of fear and the likelihood to want more action taken towards terrorism. The results from the statistical analysis show that fears and desire to seek action are shaped by many different variables. Gender was found to be the biggest predictor of higher levels of fear and political affiliation was determined to be the strongest predictor for desire to seek action.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated firstly to my mother, father, and my direct family. Thank you for keeping me sane, and being my best support system. This thesis is also dedicated to my close friends who kept me focused and gave me the space needed, namely Imran, my dear friend Dasia, and both Daniela M. and G. Lastly, to all of my friends at Foxtail Coffee Co, thanks for all the coffee!

To all those who have fallen, and all who survive acts of violence.

ACKNLOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Since the September 11th attack on the World Trade Centers, Americans have made terrorism a front and center issue. Terrorism creates a lasting scar that many people will never forget. Terrorism is a worldwide phenomenon, defined by the Central Intelligence Agency as "any premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against noncombatant targets by subnational groups or clandestine agents" (CIA 2013). Terrorism can be broken into two categories: domestic and international. Domestic terrorism is when individuals or groups in the U.S. use their ideologies, whether political, social, racial, or environmental, against primarily U.S. based targets. The difference with international terrorism is that the attackers are not based in the U.S. (FBI 2018). It is important to understand the federal government's definition of terrorism, as it provides a general basis to begin thinking about terrorism. However, when studying terrorism from the perspective of the social world, it is important to think of the language. What people say, and how they speak about terrorism, changes the very meaning of the word in the social world. In a sense, what people consider to be terrorism, which includes their feelings on both domestic and international terrorism.

While the definition of terrorism and application is seemingly specific, there is a lot of variation in how people consider and react to terrorism, and, in a sense, what terrorism actually is. This is because of the social connections made, the emotions felt, and the information that is known about terrorism. As time goes on, people change their views, speak on their experiences, and learn about events that change their perceptions about what terrorism is, and that is important. It is important to understand how people feel about terrorism, at this current point in

time compared to what their risk is, so that we may understand better how to educate the public about terrorism and the actual risks, as well as create appropriate policies to protect against terrorism. As a society, it has been decided that terrorism is an important issue and thus needs to be a topic of study. Whatever people consider terrorism to be is what the government reacts to in order to change policy, as well as to seek justice against people who commit acts that the public consider an obvious attack of terror. According to Kampf (2014), the definition of terrorism is now up for debate and is often considered to be politically incorrect. If that is true, it leads to the question: how do people feel about be terrorism and how does that affect their desires to seek action against terrorism?

The information collected in this study can be used to understand what causes people to have their beliefs on terrorism, what and how these views are shaped. This study looks at terrorism in general, in order to get an overall understanding on people's beliefs on terrorism. With this information we can come closer to being able to educate others on what causes terrorism, the actual risk, and where misconceptions lie. We can help mend and mold the idea of conforming to certain misconceptions about terrorism, and lead to having an overall better understanding. Furthermore, we can also understand how people believe policy surrounding terrorism should be made, and can give recommendations on whether there is enough, or too much, action towards terrorism in our current policies.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

How fears of terrorism can be conceived

According to Friedman (2011), ever since the September 11th attacks on the World Trade Center, Americans have been overly afraid of terrorism. In this study, they are referring to terrorism in general, meaning both domestic and international. There are fears of terrorism that people have, however, they are not correlated with actual risk from terrorism, just their perception of risk. While there is not a correlation between actual risk and fear, there is a very high correlation of perceived risk and fear of terrorism (.70) (Nellis and Savage 2012). An overblown expression of fear can lead to different reactions and overreactions, including the fear of victimization for oneself or loved ones. According to Mueller (2006), overreacting to terrorist events and changing lifestyle habits because of fear of terrorism can be costlier than the initial terrorist act. The perception of risk and amount of fear can range due to each individual's life experiences, such as previous victimizations, and demographic factors such as age and gender. The issue with having higher fears and perception of risk is that it leads to a society of hysteria, which makes the cycle of fear grow and become higher than the risk actually is.

Victimization of the self or loved ones

A misconstrued idea of terrorism can be very damaging for a society if the people in it constantly fear an attack. According to Friedman's (2011) analysis of data from the Gallup database, 47% of Americans are fearful that they or family members will be victims of terrorism. Similar results were also found in a study of 532 adults in New York and Washington by Nellis and Savage, who further discuss that people generally believe there is a higher risk of

victimization of other people rather than themselves (Nellis and Savage 2012). The principle is not that people should not be fearful of terrorism at all, rather that this fear should be realistic. Friedman (2011) states that biological and nuclear terrorism should worry Americans, but not be seen as inevitable or be overstated. Realistically, the risk of victimization is close to the number of people who die by drowning in a bathtub (Mueller 2005; Mueller 2006).

Life Experiences

Fear of terrorism is not just deep-seated in Americans and it varies based on the individual person. A good portion of the amount of fear that is felt comes from the person's life experiences, and whether they have experienced traumatic or violent events that would make them more fearful. In a study of 975 adults, the world seemed less safe to those who had experienced more violence (Blum, Silver, and Poulin 2014). The researchers stated that previous violent events affect people's idea of vulnerability and how greatly they perceived violence. Their perception of risk, however, was not just applicable to terrorism, but to a number of different kinds of catastrophic events such as natural disasters, technological disasters, and violent crime. However, people who have been through violent events and have greater fears and perceptions of continuing violence do not have an actual greater risk for victimization in terrorism attacks. There is also a large portion of society who, after hearing about a terrorist attack on others, change their lifestyle in order to avoid going to those places. According to Mueller (2006), after the 9/11 attacks, people drove automobiles instead of flying, resulting in higher rates of automobile deaths, whereas had they taken planes they would not have had that outcome.

While there is a higher perception of fear by people who have been victims of violence, there are other groups of people who also have higher levels of fear. According to a study of 973 Americans aged 13-88 conducted by Knowledge Networks, women perceive greater risks than men, both for themselves and others (Fischhoff, Gonzalez, Small, and Lerner 2003). Women also see terrorism alerts as having more of an impact then men do (Sinclair and LoCicero 2010). Furthermore, while women had a higher perception of fear of the 973 surveyed, there was one significant group of males that were different from other males. Adult, white males, who identified as Republicans all had less judgement of terror-related issues, and less fear (Fischhoff et. al 2003).

Hysteria

The dangers of having an overwhelming sense of fear is that it can create hysteria. As more people become afraid, overall fear increases by tenfold. Hysteria is a main reason for the continuation of terrorism (Mueller 2005). In this case, Americans having too much fear of terrorism is just as dangerous as the terrorism itself. It increases the risk for terrorism as those who plan terrorist acts see the fear, and it fuels a fire to commit more acts. According to Abrahms (2006), terrorist attacks usually do not satisfy the mission or plan that terrorists are attempting to accomplish. Considering that fear and hysteria attract terrorism, educating people with information, such as how unsuccessful the missions are or how much money is wasted, could make a statement towards terrorists that there is no fear anymore. Ideally, the population needs to be adequately educated so that their fears and risk of perception are rational, without any hysteria.

How News-Media can shape people's thoughts on terrorism

More often than not, people hear about important or big events from watching or reading the news. Terrorism is no different. Perception of threat has greatly declined since 9/11, but it peaks when the news mentions threat, or directly after an attack (Bloch-Elkon 2011). Often, news media discusses terrorism so much that it spreads more fear than necessary. According to Avdan and Clayton (2018), news media should make changes to the way that speak about terrorism. There is a much larger fear of terrorism because of how often it is discussed by the media, and by politicians demanding action (Friedman 2011). Nellis and Savage (2012) found that exposure to TV news, attention paid, and victimization have positive impacts on fear and perceived risk of terrorism. Even more dangerous, many news-media channels speak to terrorists and broadcast live events, which show the terrifying scenes of terrorism. One example of this is the killing of journalist Samim Faramarz on live TV this past September, marking 13 journalists that have been killed in Afghanistan for doing their jobs (Mashal, Abed, and Faizi 2018). Terrorists now interact with the media, which can help spread their message, as well as spread fear to citizens, and coverage of the terrorists. This includes posting live video feeds to social media sites torturing or killing individuals. With the freedom of the internet, terrorists can air their own videos addressing the public, and appeal to fans or antagonize enemy audiences (Kampf 2014). Either way, whether they gain support, or scare off enemies, they are gaining publicity for their cause.

News articles and the effect of emotions and fear towards terrorism

As it stands, Republican white adult males seem to be much less fearful of terrorism than Democrats (Fischhoff et. al 2003). This is partially due to their choices of news-media but also how they view terrorism. According to Dowler, Fleming and Muzzatti, "societal perceptions about crime are formed through exposure to various media outlets, including television, film, video, and Internet services" (2006:837). When people make the choice to look at news from certain sites, channels, or outlets, they see whatever viewpoint is trying to be put across by that channel. This is important, because media plays to those feelings, and can use articles that change people's perspectives, either giving them more fearful than necessary, or making them have a strong desire to seek action against this threat. Dowler et al. (2006) further discuss the impact of news-media's portrayal of crime on how people get their worldview of crime. Specifically, they state "…it's emphasis on violence and sensationalism- essentially crime as a product, playing to the fears, both imagined and real, or viewers and readers- has produced a distorted picture of the world of crime and criminality" (p. 839). It is particularly interesting how different news sources play on different emotions and use different language to describe similar, if not the same events. According to Reah (2002), "decisions may be made to exclude information because it is felt necessary to conceal that information from the readership, or to include information that is seen as some way beneficial to groups other than the readership- the advertisers, the owners of the paper, [or] the political party the owners of the papers support" (p. 4).

News-Media's effect on how people perceive government action

Fear may be unpreventable but it can potentially be reduced by government policies (Gartin 2010). People want to trust the people who run their government, and if they perceive that their government is taking the correct action, they may feel less fearful. Lead stories and news articles have terrorism as high on the agenda for the American people and as a result they are growing less confident in the government's ability to prevent terrorists strikes (Bloch-Elkon 2011). According to Gibbs (2010), through reducing government corruption and providing better information to the public, there may be a reduction of terrorism rates, with the media helping speak against fears of terrorism. Even if media is used to speak back against fears, and the government works to reduce opportunity, there may not be much done to stop terrorists from targeting the U.S. (Hsu, Vásquez, and Mcdowall 2018). Currently, the media relies on fear tactics, and the government creates policies based on the reactions that people have to the news-media. Mueller (2005) argues that both politicians and the media should look to inform the public reasonably, instead of focusing on spreading hysteria. Media and politicians use extremes, rather than relying on data. This spreads an unrealistic fear, which is already partially there. An example of this is an article by the New York Times discussing the Trump administration's expansion of drone strikes that were ceased by the Obama administration. This article explains that the drones are not yet used for lethal missions but will be in the near future, which is not helping people feel protected by their government, or feel like peace is being restored (Penney, Schmitt, Callimachi, and Koetti 2018). Fear of terrorism has been shown to be correlated to trust in government actions, but there are both positives and negatives associated with that. In a study of 146 undergraduate students in Boston, fear of terrorism was shown to have a positive impact

on trust in government (Sinclair and LoCicero 2010). Similar Results were also found in a study of 431 people in Missouri (Gartin 2010). Positively, when people are afraid because of the news-media articles, they trust their government's words more and are more likely to believe that the government is taking action. The negative, however, is that the fear allows the government to respond to terrorism in harsh manners, such as torture. According to Gartner and Langlois (2018), during the Bush administration, post 9/11, there was no fear of arresting innocent people, but rather the fear of not catching the ones responsible. Therefore, torture was encouraged and defended in order to prevent not catching guilty people. The problem with this is that military responses to terrorism are not a deterrent, but create a cycle of violence (Gibbs 2010). However, this was allowed because fears in terrorism increase the trust in governmental ability to protect (Sinclair and LoCicero 2010). There has been so much allowance of violence that it has even reached the point that a retired general who fought in Afghanistan urges for peace negotiations with Afghanistan, stating that the method we are currently using is ineffective (Mashal 2018).

Public perceptions on causes of terrorism

One of the biggest factors in how people come to their own conceptions of terrorism has to do with what is being said by people around them and what the people around them have experienced. That being said, thousands of people arrange their beliefs about terrorism based on singular catastrophic events, such as the Manchester bombings, or the Pulse nightclub attack in Orlando. In an online study of 327 people, Avdan and Webb (2018) fount that it was not uncommon for people to believe that a majority of terrorist attacks are coordinated, meaning that there will be multiple events within a small timeframe, such as the Paris attacks in 2015. They

found that people associate terrorism with place, stating that when attacks are coordinated in the same area, people in the U.S. feel more threatened (Avdan and Webb 2018). Additionally, when people speak about terrorism, there is a general perception that it happens elsewhere, but not "here." In a study of 93 householders in Boston during Spring and Summer 2008 and 2009 and after the Boston bombing in 2013, Kennan (2018) found that people still thought in terms of place. Respondents thought it would be unlikely for a terrorist attack to take place in their personal life spaces, even after having had an attack in their city. They also interpret their risk through both the media and everyday places, and consider places like air, rail, subways, and educational buildings to be more at-risk places (Keenan 2018). When it comes to actual places that have the most terrorist attacks, over 56% of targets attacked worldwide were private citizens and property (START 2017).

Characteristics of 'terrorists'

Terrorists are not just Americans, or just foreigners, but instead, are both. There is a general belief in American culture that a terrorist is Muslim or Arab from a Middle Eastern country (D'Orazio and Salehyan 2018). This was never the case and in the years since 9/11, there is actually a new wave of terrorism. Terrorists are more likely to be American. In fact, at the time of charge or death, 84% of terrorists in the United States were citizens or permanent residents (Bergen, Ford, Sims, and Sterman 2016). This differs from governmental websites, as according to the Department of Justice, 3 out of 4 people convicted of international terrorism-related charges post 9/11 to the end of 2006 were foreign born. The Department of Justice also says that in 2017, they had 2,554 encounters with people on the terrorist watch list (Department of Justice 2018). The difference could have to do with the charges that are brought upon certain

people, as a lot of domestic terrorism is not charged as terrorism. Also, aside from country of birth, another common belief is that terrorists are poor men without education. According to Gibbs and Langlois (2010), terrorists are not typically poor or uneducated, but rather have education and an average lifestyle. They resort to terrorism as a means of seeking more in their lives. There is also a bias for use of torture on terrorist suspects. According to an online survey of 2,126 adults, people supported the use of torture more for male out-group coalitions, and generally wanted women to receive lighter sentences (Linder 2018).

It seems as though who Americans believe to be terrorists and what they believe terrorism to be is mostly false. For example, even though a lot of Americans consider the U.S. and Europe to be primary targets for terrorist attacks, the countries with the most acts of terrorism as of 2016 were Iraq, Afghanistan, India, Pakistan, Philippines, Nigeria, Syria, Turkey, Yemen, and Somalia (START 2017). In an article in New America, it stated that 69% of terrorists in America were Muslim, although 64% of those were converts (Bergen, Ford, Sims, and Sterman 2016). Matić, Dremel and Šakić state that is reasonable for people to make their own conceptions about terrorism, because many individuals would not be able to comprehend how someone could have a desire to do catastrophic damage such that terrorists do. They continue further to say that the current methods being used to stop terrorism may not be reasonable because people who are "antiterrorism" may not realize the political or economic benefits of terrorism. This is how people are elected into office, because they run on campaigns that showcase themselves as the one person who can stop terrorism, while having no policy designed. They summarize that the movement to decrease the amount of terrorism may have to

correct historical wrongdoings and to help those who have been wrongly persecuted (Matić, Dremel and Šakić 2014).

Purpose of the Current Study

This study assessed the emotions and views on terrorism using a sample of 302 people. The information collected looks to understand what emotions individuals have regarding terrorism, and begin to look into what creates these conceptions about terrorism, and what factors influence the fears people have of terrorism. Specifically, this study looks at levels or fears regarding terrorism, and the desire to seek action towards stopping terrorism. There is a focus on the demographic variables of gender and age and the influence they have on fears of terrorism. Similarly, there is a focus on race and political affiliation with regards to desire to seek action against terrorism. The study starts off with the definition of terrorism by the CIA, "any premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against noncombatant targets by subnational groups or clandestine agents," to see if respondents agree with that definition, and create a basis for the definition of terrorism that will be used in this study (CIA 2003). We looked to answer the question "What do people feel about terrorism and how does that affect their desire to seek action?" Knowing how people feel about terrorism, and what influences those decisions, we can begin to mold education around those ideas, so there can be a clearer understanding of terrorism, terrorists, and the risk of victimization. We can also begin to recommended how much policy is needed, or if there is sufficient policy and action in the war on terrorism.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods used for this study. The first section details the collection process for gathering data. Next, measurements collected for the variables that were tested are discussed. The section concludes with the hypotheses tested in the research.

The data for this study were collected using an online survey examining the effects of social interaction and media outlets on the conceptions people have about terrorism. The study looks to understand how fearful people are of terrorism, and how much desire they have in to seek action towards stopping terrorism. In this study, terrorism is looked at as a unit, not separated into domestic and international. Surveys were distributed through the online surveying system, Qualtrics, and responses were anonymous. The survey was also voluntary; participants were allowed to stop taking the survey at any time. The survey link was distributed on Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Reddit to reach participants who met the requirements of being over the age of 18, and private messages were sent to followers on the previously listed social media sites who were also asked to forward the link to contacts. Emails were also sent out to personal contacts who were asked to send the email to their contacts that meet the requirements. After all of the surveys were administered, the data was entered into SPSS, a software used to interpret data, and statistically analyzed. The study consists of at 302 adults aged 18 and older.

There were three main sections within the survey that were used to gather data for this study. The first section was on questions regarding fear of terrorism. In this section, respondents were asked how fearful they were of terrorism happening to themselves, a loved one, and where they lived. The answers to this question were used to create a scale of fear of terrorism. The

second section included statements that looked at the likelihood to have a desire to seek action against terrorism. The statements were: "I think terrorism is a major political issue," "I am likely to seek action against terrorism," "I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism," "I am likely to elect an official who has plans to combat terrorism," 'I think the U.S. could do more to combat terrorism," " I think the U.S. government is doing enough to combat terrorism," "I think there are currently enough policies on terrorism," and "Other countries have better policies on terrorism." For the two hypotheses, some of these statements were chosen to be studied. The last section was a demographics section which had questions asking respondents age, what gender they identified with, what race(s) they identified with, and what political affiliation they identified with. For the purpose of this study, race was dichotomized to make sure that people who chose more than one race were coded as multiracial, due to the fact that respondents were allowed to choose more than one race even though multiracial was included in the options.

Measurements

Independent Variables: To measure gender, participants were asked to self-identify whether they are male, female, or other with a text box to specify. They were also asked to choose their race by selecting a racial identity with which they most closely identify. The racial and ethnic data were collected using a format that is similar to the 2010 U.S. Census. Participants were asked to self-identify as White/Caucasian, Black/African American, Latino or Hispanic, American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian, Native Hawaiin or Pacific Islander, Multiracial/Ethnic, or other. For the bivariate analysis, respondents who answered as multi-racial

or any race other than white were combined into a category labelled "everyone else" in order to compare people who only identified as white to people of other races. To measure each participant's age, respondents were asked to provide their age in an open text box with a 2-character maximum. To measure each participant's education level, they were asked to select their highest level of education from eight options ranging from "less than a high school degree" to "Graduate Degree/Professional Degree." To measure political affiliation, each participant was asked to self-identify their political affiliation as Republican, Democrat, Independent, Other, No Party Affiliation, and not registered. For the bivariate analysis, respondents who answered as any political affiliation other than republican or no party affiliation were combined into a category labelled "Other" in order to compare republicans to everyone else.

Dependent Variables: Using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "no fear" to 5 "a great deal of fear" participants were asked to rate various questions on fears of terrorism. The questions included "How fearful are you that terrorism will occur to yourself," "how fearful are you that terrorism will occur to a loved one," and "how fearful are you that terrorism will occur where you live?" These three questions were combined into a scale, labelled Fear Scale, that showed overall fear of terrorism scaled from 5 "no fear" to 15 "a great deal of fear." Participants were also asked about their desire to seek action against terrorism. Using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree," participants were asked to answer statements that rated their desire to seek action on topics focused on political leaders, effectiveness, current policy, the U.S. government, and other governments. The statements were: "I think terrorism is a major political issue," "I am likely to seek action against terrorism," "I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism," "I am likely to elect an

official who has plans to combat terrorism," 'I think the U.S. could do more to combat terrorism," " I think the U.S. government is doing enough to combat terrorism," "I think there are currently enough policies on terrorism," and "Other countries have better policies on terrorism."

Hypotheses:

The present research tests 4 hypotheses to look at fears of terrorism as well as desire to seek action against terrorism:

H_1: Females are more likely to be fearful when it comes to their conceptions about terrorism as compared to males.

H_2: Younger people are more likely to be fearful when it comes to their conceptions about terrorism as compared to other ages.

H_3: White people are more likely to have more of a desire to seek action when it comes to their conceptions about terrorism as compared to other races.

H_4: People who identify as Republican are more likely to have a desire to seek more action when it comes to their conceptions of terrorism as compared to those who identify as another political affiliation.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. First, descriptive statistics for the demographics of respondents are listed. Then, key dependent variables are discussed along with how reliable those variables are. Bivariate statistics, including t-tests, correlation analyses, and analysis of variances between emotions on terrorism, desire to seek action, and media usage along with explanatory variables are presented. Finally, there is a discussion of methods involving the conceptions about terrorism and what factors affect those conceptions.

Table 1 reports the demographic data of respondents. First, 33.1% of the sample identified as male, and 62.9% of the sample identified as female. A majority of the sample (68.9%) identified as white. However, for race, respondents were allowed to choose multiple races which they identified which, leading to total percentages being over 100%. There was also a majority of respondents who identified their age within the range of 18-25 (46.4%), with the next leading category being 46-55, with 17.2%. For political affiliation 25.2% identify as Republican, 32.8% as Democrat, and 46% of respondents were not registered to vote. For level of education, the majority had at least some college education (some college but no degree 26.8%, an Associate's degree 23.8%, or a Bachelor's degree 30.4%).

Table 1. Demographics of Participants

	n	%
Gender		
Male	100	33.1
Female	190	62.9
Other	8	2.6
Total	298	100.0
Race/Ethnicity*		
White/Caucasian	208	68.9

Table 1 continued

Black/African American	21	7.0
American Indian/Alaska Native	4	1.3
Latin/Hispanic	57	18.9
Asian	12	4
Multiracial/Ethnic	17	5.6
Other	4	1.3
Total	323	---
Age Groups		
18-25	140	46.4
26-35	35	11.6
36-45	13	4.3
46-55	52	17.2
56-65	40	13.2
66 or Older	22	7.3
Total	302	100.0
Political Affiliation		
Republican	76	25.2
Democrat	99	32.8
Independent	41	13.6
Other	14	4.6
No Party Affiliation	53	17.5
Not Registered to Vote	14	46
Total	297	100.0
Highest Level of School Completed		
Less than High School Degree	3	1.0
High School Graduate	29	9.6
Some College but No Degree	81	26.8
Associate Degree in College	72	23.8
Bachelor's Degree in College	91	30.4
Master's Degree	21	7.0
Professional Degree (JD, MD)	2	.7
Total	299	100

*Respondents were allowed to choose more than one race/ethnicity.

Fear of Terrorism. Table 2 shows the participants' fear of terrorism. Respondents were asked to rate the fear of terrorism happening where they live, to a loved one, and to themselves. The responses to the question were scaled 1-5, with 1 being no fear and 5 being a great deal of fear. According to the responses, the mean for fear related to terrorism happening

where respondents live was 2.41, with a standard deviation of 1.010. The fear of terrorism happening to a loved one had a mean of 2.54, (SD= 1.096). For themselves, the mean was 2.28 (SD= 1.034). The three questions regarding fear were combined into a fear scale. The University of Virginia (2019) states that a minimum alpha "between 0.65 and 0.8 (or higher in many cases)" is recommended. For the research presented, the scale created for fear of terrorism has a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of .896.

Table 2. Frequency of Fear of Terrorism for Sample (N=302)

Measure*	Median	Mean	Std. dev
Fear of Terrorism Happening			
Where You Live	3.00	2.41	1.010
To a Loved One	3.00	2.54	1.096
To Yourself	2.00	2.28	1.034

*1= No Fear; 2= A little fear; 3= A moderate amount of fear; 4= A lot of fear; 5= A great deal of fear
Note= Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient =.896

The fear scale created out of those questions was used as the dependent variable when conducting an independent sample T-test to gauge differences in levels of fear between males and females (Table 3). Females (M=7.746; SD=2.83388) reported significantly higher levels of fear as compared to males (M=6.240; SD=2.63282) (t=-4.403, p<.001).

Table 3. Independent Sample T-test Male vs. Female Fear of Terrorism

Measure	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Fear of Terrorism					
Male	6.240	2.63282	-4.403	287	.000
Female	7.746	2.83388			

*Scale 3-15; 3(No Fear) through 15(A great deal of fear)

With regard to fear of terrorism, age was recoded to compare respondents aged 18-25 to those 26 or older. The fear scale was used to examine overall fear of terrorism. A T-test shows no statistically significant difference based on age (p =.107). Since there was no significance between the younger (M=7.5143, SD=3.02623) and older (M=6.9814, SD=2.69136) age groups, age does not appear to have a large impact on fears of terrorism in this research.

Table 4. Independent T-test for 18-25 and 26 or older on Fear of Terrorism

Measure*	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Fear of Terrorism					
18-25	7.5143	3.02623	1.617	299	.107
26 or older	6.9814	2.69136			

*Scale 3-15; 3(No Fear) through 15(A great deal of fear)

A correlation was also conducted to see if there was a linear relationship between age and fear of terrorism. There was a weak, negative relationship, with a Pearson correlation of -.120 for the 299 respondents analyzed. This means that, weakly, the younger the respondent is, the more they fear terrorism.

Table 5. Correlation for Age Range and Fear of Terrorism

	Fear of Terrorism
Age Range	-.120*

Note: p<.05

Desire to Seek Action. Three independent sample T-tests were conducted to compare participants' desire to seek action against terrorism depending on whether their race was identified as white or as any other race. Table 6 shows how the respondents answered according to whether they identified as white or as another race. For the first statement, "I am likely to seek action against terrorism," there was significance between white (M=3.24; SD= 1.255) and everyone else (M=3.64; SD=1.150), t=2.769, p=.006. For the second statement, "I think our

current political leaders are doing are doing enough to combat terrorism," there was significance between white (M=2.68; SD=1.307) and everyone else (M=2.31; SD=1.233), t=-2.437, p=.016. For the third statement, "I think the U.S. could do more to combat terrorism," there was significance between white (M=3.71; SD=1.056) and everyone else (M=3.99; SD=1.022), t=2.246, p=.026. Since all three scores were significant, the results suggest that race does have an impact on individuals' desire to seek action against terrorism. For the test "I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism," there was a negative t-score, while the other two t-scores were positive, suggesting that white people are more likely to think that our political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism, and that other races are more likely to believe that our political leaders could do more to combat terrorism, and have a greater desire to seek action against terrorism.

Table 6. Independent T-Test for White People and Everyone Else on Desire to Seek Action

Measure*	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
I am likely to seek action against terrorism.					
White	3.24	1.255	2.769	252	.006
Everyone Else	3.64	1.150			
I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism.					
White	2.68	1.307	-2.437	246	.016
Everyone else	2.31	1.233			
I think the U.S. could do more to combat terrorism.					
White	3.71	1.056	2.246	236	.026
Everyone	3.99	1.022			

*Scale 1-5; 1= No Fear; 2= A little fear; 3= A moderate amount of fear; 4= A lot of fear; 5= A great deal of fear

Independent T-tests were completed for desire to seek action comparing Republicans to everyone else. Everyone who chose a response that was not Republican was combined to create the "everyone else" category. Statistically significant differences were found in regard to all

three statements. All of the statements have positive t-tests, except for the last statement ("put

statement here"). This suggests that Republicans are more likely to believe all of the statements

regarding desire to seek action, except the statement regarding other countries having better

policies on terrorism, in which case republicans were less likely to believe that than the

respondents in the combined category.

Table 7. Independent T-Test for Republican Desire to Seek Action Compared to Everyone Else

Measure	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
I think terrorism is a major political issue.					
Republican	4.26	1.063	1.858	138	.065
Other	4.00	1.108			
I am likely to seek action against terrorism.					
Republican	3.57	1.258	1.357	127	.177
Other	3.34	1.194			
I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism.					
Republican	3.05	1.305	4.189	127	.000*
Other	2.33	1.229			
I am likely to elect an official who has plans to combat terrorism.					
Republican	4.47	.759	6.475	170	.000*
Other	3.74	.992			
I think the U.S. government could do more to combat terrorism.					
Republican	3.97	1.013	1.497	135	.137
Other	3.77	1.047			
Other countries have better policies on terrorism.					
Republican	2.92	1.175	-2.694	120	.008*
Other	3.33	1.043			

Scale 1-5; 1= No Fear; 2= A little fear; 3= A moderate amount of fear; 4= A lot of fear; 5= A great deal of fear
*p<0.05

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

The conclusion offers final explanations on this research study. Beginning this section is a discussion of the findings previously mentioned in Chapter 4. Then, there is a discussion on how the present research builds on the research from previous works' findings. Limitations and recommendations for future research are then presented to show how previous studies might build on or improve on the research done for this study.

Discussion

This study sought to broaden the research on what people associate with terrorism, and what factors go into conceptions about terrorism. The research focused on 4 hypotheses, which are as follows:

H_1: Females are more likely to be fearful when it comes to their conceptions about terrorism as compared to males.

H_2: Younger people are more likely to be fearful when it comes to their conceptions about terrorism as compared to other ages.

H_3: White people are more likely to have more of a desire to seek action when it comes to their conceptions about terrorism as compared to other races.

H_4: People who identify as Republican are more likely to have a desire to seek more action when it comes to their conceptions of terrorism as compared to those who identify as another political affiliation.

Regarding hypothesis 1, the present data shows that there is a relationship between gender and fear of terrorism. As hypothesized, participants who identified as females were more likely to have higher fears of terrorism compared to male participants. This supports previous work by Fischhoff et al.'s (2003) which also found similar fears for females in regarding their risk of being a victim of a terrorist attack. Sinclair and LoCicero (2010) also found that women had more fear of terrorism and that it also directly affected their trust in the government, they trusted the government more because of the fears. However, with hypothesis 2, the data from this present study did not have any significance showing that younger people had a higher fear of terrorism compared to those of other ages. Age was found in previous research to be a significant factor of fear (Nellis and Savage). However, since the data in the t-test was approaching significance, the correlation was significant with a weak correlation, and the mean of younger participants was higher than others, more data should be done to determine if there is true significance. The survey had almost half of the participants in the 18-25 age range, which could explain why the data is close to becoming significant. This study only explores the idea that age may have some impact on people's conceptions about terrorism, which could have to do with education younger people receive about terrorism.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 dealt with participant's desire to seek action against terrorism. For hypothesis 3, race was not found significant in the way that was hypothesized. The data showed that white people were less likely to have a desire to seek action against terrorism, as compared to people who identified as other races. There was no statistical significance between race and belief that the government is doing enough to combat terrorism, this study is therefore consistent with previous work by Bloch-Elkon (2011) that people are less confident in our political leaders'

ability to combat terrorism. Since media has a big effect on how people gather information on terrorism, what is conveyed in media articles is important to the conceptions about terrorism that are created (Dowler, Fleming and Muzzatti 2006). The present research supports hypothesis 4 with findings that there is a disparity among political affiliation and desire to seek action against terrorism, as found by Fischhoff et al. (2003). Republican respondents were more likely to be content with the current political leaders, while simultaneously saying the U.S. could do more to combat terrorism. Friedman (2011) connects this to the media that is shown to Americans. Other studies also show similar beliefs of republicans having less fear but more feelings of being threatened and wanting action to be done (Avdan and Webbs, 2018; Fischhoff et al. 2003).

Limitations. One of the limitations of this research is the sample size (N=302). Because the sample size is small the results are not generalizable. Such as with Hypothesis 2, the data may have been significant if there had been more responses to speak for younger people (18-25). The survey size was another limitation, since having 22 questions, including several Likert scales, can cause participants to stop paying attention or stop taking the survey entirely. Gender was another limitation of this study, as there were only 8 respondents identifying with gender-neutral categories, therefore the study was unable to account for gender-neutral individuals. Within the survey, race was also a limitation, as respondents were allowed to choose more than one race, as well as choose multiracial, which led to the percentages being over 100%.

Directions for Future Research. Researchers looking to further this study could incorporate intersectionality to the research. Considering the results of this study, it could be important to look at the intersectionality of gender and race. Previous research suggests that white females higher levels of fear regarding terrorism, and white males were more likely to

have a desire to seek action against terrorism (Fischhoff et. al 2003; Sinclair and LoCicero 2010). Regarding race, further research could look to define terrorism and see how the definition varies by race. Racial differences might define both domestic and international terrorism differently, as well as what acts may or may not be considered terrorism, such as white nationalism. Taking political affiliation a step further, more research could be done to see how much of an effect political affiliation has on what information people have access too, such as if they are more likely to access a certain website or article if it aligns with their viewpoints. As well as more research on how the websites and news-media accessed about terrorism effects opinions or conceptions, whether it be due to language or topics discussed by the media, or other factors involved.

APPENDIX A: HARD-COPY VERSION OF SURVEY QUESTIONAIRE

EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH

Title of Project: Conceptions about terrorism: what is terrorism, who commits terrorist attacks, and what is individual risk.

Principal Investigator: Dr. Amy Donley

Other Investigator: Rebecca Jackson

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Whether you take part is up to you.

- The purpose of this research is to understand people's conceptions about terrorism.

- You are being asked to complete an anonymous online survey.

- The survey should take you 3-5 minutes to complete.

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints: Rebecca Jackson, Undergraduate Student, Department of Sociology, College of Sciences, rebecca.jackson98@knights.ucf.edu or Dr. Amy Donley, Principal Investigator, Department of Sociology at (407) 823-1357 or by email at amy.donley@ucf.edu.

Are you 18 or older?

○ Yes

○ No

Skip To: End of Survey If Are you 18 or older? = No

The CIA defines terrorism as "any premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against noncombatant targets by sub-national groups or clandestine agents." Do you believe that this is an accurate definition?

○ Yes

○ No

Please name any terrorist groups you are aware of.

_____

To the best of your knowledge, are you currently aware of any terrorist groups?

○ Yes

○ No

What emotions do you feel with the idea that terrorism could occur near you? (Choose all that apply)

☐ Fear

☐ Anger

☐ Indifference

☐ Intrigued

☐ Anticipation

☐ Anxiety

☐ Excitement

29

Have you or a loved one ever been a victim of (what you consider) a terrorist attack?

○ Yes

○ No

How often do you think about terrorism?

○ Never

○ Sometimes

○ Most of the time

○ Always

How likely do you think it is that a terrorist event will happen to you or a loved one?

○ Extremely unlikely

○ Somewhat unlikely

○ Neither likely nor unlikely

○ Somewhat likely

○ Extremely likely

How fearful are you that terrorism will...

	No fear	A little fear	A moderate amount of fear	A lot of fear	A great deal of fear
Happen where you live?	○	○	○	○	○
Happen to a loved one?	○	○	○	○	○
Happen to yourself?	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I think terrorism is a major political issue.	○	○	○	○	○
I am likely to seek action against terrorism.	○	○	○	○	○
I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism.	○	○	○	○	○
I am likely to elect an official who has plans to combat terrorism.	○	○	○	○	○
I think the U.S. government could do more to combat terrorism.	○	○	○	○	○
I think the U.S. government is doing enough to combat terrorism.	○	○	○	○	○
I think there are currently enough policies on terrorism.	○	○	○	○	○

| Other countries have better policies on terrorism. | ◯ | ◯ | ◯ | ◯ | ◯ |

What events do you consider to be terrorism? (Check all that apply)

☐ Mass Shooters (ie: 2017 Las Vegas Shooting)

☐ School Shooters (ie: Stoneman Douglas Shooting)

☐ Vehicle Based Attacks (ie: Ramming Pedestrians)

☐ Chemical and Biological Weapons (ie: Anthrax Attacks)

☐ Bombings (ie: Car Bombs)

☐ Suicide Attacks (ie: 9/11)

☐ Cyber Attacks

☐ Stabbings

Check all of the ways you get information about terrorism or terrorist attacks.

☐ News channels (TV)

☐ Twitter

☐ Facebook

☐ Other social media sites (Reddit, Instagram, YouTube, etc)

☐ Online websites

☐ Scholarly articles

☐ Interactions with others

☐ In class or public forums

☐ Other_____

When you see a news article about terrorism, how likely are you to read the article?

○ Extremely likely

○ Somewhat likely

○ Neither likely nor unlikely

○ Somewhat unlikely

○ Extremely unlikely

Are you more likely to read an article about terrorism if it is from a specific website or news source?

○ Yes

○ No

Do you think news articles are generally trustworthy?

○ Yes

○ Sometimes

○ No

Are you a Republican, a Democrat, an Independent, or something else?

○ Republican

○ Democrat

○ Independent

○ Other _____

○ No party affiliation

○ Not registered to vote

Here is a 7-point scale on which the political views that people might hold are arranged from extremely liberal (left) to extremely conservative (right). Where would you place yourself on this scale?

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Political Ideology ()
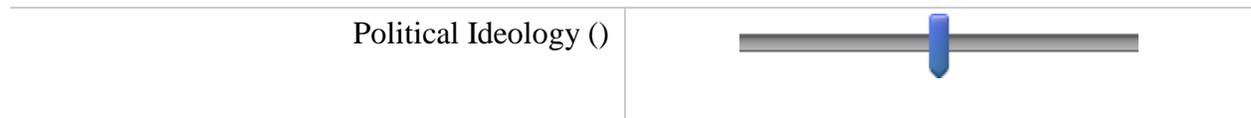
Please select your gender.

○ Male

○ Female

○ Other (please specify) _____

How old are you? (Maximum 2-character response)

_____

Choose one or more races that you consider yourself to be:

☐ White or Caucasian

☐ Black or African American

☐ American Indian or Alaska Native

☐ Other _____

☐ Latin or Hispanic

☐ Asian

☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander

☐ Multiracial or Ethnic

What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

○ Less than high school degree

○ High school graduate (high school diploma or equivalent including GED)

○ Some college but no degree (currently in college)

○ Associate degree in college (2-year)

○ Bachelor's degree in college (4-year)

○ Master's degree

○ Doctoral degree

○ Professional degree (JD, MD)

APPENDIX B: TABLES FOR CHAPTER 4

Table 1. Demographics of Participants

	n	%
Gender		
Male	100	33.1
Female	190	62.9
Other	8	2.6
Total	298	100.0
Race/Ethnicity*		
White/Caucasian	208	68.9
Black/African American	21	7.0
American Indian/Alaska Native	4	1.3
Latin/Hispanic	57	18.9
Asian	12	4
Multiracial/Ethnic	17	5.6
Other	4	1.3
Total	323	---
Age Groups		
18-25	140	46.4
26-35	35	11.6
36-45	13	4.3
46-55	52	17.2
56-65	40	13.2
66 or Older	22	7.3
Total	302	100.0
Political Affiliation		
Republican	76	25.2
Democrat	99	32.8
Independent	41	13.6
Other	14	4.6
No Party Affiliation	53	17.5
Not Registered to Vote	14	46
Total	297	100.0
Highest Level of School Completed		
Less than High School Degree	3	1.0
High School Graduate	29	9.6
Some College but No Degree	81	26.8
Associate Degree in College	72	23.8
Bachelor's Degree in College	91	30.4
Master's Degree	21	7.0
Professional Degree (JD, MD)	2	.7
Total	299	100

*Respondents were allowed to choose more than one race/ethnicity.

Table 2. Frequency of Fear of Terrorism for Sample (N=302)

Measure*	Median	Mean	Std. dev
Fear of Terrorism Happening			
Where You Live	3.00	2.41	1.010
To a Loved One	3.00	2.54	1.096
To Yourself	2.00	2.28	1.034

*1= No Fear; 2= A little fear; 3= A moderate amount of fear; 4= A lot of fear; 5= A great deal of fear

Note= Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient =.896

Table 3. Independent Sample T-test Male vs. Female Fear of Terrorism

Measure	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Fear of Terrorism					
Male	6.240	2.63282	-4.403	287	.000
Female	7.746	2.83388			

*Scale 3-15; 3(No Fear) through 15(A great deal of fear)

Table 4. Independent T-test for 18-25 and 26 or older on Fear of Terrorism

Measure*	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Fear of Terrorism					
18-25	7.5143	3.02623	1.617	299	.107
26 or older	6.9814	2.69136			

*Scale 3-15; 3(No Fear) through 15(A great deal of fear)

Note: $p < 0.05$

Table 5. Correlation for Age Range and Fear of Terrorism

	Fear of Terrorism
Age Range	-.120*

Note: p<.05

Table 6. Independent T-Test for White People and Everyone Else on Desire to Seek Action

Measure*	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
I am likely to seek action against terrorism.					
White	3.24	1.255	2.769	252	.006
Everyone Else	3.64	1.150			
I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism.					
White	2.68	1.307	-2.437	246	.016
Everyone else	2.31	1.233			
I think the U.S. could do more to combat terrorism.					
White	3.71	1.056	2.246	236	.026
Everyone	3.99	1.022			

*Scale 1-5; 1= No Fear; 2= A little fear; 3= A moderate amount of fear; 4= A lot of fear; 5= A great deal of fear

Table 7. Independent T-Test for Republican Desire to Seek Action Compared to Everyone Else

Measure	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
I think terrorism is a major political issue.					
Republican	4.26	1.063	1.858	138	.065
Other	4.00	1.108			
I am likely to seek action against terrorism.					
Republican	3.57	1.258	1.357	127	.177
Other	3.34	1.194			
I think our current political leaders are doing enough to combat terrorism.					
Republican	3.05	1.305	4.189	127	.000*
Other	2.33	1.229			
I am likely to elect an official who has plans to combat terrorism.					
Republican	4.47	.759			
Other	3.74	.992	6.475	170	.000*
I think the U.S. government could do more to combat terrorism.					
Republican	3.97	1.013	1.497	135	.137
Other	3.77	1.047			
Other countries have better policies on terrorism.					
Republican	2.92	1.175	-2.694	120	.008*
Other	3.33	1.043			

Scale 1-5; 1= No Fear; 2= A little fear; 3= A moderate amount of fear; 4= A lot of fear; 5= A great deal of fear
*$p<0.05$

REFERENCES

Abrahms, Max. 2006. "Why Terrorism Does Not Work." *International Security* 32(2):42-78

Avdan, Nazli and Clayton Webb. 2018. "The Big, the Bad, and the Dangerous: Public Perceptions and Terrorism." *Dynamics of Asymmetric Conflict* 11(1):3-25.

Bergen, Peter, Albert Ford, Alyssa Sims, and David Sterman. 2016. "Terrorism in America After 9/11." *New America.* Retrieved September 7, 2018 (https://www.newamerica.org/in-depth/terrorism-in-america/)

Bloch-Elkon, Yaeli. 2011. "The Polls-Trends Public Perceptions and the Treat of International Terrorism after 9/11." *Public Opinion Quarterly* 75(2):366-392.

Blum, Scott C., Roxanne Cohen Silver, and Michael J. Poulin. 2014. "Perceiving Risk in a Dangerous World: Associations Between Life Experiences and Risk Perceptions." *Social Cognition* 32(3):297-314.

Callimachi, Rukmini. 2018. "Why a 'Dramatic Dip' in ISIS Attacks in the West is Scant Comfort." *The New York Times.* Retrieved September 14, 2018 (https://www.nytimes.com/2018/09/12/world/middleeast/isis-attacks.html)

CIA. 2013. "CIA & the War on Terrorism – Terrorism FAQs." Retrieved September 7, 2018 (https://www.cia.gov/news-information/cia-the-war-on-terrorism/terrorism-faqs.html?tab=list-3)

D'Orazio, Vito and Idean Salehyan. 2018 "Who is a Terrorist? Ethnicity, Group Affiliation, and

    Understandings of Political Violence." *International Interactions* 44(6):1017-1039.

Department of Justice. 2018. "DOJ, DHS Report: Three Out of Four Individuals Convicted of

    International Terrorism and Terrorism-Related Offenses Were Foreign-Born."

    Department of Justice. Retrieved September 7, 2018 (https://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/doj-

    dhs-report-three-out-four-individuals-convicted-international-terrorism-and-terrorism)

Dowler, Ken, Thomas Fleming, and Stephen L Muzzati. 2006. "Constructing Crime: Media,

    Crime and Popular Culture." Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice.

    46(6):837-850.

FBI. 2018. "What We Investigate – Terrorism." Retrieved September 7, 2018

    https://www.fbi.gov/investigate/terrorism)

Fischhoff, Baruch, Roxana M. Gonzalez, Deborah A. Small, and Jennifer S. Lerner. 2003.

    "Judged Terror Risk and Proximity to the World Trade Center." *The Journal of Risk and*

    Uncertainty 26(2):137-151.

Friedman, Benjamin H. 2011. "Managing Fear: The Politics of Homeland Security." *Political*

    Science Quarterly 126(1):77-106.

Gartin, Patrick R. 2010. "The Effects of Perceptions of Preparedness and Prevention on the Fear

    of Future Terrorist Attacks." *The Journal of the Institute of Justice & International*

    Studies 10:45-57.

Gartner, Scott S., and Catherine Langlois. 2018. "Unbalanced Policy Priorities and the

    Interrogation of Terror Suspects." *Foreign Policy Analysis* 14(1):107-126.

Gibbs, Jennifer C. 2010. "Looking at Terrorism Through Left Realist Lenses." *Crime Law Social*

    Change 54(2):171-185.

Hsu, Henda Y., Bob Edward Vásquez, and David Mcdowall. 2018. "A Time-Series Analysis of

    Terrorism: Intervention, Displacement and Diffusion of Benefits." *Justice Quarterly*

    35(4):557-583

Kampf, Zohar. 2014. "News-Media and Terrorism: Changing Relationship, Changing

    Definitions." *Sociology Compass* 8(1):1-9.

Keenan, Kevin. 2018. "Rethinking place in the study of societal responses to terrorism: Insights

    from Boston, Massachusetts (USA)." *Urban Studies* 55(2):461-480.

Mashal, Mujib, Fahim Abed, and Fatima Faizi. 2018. "'We Live Death': A Chronicler of Afghan

    Loss Is Killed on Live TV." *The New York Times.* Retrieved September 14, 2018

    (https://www.nytimes.com/2018/09/06/world/asia/afghanistan-samim-faramarz-reporter-

    killed.html).

Matić, Renato, Anita Dremel, and Mateja Šakić. 2014. "Terrorism, Social Causes and

    Perspectives. *Journal of Criminal Justice and Security* 17(1):46-61.

Martin, Gus. 2018. *Understanding Terrorism Challenges, Perspectives and Issues.*6th ed. New

    York: Sage

Mueller, John. 2005. "Simplicity and Spook: Terrorism and the Dynamics of Threat

    Exaggeration." *International Studies Perspectives* 6(2):208-234.

Mueller, John. 2006. *Overblown: How Politicians and the Terrorism Industry Inflate National*

    Security Threats, and Why We Believe Them. New York.

Nellis, Ashley Marie, and Joanne Savage. "Does Watching the News Affect Fear of Terrorism?

    The Importance of Media Exposure on Terrorism Fear." *Crime & Delinquency*

    58(5):748-768.

Reah, Danuta. 2002. *The Language of Newspapers*. 2nd ed. New York: Routledge.

Sinclair, Samuel Justin, and Alice LoCicero. 2010. "Do fears of terrorism predict trust in

    government?" *Journal of Aggression, Conflict, and Peace Research* 2(1):57-68

START. 2017. "Annex of Statistical Information: Country Reports on Terrorism 2016." *National*

    Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism 1-17.

University of Virginia. "Using and Interpreting Cronbach's Alpha." *University of Virginia*

    Library. Retrieved March 30, 2019 (https://data.library.virginia.edu/using-and-

    interpreting-cronbachs-alpha/)