

A STUDY OF FEAR OF CRIME IN TWO DISTRICTS OF ANKARA

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF FEAR OF CRIME IN TWO DISTRICTS OF ANKARA

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The purpose of this study is to understand the fear of crime in the society. The studies in the literature, which focus on sociology of crime in general and the fear of crime in particular, were carried out within the social dynamics of other countries, and mostly the western societies. In this sense, it is clear that there is a need to make evaluations that specifically address our society. In this study, it was aimed to achieve a holistic analysis of fear of crime, based on the question “what are the factors that determine fear of crime in individuals?” It is assumed that there are many factors that determine fear of crime in individuals. Differences in socio-economic status, which can be counted among these factors, are addressed under the scope of this study. It is assumed that people from different socio-economic statuses can also experience fear of crime in different ways. To this end, a field survey was conducted in the districts of

Çankaya and Altındağ in the province of Ankara, and a total of 510 individuals were surveyed through a questionnaire.

According to the results of the survey, incivilities appear as the most determinant factor of fear of crime in the society, followed by districts, which represent the area of living and which were used as a basis in sample selection for this survey; the third factor that determines fear of crime is gender, and the fifth factor is the indirect victimization. Other findings of the survey are discussed throughout the thesis.

Keywords: Fear of Crime, Victimization, Vulnerability, Socio-economic Status

ÖZ

ANKARA'NIN İKİ İLÇESİNDE SUÇ KORKUSU ÇALIŞMASI

Çetin, Didem

Doktora, Sosyoloji Bölümü

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Bu çalışmanın amacı toplumda suç korkusunu anlamaktır. Literatürde genelde suç sosyolojisi, özelde suç korkusu konusunda yapılan çalışmalar yabancı toplumların, ağırlıklı olarak batı toplumlarının toplumsal dinamikleri içerisinde yürütülmüştür. Bu anlamda toplumumuza özgü değerlendirmelerin yapılmasına yönelik ihtiyacın olduğu açıktır. Bu çalışmadan kişilerin suç korkusunu belirleyen faktörler nelerdir sorusundan hareket edilerek bütünlüklü bir suç korkusu analizi yapmak hedeflenmiştir. Kişilerin suç korkusunu belirleyen pek çok etken olduğu varsayılmaktadır. Bunların arasında sayılabilecek sosyo-ekonomik statü farklılıklarına bu araştırma kapsamında yer verilmiştir. Farklı sosyo-ekonomik statüden insanların suç korkusunu da farklı şekillerde yaşayabilecekleri varsayılmaktadır. Bu amaçla Ankara ilinin Çankaya ve Altındağ ilçelerinde bir alan çalışması gerçekleştirilmiş, toplam 510 kişiye anket uygulaması yapılmıştır.

Arařtırma sonuçlarına göre toplumda suç korkusunu en çok belirleyen faktör olarak sosyal ve fiziksel düzensizlikler ortaya çıkmaktadır, ikinci sırayı yaşam alanını temsil eden ve bu arařtırmanın örneklem seçimine de kaynaklık eden yaşanan bölge yer almakta, üçüncü sırada cinsiyet ve son olarak kişilerin dolaylı mağduriyetleri suç korkusunu belirleyen faktör olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Arařtırmanın diđer bulguları tezin içerisinde tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Suç Korkusu, Mağduriyet, İncinebilirlik, Sosyo-ekonomik Statü

To My Family

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study is to understand the fear of crime in the society. There are many studies in the literature on the subject of crime, and particularly on the fear of crime. However this study aims at analyzing the determinants of fear of crime on a relational model taking into account the data obtained from previous researches.

The study of fear crime has been a major source of social concern and it is also a multidisciplinary enterprise for which sociologists, criminologists, psychologists, city planners and researchers from various disciplines have sought an explanation for such a complex phenomenon. It is a phenomenon that people from different societies experience fear of crime in different ways because of various reasons. However at the end, the fear of crime is a social reality that exists and experienced at different levels by the people in every society.

Fear of crime has been the subject of academic studies starting from 1960's when racist conflicts, social uprisings and urban violence started to increase (Zedner, 1997). Hale (1996) argued that this increasing interest is due, in part, to the recognition that fear has many ramifications beyond "personal anxiety" (Hale 1996: 1).

Crime itself is a multifaceted phenomenon; many aspects of it have been studied by various researchers. The causes of crime, the characteristics of society and criminals that incite criminality has been the focus of many researches. However, as a focus point, it can be argued that transition from "crime" or "criminal" to "victim" has taken more time. The researchers that conduct victimization studies have stated that this area has been long neglected. It is necessary to see the complete picture so as to understand the subject of crime. The social reasons, individual factors, crime prevention policies, methods of combating crimes, policing activities, legal arrangements are some of the pieces of the larger picture. Indeed the participation of the "victim", who is assumed to be affected by the crime directly, in the field of study, is one of the efforts to eliminate this negligence.

Together with this approach it has been understood that the fear of crime is not a reaction to increasing or decreasing rates of crime and that many other points should also be added to the analysis of fear of crime. These may include a victimization experience, people defining themselves as more vulnerable such as women, old people, individuals from different ethnic groups or disabled persons, the neighborhood relations, social or physical disorders namely incivilities encountered in daily life, and trust for the police and social practices.

It would be unreasonable to expect that crime victimization has only direct physical or psychological consequences. It should also be noted that fear of crime is included among these consequences. The consequences of fear of crime are those that might cause real and measurable problems that are potentially serious (Conklin, 1975; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981).

Fear of crime is an important determinant of quality of life and might bring about so many damaging consequences. This fear might feature personal emotional effects and decreases common quality of life. Hale defines these emotional effects as “feeling of loneliness and weakness” and “serious deficiency in the peace of the individual” (Hale 1996: 81). Fear of crime might have a lot of reflection on the daily lives of individuals. Indeed, time and money that individual can spend in order to increase their quality of life becomes expendable for security. Fear also causes expensive consequences such installing security cameras and alarms to houses and business places and even carrying weapons. Moreover, fear of crime causes people to limit their behaviors or stay away from certain places and venues.

Fear of crime “...motivates people to invest time and money in defensive measures to reduce their vulnerability. They stay indoors more than they would wish, avoid certain places, buy extra locks...” (Moore and Trajanowicz, 1988: 4). These precautions affect not only the individuals themselves but also their families, environment and as a consequence the

whole society. In places where the fear is perceived at higher levels, the society may even appeal to total protection precautions. This may include expelling individuals belonging to other ethnic groups - whom they are regarded as criminals - from the society, or using the state-of-the-art security measures.

In other words, it can be expected that the fear of crime does not only affect the people possessing the fear but also the whole social life. As Westover mentions fear of crime is a dynamic state influenced by and, in turn, influencing individual behavioral responses and belief structures (Westover, 1985: 412). In order to better understand and analyze these influences, it is obvious that scientific studies should be conducted related to the subject. Hanrahan and Gibbs note that if someone wants to understand the meaning of the fear of crime among the general public or any segment of it, he or she needs to talk to those who are experiencing that fear and to understand where and how the fear of crime fits in their daily lives (Hanrahan and Gibbs, 2004: 87).

It is expected that scientific studies on fear of crime with an ever increasing interest shall bring about many consequences both in academic field and in respect of policy initiations. It has been aimed that the findings of the studies shall ensure important contributions to the crime prevention policies of institutions and departments fighting with crime. The point on which all of the relevant parties agree is that identification of the dimension

of fear of crime in the society and knowing what the points of sensitivity are shall become an important step in fighting with the crime.

Despite the fact that there are quite many studies in the literature of criminology analyzing the fear of crime, there are very few number of studies conducted in this field in Turkey. One of these studies to be mentioned is the research conducted by Uludağ et al. in Malatya. According to findings of this study, 31 percent of participants stated that they feel unsecure in the streets at nights. Furthermore, it was found that people feel secure when street lamps are on (Sabah Newspaper, 1st August 2009). Another study conducted on this subject is Özaşçılar's which was conducted in 2005 in Istanbul among university students. The results of the study indicate that women are afraid of being the victim of a sexual crime whereas men are more afraid of being seized. These two basic fears are defined as "umbrella fear" and accompany all other fears (Hürriyet Newspaper, 14th May 2006).

In addition, a comprehensive study on fear of crime is the International Crime Victims Survey 2005: Criminal Victimization in Istanbul Households by Jahic and Akdaş. ICVS – International Crime Victims Survey is the most comprehensive international survey on the crime victimization and its prevalence carried out in many countries across the world.

Republic of Turkey was covered in the latest sweep of the International Crime Victims Survey done in 2004-2005, and the findings of this questionnaire were included in the reports by Jahic and Akdaş. In this study, 1242 people were interviewed in order to obtain data on the frequency and prevalence of the crime victimization in the province of Istanbul. The data obtained in the interviews carried out specifically over various crime types were provided in the reports in comparison with the other European cities. The ICVS – İstanbul survey revealed that the fear of crime in the citizens is quite high. When this rate was compared with the real crime rates and the same comparison was repeated with the Western Europe cities, although the citizens in İstanbul live in a somewhat safer city compared to Europe, they feel more fear of crime and less secure (Jahic and Akdaş, 2007: 45-46).

The above mentioned study was carried out to be a part of the International Crime Victims Survey regarding Turkey. This thesis does not aim at specifying the classification of victimization or the prevalence of victimization, yet it is unique study since it targets to analyze the potential determinants of the fear of crime over a statistical analysis. In this study, theoretical arguments shall be taken into account and a complete fear of crime analysis shall be made. The factors affecting the fear of crime and analyzing these factors together or independent from each other enable us to make more comprehensive sociological interpretations. In order to achieve this, various assumptions will be tested using the theoretical

discussions, and thus the determinants of fear of crime shall be discussed in more detail through a relational analysis in the next phase.

1. 1. Outline of the Thesis

This study consists of four chapters. Following the Introduction, second Chapter of the thesis is on the literature review. The studies in the literature have analyzed fear of crime moving from many different starting points. This section, first of all, will provide references to the researches in the literature. Likewise, this part of the thesis will mention certain theoretical discussions existing in the literature. The theoretical discussions referred numerous times in the analysis part will constitute some of the basic starting points of this thesis.

Chapter Three, titled methodology gives detailed explanation of methods used for the research, including sampling, questionnaire construction, and data collection and so on. Chapter Four is about the data analysis and provides the findings. In this chapter, the hypotheses generated based on all the theoretical discussions have been tested; the results obtained have been interpreted, and lastly a relational analysis has been established and the factors affecting the fear of crime have been added to the analysis and the results have been interpreted. Chapter Five is the conclusion part of the thesis. It provides an overall analysis of the findings of research and concluding remarks for the thesis.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2. 1. Measurements of Fear of Crime

Fear of crime is a multi-dimensional and complicated issue. Many researches in criminology and sociology literature have dealt with different aspects of fear of crime and have produced various findings. Although there are many studies and researches analyzing the facts about the fear of crime, the results obtained pertaining to such facts conflict with each other.

Explanations of fear of crime and these paradoxes of fear have centered mainly on victimization (Skogan 1987), physical vulnerability (Rohe and Burby 1988), incivilities (Skogan and Maxfield 1981), social vulnerability (Rohe and Burby 1988), and more recently social networking (Rohe and Burby 1988; Bursik and Grasmick 1993). This conflicting nature of research findings are attributed to the usage of different empirical instruments and measurements as well as different definitions of "fear of crime" by different researches.

In order to accurately describe, explain, or predict the occurrence of any given phenomenon, the variables under consideration must be adequately measured. Indeed, it can be said that "measurement is the basis of all science." Measurement problems beset a wide variety of research issues

and hinder the process of the cumulative development of scientific knowledge. Fear of crime is one of these areas that have suffered from measurement problems. For Ferrero and LaGrange “The research is replete with methodological problems that impede our ability to make useful generalizations” (Ferraro and LaGrange, 1987: 70).

What is fear of crime? How can a researcher distinguish between risk evaluation, worry and fear? Is fear of crime merely ‘fear’ of ‘crime’ or is it something else, something more diffuse and abstract than the perceived threat of crime? (Bauman, 1991). Or is defining fear of crime as a wide range of emotional and practical responses to crime and disorder made by individuals and community appropriate enough? There is no one definition of ‘fear of crime’ that researchers agree on. Some scholars have argued that what has been measured under the heading of fear of crime, is not ‘fear’ of ‘crime’, but an expression of having to live in an age of continuous manufactured uncertainty (Giddens, 1992) or ambivalence (Bauman, 1991).

Warr explains that ,

Fear of crime is “an emotion, a feeling of alarm, or dread caused by an awareness or expectation of danger. This affective state is ordinarily (though not invariably) associated with certain psychological changes, including increased heart rate, rapid breathing, sweating, decreased salivation, and increased galvanic skin response (Warr, 2000: 453-454).

Rountree and Land on the other hand put emphasis on “the ambiguity in defining and measuring fear and state that fear of crime ranges from

general, emotional reactions, cognitive perceptions of safety in one's neighbourhood to affective, personal, emotional reactions to the possibility of being victimized by a specific type of crime" (Rountree and Land, 1966: 1354). Garofalo defines fear as "an emotional reaction characterized by a sense of danger and anxiety" (Garofalo, 1981: 840). Yin, states that though fear of crime is almost never explicitly defined by researchers, their measurements suggest that "such fear implicitly defined as the perception of the probability of being victimized" (Yin, 1980: 46).

As mentioned previously, the fear of crime is difficult to measure, because there are multiple and divergent meanings of the concept. While some researchers use "individual's assessment of their risk of victimization as a surrogate for their fear", some others "confuse concern for crime in society with worries about personal safety" (Hale, 1996: 2).

It is very evident according to many researchers that prevention of crime is a problematic issue (Barkan 2005; Berg 1998; Box et. al. 1987; Hale 1996). Moreover, measuring the fear of crime is a difficult task as well. An example of the global scale measurement can be: "How secure would you feel when you are alone in where you live at nights?" According to Ferraro and LaGrange, such questions measure the probability of an individual to become a victim of a crime rather than measuring the fear of crime (Ferraro and LaGrange, 1987). Garofalo proposes that

the crime and area or the environs should be clearly identified in questions such as "Is there any place you might be afraid of walking

alone at nights around here – let's say within a mile?" (Garofalo, 1979: 81).

Questions including actions such as "walking alone at nights" are criticized within the scope of relevance theory since very few people walk alone at nights. According to some researchers, questions like "Do you feel secure or will you feel secured?" measure a curiosity on general crime or an anxiety related to crime apart from danger of crime (Furstenberg, 1971).

Garofalo and Laub and also Lupton state that the abovementioned efforts to measure fear of crime indeed causes frightening the foreign people. The respondents of the researches always state that "threatening visions" and "foreign people they have never known" are the center of their fears. The concept of foreign person about whom nothing is known helps continuing the symbolic borders and cultural identities. (Garofalo and Laub, 1978; Lupton, 1999).

In conceptualizing and measuring the fear of crime, Garofalo (1981) suggests making a distinction between 'actual fear' and 'anticipated fear'. "There are two types of fear in relation to crime: actual fear (fear triggered by an actual cue in the environment) and anticipated fear (fear of expectancy)" (Hale, 1996). Perceptions about past experiences of actual fear may evoke anticipated feelings of fear when a person is in a similar situation. For example, if a person walking alone was once harassed by a group of individuals (actual fear), he or she may experience fear whenever walking alone (anticipated fear). These fears associated to crime, either

actual or anticipated, are based on perceptions of risk (potential for victimization) and assessment of the consequences of victimization in a particular situation (Hale, 1996). Further, research indicates that fear of crime for individuals who feel at greater risk in public spaces often experience fear of crime and violence copiously and feel more vulnerable to crime based on their age (Hale, 1996), race (Pain, 2001), physical ability (Henderson, Bedini, Hecht, and Schuler, 1995) and sex (Stanko, 1995).

As a result, researchers have developed three broad categories of measures of fear of crime. First, cognitive measures involve the perceived probability of victimization and are concerned with judgments of risk and safety. Second, affective measures relate to worry or fear of victimization by specific crimes; in essence, fear reactions. Third, behavioral measures judge levels of fear by means of the actions of people. Behavioral measures indicate the difference in what respondents say they experience and what they actually do experience (Hale, 1996; Fattah and Sacco, 1989).

2.2. Theories Explaining Fear of Crime

There are various theories in the literature trying to explain fear of crime. The purpose of this chapter is to review the development of fear of crime approaches. This review will provide focus and background and highlight the original contribution of this research.

2.2.1. The Victimization Theory

This theory holds two approaches to address fear of crime; direct and indirect victimization. Citizens are fearful because they have either been victimized themselves or experienced vicarious victimization. Besides being the direct victim of a crime, a person may encounter vicarious victimization through conversations with victims and other through media and observations of neighbourhood conditions (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981).

2. 2.1.1. Direct Victimization

The major assumption of direct victimization is that a person who suffers victimization directly is likely to feel more fear. However, Hale (1996) states that the relationship between fear and direct victimization remains unresolved because some researchers find evidence that fear increases with victimization experiences (Liska et al.1988; Skogan 1987; Skogan and Maxfield 1981), while some find no relationship (Hill et al. 1985; Wanner and Caputo 1987), and others report only a weak relationship (Skogan and Maxfield 1981; Garofalo 1979; Smith and Huff 1982; Lewis

and Salem 1986). Due to the contradictory findings, researchers claim that direct victimization or personal injury experiences are not consistent predictors in the research on fear (Smith and Torstensson 1997).

Agnew states that “direct victimization experience is among the other factors determining fear of crime”. He adds that “victims use techniques of neutralization to help cope with their experiences of victimization”. These techniques are;

denial of injury (“I wasn’t hurt”); denial of vulnerability (“I know how to avoid being victimized in future”); acceptance of responsibility (“I am at least partly to blame for what happened”); belief in a just world (“the culprits will get what they deserve”); appeal to higher motives (I was victimized because I was protecting my friend”). The victims use these techniques with regard to the nature of victimization, the characteristics of the individual, the degree of social support and the community climate (Hale, 1996: 27).

Therefore, a study aiming to measure “fear of crime” should take into account the presence of these techniques that might have been used in the answers of victims.

Nevertheless, victimization is a sign that the potential for future danger exists. In addition, fear might be increased if the person feels unable to avoid or cope with victimization. For some researchers, women and the elderly may be physically incapable of coping with violent crimes and direct victimization of such may increase their fear for future.

2. 2.1.2. *Indirect Victimization*

Not experiencing the victimization, but hearing of it from a relative, neighbour or friend, or from other kind of sources allows one's imagination full scope without perhaps the same urgency to find some coping strategy. Additionally, according to Hale, "if one can make comparisons between oneself and the victim this will reinforce one's sense of vulnerability" (Hale 1996: 28). Indirect victimization is the idea that hearing of the victimization of others will increase fear (Lavrakas and Lewis 1980; Arnold 1991; Klecha and Bishop 1978; Box et al. 1988; Skogan and Maxfield 1981; Gates and Rohe 1987). Thus, it would be assumed that knowing more people or having larger networks could increase fear. According to Taylor and Hale, "a criminal event sends out shock waves" that spread throughout the community via local social networks. They argue that

People who hear about a crime become indirect victims in that their levels of fear increase. Local social contacts serve to amplify the fear-inspiring impact of local crime. The indirect victimization model thus attempts to bring crime and fear into correspondence by adding a crime "multiplier" (Taylor and Hale 1986: 77).

On the other hand, Skogan and Maxfield note that in the society, "the news about the crime committed against life, crime of violence and crimes where women and the elderly are victims spread more quickly and they have more effect on the audience" (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981: 162). They add that mechanisms causing the spread of the crime news may turn into the mechanisms causing the spread of the fear (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981: 163).

2. 2.1.3. Media Effect

Besides those personal contacts people also receive information of crime thorough media sources. Newspapers, radio, and especially television, have a prominent role in many popular accounts of fear of crime (Hale 1996). The media is, for many people, their major source of vicarious information, and among those information crime plays a prominent role.

The role of media has long been discussed as one of the factors affecting the fear of crime (Heath, 1984, Koomen et.al.2000, Warr, 2001, Smolej, 2006). Koomen et.al. examine the frequency of mass media presentations of crime news with regard to people's fear of crime leves and state that "the more the mass media report on crime, the more the readers become afraid of crime" (Koomen et.al.2000: 922). However, besides the frequency of crime news, the way the news is presented also plays a considerable role when it comes to affecting the people's fear of crime. The ones who criticize media argue that "media coverage of crime is biased; there is little or no correspondence between objective characteristics of crime and crime as it is portrayed in the media" (Warr, 2001: 457). According to Warr, "media coverage of crime leads to distorted public perceptions of the incidence of offenses" (Warr, 2001: 466).

One other issue discussed about the influence of the media on the fear of crime is that whether everybody in the society is affected in the same way

by the crime news. Which part of the society is affected from the crime news in what degree and for what features of such news? Smolej et.al. emphasize “the importance of individual’s vulnerability in determining people’s fear of crime with regard to media presentation of crime news” (Simolej et.al. 2006). They interpreted that “the crime news affects the people more whom are subjected to be a victim of crime with a lower possibility paradoxically” (Simolej et.al. 2006: 213). Moreover, some people may refer to the crime news on the media as something far away from them, something that will not happen to them. That means when they assess their vulnerability, they assume that they will not experience the crime victimizations as presented on the media. In fact, points such as the nature of the crime, the location of crime scene and how far it is are also significant for such an assessment.

Fear of crime has not only been an inspiration for academic studies or a focus point of institutions and departments combating with crime, but also became a commercial commodity especially in recent years. Secret cameras, shock tools, teargas sprays, etc. have become marketable goods in order to direct people to take their own security precautions. At this point, especially women are the best target group. Macek studies the security anxiety and fear of crime over advertisements (Macek, 2006). Macek argued that the fear of crime is reproduced latently or explicitly in many advertisements and that this may vary from door lock to car alarms and burglary insurance to weapons specially designed for women.

In addition to specifically spreading crime stories, the role of the media has been long debated in terms of the “moral panic” it creates. According to the moral panic theory, first suggested by Stanley Cohen, societies frequently come face to face with moral panic (Hier, 2008: 175). The target of this panic can sometimes be a situation, a group of people, a disease or a natural phenomenon. Panic may last only a short time or continue for a long time, increasing its effect on societies.

This theory, which is more often used in media studies, can also be attributed to panic situations observed in today’s modern world. HIV-AIDS, melting of glaciers, scarcity of water resources, the mad cow disease or the swine flu or similar diseases are some of the examples of moral panic cases presented by the media. As mentioned above, fear of crime is also a phenomenon that is conveyed by the media or even marketed as a commercial commodity, and that consequently causes people to experience indirect victimization.

Although not directly related to the increase in crime rates, it is seen that some crime types periodically appear more frequently in the media. While crimes such as snatching or robbery may sometimes find more coverage in the media, news stories on child-kidnapping or serial killers may sometimes appear more in the media. In this way, although the crime types that are on the public agenda may change, crime can always be kept on people’s agenda by the media.

Unlike other moral panic situations, fear of crime is a social reality that never loses its effect and that always exists in social life although it may differ in daily practices – such as avoiding crowded places in order to not be a victim to terrorism or to have security alarms installed against burglars.

2.2.2. The Vulnerability Theory

Among the theories to explain fear of crime or the determinants of fear crime to be mentioned is the the vulnerability theory. Hale states that “people who feel unable to protect themselves, either because they cannot run fast, or lack the physical prowess to ward off attackers, or because they cannot afford to protect their homes, or because it would take them longer than average to recover from material or physical injuries might be expected to ‘fear’ crime more than others” (Hale, 1996: 17). Three broad groups have been identified as falling into this category: women, the elderly and the poor

It is mainly argued that populations considered either physically vulnerable to crime, such as the elderly or women, or socially vulnerable to crime, such as minorities and those with lower socioeconomic status have higher levels of fear. Various studies carried out to test the different aspects of this basic assumption in the literature.

Skogan and Maxfield used the concept of ‘vulnerability’ to account for variations in fear of crime across sociodemographic variables, including

socioeconomic status. According to them “physical vulnerability means ‘openness to attack, powerlessness to attack and exposure to traumatic physical consequences if attacked’” (Skogan and Maxfield 1981: 69). They state that individuals who are considered to be physically vulnerable are mainly women and elderly. Women and the elderly are generally more physically vulnerable because “if they are in fact attacked, the possible harm they will endure will be greater than it would be for younger persons or males” (Skogan and Maxfield 1981: 69).

Skogan and Maxfield’s second emphasis was on the concept of ‘social vulnerability’. They claim that “the social dimension states that people’s social vulnerability to crime when they are frequently exposed to the threat of victimization because of who they are, and when the social and economic consequences of victimization weigh more heavily upon them” (Skogan and Maxfield 1981: 73).

Additionally, according to Stafford and Gale, most researchers underestimate the point that people’s differential exposure to crime risk determines their fear of crime rate (Stafford and Gale, 1984). Therefore, “due to role expectations, and other constraints, females and older persons are likely to spend a considerable part of their time in the home, thereby reducing their risk of personal victimization” (Stafford and Gale, 1984: 175) and most probably their fear of crime. In sum, people might feel vulnerable for a variety of reasons.

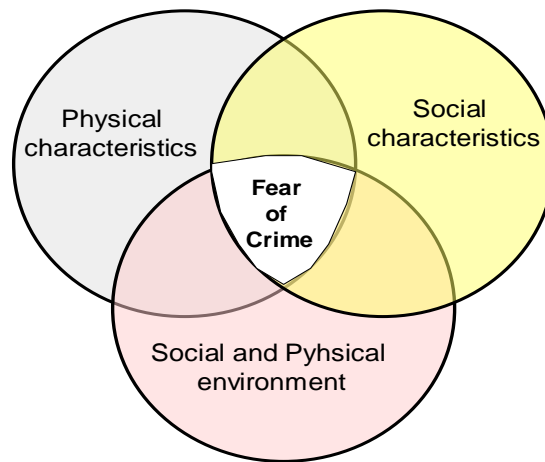


Figure 1. Vulnerability

Demographic and physical factors such as being a woman, being old, being poor, belonging to a different ethnic origin, social characteristics such as class difference and living environment are considered as the basic paradigms of this discussion which are increasing the fear of crime.

It should be kept in mind that at least one or more of these characteristics in interaction with each other can determine the fear of crime. In other words, the above-mentioned characteristics can be causes or results of one other. For example, belonging to a different ethnic origin or belonging to lower socio-economic classes may lead to living in the quarters that are

less safe and less secure with high rate of crime. Therefore, it must be analyzed to what extent these factors effect the fear of crime.

2.2.2.1. Gender

It has been a reference point to relate fear of crime with demographic factors. Comparison of fear of crime between women and men, old and young people, and people from different education and income backgrounds has provided important sources to the analysis of the subject. Skogan and Maxfield (1981) conducted a comprehensive study in three largest cities that demonstrated the relation between some of the individual demographic characteristics and fear of crime. And they elaborated their findings as follows: “Women, old people, non-white people and poor people possess fear of crime more compared to men, young people, white people and rich people respectively” Skogan and Maxfield (1981). Some other researchers, on the other hand, have found out that people with a poor educational background are more afraid of crime compared to persons with a high level of education (Covington and Taylor, 1991; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981).

When historically examined, even though the probability of being a victim of crime of women is less, women possess fear of crime more than men (Hale 1996; Hale et al., 1990; LaGrange and Ferraro, 1989; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; McGarrell et al., 1997; Warr, 1985). Hale put forwards two explanations to this contradiction that is defined as fear-victimization paradox.

First of all, crime rates do not reflect the victimization of women accurately, that is the real victimization rates are higher than those reported to the police and if this is taken into account, it is very reasonable for women to be afraid of crime. Secondly, women feel themselves more vulnerable; this might be due to the fact that they feel they can not protect themselves physically or that the consequences of victimization shall be heavier compared to the men (Hale 1996).

Furthermore, another point that should be emphasized on the victimization of women is that sexual harassment is the most fundamental notion shaping crime victimization and fear of crime (Pain, 1995). Women are more prone to generalizing their sexual harassment victimizations or another victimization that they experienced in the past as an indicator of their vulnerability at that time (Smith and Torstensson 1997). According to Warr, the dominating question in many researches of fear of crime is; “How safe do you feel being out alone in your neighborhood after dark? (Warr, 1984: 185).

Sacco presents two approaches to the contradiction of the fact that women possess more fear of crime compared to men although the probability of women being a victim of a crime is less than that of men. The first approach is that “official statistics and surveys on crime are not in harmony with the cases of women of being a victim of a crime”. For instance, every year so many sexual harassment cases are reported. The second approach on this contradiction puts forward that women have exaggerated foresights on personal vulnerability (Sacco, 1990); Skogan and Maxfield further believe in “the possibility that women are faced with

fear more due to their exaggerated physical and social vulnerabilities” (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981: 69).

Riger and Gordon requested women to evaluate their own physical power and speeds in their study. They have found out that “the women that are not very powerful and fast and that define themselves as vulnerable physically have higher fear of crime” (Riger and Gordon, 1981). On the other hand, Dussich and Eichman used “passive and active vulnerability terms” in their studies (Dussich and Eichman, 1976). For their analysis they explained the concepts as;

The passive vulnerability indicates the physical status of the individual which can be perceived by a potential criminal. On the other hand, active vulnerability points out to a case that is created by a potential victim. Maybe the potential victim is not paying attention to his/her environment or is stimulating fights through aggressive behaviors by creating a target that is prone to be a victim of any crime (Dussich and Eichman, 1976).

With respect to Dussich and Eichman’s categorization physical vulnerability of women and old people could be perceived as passive vulnerability.

Women's fear of crime seems to be driven primarily by their fear of rape (Warr, 1985; Gordon and Riger, 1989; Klodawsky and Lundy, 1994; Softas-Nall et al., 1995). Women perceive rape as a very serious crime— at least as serious, if not more so, than murder (Warr, 1985). However, Warr states that there would be always overlaps with the general questions about the fear of crime and that of rape female respondents

(Warr, 1985). He states that “the possibility that any offense could result in a rape or sexual assault and argues that this might be the cause for high levels of fear of crime among women” (Warr, 1984). On the other hand, Ferraro argues that women’s fear of rape and sexual assault ‘shadow’ their fear of other types of crimes. Thus, it might be argued that the questions on fear of crime addressed to the women are always responded under the shadow of the fear of rape or sexual assault (Ferraro, 1995). In concurrence with this argument, Gordon and Regar refer women’s fear of rape as ‘the female fear’ (Gordon and Regar, 1988).

Moreover, some researchers argue that “the reason of higher fear of crime of women is coming from the male violence as emphasized by the feminists” (Stanko, 1985: 82). In this context, Stanko reminds the critique of ‘identity of powerlessness’ that feminist approach of Naomi Wolf attributes to women (Stanko, 1985).

The women’s fear of crime can be evaluated reasonably by feminist approach as feminist paradigms allow as such. However, the men’s fear of crime might be underestimated. Therefore, comparative studies by means of gender-free exit points may lead to more holistic results.

Additionally, Fetchenhauer and Buunk states that the gender differences with respect to fear of crime “may be the result of sexual selection that favoured risk-taking and status fights among males and being cautious

and protecting ones offspring among females” (Fetchenhauer and Buunk, 2005: 95). In other words, they put emphasis on the “gendered socialization processes of females and males” which they argue contributes to the fact that females are more fearful of crime than men (Fetchenhauer and Buunk, 2005). According to them,

a widely expected explanation of the ‘fear victimization paradox’ is that the higher tendency to engage in criminal activities among males as well as the higher fear of crime among females are both the result of differences in the socialization of boys and girls. In traditional families, boys learn to be assertive, risk-taking, and fearless whereas girls learn to be submissive, risk avoiding, and fearful (Fetchenhauer and Buunk, 2005: 99).

2.2.2.2.Age

According to many studies, the levels of fear of old people, just like women, have been found very high when compared to the rates of being a victim of a crime in reality. Vulnerability and feelings of fear increase together with age. “It is very probable that old people feel themselves more vulnerable compared to young people. However, results of studies on age and fear present contradictory findings according to some researchers” (Hale 1996). The reason of these contradictory findings is partially due to the fact that many researchers evaluate the fear of crime of old people without taking into account their probability of being a victim of crime on a limited scale (Fattah and Sacco 1989; Stafford and Gale 1984). In other words, while the probability of old people to be a victim of a crime due to their routine life styles is being checked, it can be seen that fear among old people is more proportional to the probability of being a victim of a crime in real life. Yet, the point on which general consensus is

reached is that degrees of fear of old people due to their physical vulnerability related to their ages are higher (Hale 1996; Garofalo 1982; Braungart et al. 1980). For instance, Clarks et al. (1985) state that “it is less probable for an old people to be victim of a crime” (Clarks et al.,1985). Baumer similarly puts forward that the real problem for old people is the fear of crime rather than current crimes (Baumer, 1985).

Since the level of actual crime and level of fear are inconsistent in respect of old people, it shall be more rational to ask at this point whether fear of crime is logical or not or in Lupton and Tulloch’s terms ‘rational or irrational (Lupton and Tulloch, 1999). Fattah and Sacco put forward two arguments related to the claims of irrationality; according to the first one of these arguments, “old people act based on fear more in places where the possibility of crime is higher; and this supports the idea that this fear can be deemed reasonable” (Fattah and Sacco, 1989). Lebosvitz found out that people with lower incomes possess higher fears of crime in their living environments, whereas people with higher incomes experience this fear less (Lebosvitz, 1975). Researchers state that old people living in downtown, where crime is more dominant, are more afraid of a crime; however they are less afraid in small towns or rural areas (Baumer, 1985; Lebowitz, 1975). This infers that the levels of fear of old people may be in harmony with a current level of threat and that their levels of fear are different in various environment conditions.

The general belief in the USA and maybe in many other societies is that old people drift away from external world and that they lock themselves in their houses (Braungart et al., 1978). Although Hale et al. (1990) examine the relation between age and fear of crime based on income, richness and the status of living alone or not, some other researchers (Jaycox, 1978; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Warr, 1984; Yin, 1982) state that the older you are the higher the fear of crime shall become.

Similarly, Warr explains the relation between the fear of crime and age including “differential sensitivity” about the risk as well (Warr, 1984). Differential sensitivity is related to the idea that individual levels on risk don't cause fear on exactly the same rate for all segments of the society. Warr relates this process to “perceptually contemporaneous” offenses which is an anomaly causing more serious crimes (Warr, 1984). The example that Warr uses in Seattle case is that people younger than 65 are not afraid of beggars. On the other hand, people older than 65 are afraid of beggars with the belief that this act of begging, which is indeed not that important, will cause more serious crimes (Warr, 1984).

2.2.2.3. Socioeconomic Status

It is expected that the relationship between race, income, education and fear of crime is concentrated on sub-groups. Studies in general propose that non-white, poor and poorly educated people are more afraid compared to white, rich and well educated people (Braungart et al., 1978; Covington and Taylor, 1991; Eve and Eve, 1984; Skogan and Maxfield,

1981). The cause of fear of crime in non-white, poor and poorly educated people might be environmental since they live in environments where crime rates are higher. A claim put forwards that people with low socioeconomic status shall protect themselves less both physically and socially. The monetary incapability of people to install additional locks or iron guardrails on their houses causes their anxiety to increase. If these people become a victim of a crime, they may not be able to combat with that sufficiently. Since their economic status may not be sufficient to learn their legal rights, hire a lawyer or buy new goods.

Ethnic minorities face racism. Non-white people feel more anxious since they lack trust and belief in political and judicial system. They might feel that the police are waiting to seize them outside and that the police shall not be interested if a non-white reports a crime. The feeling of helplessness prevents people in lower socioeconomic status from working together for a common interest in authorized positions.

Fear may increase social gaps between the rich and the poor; in other words, between those that are financially capable of methods defending themselves and preventing crimes and those are not financially capable of such methods (Cozens, 2000; Hale, 1996).

2.2.3. The Incivilities Theory

Terms of “social disorders and incivilities” and “physical disorders and incivilities” were put forward by Skogan and Maxfield for the first time in order to explain how importantly disordered physical and environment conditions lower the personal security perceptions (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). Ferrara and LaGrange (1987) and Mesch (2000) define physical disorders and incivilities as disordered physical environment such as unused property (for example wrecked places, deserted cars, broken glasses, graffiti and condemned houses). Disorders and incivilities are defined as “the infringement of social standards on a low level indicating that generally accepted values and norms have vanished” (LaGrange, Ferraro and Supancic, 1992: 312).

Social disorders and incivilities are related to “disordered social behaviors” (drinking, presence of beggars and stray people and presence of rude neighbors). The more people are surrounded by disordered conditions the more they attempt to show protective actions (Robinson et al., 2003). For this reason, physical and social disorders and incivilities may cause protective behaviors since people relate unpleasant environmental conditions with criminal activities (Phillips and Philip; 2003; Mesch, 2000; and Ross and Mirowsky, 2001). In comparing physical and social incivilities some researchers claim that social and physical incivilities have different effects on fear, arguing that social incivilities have a greater influence on fear (Rohe and Burby 1988; Wilson and Kelling 1982). If an evaluation is made among the social incivilities, it may be expected that

fear of crime caused by drunken people will be higher than the fear of crime to be caused by the noisy neighbors.

Wilson and Kelling proposed in their 'broken windows theory' that "social environment plays a significant role in the establishment of the social order and informal social control" (Wilson et.al., 1982). Broken windows theory assumes that some minor disorders -either social or physical- may cause major crimes and in this sense at the end may cause fear of crime. According to them, environmental improvements such as erasure of the graffiti and cleaning of vacant buildings will decrease the fear of crime (Wilson et.al., 1982). This theory was successfully applied by New York City Mayor Rudolph Guiliani in 1994. He implemented a community-policing strategy focusing on order maintenance including timely garbage collection and disposal, ban on the graffiti and so on. In the end, repair of the broken windows of the New York resulted in a decrease in the crime rate (Atasoy, 2007).

The argument that the awareness on disorder and incivilities increase crime receives support based on experience in the literature consistently. (Covington and Taylor 1991; Rohe and Burby 1988; Skogan and Maxfield 1981; Lewis and Salem 1986; Taylor and Hale 1986) Disorder and incivilities are indications of contradiction with laws and include elements such as stray young people, drunken adults, barbarism, ill behaviors, graffiti, thrashes, deserted buildings, drug trading, fights and incivilities.

On the other hand, Bursik and Grasmick argue that

disorders and incivilities indicate that norms are infringed for the residents of a place. Consequently, a certain disorder or incivility doesn't necessarily cause an event of crime (for example, stray young people might be waiting to go home very innocently). Disorder and incivility show that there is a defect in harmony with the society and can be interpreted as a pre-warning by the society against crime rates. (Bursik and Grasmick 1993; Stinchcombe et al. 1980).

In other words, disorders and incivilities indicate a threat (actual or perceived) that is predicted to increase fear. Additionally, if the person is continuously subject to threatening situations, fear might increase. That is, these people are faced with "social weakness" (Rohe and Burby 1988: 704).

Besides, the more people start to live in disordered environments and have to deal with foreign, stray or rebellious young people the higher their chances to increase their protective or preventive behaviors shall become (LaGrange, Ferraro and Supancic, 1992).

The level of disorder and incivility perceived in a society as mentioned above is acknowledged as an important factor in estimating the fear beforehand (Skogan and Maxfield 1981; Lewis and Maxfield 1980). As long as physical environment is perceived as threatening, levels of fear shall also be high very probably (Hale 1996). For that reason, "noisy neighbors and parties, graffiti, stray young people walking around the streets, drunk people, beggars in streets, thrash and debris, deserted

houses with wooden covers and broken glassed buildings may indicate that neighborhood relations have gotten worse, disordered and become unpredictable and threatening” (Hale 1996: 115).

Disorders and incivilities or indications of disorder are identified as either psychological or social disorder or incivility. Psychological disorder or incivilities category includes properties such as deserted buildings and also elements such as broken glasses, thrashes and graffiti. The category of social disorder and incivility, on the other hand, includes drunken people, stray young people, children demonstrating ill behaviors and prostitutes.

Although the abovementioned hypothesis puts forward that both social and physical disorders and incivilities cause fear of crime, some experts claim that social and physical disorders and incivilities have different effects on fear and that social disorders and incivilities stimulate fear even more (Rohe and Burby 1988; Wilson and Kelling 1982). The concept of disorder and incivility might be related to the number of individual groups (network) in a region and also with the authority to bring social order among the residents. For example, the concept of stray young people is related to the harmony of residents. According to Hale:

... the capacity of a society to control and supervise teenage peer groups is clearly related to the young groups hanging around. The young people hanging around in the surroundings comprise a certain part of individual perception of disorder and incivility in the region Hale (1996:39).

Following this logic, it is very probable that some social disorders and incivilities are more threatening compared to others. For instance, it is logical that fights and drug trading are more threatening compared to children acting badly. Therefore, it is assumed that disorders and incivilities with serious consequences are more effective compared to disorders and incivilities with less effective consequences.

This term (disorder and incivility) was first used by Hunter (1971) and has been used consistently by those researchers studying this subject (Hale, 1996). According to LaGrange et al. "disorder and incivility is defined as infringement of social standards in lower levels" (LaGrange et al. (1992: 312)

As long as disorder and incivility increase, the residents of a certain neighborhood start to think that social order shall collapse and that this collapse shall cause residents and visitors to be on alert (Skogan, 1990). The important question that is continuously studied is that whether this disorder and incivilities shall contribute to more serious fears among the residents or not.

2.2.4. Social Network Theory

The most recent research shows that individuals' fears are better understood within a neighbourhood or community context rather than by simply concentrating on individual characteristics (DuBow and Emmons, 1981; Hale, *et al.*, 1994; McPherson, 1978; Maxfield, 1984b, 1987; Taub, *et al.*, 1981, 1984). It is expected that a crime committed in a society has long term and wider social effects and consequences in addition to its direct effects on the victim. In other words, it is expected that not only the victim himself/herself but also the persons that are not directly the victim of a crime participate in the analyses of victimization. In the same manner, the intensity and quality of the relation of the person with other people in the society determines his/her fear of crime.

Mcgarrell et.al. argue the existing literature and focus on the facilitators of fear of crime mainly on the vulnerability, victimation and incivilities (Mcgarrell et.al., 1997). However, less attention has been given to some other potential inhibitors such as social control and social intergration. They relate the community policing movements with this theoretical development. "Increasing police and governmental responses to community members, as well as increasing social partnerships at the neighbourhood level, can reduce fear of crime and improve the quality of community life" (Mcgarrell et.al., 1997: 480-481).

Additionally, it might be thought that societies with strong social ties and cohesion are stronger in reacting to crime (Bursik and Grasmick 1993). In this context, it may be assumed that members of such societies feel safer. However on the other hand, it is also highly probable that the crime news travel fast in such societies, which in turn might increase the fear of crime of the people.

Researchers argue that fear of crime is a consequence of the erosion of order or social control within a local community (McGarell et al., 1997; Lewis and Salem 1986; Wilson, 1985). At this point, relations in the neighbourhood has significant role. When social control is successful, neighbourhoods maintain order, which helps to alleviate anxiety about crime. Lewis and Salem observed that fear “is a consequence of the erosion of social control as it is perceived by urban residents” (Lewis and Salem, 1986: xiv).

Social control is also indicative of the willingness of an individual to rely on his or her neighbours to help maintain the security of the neighbourhood (Wilson, 1985). However, existing evidence suggests that networks increase control in a community (Sampson et al. 1989) but also could allow for the spread of indirect victimization (Arnold 1991; Klecha and Bishop 1978; Skogan and Maxfield 1981; Gates and Rohe 1987). With regard to indirect victimization and the role of neighbourhood in this context Skogan find that crime messages can spread faster in tight-knit

communities. They state that “Neighbourhood-oriented rumor networks could be the main source of information for communities including crime news” (Skogan, 1986:211).

It would be appropriate to mention about the functionalist approach that takes Durkheim as its reference. As mentioned above, the assumption that social control and social solidarity is something that reduces crime and consequently the fear of crime constitutes the focal point of many researches.

However, according to Liska et.al “crime or the reaction to it (fear) does not bring people together; rather it constrains their social interaction, thereby undermining instead of building social solidarity and cohesiveness” (Liska et.al, 1991:1441). In other words, from the standpoint of fear of crime, the crime itself and the reaction to it is not something that ensures unity in a society, but in contrast something that increases fear of crime and undermines social solidarity and cohesiveness.

In their study, Liska et.al. mention Durkheimians’ assumption of functions of crime with regard to increasing social solidarity and social control as being a “*wax indignant*”. They argue that

Recent theory and research on the fear of crime has argued to the contrary that crime or the reaction to it (fear) does not bring people together. Instead, it constrains their social interaction to private places, making many of them prisoners in their own homes, thereby

undermining rather than building social solidarity and cohesiveness (Liska et.al, 1991:1460).

In view of this standpoint, they developed a fear of crime model and compared it to the functionalist model.

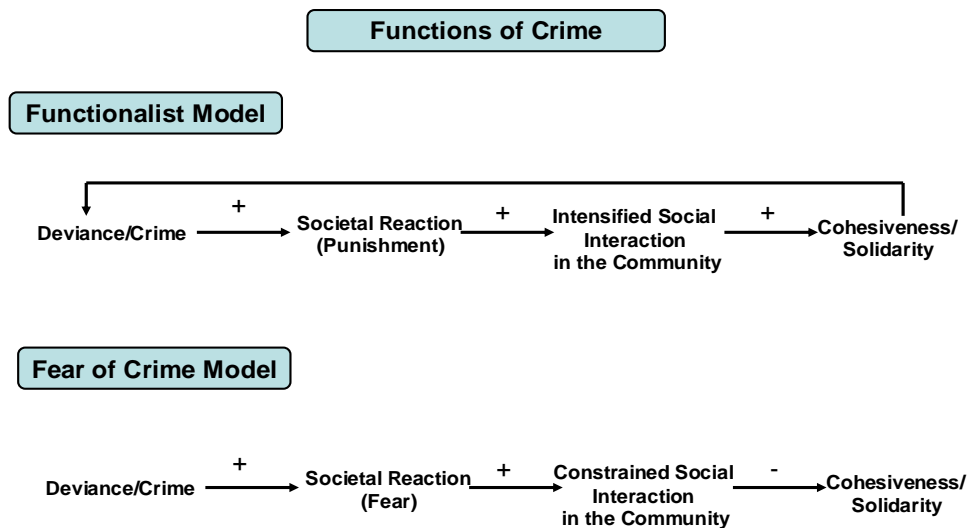


Figure 2. The consequences of deviance/crime for society (Liska et.al., 1991:1443)

Liska et. al argues that the reason the functionalist approach cannot explain the fear of crime model is because “Durkheim’s theory is mostly applicable to rural and highly cohesive societies with low crime rates” (Liska et.al, 1991:1460). In today’s modern societies, fear of crime, which is on a constant rise due to high crime rates, diminishing one-to-one social relationships and increasing insecurity, alienates individuals rather than unifying them. Therefore, fear of crime does not come out as an area

where the benefits of crime, as emphasized by Durkheim, can be observed.

2.2.5. Fear for Others

When a person fears that someone else may be the object of crime, it is labeled as *altruistic* fear (Madriz, 1997; Warr, 1992; Warr and Ellison, 2000). According to Warr and Ellison, “both men and women expressed altruistic fear, but in different ways. Women expressed more pronounced fear for their children (daughters most commonly)—*parental fear*—and men expressed greater fear for their wives—*spousal fear*” (Warr and Ellison, 2000). Tulloch adds to it by arguing that “people’s fear for their children; particularly their daughters could be greater than fear for themselves” (Tulloch, 2000).

The threat of crime and sexualized crime in particular, poses special challenges for parents who on the one hand are expected to ensure their children’s safety, but on the other to foster their independence, competence and self sufficiency (Tulloch, 2004: 14).

While this conflictive situation turning the parents into observers, causes the children develop the feeling of being under continuous control. The parents who want to bring up their children as independent individuals may prefer secretly watching over their children and keeping them under control. With regard to parental fear, certain means of technology serve

that purpose of the parents such mobile phones, GPRS devices, video cameras installed in the schools or in the kindergartens.

In more traditional societies that do not have such technological facilities, children can easily play in the street while children today are sent to parks or play yards within limited hours or they are taken to the school service buses accompanied by a supervisor.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will present the methodological techniques used in the research. This chapter, comprising of sub-heading such as sampling, pilot study, training of surveyors, application of questionnaire, data entry and challenges faced with during the field survey, summarizes the stages of the field research carried out to obtain a data set on which the theoretical discussions summarized in the pages above will be analyzed.

A field work was carried out in this study which started off with the basic assumption of determining how the attitudes and behaviors of individuals pertaining to crime and fear of crime come about. Survey was chosen as research method. In this study, a questionnaire with 45 questions was prepared with the aim of analyzing and socially interpreting demographic determinants such as age, gender, education, income level as well as other determinants affecting the fear of becoming a victim of crime such as trust in police, victimization experience, neighborhood and solidarity, perception of crime, physical and social incivilities and so on.

The questionnaire was based on the dependent variable of fear of crime and was composed of seven parts aiming to test different variables. First of all, some questions were asked with the aim of determining the demographic characteristics of respondents. In the first part of the survey, which also included questions like gender, age, education, income, etc.,

the determinants that shall bring about the profile of fear of crime were used. In the second part of the questionnaire, some statements were asked to respondents and they were questioned to what extent they agreed with conclusive sentences. In these questions, Likert scale was applied. Likert scale, named after Rensis Likert, is the most widely used scale in survey research. When responding to a Likert questionnaire item, respondents specify their level of agreement to a statement (Bailey, 1982). The second part was composed of questions that were expected to comprise the independent variable of "fear of crime". Basic reference points of theories and models such as victimization (direct-indirect), vulnerability (physical – social), social network, neighborhood relations, incivilities, etc. that are also mentioned in the literature were used as source of these questions. Afterwards, there are questions to test respondents' fear of crime levels with respect to various crimes. Next there is a section to incivilities perceptions of respondents about their neighbourhood area. Additionally, questions were addressed to learn about the direct and indirect victimization experiences of the respondents. In the next part, the respondents were asked questions on their neighborhood relations. The following part includes the questions about hypothetical situations oriented at finding out how they will react when the respondents witness a crime. In the last part, questions were asked related to what the respondents think about the reasons of crime and the fight with crime.

3.1. Sampling

500 respondents were foreseen as sample size in the study planned to be conducted in the province of Ankara. As it is also mentioned above, it is assumed that there are many factors determining the approach of individuals on the subject of crime. The socioeconomic status differences that can be counted among such factors are included in this study. It is assumed that individuals from different socio-economic statuses might approach the subject of fear of crime differently as well.

An application was made to the Department of Household Research of Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK) for the sampling selection. The samples in this study were chosen upon this application which includes the request to determine sample with the aim of surveying minimum 500 respondents from Altındağ and Çankaya districts of Ankara. It was also requested that the sampling shall include quarters of lower socio-economic status of Altındağ and quarters of higher socio-economic status of Çankaya. The Turkish Statistical Institution has determined the sampling based on the development levels of the quarters in the specified districts.

Turkish Statistical Institute provided houses from 10 quarters of both Altındağ and Çankaya with two substitute addresses for each quarter. Following the identification of addresses, it became necessary to receive permits from Ankara Police Department and Governor's Office for the implementation of surveys. Necessary permits were received in order to

carry out surveys by three surveyors between August 1st and August 24th 2008 and the field study was carried out between these dates.

3.2. Pilot Study

After the questionnaire was developed, pilot study was undertaken in order to determine the validity of the questionnaire first week of August in 2008. Pilot study is very important both in respect of determining whether the questions in the questionnaire work well at the field work in real life and also in respect of providing related information to the researchers about the problems that might be encountered in the field since it is a small scale pre-study of the basic research. Some arrangements were made on certain questions at the end of the pilot study and the implementation phase of the study started. First of all 15 pilot surveys were conducted in Altındağ and Çankaya districts. Thus, the problems in implementation were seen and new arrangements were applied in some questions. During the fieldwork, 530 individuals were surveyed. If this survey is to be evaluated over questions, no serious problem was encountered in respect of understanding the questions. Interviews were held face-to-face, questions were explained by the surveyors, necessary explanations were made to the respondents before the questions and answers were marked by the surveyor on the questionnaire.

3.3. Training of Surveyors

Training was organized for 3 students chosen from 1st and 4th grades of the Department of Sociology of Middle East Technical University in order to collect data and training took two days between 19th and 20th July 2008. In this training, the purpose of the study was discussed and necessary information was given related to the method of the study. Moreover, the surveyors were reminded of issues that they should be aware of related to the choice of address and they were requested to present their problems and observations that they encounter during implementation in daily reports.

3. 4. Field Study and Data Entry

A group of surveyors held face-to-face interviews with respondents. Data collection was limited to six hours and 10 questionnaires at most. Thus, an optimum working schedule was tried to be established for surveyors. The writer of this thesis worked as the site coordinator at the phase of data collection. The site coordinator accompanied and observed surveyors during the study so that the study is conducted smoothly. Surveyors and site coordinator held evaluation meetings at the end of each implementation day and ensured that the study was conducted smoothly by determining and correcting the deficiencies.

Throughout this study, totally 510 surveys were achieved et the end. After the implementation of the questionnaire, a database was prepared and

data were recorded by using SPSS 12.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software programme. After possible wrong inputs and internal consistency were checked, data were clarified from errors and rendered ready for analysis. In the following sections presented are the detailed discussions and evaluations of the analyses of the data obtained.

3.5. Limitations of the Study

There were some limitations during field study implementation. The most serious problem was to persuade people to participate in the survey. What should be stated before making a comparison between the districts of Altındağ and Çankaya is that surveyors went to the offices of the quarter headmans (muhtar) first, informed them about the study by showing their official permits given by the police and requested their approval to conduct the study in their quarters. Especially in Altındağ district, either the headman or an assistant of him accompanied the surveyors most of the time.

When application was made to the Board of Ethics of Human Researches of Middle East Technical University, it was stated that respondents shall not be requested to give voluntary participation form before the implementation of the survey. Even though the perception of crime and the fear of becoming a victim of a crime were studied, it was stated in the application that it wasn't going to be easy to hear the opinions of people in such a sensitive issue like "crime" and that the willingness of respondents

was going to be confirmed orally. This assumption was also confirmed during field study.

Some of the persons in designated addresses reacted by saying “we did not commit any crime” or “we have nothing to do with the police” as soon as they heard the subject and rejected to participate in the survey. Even though the questionnaire is filled after the brief explanation to the respondent to include who the researcher is, what is the purpose of the study, what is expected from the respondents and how long it will take, that the participation is on the voluntary basis and that there will not be any negative outcome due to participation or rejection of participation in the study, how the information will be protected, the above mentioned reactions were encountered and this is an interesting point that should be treated with scientific examination in respect of the contents of the subject as well.

It is possible to say that participation in the survey in Altındağ district was higher and individuals were more willing to answer the questions. Almost every respondent stated that they believe that their opinions would reach somewhere and they might contribute to the solution even though they understood that the study was conducted for scientific and academic purposes. Moreover, it was also observed that the subject of crime was included in the agenda of respondents in Altındağ district more and they had a relatively higher level of awareness of the victimization of crime

encountered in their neighborhood. Of course those above mentioned observations must be tested in order to overlap with the subject matter of this study. The equality of gender, which is one of the variables in the study, was reached more in Altındağ district. Since most of the men that didn't have regular jobs were at home, though, the participation of women was lower.

Physical conditions of the houses in that district enabled the surveyors to make more observations related to the subject of the study and gave them an opportunity to talk more with the respondents before and after the survey. The respondents that spent their times in gardens welcomed the surveyors, seated them and thus surveyors worked under much more comfortable physical conditions.

In Çankaya district, the level of participation was lower than expected and therefore second substitute addresses had to be visited most of the time. It was a frequent case that the potential respondents couldn't be reached most of the time due to reasons such as the survey being conducted in summer and people being on holiday. It was possible to reach the apartments only after making necessary explanations to the security personnel, apartment attendants and managers at entry to high security residential blocks. However, it might also be stated that some of the people living in Çankaya district were unwilling to take part in such a scientific study. The "anxiety of security" that they mentioned overlaps with

the "fear of crime" which is the subject of this study. It can be expected that a scientific study that is conducted in a university means much more for the people living in this district, where income and education level is higher, however this was not the case. At the entry of buildings where no apartment attendant was present, the security devices such as door security cameras, doors with passwords did not even permit surveyors to talk to the individuals face to face. Another fact that should be mentioned about Çankaya district is that there were notifications hanging on some apartments' doors reading "beggars, sellers, data collectors can't enter". In many addresses, surveyors talked to apartment attendants first, explained the survey and reached the respondents only after taking their permission. So it was understood that apartment attendants were assigned with security services in addition to their apartment services. So the headmen that accompanied the surveyors in Altındağ district were replaced by apartment attendants in Çankaya district.

As an anecdote; a security alarm that was triggered in a building in Çankaya caused surveyors to encounter hard times. An old woman living in the building called the apartment attendant and the manager and informed them about a possible "burglary" due to "strangers" in the building. In this respect, the permit certificates that surveyors carried were very useful both for the security of surveyors and the safety of the study. Regarding the gender issue, the surveyors interviewed were mainly retired

men or housewives in Çankaya district as well as adult men that worked regularly but were on holiday since it was summer time.

It is worth mentioning that Çankaya district phase of this study was accomplished with much more difficulty as it was not always easy to have access to the houses and residential blocks. In most cases, the concern for security of the people caused the surveyors to be rejected at the first hand just in concurrence with the very subject of this study. The respondents in this district refused any interview with the strangers and rejected any request through intercom systems or without even opening the door. The strategy against this limitation was to visit the substitute addresses.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The study on fear of crime was conducted in two districts in the province of Ankara, Turkey. The districts and the distribution of respondents according to districts are shown in the following table.

Table 1: The Districts where the data were collected

District	Frequency	Percent
Altındağ	255	50.0
Çankaya	255	50.0
Total	510	100.0

In this study, which was conducted in Altındağ and Çankaya districts, face-to-face interview technique was used and survey method was implemented. Interviews were held in 620 houses in total in 20 quarters that were designated during the selection of samples. 50 percent of these houses were located in Altındağ and 50 percent were located in Çankaya district. The interpretations to be discussed in the following sections reflect the information from 510 respondents that were interviewed in the houses the numbers of which were given above.

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

In order to acknowledge the universe of the research, we need to provide the demographic characteristics of the respondents so that we can generalize the results of the research to similar groups of people. Upon

the analysis of responses to these questions, the overall demographic profile of respondents was obtained as follows.

Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (N=510)

Indicators		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	250	51
	Male	260	49
Origin	City	294	58.0
	Province	139	27.4
	Village	74	14.6
Marital Status	Married	359	70.4
	Single	106	20.8
	Divorced	18	3.5
	Widowed	27	5.3
Educational Background	Illiterate	26	5.1
	Literate	12	2.4
	Primary school	122	23.9
	Secondary school	57	11.2
	High school	103	20.2
	University	190	37.3
Indicators	Indicators	Mean	Standard Deviation
	Age	41.6	13.0
	Number of Children	1.7	1.5
	Time spent in Ankara (year)	27.1	13.6
	Time spent in the same house (year)	14.2	11.8

As it is stated above, the questionnaire applied in this study is composed of sections aiming to test different variables. The first one of these is composed of 11 questions with the aim of determining the demographic

characteristics of respondents. In the following sections, the data pertaining to the demographic characteristics of respondents shall be presented.

Gender

According to the table above; about 49 percent of the subjects participating in our research were male and about 51 percent of the subjects were female. The aim to have a balance in terms of gender of respondents seems to be reached according to data. It may be due to the fact that the men in Altındağ district were not working and the men in Çankaya district were at home due to summer season that equality was achieved in gender distribution that was aimed in the study. Especially the men at home in Altındağ district were more willing to participate in the survey, however one of the reasons for such willingness was that it was believed that if there is something to be done, man of the house is the person who should do it. Most of the time women asked for the permission of men to take part in the survey, even on the phone.

Origin

When we look at the birth places of respondents, more than half of the respondents were born in city centers and this rate is about 58 percent. Only 14.6 percent of respondents were born in villages. Especially the respondents that were born in villages or towns and that moved to city

center later on stated that city centers were more dangerous and that they experienced fear of crime less in villages, towns or small places.

Marital Status

When the marital status of respondents is examined, it is understood that 70.4 percent is married while 20.8 percent is single. 8.8 percent of the remaining respondents are either divorced or their spouses passed away. Although the number of persons living in the household is not asked in the questionnaire, it can be assumed that married people – if we don't take into account the presence of children – have the fear that at least their spouses might be a victim of a crime apart from themselves.

Educational Background

The information in the table above reflects the distribution of respondents according to their educational background. Accordingly, 5.1 percent of the individuals that participated in the study are illiterate. 2.4 percent of these individuals, on the other hand, are literate however they don't have any diploma. 23.9 percent of the individuals graduated from elementary school, 11.2 percent from secondary school and 20.2 percent from high school. College and university graduates comprise 37.3 percent of the respondents.

Age

The survey was aimed to be conducted to the respondents above the age of 18. Ages of the respondents vary between 18 and 71. All of the age groups within this age range are represented in the study. And the average age of the respondents is 41.6.

Number of Children

When the number of children of the respondents is taken into account, it is seen that 30 percent don't have any child whereas remaining 70.0 percent have at least one child. It can be said that these results are important in respect of analyzing the "parental fear of crime" case which is discussed in the literature widely.

Time Spend in Ankara and in the Same House

When the periods that respondents spend in the same house are observed, it was observed that these periods vary between 1 month and 59 years. As it is also mentioned above, neighborhood relations and physical and social incivilities observed in the area are the factors determining the fear of crime. In this context, it can be assumed that the time spent in the same house might affect neighborhood relations and this might have an effect on the fear of crime.

4.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

This is the section where the information related to socio-economic characteristics of respondents was compiled. This section has four sub-sections. It starts with "Education" and "Employment Status" and continues with "Occupation" and "Income" sections and shall include detailed analyses on education, employment status, occupation and income of respondents. From the very beginning of this study, it has been argued that individuals from different socio-economic statuses might have different levels of fear of crime. For this reason, education and income comparison from socio-economic status determinants shall be conducted at the level of quarters, in other words, there will be comparative analyses for Altındağ and Çankaya districts at different points.

4.2.1. Education

It is interpreted that education, which could be accepted as one of the determinants of socio-economic status that are discussed above between individual differences, is one of the factors affecting the fear of crime. Comparison of districts in order to reach the target of understanding the fear of crime of people from different socio-economic statuses, which is one of the fundamental discussions of our study, was added to the analysis at this point.

Table 3: Levels of Education for respondents by Districts (Chi-Square,%)

Levels of Education		Districts		Total
		Altındağ	Çankaya	
Illiterate	N	26	0	26
	%	10.2%	0%	5.1%
Literate	N	12	0	12
	%	4.7%	0%	2.4%
Primary School	N	122	0	122
	%	47.8%	0%	23.9%
Secondary School	N	51	6	57
	%	20.0%	2.4%	11.2%
High School	N	43	60	103
	%	16.9%	23.5%	20.2%
University	N	1	189	190
	%	0.4%	74.1%	37.3%
Total	N	255	255	510
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square=384.35

df=5

p=0.001

When we look at the table above, it is found that there is a statistically significant difference between the educational backgrounds according to the districts. (Chi-Square=384.35; df=5; p=0.001). When we consider the educational background of respondents from Altındağ district, it is seen that elementary school graduates constitute the highest percentage (62.7 percent). On the other hand, the respondents from Çankaya district are mostly high school and university graduates (97.6 percent). At this point, it can be interpreted that the differences in educational background in this study are supported by regional differences.

4.2.2. Employment Status

In this study, it was also preferred to include employment status in the analysis in detail. Especially when it is evaluated that unemployment rates are very high, employment status can be considered to be a data affecting income and consequently socio-economic status. For this respect, a series of questions were posed to respondents regarding their employment status. These questions were designed to depict respondents' employment status. Respondents were asked whether they had any regular or temporary jobs - including home jobs. Responses are presented below;

Table 4: Employment Status of the Respondents (N=510)

Employment Status	Frequency	Percent
Yes, I do have a job	201	39.4
No, I am retired	108	21.2
No, I am unemployed	188	36.9
I am retired, but I have another job	13	2.5
Total	510	100.0

The number of unemployed persons in Turkey increased by 202 thousand when compared to the same period of the previous year and reached 2 millions 353 thousand people in 2008. Unemployment rate reached 9.4 percent with an increase of 0.6 points. Unemployment rate in urban areas reached 11.9 percent with an increase of 0.7 points, whereas the same rate in rural areas reached 5.6 percent with an increase of 0.2 points

(TÜİK, 2008). According to the results of general census in 2007, unemployment rate in Ankara province is 11.8 percent (TÜİK, 2008). When the districts where the study was conducted are taken into account, it is seen that they are over the average of Turkey. According to results, 36.9 percent of respondents are unemployed while 41.9 percent of them have a job.

As it has been mentioned above for various times, this study shall prefer analysis methods analyzing the factors determining the fear of crime. Since the study shall be conducted in Altındağ and Çankaya districts, analyses are being conducted on the basis of these districts as well. At this point, Altındağ-Çankaya districts have been compared in respect of employment status and the results are given in the following table.

Table 5: Employment Status Distribution of respondents by Districts (Chi square, %)

Districts		Employment Status				Total
		Yes, I do have a job	No, I am retired	No, I am unemployed	I am retired, but I have another job	
Altındağ	N	53	43	153	6	255
	%	20.8%	16.9%	60.0%	2.4%	100.0%
Çankaya	N	148	65	35	7	255
	%	58.0%	25.5%	13.7%	2.7%	100.0%
Total	N	201	108	188	13	510
	%	39.4%	21.2%	36.9%	2.5%	100.0%

Chi-square= 123.5

df= 3

p=0.0001

When we look at the table above, it is found that there is a statistically significant difference in respect of employment status according to the districts. (Chi-Square=123.5; df=3; p=0.0001). The point that should be interpreted in this analysis is that employment rates of respondents from Altındağ and Çankaya districts are compared rather than employment status of respondents. While 20.8 percent of respondents from Altındağ have a job, this rate is 58.0 percent in Çankaya. When we look at the unemployment rates, we can see an exact contradiction. The difference that is 3 times in employment rate is approximately 5 times in unemployment rates.

4.2.3. Occupation

The occupational classification of respondents was listed according to The International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88). The International Standard Classification of Occupations is a tool for organizing jobs into a clearly defined set of groups according to the tasks and duties undertaken in the job. "ISCO organizes the occupations in a hierarchical order. This is the most widely used occupational classification system that has been developed in order to facilitate the international comparison of occupational data" (Karakaya 2006:144-147).

The respondents were asked to define their jobs if they were working at the time of the survey. The answers obtained from the respondents were included in the analysis after being classified according to ISCO-88. In the

graphic below, the distribution of the occupational classification of respondents is presented.

It can be seen that respondents are distributed to various occupational classes. While 34.83 percent are professionals and manegerials, 7.96 percent of the respondents are unskilled workers.

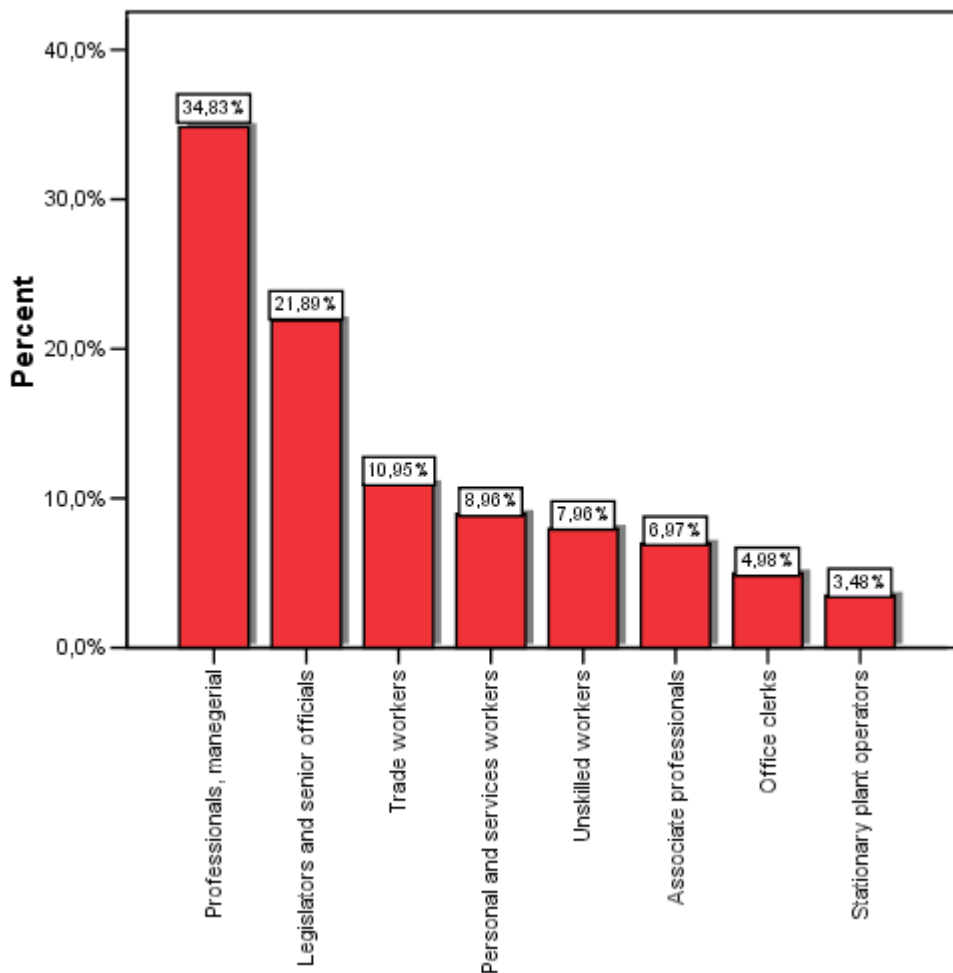


Figure 3. Occupation of Respondents

The comparative analysis of the Altındağ – Çankaya districts on the variables of education and employment status has also been applied on the occupation variable, of which the results are given below.

Table 6: Occupational Distribution for respondents by Districts (Chi square, %)

Occupation		District		Total
		Altındağ	Çankaya	
Legislators and senior officials	N	2	42	44
	%	3.6%	29.0%	21.9%
Professionals and manegerials	N	0	70	70
	%	0.0%	48.3%	34.8%
Associate professionals	N	0	14	14
	%	0.0%	9.7%	7.0%
Office clerks	N	4	6	10
	%	7.1%	4.1%	5.0%
Personal and service workers	N	11	7	18
	%	19.6%	4.8%	9.0%
Trade workers	N	20	2	22
	%	35.7%	1.4%	10.9%
Stationary plant operators	N	4	3	7
	%	7.1%	2.1%	3.5%
Unskilled workers	N	15	1	16
	%	26.8%	0.7%	8.0%
Total	N	56	145	201
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square= 136

df= 7

p=0.0001

The aim of this analysis is to compare the respondents in respect of employment status and also occupational classification on the basis of Altındağ and Çankaya districts. When we look at the table above, it is found that there is a statistically significant difference in respect of occupational classification according to the districts (Chi-Square=136; df=7; p=0.0001).

It is seen from the table above that the respondents in Çankaya occupy higher occupational classes. For instance, nearly half of the respondents living in Çankaya (48.3 percent) are professional occupation members. However, there is no respondent of this survey in Altındağ that is a member of a professional occupational class. On the other hand, the respondents occupied with jobs related to craftsmanship, which could be accepted as a lower occupational position, comprise 35.7 percent of the respondents living in Altındağ, while only 2 persons in Çankaya belonged to such class. A similar picture is observed in jobs that do not require any qualification. While 26.8 percent of the respondents in Altındağ district were included in that occupational class, this ratio was only 0.7 percent in Çankaya district. In this context, it can be concluded that the respondents in Çankaya district are from higher occupational classes whereas those from Altındağ district are from such occupational classes that do not require much qualification or expertise.

4.2.4. Income

One of the socioeconomic status determinants in a society is income. It shall be discussed as a socioeconomic status determinant in this study as well. According to a study conducted by Turkish Statistical Institution (TÜİK), approximately 0.54 percent of the individuals in Turkey in 2007 were found to be under the hunger threshold being unable to meet their basic food spending whereas 18.56 percent lived under the poverty threshold which included food and non-food spending (Radikal Newspaper, December 6th 2008). TÜİK determined the monthly hunger threshold of a family with 4 members as 237 TL and poverty threshold as 619 TL for the year 2007 (Radikal Newspaper, December 6th 2008, Arun 2008).

Table 7: Income Distribution of the Respondents (N=510)

Income	
Mean	2340.823
Median	1500.000
Mod	600.00
Std.Dev	2027.624
Minimum Income	251.00
Maximum Income	10000,00
Total Income	1.154.026

The respondents were asked to state their monthly net income. What is meant by "monthly net income" here is the total monthly income that enters the house. The average monthly income declared by the respondents was 234 TL (Standard Deviation = 202). Total monthly

income of respondents varies between 251 TL and 10000 TL. Considering the fact that the hunger threshold of a family with 4 members is 237 TL and poverty threshold is 619 TL according to the research conducted by TÜİK in 2007, it shall not be wrong to conclude that the respondents are living even below the hunger threshold.

Table 8: Categorical Income Distribution of the Respondents (N=510)

Income Range	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
251-400	11	2.2	2.2	2.2
401-600	98	19.2	19.9	22.1
601-750	50	9.8	10.1	32.3
751-1000	64	12.5	13.0	45.2
1001-1250	7	1.4	1.4	46.7
1251-1500	20	3.9	4.1	50.7
1501+	243	47.6	49.3	100.0
Total	493	96.7	100.0	
Total	510	100.0	100.0	

The first starting point in the discussion of the poverty of any community is the determination of a poverty threshold for that community (Arun et al., 2009). In this study, the same starting point was used and the poverty threshold for Turkey was taken as basis. The income levels of

respondents are presented within certain ranges in the table above. When we look at the income range of houses from the results of the study, we see that 21.4 percent are within the range of 600 TL and below, 22.3 percent are within 601-1000 TL range, 5.3 percent are within 1000-1500 TL range and 47.6 percent are within the range of 1501 TL and above.

The comparison of fear of crime of people from different socioeconomic statuses, which is one of the basic discussion points of the study, was conducted on the basis of Altındağ and Çankaya districts. At this point, the income level of respondents from different districts is compared in the following table.

Table 9: Income Distribution for respondents by Districts (Chi square, %)

Income		Districts		Total
		Altındağ	Çankaya	
251-400	N	11	0	11
	%	4.6%	0.0%	2.2%
401-600	N	98	0	98
	%	41.0%	0.0%	19.9%
601-750	N	50	0	50
	%	20.9%	0.0%	10.1%
751-1000	N	63	1	64
	%	26.4%	0.4%	13.0%
1001-1250	N	6	1	7
	%	2.5%	0.4%	1.4%
1251-1500	N	9	11	20
	%	3.8%	4.3%	4.1%
	N	2	241	243

1501+	%	0.8%	94.9%	49.3%
Total	N	239	254	493
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-square= 457.867

df= 6

p=0.0001

When we look at the table above, it is found that there is a statistically significant difference in respect of income according to the quarters. (Chi-Square=457; df=6; p=0.0001). When the table is examined, we see that the respondents from Altındağ district are dominantly from the range of 1000 TL and below (92.9 percent). On the other hand, respondents from Çankaya district are dominantly included in the range of 1501 TL and above (99.2 percent).

4.3. Fear of Crime and Related Variables

The questionnaire used in the field work was prepared in order to obtain both observed and latent variables. While there are observed variables in the questionnaire such as gender, age, income, etc., there are also latent variables with the aim of measuring the victimization experiences of respondents or their level of trust to police that can be measured by turning a series of question into index variable which can not be solved with a single question.

As applied to existing data some variables such as gender, age and income have been directly used and some other variables have been examined by changing as an index. The variables which are used for

analysis in this research are given in Table 10 and the details of the latent variables which are recoded for index value can be followed in Table 11 below. Following the tables, these variables are used in the analyses for hypotheses tests and for the determinants of fear of crime analysis.

Table 10: Latent Variables

Variables (Fear of Crime Theories)	Questions compromising latent variables	Index
Direct Victimization (Q.26)	a) Car theft	Index=a+b+c+d+e+f+g+h+i+j+k+l (0-12) 0:No-1:Yes Victimization is directly proportional with the index value (The higher the index value, the higher the victimization)
	b) Stolen goods/belongings from car	
	c) Motorcycle, scooter, motorbike theft	
	d) Burglary into house	
	e)Usurpation/Mugging	
	f) Fraud	
	g) Battery	
	h) Verbal or actual sexual harassmt	
	i) Menace	
	j) Stealing by snatching	
	k) IT- Computer crimes	
l) Other		
Property crime victimizations (Q.26)	a) Car theft	Index= a+b+c+d+e (0-5) 0:No-1:Yes Property crime victimizaiton is directly proportional with the index value (The higher the index value, the higher the property crime victimization)
	b) Stolen goods/belongings from car	
	c) Motorcycle, scooter, motorbike theft	
	d) Burglary into house	
	e) Usurpation/Mugging	
Personal	f) Fraud	Index= f+g+h+i+j+k (0-6)

Crime victimizations (Q.26)	g) Battery	0:No-1:Yes Personal crime victimization is directly proportional with the index value(The higher the index value, the higher the personal crime victimization)
	h) Verbal or actual sexual harassment	
	i) Menace	
	j) Stealing by snatching	
	k) IT- Computer crimes	
Indirect Victimization (Q.24)	a) Car theft	Index=a+b+c+d+e+f+g+h+i+j+k+l (0-12) 0:No-1:Yes Indirect victimization is directly proportional with the index value (The higher the index value, the higher the indirect victimization)
	b) Stolen goods/belongings from car	
	c) Motorcycle, scooter, motorbike theft	
	d) Burglary into house	
	e) Usurpation/Mugging	
	f) Fraud	
	g) Battery	
	h) Verbal or actual sexual harassment	
	i) Menace	
	j) Stealing by snatching	
	k) IT- Computer crimes	
Belief in Policing (Q.12.2,Q12.7)	a) Recently, the police are quite successful in the fight against the crime	Index= a+b/2 (1-5) (1: Strongly agree-5: Strongly disagree) Believing in policing is inversely proportional with the index value (The higher the index value, the lower the belief in policing)
	b) Seeing the police around assures me	
Incivilities (Q22,Q23)	a) Breaking car windows	Index= a+b+c+d+e/5 (1-4) (1:Often-4:Never) Incivilities is inversely proportional with the index value (The higher the index value, the lower the incivilities)
	b) Vandalization of bus stops	
	c) Dropping litter in the street	
	d) Various graffiti, pictures on the walls	
	e) Within the recent year, how often have you met with / seen drunken people or thinner-addict children in the neighborhood you live?	

Fear of Crime (FOC) (Q.12.4,Q12.5, Q12.6)	a) I feel safe in my neighbourhood	$\text{Index} = \frac{a+b+c}{3(1-5)}$ (1: Strongly agree-5: Strongly disagree) FOC is directly proportional with the index value (The higher the index value, the higher the FOC)
	b) I feel safer during the day time	
	c) The place I feel safest is my house	

Table 11: Variables and Characteristics of Respondents

Indicators		%	Mean	Std.dev	(Range)
Gender	Female	51			
	Male	49			
Marital Status	Married	70.4			
	Single	20.8			
	Divorced	3.5			
	Widow	5.3			
Number of Children			1.7	1.5	
Age			41.6	13.0	
Origin	City	58.0			
	Province	27.4			
	Village	14.6			
Time spent in Ankara (year)			27.1	13.6	
Time spent in the same house (year)			14.2	11.8	
Education	Illiterate	5.1			
	Literate	2.4			
	Primary school	23.9			
	Secondary school	11.2			
	High school	20.2			
	University	37.3			
Employment Status	Yes, I do have a job	39.4			
	No, I am retired	21.2			
	No, I am unemployed	36.9			
	I am retired, but I have another job	2.5			

Income			234	202	251-10000
			0.5	0.76	0-12
Direct Victimization	None	62.2			
	1	29.2			
	2	6.3			
	3	1.4			
	4	0.8			
	5	0.2			
Property crime victimizations			0.3	0.61	0-5
	None	74.9			
	1	20.2			
	2	3.5			
	3	1.2			
	4	0.2			
Personal Crime victimizations			0.1	0.47	0-6
	None	85.1			
	1	13.1			
	2	1.2			
	3	0.2			
	4	0.4			
Indirect Vicvtimization			2.7	2.23	0-12
	None	18.2			
	1	16.3			
	2	14.5			
	3	19.4			
	4	11.0			
	5	9.2			
	6	5.5			
	7	2.2			
	8	1.6			
	9	1.2			
	10	1.0			
	11	0.8			
12	0.4				
Belief in Policing			2.3915	0.96688	1-5
Incivilities			3.0575	0.74318	1-4
Fear of Crime (FOC)			1.7850	0.76829	1-5

4.3.1. Direct Victimization

The participants were asked questions about 12 types of crime in order to understand whether they have been the victim of any crime or not in general. In the index table above, the index values established over these crime types are included. As it has been mentioned before, a victimization experienced by individuals previously has been discussed in various studies as a factor increasing fear of crime. When the data collected in this study are evaluated in general, it can be seen that most of the participants of the study had not been a victim of a crime (62.2 percent). However, if we need to interpret this result in another way, 37.8 percent of the participants have been a victim of a crime at least once (1, 2, 3, 4, 5 victimization).

4.3.2. Property Crime Victimization

A differentiation has been made between crime types as property crimes and personal crimes among the crime types evaluated above. It is seen that 74.9 percent of them are not a victim of a property crime. In the same manner, 25.1 percent of the participants have been a victim of a property crime at least once.

4.3.3. Personal Crime Victimization

The purpose of asking various crime types to participants is to discuss how their victimization due to property crimes or personal crimes affects their fear of crime. The comparative analysis between crime types shall be

made in the following pages. However, when the victimization of crime types committed against life in general is evaluated, it is seen that 85.1 percent have not been a victim of a personal crime. On the other hand, 14.9 percent of the participants have been a victim of a personal crime at least once.

4.3.4. Indirect Victimization

It is not the only condition for a person to be a victim of a crime himself/herself for the fear of crime to exist. Most of the times the news of crime heard from the friends and neighbours might cause fear of crime in individuals. The importance of mass media has been mentioned in the previous chapters. The news in the media related to crime cause the individual to be afraid of crime as if he/she shall be the victim of such crime even though he or she doesn't have the potential of such crime victimization in reality and he or she still takes necessary precautions. For this reason, the participants were asked about which types of victimizations they heard from their neighbours or friends. When the results are analyzed, it has been found that 18.2 percent of the participants are not aware of any crime news in their neighborhood. On the other hand, it has been found that 81.8 percent of participants are aware of at least one crime incidence.

4.3.5. Belief in Policing

As it has been mentioned above, it is possible to evaluate the findings of studies on fear of crime in many areas and in many disciplines. It is especially expected that these findings form a basis for policing studies.

For instance, “community policing” activities that are widely implemented in western countries take into account the findings of fear of crime studies. In addition to the attitudes of police against the society, the attitude of the society against the police and their belief in the police are closely related to their degree of fear of crime. In other words, the way that the society perceives the success of police in combating with crimes is a factor increasing or decreasing the fear of crime. At that point, the variable for belief in policing has been included in the analysis as well.

As it can be understood from the index table above, Likert type scale was used here. The average values obtained here shall be interpreted in such a way to meet the following ranges.

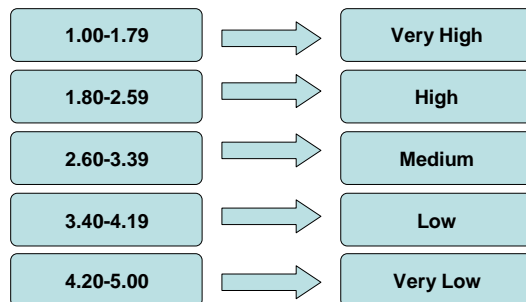


Figure 4: Likert Scale

Belief in policing, when evaluated according to the scale above, is high for participants. In other words, belief in policing average of participants has been calculated as 2.39. This average is listed in the high level range in

the scale above. Factors such as policing activities that have changed a lot in recent years increase in the importance placed by the police in public relations and better understanding of the role of police by the public in combating with crimes can be evaluated as reasons of increase in this belief.

4.3.6. Incivilities

It is discussed that physical or social disorders that are cited as incivilities are important factors in increasing the fear of crime. Noisy young people, graffiti or thrashes around the street can cause that neighborhood to be defined as a potential crime region and affect the fear of crime of the dwellers.

The frequencies of incivilities were examined in the data set at hand. For this respect, the participants were asked how frequently they experience incivilities. Frequency values are stated in the index table above. Accordingly, frequency values vary between *1-often* and *4-never*. Incivilities diminish while approaching 4-never which is the average value upper limit, and increase while approaching 1-often which is the lower limit. When we look at the average incivilities value of participants, it is found to be 3.05. When the table is evaluated in accordance with these findings, it is seen that incivilities rates are low.

When we consider Altındağ district, we see that infrastructure failures that cause thrashes to pile up in the district and also deserted buildings or

presence of old shanty houses are considered to be incivilities by the individuals. In other words, the dwellers of the district are not inured to such status.

4.4. Empirical Test of Fear of Crime Theories

In the previous pages, the features of the data set have been defined. In the following part, hypotheses shall be established over some of the points discussed in the literature and these shall be tested.

From a sociological standpoint of view, a social reality can not be explained by one single variable. For instance, interpreting a sociological reality only over variables such as age and education will cause incomplete results in general. We are aware that in the analyses of age or education factor, one needs the support of arguments over income or gender at certain points. Or many different variables can be included in the analysis according to the subject of the study.

The studies conducted in the literature of fear of crime have reached many different arguments according to their focus points. The studies conducted over feminist literature have attempted to interpret or to compare the rate of fear of crime between men and women or argued to what extent the position of women in the society increases or decreases their victimization potentials. On the other hand, some of the researchers have argued that

class differences determined the fear of crime and they conducted analysis in this respect.

In this section of the study, the basic hypotheses of some of the approaches in the literature will be tested. Basic hypotheses have caused different results to be obtained in different studies. Of course the data, from which the analyses are conducted, are the reason of these differences. For that reason, interpreting the analyses according to the characteristics of the relevant society or the society from which the data are compiled will enable researchers to reach more realistic evaluations sociologically.

In following pages, firstly some of the basic and main hypotheses that are discussed in the literature shall be tested over the data at hand and advanced analyses shall be taken up in order to determine a more comprehensive profile of fear of crime over the results obtained.

In the following table, some of the basic hypotheses of the theoretical discussions included in the literature of fear of crime and the variables that shall be used in the testing of these hypotheses have been presented. The target of this study is to reach a synthesis about fear of crime. Can we produce determinants of fear of crime analysis for Turkey? Of course it may not be possible to test the functionality of the analysis within the limits of this thesis. However, it is expected that an advanced or an alternative

analysis can be developed in other studies. In other words, it is expected that this study shall be a reference for other studies.

There are hypotheses matched with basic theories in the following table.

Table 12: Hypotheses

Theories	Variables	Hypotheses
Physical Vulnerability Theory	<i>Age</i>	As age increases fear of crime will increase
	<i>Gender</i>	Females will have higher fear of crime
Victimization Theories	<i>Direct Victimization</i>	Direct victimization will increase fear of crime
	<i>Property Crime Victimization</i>	Property crime victims will have higher levels of fear of crime than non-victims of property crime
	<i>Personal Crime Victimization</i>	Personal crime victims will have higher levels of fear of crime than non-victims of property crime
	<i>Indirect Victimization</i>	Indirect victimization will increase fear of crime
Social Vulnerability Theory	<i>Education</i>	The higher education levels will have lower fear of crime
	<i>Employment Status</i>	People will have different fear of crime levels with regard to their employment status
	<i>Income</i>	As income increase fear of crime will decrease
	<i>Having Children</i>	Having children will effect fear of crime
Social Network Theory	<i>Neighbourhood Relations</i>	As neighbourhood relations increase fear of crime will decrease
	<i>Social Trust</i>	As social trust increase fear of crime will decrease
Incivilities Theory	<i>Incivilities</i>	There is a positive correlation between perceived incivilities and fear of crime

4.4.1. The Vulnerability Theory

4.4.1.1. Physical Vulnerability

According to physical vulnerability approach, some segments of the society are more vulnerable and defenseless about being the victim of a crime physically and consequently they are more afraid of crime. Women and old people can be listed under physically vulnerable group. Many researchers have conducted analyses moving from the thesis that fear of crime for women and old people will be higher compared to men and young people. At this point, the basic hypothesis of the theory shall be tested by applying to the data set at hand. Results of the analyses are given below.

H1: As age increases fear of crime will increase

The hypothesis of "fear of crime increases as age increases" has been tested. When the result of the analysis is evaluated, there is not a significant correlation between age and fear of crime ($r=-0.056$ $p>0.05$).

In other words, age has not emerged as a factor affecting fear of crime solely at its own in the widest sense. This means that other factors should be taken into account in order to interpret the relation between age and fear of crime sociologically.

H2: Females will have higher levels of fear of crime

Table 13: Gender and Fear of Crime

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
Male	249	1.7537	0.74235	-0.902
Female	258	1.8152	0.79279	

It is argued that one of the factors affecting fear of crime is gender. For that reason a difference test was conducted.

When we look at the table above, men are in the lower limit with an average of 1.75 and women are in the very low limit with an average of 1.81 when they are evaluated in FOC index. In other words, there is not a significant difference between male and female according to their fear of crime levels ($t=-0.902$ $p>0.05$).

However, it can be seen that there isn't a difference in respect of fear of crime between women and men which is the focus point of the hypothesis. It is very probable that there are other sociological factors to be included. In other words, the interpretation shall be lacking something if we interpret these factors without any research. In this sociological group that we examine, it can be considered that there isn't an effect arising only from gender without differentiating some other factors.

4.4.2. The Victimization Theory

It is argued that victimization experienced by the individuals increase their fear of crime. Accordingly, this hypothesis shall be tested below.

H3: Direct victimization will increase fear of crime

Table 14. Direct Victimization and Fear of Crime

Direct victimization experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
Yes	193	1.9396	0.83979	3.592
No	314	1.6900	0.70559	

At this point, the fear crime levels of individuals that had never been the victim of any crime were compared with those that had been the victim. The individuals that were the victim of a crime at least once in the previous year were called “victim” whereas others were called “non-victim”.

When the table above is examined, the rate of those that were the victim of a crime at least once is found to be 1.93 and this rate is within the low range in the index. In the same manner, the rate of non-victims is 1.69 and this rate is within the very low range.

When an internal comparison is made, it is found that there is a statistically significant difference between victims and non-victims in respect of fear of crime rates ($t=3.592$ $P<0.05$).

To sum, the point reviewed in the literature is supported by this data set. Having experienced victimization appears to be a factor determining the fear of crime of the individuals. However, what should be discussed besides the experience of crime victimization is to what extent the degree of this victimization determines their fear of crime in future. In other words, it should be determined at which points this difference is more common. For that purpose, it has been deemed suitable to conduct a comparison over crime types. Is the fear of crime more common in the victimization due to property crimes or personal crimes? The hypotheses that were tested and results of these tests are given below.

H4: Property crime victims will have higher levels of fear of crime than non-victims of property crime

Table 15. Property Crime Victimization and Fear of Crime

Property crime victimization	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
Yes	128	1.8672	0.7840	1.401
No	379	1.7573	0.7619	

When it is analyzed to what extent the victimization due to property crimes creates fear of crime compared to individuals that have never been a victim of such crime, there was no statistically significant difference. When we look at the averages, it can be seen that the rates of fear of crime of both groups are similar in a low level ($t=1.401$ $p>0.05$).

When we look at the general picture, we find a statistically significant difference between respondents with direct victimization experience and non-victims, however when we look at the victimization due to property crime, it can be seen that fear of crime levels are similar.

In addition, the rates of fear of crime of the persons that experienced victimization due to a personal crime and the persons that didn't experience such victimization were compared. Results can be found in the following table.

H5: Personal crime victims will have higher levels of fear of crime than non-victims of personal crime

Table 16. Personal Crime Victimization and Fear of Crime

Personal crime victimization	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
Yes	76	2.0307	0.8400	3.048*
No	431	1.7416	0.7476	

* Mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

When we look at the averages of individuals that have been a victim of a personal crime and those that have never been the victim of such a crime, it can be said that the fear of crime of victims is higher (2.030). However, when they are compared, that is when we look at the fear of crime levels of victims and non-victims, it is seen that there is a statistically significant difference (t=3.048 p<0.05).

To make an overview, direct victimization is an important element increasing the fear of crime. Moreover, when we make a comparison of property crime and personal crime victimization, we see that personal crime victimization is the actual determinant.

In this context, as it is repeated in the literature as well, the property crime victimization is a factor increasing fear of crime. When we consider our own society, the old saying “cana geleceğine mala gelsin” finds meaning at this point. People can regard this victimization as a preference and in most cases they make statements in order to justify their property victimizations. Among the reasons of not applying to the police after victimization, which were asked in this study, the participants made the explanation that they do not apply since they didn't themselves take necessary precautions.

Besides direct victimization experience, it is argued by some scholars that people's indirect victimization increases their fear of crime. With regard to this assumption the data was tested and the results are presented below.

H6: Indirect victimization will increase fear of crime

Table 17: Indirect Victimization and Fear of Crime

Indirect victimization	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
Yes	414	1.8027	0.61355	-1.293
No	93	1.7061	0.70559	

The above table depicts that there is not a significant difference between people with indirect victimization and people without indirect victimization with regard to their fear of crime levels ($t=-1.293$ $p>0.05$).

4.4.3. Social Vulnerability

In addition, the basic hypotheses in social vulnerability approach were tested as well. It was foreseen that education, income, employment status and presence of children affect the fear of crime. In the following pages, these hypotheses are tested in the data.

The argument that education is a factor affecting the fear of crime has been the subject of many studies in the literature. While this relation has been confirmed by some studies, this result couldn't be obtained by some others. When this hypothesis was tested on the data from this study, following results were obtained.

H7: The higher education levels will have lower fear of crime

Table 18: Education and Fear of Crime (One-way ANOVA)

Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Difference**
Illiterate	25	1.7600	0.80806	3.003*	
Literate	12	2.0556	1.16197		
Primary School	121	1.9229	0.81167		University
Secondary School	57	1.8596	0.77395		University
High School	103	1.8479	0.81886		University
University	189	1.6261	0.64605		Primary, Secondary, High school
Total	507	1.7850	0.76829		

* Mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

** LSD post-hoc test

When we look at the table above, we can see a statistically significant difference at the point of fear of crime between the educational levels ($f=3.003$ $p<0.05$). However, at this point it can be taken into account between which at educational levels this difference is located. That is; questions like whether the illiterate participants have the highest level of fear of crime or the university graduate have a lower level of fear of crime can be asked. For this reason, post-hoc (multiple comparison test) was conducted. It is seen that the difference is between the literate individuals in general. To conclude this analysis, it could be argued that when the averages are observed, fear of crime diminishes as the level of education increases.

H8: People will have different fear of crime levels with regard to their employment status

Table 19: Employment Status and Fear of Crime (One-way ANOVA)

Employment Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Difference
Yes, I do have a job	213	1.7825	0.75593	3.471*	-
No, I am retired	108	1.6327	0.81769		Unemployed
No, I am unemployed	186	1.8763	0.74229		Retired
Total	507	1.7850	0.76829		

* Mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The above table shows us that, there is a statistically significant difference at the point of fear of crime between the employment statuses ($f=3.003$ $p<0.05$). This difference appears between the unemployed and retired participants. In other words, employment status can be interpreted as the starting point of this difference. When we think that most of the retired persons spend their times at home, they think that they are far away from crime or places of crime. However, they don't take into account the crime types to which they might be subject at their homes.

H9: As income increase fear of crime will decrease

There is a significant correlation between income and fear of crime ($r=0.14$ $p<0.05$). The hypothesis that there is a correlation between income and fear of crime was also tested on the data of this study. And it has been found that this correlation exists as proposed by the hypothesis. Fear of crime diminishes as income increases. Interpreting this result

sociologically, it can be explained that individuals with high incomes can more easily access crime prevention measures. For instance, when the security measures were asked in Altındağ district, the answers included mainly window fences, extra door locks or neighbors being aware of each other. However, in Çankaya district, there are so many measures such as apartment attendants, housing estate security personnel and security cameras.

H10: Having Children Will Affect Fear of Crime

Having a child increases the feeling of responsibility in the lives of individuals. Parents are more interested in the security of their children more than they are for their own security and they are worried about them. An analysis table is given below on this relation.

Table 20. Having Children and Fear of Crime

Having Children	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
1 and above	354	1.8023	0.79331	-0.769
None	153	1.7451	0.70790	

There is not a significant difference between people having children and people who don't have children according to their fear of crime levels ($t=-0.769$ $p>0.05$). The discussion of "parental fear of crime", which is cited in the literature, couldn't be verified on this data.

4.4.4. Social Network Theory

It has been asked participants to interpret their relations with neighbours. The strength of neighbourhood relations as being a factor decreasing fear of crime is argued in the many studies. The analysis of this correlation is presented below.

H11: As neighbourhood satisfaction increase fear of crime will decrease

Table 21: Neighbourhood Satisfaction and Fear Of Crime (One-Way ANOVA)

Neighbourhood satisfaction	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F
Very weak	68	1.7941	0.86584	1.685
Weak	88	1.8447	0.74612	
Medium	131	1.7659	0.66884	
Strong	90	1.9111	0.90055	
Very Strong	126	1.6534	0.71852	
Total	503	1.7813	0.76982	

When we look at the table above, we can not see a statistically significant difference at the point of fear of crime between the degrees of neighborhood satisfaction ($f=1.685$ $p>0.05$). It may be expected that the intense neighborhood relations especially in the traditional societies and mutual trust would decrease the fear of crime in that neighbourhood. But in today's modern societies, we see that intense neighborhood relations do not exist anymore as it used to.

H12: As social trust increase fear of crime will decrease

The participants were also asked questions about social trust. The results of the analysis on the relation between fear of crime and the feeling of social trust are presented in the following table.

Table 22. Social Trust and Fear of Crime

Social Trust	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t*
Most people can be trusted	180	1.6852	0.69289	-2.179
People are not trustworthy	327	1.8400	0.80252	

* Mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The above table shows that there is a significant difference between levels of social trust and fear of crime levels ($t = -2.179$ $p < 0.05$). The previous hypothesis includes the analyses in the context of the neighborhood relations and fear of crime. In this phase, the point has moved from neighbourhood relations to social trust relationships. And it has been found out that increasing social trust is a variable decreasing the fear of crime.

4.4.5. Incivilities Theory

H13: There is a positive correlation between perceived incivilities and fear of crime

As it has been mentioned in the pages above, it has been the subject of many studies that there is a relation between incivilities and fear of crime.

The presence of cases such as social and physical disorders, deserted buildings in the neighborhood, graffiti, noisy neighbors and substance addicts might be interpreted as causes of increase in the fear of crime among the individuals. For that reason, this hypothesis was tested in the data at hand. And according to the results of analysis; there is a positive correlation between perceived incivilities and fear of crime ($r=0.269$ $p<0.05$). Namely, the participants of this study stated that this kind of incivilities is the factor that increases their fear of crime.

4.4.2. Test of Other Variables

The basic hypotheses of some of the theoretical approaches discussed in the literature were analyzed on the existing data and the results were provided in the pages above. Prior to discussing the determinants of fear of crime, which is one of the main purposes of this study, some discussion will be carried out over certain variables of the questionnaire in this part.

As mentioned earlier, the fear of crime has both social and individual outcomes. The fear of crime forces people to take some precautions in their daily lives. This appears sometimes as avoiding certain places or sometimes carrying a gun, or employing technological security measures for the house. From this assumption, the participants were asked what kind of precautions they take in their daily lives in order not to be a victim of the certain types of crime. First of all, while 55.5 percent of the respondents said that they made various changes in their daily lives and

took certain precautions not to be a victim of fear, 44.1 percent of them stated that they did not take any precautions and that they did not make any changes in their daily lives. Among the 55.5 percent of the respondents, 31.7 percent said that they are quite careful while carrying their bags or wallets, and this way they protect themselves from being a victim of the snatch. Among the participants who gave a no response to this question are some respondents who think that there is not any risk for them since they do not go out much (12.3 percent). 4.7 percent of the respondents, on the other hand, expressed that no matter what you do, you cannot prevent the crime.

Previous pages have dealt with the 'parental fear of crime'. The fear of crime comes to forward about the issue of probable victimization of the family members especially for the parents regarding their children. The people who have a fear of crime reflect such fears of theirs to the daily lives of the family members. To that end, the participants were asked how often they think the possibility that any family member is a victim of a crime when they cannot hear from them. Based on this question, 18.8 percent of the participants frequently consider this possibility, and 32.3 percent seldom think so.

In addition to these, the respondents were asked about what they think of the crime rate in their neighbourhood. At this point, respondents from the

Altındağ and Çankaya districts are expected to make an assessment though they have information acquired from different sources.

Table 23: Perception of Crime rate in neighbourhood (Chi square, %)

Perception of Crime rate in neighbourhood		Districts		Total
		Altındağ	Çankaya	
Very high	N	27	0	27
	%	10.6%	0.0%	5.3%
High	N	59	25	84
	%	23.1%	9.8%	16.5%
Low	N	122	169	281
	%	43.9%	66.3%	55.1%
Very Low	N	57	61	118
	%	22.4%	23.9%	11.2%
Total	N	255	255	510
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square=52.460

df=3

p=0.0001

According to the table above, there is a statistically significant difference between respondents' Perception of Crime rate in neighbourhood and the fear of crime (Chi-Square=52.460; df=3; p=0.0001).

Perception of Crime rate in neighbourhood on the basis of districts is presented in the table above. It can be expected that people who believe the crime rate is high in their neighbourhood experience the fear of crime more intensely. In this context, 10.6 percent of of people living in Altındağ believe that the crime rate in their neighbourhood is very high. However, for Çankaya, this was not an issue. In Çankaya, none of the participants

think the crime rate in their neighbourhood is very high. Similar tendency is also applicable for the group which believes the crime rate is high. According to the analysis presented above, respondents from Çankaya and Altındağ have quite different perceptions of crime rate in their neighbourhood. In Altındağ, one out of three respondents (33.7 percent) believe that the crime rate in their neighbourhood is quite high (including the responses 'high' and 'very high'). As for the case in Çankaya, similar response turns out to be only at the rate of 9.8 percent. On the other hand, almost all the respondents in Çankaya (90.2 percent) state that the crime rate in their neighbourhood is quite low (including the responses 'low' and 'very low'). For Altındağ, similar responses turn out to be at the rate of 66.3 percent.

As mentioned previously, the fear of crime is associated with demographic factors in numerous studies. Statistically, the women have more fear of crime compared to men although the possibility to be a victim of a crime is less for them. From the point of view of this basic hypothesis, the participants were asked whether they think the women or men are the victim of a crime more.

Table 24. Highly Victimized People in the Society (Female or Male?)

Highly Victimized People	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	290	56.9	57.5	57.5
Male	114	22.4	22.6	80.2
Other	100	19.6	19.8	100.0
Total	504	98.8	100.0	
Total	510	100.0		

According to the table above, 57.5 percent of the participants think that the women are more victimized; while 22.6 percent of the participants express that the men are more victimized. After the pilot study of the research, it was deemed appropriate to add 'other' option to this question since 19.8 percent of the participants expressed their opinions that old people or children are much more victimized.

On the other hand, the participants were asked why they think that these sections of the society have more potential of victimization. 89 percent of the participants who think that women are more victimized stated that since women are not physically that strong, they cannot protect themselves. This results in fact shows the assumption that the women will be exposed to physical attack more. Though not clearly specified, it can be understood that what is behind this statement is that victimization from the crime of 'rape' is found appropriate for women. The ones expressing that the men are more victimized state that since the men spend more time outside, the possibility for them to be a victim of crime is higher (59.8 percent). 29.9 percent of the participants, on the other hand, utter that the

men are more aggressive than women in nature, and thus it is highly possible for them to engage in crime.

This research was carried out on the basis of a regional comparison. From the viewpoint of the fact that people will experience different crime victimizations with different crime perceptions. It is understandable that people take security precautions to the extent that they can provide for apart from their perception of security. In the regions with supposedly higher crime rates, it may be expected that more personal security precautions are taken. On the other hand, it may be expected that the people take more technological precautions in the regions where there are even more security measures taken by the police such as Çankaya. At this point, the participants were asked about the security precautions they took in their houses. The following table indicates the distribution of the “yes” responses to the questions.

Table 25. Security Measures Taken by Respondents (Chi-Square, %)

Security Measures	ALTINDAĞ	ÇANKAYA
1) Security alarm*	0%	25.0%
2) Special doorlocks*	23.2%	90.0%
3) Window/Door bars*	71.7%	10.0%
4) Dog	4.0%	10.0%
5) High fences*	2.0%	35.0%
6) Building security*	0%	15%
7) Block/Site security*	0%	65.0%
8) Neighbourhood watch*	65.7%	40.0%

*There is a significant difference between the district at the 0.05 level.

Reviewing the table above, it is seen that the residents of Altındağ among the participants take more of traditional precautions. Residences are mostly detached types and mostly the only security precaution could be the window/door bars (71.7 percent). Furthermore, the close neighbourhood relations resulting from the quarter life is a natural security precaution as a 'neighbourhood watch' system in an informal sense. Maybe the proverbs such as "one may need even the ash of his neighbor" or "what has happened to me today, might happen to you tomorrow" become very important in cases that require joint intervention. On the other hand, the precautions stand out with the advanced, more technological security alarms, automatic gates, in Çankaya. Most of the

building complexes in the Çankaya district have security codes at the entrance doors of the buildings, which prevented the surveyors entering the building even if the security guards of the blocks is cleared.

Additionally, the participants were asked whether they have burglary insurance covering their houses. While 83.7 percent of the respondents gave the 'no' answer, 3.1 percent of them stated that they do not know anything about this subject. Mostly women and young people gave this response; and stated that their husbands or fathers would know about it.

In numerous analyses in the pages above, some discussions oriented at finding out to what extent the direct or indirect victimization experiences of the people affect their fear of crime. In addition to these, the respondents were asked whether they informed the police about any victimization they or any family member experienced. At this point, it will be appropriate to compare and evaluate the approaches of the respondents from the Altındağ and Çankaya. The results of this analysis are provided in the table below.

Table 26. Reporting Victimization to the Police (Chi square, %)

Mahalle		Reporting Victimization to the Police		
		Yes	No	Total
Altındağ	N	64	45	109
	%	58.7%	41.3%	100.0%
Çankaya	N	64	20	84
	%	76.2%	23.8%	100.0%
Total	N	128	65	193
	%	66.3%	33.7%	100.0%

Chi-square= 6.486

df= 1

p=0.008

The table above shows that there is a statistically significant difference as to notifying a crime to the police (Chi-Square=6.486; df=1; p=0.008). According to these results, the rate of notifying the police about victimization for the respondents living in Çankaya is 76.2 percent. At this point, it will be suitable to examine the fact that why the residents of Altındağ inform the police about any victimization of crime at the lower rates. 43.2 percent of the respondents in Altındağ who gave the 'no' response to the above-mentioned question believe that the police will not solve the criminal offense. 13.5 percent of the respondents stated that they punish the offender themselves and there is no need to notify the police.

During the field study, the respondents from the Altındağ district said that although they call the police right away in case of a crime they experience, the police arrived very late to the crime scene; therefore for the later incidences, they found themselves ignoring the police. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, prior to the field study, the local headman of the quarters were visited at the first hand. However, in some quarters of the Altındağ district, the local police stations were also notified about the existence of the surveyors in the quarters. The striking point here is that although the police stations are quite close to the quarters where the interviews were conducted, the residents of those quarters feel and accept that the police are physically so far away from them. It is such a situation that the residents of the quarters in the next street to the police station expressed that they could catch the thief quicker than the police without waiting for the police to intervene in the event. This phenomenon indicates the degree of importance of the physical existence of the police for the residents of the quarter in prevention of or intervention into a crime.

On the other hand, the respondents were asked whether they possess any weapon considered as a personal security precautions. To this question, the 79.2 percent of the respondents said that they do not have any kind of weapon. Some of the respondents noted that even if they had a weapon, they would not tell this to us.

Another point observed during the field experiment is that the respondents complained that the sensitivity about the crime victimization of the other people decreased in the society. They said that in the past when they would hear any crime victimization, they were more reactive, and that now they are somehow more used to. From this point of view, the respondents were asked to what type of crime the people in the society are more sensitive. While 44.4 percent of the respondents stated that there is more sensitivity against the verbal or actual sexual harassment, and murder from the crime types given as an option was in the second order with a rate of 28 percent.

In the field work, even if the scientific goal of the research was explicitly stated and the necessary ethics rules were observed, one fact emerging during the pilot study is that people are glad that they are given an opportunity to express their problems and that they believe that their problems will be communicated to the authorities by means of this questionnaire. While the respondents from Altındağ express themselves as above, the respondents in Çankaya believe that the results of the scientific research will contribute to the solution of social problems in the long run. From this point of view, the respondents were asked about the most crucial problems in the close environments. Based on this question, 26.7 of the respondents talked about the infrastructure problems, and 16.3 percent of them stated that they do not have any important problem. In the

third order are the security problems that 11.4 percent of the respondents emphasized.

There are various studies oriented to the fact that the crime news in the press and media increase the fear of crime of the people. It is possible that the way of presenting the crime news causes the formation of fear of crime of an old person, who never leaves his or her house, or of an individual, for whom facing any crime that was put forward in the media is not probable. The respondents were asked from which type of crimes broadcasted or published in the media they are affected mostly. 24.5 percent of the respondents said that they are affected by the murder news while 23.7 percent of them stated that they are mostly affected by the terror news. The news about sexual harassment and rape were stated in the third order with a percentage of 13.

Regarding the question about media, no distinction was considered as newspaper, TV, or internet news and it was expected that the title of media would cover any of these for the respondents. Within this frame, it would be appropriate to mention about so called 'third page news'. Most brutal and graphic crime news takes place in third pages of the newspapers as if these pages are solely assigned for such news. Besides the third page crime news, morning TV shows targeting women audience also include similar coverage.

On the other hand, the respondents noted that they do not believe that the crime news is reflected on the media correctly (79.4 percent). They stated that certain crimes are intentionally exaggerated for only more rating. Some respondents also reflected that crime victimizations resulting from the negligence or mistakes of the police or the government institutions are not sufficiently covered in the media.

In the later parts of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked how they will act in case of any potential crime incidence. Three types of crime were basically given as an example for these questions. Among these are the questions such as how they will act when they witness that a women is disturbed or harassed (sexually) by a man; how they will act when they witness an incidence of theft, and how they will act when they witness that the house of their neighbor is broken into. Concerning the question of sexual harassment; while 43.7 percent of the respondents stated that they will notify the police in case they witness such an incidence, 38.6 percent of them said that they will immediately intervene themselves. 17.6 percent of the respondents uttered that they will turn a blind eye to that incidence in order not to get into trouble. On the other hand, in case of witnessing an incidence of theft in the street, 68.2 percent of the respondents told that they will inform the police, and when they witness that the house of their neighbor is broken into, 73.3 percent of the respondents said that they will notify the police about the incidence. An evaluation of these questions shows that no matter what the type of the crime witnessed, the majority of

the respondents prefer informing the police. Indeed these questions were asked about the potential incident; therefore the answers of the respondents that they will do their duties as a 'responsible citizen' and inform the police can be evaluated in this regard. In other words, how they will act in real situation and their beliefs on how to act may not be differentiated at this point. Numerous questions above assess the relations of the respondents with the police. However, what can be said regarding these questions is that the citizens are aware of their responsibility to notify the police in a potential case and that their belief that they will perform such a responsibility is high.

The respondents in the survey frequently noted that the crime is associated with other issues in the society. Not necessarily justifying directly though, they expressed that many other social problems are amongst the factors of crime. During the questionnaire application, some of the respondents said that the fear of crime or criminal incidences in fact always exist somewhere in their lives and they confront with this reality from time to time. This turns out sometimes as direct victimization and sometimes as a piece of news of crime they witness on the media. But the fact that crime is a social reality cannot be denied was stated at certain points during the interviews. From this point of view, the respondents were asked to specify and list the problems experienced in our country, which actually aims at analyzing the precedence of importance of crime. The answers evaluated are given in detail below.

The following table presents the precedence of the problems in our country as specified by the respondents from the Altındağ and Çankaya districts.

Table 27. Problems of the Country

Problem	Çankaya	Altındağ
Unemployment	1.44	1.70
Infrastructure Problems*	3.71	4.30
Illiteracy*	2.23	1.60
Crime	3.59	3.65
Environmental Problems	4.03	3.75

*There Is A Significant Difference Between The District At The 0.05 Level

The table above shows the averages of the degrees of importance associated with the problems in our country. According to the table, high level of averages points at the importance of the problem. When the averages of these two districts are evaluated based on the responses given, it is seen that the difference lies in the infrastructure problems and educational issues. However, it is also noticeable that the problem of crime, the subject-matter of this study, is considered in similar precedence by both districts.

As in the case of numerous social realities, crime is also another issue on which everybody has a word to utter. During the field study, the respondents expressed their opinions with regard to the reasons of crime

after almost every question though not specifically relevant to that question, and gave their solution suggestions. Considering this very point, the respondents were asked about their opinions on the reasons of crime and what should be done to fight with the crime. These questions are open-ended questions and the answers provided were evaluated. According to the responses, 28 percent of the respondents think that the driving factor behind the crime is the low level of education. 23 percent of them emphasized the economic problems resulting from unemployment. 14.6 percent of the respondents noted that psychological problems or genetic tendency motivate people to commit a crime.

As for what should be done to fight against the crime, 22.4 percent of the respondents stated that more importance should be given to education, and 7.5 percent of them underlined the fact that family education is important, and that an individual involved in a crime should be considered as lacking family education. On the other hand, 14.8 percent of the respondents keep the opinion that the task of fighting with crime is vested within the police, and therefore the police should be equipped with more power in this regard. The striking point in these questions is that the relation between education and crime was mostly expressed by the respondents. What comes forward at this point is that low level of education is one of the fundamental reasons of committing a crime and that a good education will keep an individual away from crime. However, the types of crimes defined as white collar crime in the literature were not

uttered or considered by the respondents. In other words, although a permanent solution for the problem of crime is not possible, education is considered as the underlying constituent of such effort. In fact, because the people directly associate the unemployment and the low level of education with reasons of crime, such an inference is quite understandable.

4.5. Determinants of Fear of Crime

As mentioned earlier, fear of crime is a multi-dimensional and complicated subject, and therefore one cannot expect it to be explained with one single variable. Some addition of more than one variable to the analysis or analysis of different variables altogether will enable obtaining sociologically meaningful interpretations. That is to say; the fear of crime cannot be explained solely by using one or a few independent variables. The theories referred above and of which the hypotheses included in this research attempt at explaining the fear of crime with their own points of views. It is not a correct way to reach a cumulative analysis considering these theories only.

The best thing to do sociologically and statistically is to form an analysis that we can consider the variables together in order to find the determinants of fear of crime. However, the point here which needs attention is that if there are variables measuring the similar things in the scope of the questionnaire, one of them will be taken and added to the

analysis. We will attempt to understand the probable impacts of these variables within a multi-variable analysis. By all means, we are aware of the fact that whether the effects of these variables are significant or not will show that they deserve sociological interpretation for us.

What is aimed here is that we will see not only the fact that these variables will affect the fear of crime, but also whether these together will form a structural analysis or not. In other words, it is not our goal to understand the fear of crime over the variables one by one, yet it is to understand how the domains constituting this structural analysis come together, whether they form a structure when they come together; the features of this structure and the relations among them as well the effect of this structure on the 'fear of crime' as a whole. Thus, we will put forth the indicators of the variable of fear of crime.

The discussions in this study were carried out on the axis of the basic theories in the literature. First of all, the fundamental hypotheses of the theories were tested on the available data and then interpreted. However, sometimes it was necessary to conduct sociological discussions beyond the statistical interpretations. Sociologically meaningful interpretations may not always be statistically meaningful. As in this study, the analysis results of the basic theoretical discussions directed us to make more interpretations in depth and analyses, and the next stage after these stages is the creation of a statistical analysis. But not moving away from the literature studies referred since the beginning of the thesis was the

main point of sensitivity; that is, the above-mentioned analysis is not a self-independent statistical one; on the contrary, it has turned into a analysis in which all the discussions can be interpreted altogether. This analysis has been formed in order to create a more complete understanding of fear of crime. A regression analysis has been carried out in line with the goal set forth above. And the results are presented below.

Factors Determining Fear of Crime	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
	B	Beta	
Gender (female)	0,307	0,169	,000
Age	0,000	-,006	,919
Property Crime Victimization	0,045	,030	,444
Personal Crime Victimization	,031	,016	,677
Education (illiterate)			
Education-Literate	-,085	-,014	,757
Education-Primary	,222	,104	,200
Sec Education-Secondary	,273	,094	,163
Hig Education-High	,238	,105	,251
Uni Education-University	,145	,077	,550
Employment (unemployed)			
Employment-Employed	-,160	-,087	,125
Employment-Retired	-,143	-,064	,287
District (Gankaya)	-,393	-,216	,011
Presence of children	,063	,032	,492
Knowing about neighbours	,008	,004	,954
Neighbourhood satisfaction	-,135	-,073	,309
Incivilities	-,284	-,232	,000
Indirect Victimization	,055	,134	,007

(Dependent Variable: Fear of Crime; N:510; R=0,557; R² adj = 0,286)

The table above shows the coefficients obtained as a result of the linear regression analysis of the factors determining the fear of crime. The analysis basically put forward the independent variables affecting the dependent variable. The parameters beta (β) and standard beta coefficients (std. β) assessing the effect of the dependent variables and nature of the probable effects are provided.

Gender

Evaluating the results of the analyses, it is seen that gender is one of the factors determining the fear of crime. Besides, women's fear of crime is found to be higher compared with the men's fear of crime ($\beta=0.307$; $p<0.01$). It is obvious in this analysis that gender is a variable affecting the fear of crime and that fear of crime of the women is higher than the men.

District

In the table above, it is found that another factor determining the fear of crime is living environment. The living environment is not simply and only the residential district or quarter, yet it is meaningful as a course determining the socio-economic status, welfare and the quality of life as well. As referred since the beginning of the thesis, Altındağ and Çankaya districts possess a great deal of different qualities and patterns in this sense, since the effect of the living environment on the fear of crime results to some extent from the relation with the other expressed variables.

In this context, these two districts where the study was carried out have been intentionally selected.

The population of Çankaya is 792.189, which makes it the mostly populated district of Ankara. People of middle and upper middle classes live mainly in this region. This region has mostly building complexes and multi-storey flats and also there are facilities in the region such as shopping malls and local open bazaars. In addition to these, there are closed areas where one can participate in social activities such as cinema, theatre, etc. and parks and gardens as well. The public transportation is quite common in this area. The residents of the multi-storey flats or building complexes general do not know their neighbors or they do not attempt to know who lives next door. The security and safety feeling of the people in this region where the neighborhood relations are weak are mostly based on the police or security personnel, surveillance cameras and alarms address this need.

On the other hand, the population of the district of Altındağ is 370.735. There are generally detached houses and mainly shanty houses, and the neighborhood relations are quite developed. For example, immediate establishment of neighborhood relations with someone who just moved to the area can be regarded as for the continuation of the social order. The Altındağ district suffers greatly from the infrastructure problems and the region deprives of the basic needs such as road, water and electricity.

Furthermore, the street lighting is not sufficient, and in such an area, it may be expected that the fear of crime of the residents and their crime victimization will increase.

Considering all the issues, it is clear that the second most significant factor affecting the fear of crime is the living area – as it is taken into account in this very study. Based on this, the fear of crime of the residents of Çankaya is lower compared to the residents of Altındağ ($\beta=-0.393$).

Incivilities

On the other hand, the examination of the above table reveals that the social and physical disorders observed in the environment of the people increase their fear of crime ($\beta=0.284$; $p<0.01$). The concept of incivilities as used from the very beginning of the thesis includes vandalism cases such as breaking car windows, damaging bus stops, and situations such as littering in the streets, graffiti, drunken people, and substance-addicts. Right at this point, it would be appropriate to make a comparative interpretation for Çankaya and Altındağ. For Çankaya, the definition of incivilities can be used with the same context as used in the literature. But for Altındağ, this definition can have different meanings. For example, incivilities such as the existence of deserted buildings, graffiti and noisy neighbors are almost a part of the daily life in this region. It is so that for the residents of this region, street wedding ceremonies are not considered as activities of noisy neighbors. On the other hand, even watching

television with high volume in the multi-storey building complexes of Çankaya region is a situation where you can get reactions from the neighbours. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, some of the examples of the incivilities in the Altındağ region are inured by the people. In an interview with some people who are living next to a building which is entirely spray-painted, some of the respondents told that there were no graffiti around them, which is rather surprising. However, it can be said that people from Altındağ are more aware of the damage on the bus stops since public transportation is crucial for them in their everyday life. On the other hand, the people in the Çankaya region are more reactive against the drunken people who cause disturbance or existence of substance-addict children. For respondents in Çankaya, existence of the police as close as a phone call enables people to perform their citizenship duties by informing the police about such cases. Since the majority of the substance-addicts are children, the local people have a mixed feeling of fear and affection, and they notify the relevant authorities anyway. However, another issue to be mentioned regarding this comment is that substance-addicts or street vendors are not that common in this region. It will not be rational to expect the substance-addicted children have access to the very places where beggars, street vendors and surveyors are banned by the signs put up on the doors of the premises.

Indirect Victimization

Additionally, it is seen in the table above that the victimization news of other people causing indirect victimizations has an affect on increase of fear of crime ($\beta=-0.055$). Being a direct victim of a crime may increase the fear of crime in later stages, but in some cases, rumors or news of crime in the media is likely to increase the fear of crime of the people. Intensity of the social relations of the people and neighbourhood relations are means of receiving the news of the crime victimizations. When the media is the subject, it is possible that such fear may spread among more people. By means of the media, people receive information not only about the increasing crime rates, but also the types of crime. The role of the media is significant in informing the public of the crime types of for instance, serial murders, which are investigated in very limited numbers in the literature in Turkey, or killings of mothers, which are still vivid in minds in the period where the survey was conducted, snatching, internet crimes and so on. Such crime types have become a routine of the daily life and embedded in the memory society. On the other hand, in the same period, the organized crime frequently published in the media or terror events with never-ending importance result in the increase of fear of crime by means of indirect victimization of the society.

In this study, when the effect of the indirect victimization on the fear of crime in both regions is assessed, it is necessary to refer to the neighborhood relations as experienced in Altındağ. Besides the daily

conversations of the women with their neighbours, conversations of men outside the house such as in mosques, local butcher, grocery store are all sources of information for the people living in this area. On the other hand, systematic information sharing is practiced in the Çankaya region rather than face-to-face personal information sharing. Any crime event in the building complexes or common measures to be taken is communicated to the residents by the site/building complex managers, security officers by means of notes and necessary briefings.

Taking into account all these conclusions, the most important determining factor of a person's fear of crime is the incivilities (std. $\beta=-0.232$). Among the factors determining the fear of crime in the second place is the living environment, or as referred in this study, the district, which can be associated with the socio-economic status of a person (std. $\beta=-0.216$). Gender comes as the third determining factor (std. $\beta=0.169$), and the last one is the indirect victimization (std. $\beta=0.134$).

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to analyze the determinants of the fear of crime in the society in its most general sense. There are a multitude of researches on the theme of fear of crime in the literature. These researches have addressed different aspects of the theme from different starting points and have arrived at different conclusions. This study has aimed to arrive at authentic interpretations through analyses based on the available data while taking into consideration the basic approaches included in the literature.

Contrary to the rest of the world, there are only a handful of studies on the subject of fear of crime in Turkey. A phenomenon like crime, which every individual can come face to face with at any point of their daily lives, is something that needs to be explored in detail, together with its causes and consequences. And fear of crime is one of these consequences. In fact, from an anti-crime viewpoint, a thorough analysis of the fear of crime is likely to increase the chance of success of the combat against crime. Therefore, studies into this area are essential in order to complement one of the most important components of anti-crime efforts. Throughout the world, “national crime victimization surveys” (NCVS) are carried out in many countries. In addition to these, there are “international crime victimization surveys” (ICVS), in which countries participate. The crime victimization surveys carries out at an international level allow inter-country

comparisons. Turkey does not take part regularly in international crime victimization surveys. In Turkey, studies on the fear of crime remain at an academic level, and do not expand to a national scale or to institutional efforts.

Fear of crime is a multi-dimensional and complicated phenomenon. Throughout history, in many societies people have suffered from the fear of crime at various levels and due to various reasons. However, in today's modern era, the fear of crime has become a major component of social life, so that the consequences of the fear of crime are often more effective and graver than the possible consequences of the crime. At both the individual level and the social level, it is possible to say that today daily practices and policy implications are shaped around the fear of crime. At the individual level, those suffering from a fear of crime endeavour to take the maximum security measures available to them. Individuals stay away from crowded places or from places which they consider as unsafe, take advantage of technology by installing alarms and security cameras at their homes, workplaces or in their cars, and can sometimes resort to using or carrying weapons and similar means of defence. At the social level, it is possible to say that the notion of "a fear society" has penetrated into all aspects of social life. In modern societies where face-to-face interactions are becoming weaker every day, it is seen that the fear of crime contributes to widening this distance in interpersonal relations.

Relationships already not based on “trust” are gradually transformed into relationships based on “fear”.

As stated above, people can have a fear of crime due to various reasons. Many studies have focused on identifying the determinants of the fear of crime. Variables such as age, gender, education and income level, race, environment, victimization experience and as such have been included in the analyses, and the findings have been interpreted on the basis of these variables. What individual characteristics cause a person to have a fear of crime? Which social or physical conditions have an effect on the fear of crime experienced by people? These and similar questions have formed the hypothesis of many studies.

This study aims to present a holistic approach to fear of crime in consideration of the determinants in which the above-mentioned individual characteristics as well as social and environmental factors play an active role. The starting point for the study was revealed at the sampling selection phase. A variety of districts, which can be considered as “living environments” in the broadest sense of the term, have been selected to this end. It can be suggested that people from different socio-economic statuses experience the fear of crime in different ways. Hence, it would be meaningful to undertake a comparative study to this effect. It can be considered that variables such as education and income level and employment status can help in highlighting this differentiation. Based on

these, the districts of Altındağ and Çankaya in Ankara have been selected for the field implementation of the study, based on the assumption that these two districts accommodate populations with different levels of education, income and quality of life.

Since the study will be one of a very limited number of researches done in this area, it has first of all aimed to build its arguments on the widely-accepted basic approaches. In view of the available data, it would not be supportable to do advanced analyses without testing the basic approaches. Therefore, in this study, the basic hypotheses of the researches included in the literature have been applied to the available data and tested.

Firstly, variables discussed under the physical vulnerability theory, such as age and gender, have been analyzed one by one with regard to their relationship with fear of crime as a dependent variable. A significant correlation could not be found between age and the fear of crime. The relationship between age and the fear of crime is one of the most controversial topics in the literature. The data at hand could not verify this relationship either. Similarly, looking at the gender variable, no findings that women have more fear of crime compared to men were reached in the available data.

It is considered that the victimization experiences of individuals increase their fear of crime. A victimization experience shapes the future fear of crime felt by the individual, which is why the level of their fear of crime will always be higher than people who have had no such victimization experiences. Based on this assertion, the available data was analysed and the assertion was verified. However, the analysis was not left at this point and was carried a step further to explore the type of crime victimization in which this difference is more pronounced. In other words, is it victimization from property crimes or victimization from crimes against life that have a higher effect in increasing fear of crime? The analysis carried out to explore into this question found that victimization from crimes against life are more effective in determining the fear of crime.

In addition to the physical vulnerability mentioned above, it is expected that in a society some people may be more vulnerable and hence may be more likely to have been a crime victim. The relationship of variables such as education, income level, and employment status with fear of crime has been analyzed. The findings verify the hypothesis that fear of crime increases as the education level decreases. A general assessment reveals the existence of “education” as a variable that decreases the fear of crime. In terms of employment status, it is seen that employed people have less fear of crime compared to unemployed and retired people. On the other hand, the relationship between fear of crime and income, one of the determinants of socio-economic status used in the sampling selection

for this thesis, was also analyzed. According to the test results, fear of crime decreases as the income level increases, verifying the correlation suggested in the hypothesis.

It is not expected that people will only have a fear of crime for themselves. The fear of crime felt for family members and especially for children has been analyzed in many studies. The hypothesis that being a parent increases fear of crime was not verified on this data set.

In addition, issues such as neighbour relations and social trust were addressed under the main heading of social networks and the relationship of these variables with the fear of crime was analyzed. When it comes to neighbour relations, the available data shows it as not a factor lowering the fear of crime. In addition, the question on social trust, posed so as to evaluate more individual relationships, was correlated with the fear of crime. Increased social trust was found to be a variable that decreases the fear of crime.

On the other hand, the discussion on incivilities was also carried out under this study. Respondents were asked what they think about cases such as graffiti, garbage littering, derelict buildings, drunken people or volatile substance abusers, which are referred to as incivilities in the literature, and analysis was made based on the hypothesis that incivilities increase

the fear of crime. As a result it was found that incivilities increased the fear of crime of the respondents.

In addition to the hypotheses, analyses were also carried out with regard to other various subjects included in the questionnaire, and the results thereof were interpreted in the text. Included among these are questions assessing how the fear of crime affects the daily lives of the respondents, questions on how respondents evaluate the crime levels in their immediate vicinities, questions on how they interpret the crime stories appearing in the media and questions on how they think they will act in case they witness a crime. Moreover, the questionnaire also includes questions that query the views of respondents on the causes of crime and anti-crime efforts.

Being one of the very limited numbers of researches carried out on the fear of crime in Turkey, this study first of all aimed to draw a general framework to test various hypotheses on the available data. However, we are aware that a social reality cannot be explained based solely on one or several variables. One way of analyzing a social reality is to formulate an analysis in which more than one variable is contained. To this end, a regression analysis was considered as the appropriate approach. This analysis enables us to see which independent variables affect or do not affect the dependent variable of 'fear of crime (FOC)'. Hence, it becomes possible to measure and analyze a social reality with complex patterns,

such as the fear of crime. As in the hypothesis testing, analyses with individual variables can give us only limited descriptive information. Yet creating such an analysis can provide an opportunity to develop a more explorative insight.

The determinants of fear of crime analysis was created based on this expectation. An evaluation of the results finds that social and physical disorders, referred to as incivilities, constitute the factor that has the most important effect on the fear of crime in this analysis. According to this result, which is also revealed in the hypothesis testing, people are very aware of the incivilities in their immediate environments and these incivilities increase their fear of crime.

Second factor is the districts, in the sense used since the beginning of this study. Regional differences determining the sampling selection for this study have in effect been interpreted also as a determinant of socio-economic status. What is meant with living area/environment here is not only the difference of districts but also the variety and intensity of neighbour relations, the infrastructure and physical conditions of the district and the social and economic profiles of the district population. When all these physical and social differences are taken into consideration, it was concluded that the level of fear of crime of the populations of these two different districts were also different.

The third factor that affects fear of crime is gender. In the hypothesis testing, it could not be verified that women have more fear of crime than men; however in the available analysis used for this study, gender has been found to be a factor affecting fear of crime.

The last factor effecting fear of crime is the indirect victimization experiences of individuals. In addition to the direct victims of a crime, people who become informed about the crime through various sources are also victimized, which increases their fear of crime.

On the other hand, variables such as age, education, income, victimization from life-threatening or property crimes, being a parent, knowing one's neighbours and the intensity of neighbour relations, are not revealed in this analysis as variables that affect fear of crime.

Studies on the fear of crime have mostly been formulated within the social dynamics of foreign and mainly western societies. Therefore, there is a need to conduct studies specific to the Turkish society. It can be expected that a large number of stakeholders will benefit from the results of such research. In addition to academic evaluations, it can be expected that the results of such scientific studies will provide references for the works of police authorities combating crime and governmental agencies and organizations making security policies. It may also be considered that education or women-specific policies as well as urban and regional

planning policies will use studies on the fear of crime as references. It is expected that the results of this thesis will be useful in view of these purposes. It is hoped that statistical and sociological interpretations suggested throughout the thesis will inspire future studies, and issues that are not addressed in this thesis or not explored in sufficient detail will be the subject of new studies in the area to complement the step taken with this study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A.

Anket No:

SORU KAĞIDI

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma sizin suç ile ilgili bazı konulardaki düşüncelerinizi belirlemek amacıyla yapılmaktadır. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış yanıtları yoktur. Lütfen size en uygun gelen seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Yanıtlarınız, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyoloji Bölümünde yürütülen bir 'Doktora Çalışması' için akademik olarak değerlendirilecektir. Değerli zamanınızı ayırdığınız ve katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

- 1) (...) Erkek
- 2) (...) Kadın

2. Medeni durumunuz:

- 1) (...) Evli
- 2) (...) Bekar
- 3) (...) Boşanmış
- 4) (...) Dul

3. Çocuğunuz var mı ?

4. Doğum yılınız:

5. Doğum yeriniz:

- 1) (...) Şehir
- 2) (...) İlçe
- 3) (...) Köy

6. Yaklaşık ne kadar zamandır bu şehirde yaşıyorsunuz?

.... Yıl /Ay

7. Yaklaşık ne kadar zamandır aynı evde oturuyorsunuz?

.... Yıl /Ay

8. Eğitim seviyeniz:

- 1) (...) Okula gitmemiş
- 2) (...) İlkokul terk – okuma yazma biliyor
- 3) (...) İlkokul mezunu (5 yıl)
- 4) (...) Ortaokul terk
- 5) (...) Ortaokul mezunu (3 yıl)
- 6) (...) İlköğretim terk

- 7) (...) İlköğretim mezunu (8 yıl)
- 8) (...) Lise terk
- 9) (...) Lise mezunu (3veya 4 yıl)
- 10) (...) Üniversite terk
- 11) (...) Yüksek eğitim/üniversite mezunu (2 yıl veya daha fazla)

9. Şu anda gelir getirici herhangi bir işte çalışıyor musunuz? (Düzenli ya da geçici; evde ya da dışarıda)

- 1) (...) Evet, çalışıyorum
- 2) (...) Hayır, emekliyim
- 3) (...) Hayır, işsizim
- 4) (...) Emekliyim, ama çalışıyorum

10. Eğer çalışıyorsanız şimdiki işinizi tanımlayınız. (Nerede ve bizzat ne iş yaptığınızı belirtiniz. Örnek: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığında müstahdem, FİSKOBİRLİK'te muhasebe memuru gibi)

11. Ailenizin toplam aylık net geliri (maaş, ücret, kira, vb. gelirler) ne kadardır?

12. Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne kadar katıldığınızı veya katılmadığınızı 1'den 5'e kadar işaretleyiniz :

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|
| Tamamen katılıyorum | → | 1 |
| Katılıyorum | → | 2 |
| Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum | → | 3 |
| Katılmıyorum | → | 4 |
| Hiç katılmıyorum | → | 5 |

Soru	İfade	1→5
12.1	Suçu önlemek vatandaşların değil tamamen polisin işidir	
12.2	Son yıllarda polis suçla mücadelede oldukça başarılıdır.	
12.3	Suçla mücadelede vatandaşlar da polise yardımcı olmalıdırlar.	
12.4	Yaşadığım çevrede kendimi güvende hissediyorum.	
12.5	Gündüzleri kendimi daha güvende hissediyorum.	
12.6	Kendimi en güvende hissettiğim yer evimdir.	
12.7	Çevremde polisin olduğunu görmek bana güven veriyor.	

13. Oturduğunuz mahallede karanlıkta, geceleri tek başınıza dolaşırken kendinizi ne derecede güvende hissediyorsunuz?

- 1) (....) Çok güvensiz
- 2) (....)Oldukça güvensiz
- 3) (....)Oldukça güvende
- 4) (....)Çok güvende

14. Yaşadığınız yakın çevreyi dikkate alarak (yürüme mesafesinde olan yerler) suç işleme açısından bir değerlendirme yaparsanız, nasıl tanımlarsınız?

- 1) (....)Kesinlikle güvensiz bir yer
- 2) (....)Çok emin değilim bazen güvenli geliyor, bazen güvensiz
- 3) (....)Oldukça güvenli bir yer olduğunu düşünüyorum

15. Önümüzdeki aylarda evinize bir hırsızın girmesi ihtimali sizce ne kadardır?

- 1) (....) Düşük bir ihtimal
- 2) (....)Olabilir/bir ihtimal
- 3) (....) Yüksek bir ihtimal

16. Kapkaç ya da taciz gibi çeşitli suçların mağduru olmamak için (siz ya da aile bireyleriniz) günlük yaşamınızda değişiklikler yapıyor musunuz?

- 1) (....)Evet (Belirtiniz).....
- 2) (....) Hayır (Belirtiniz).....

17. Sokağa çıktığınız vakit cüzdanınızın çalınabileceği endişesini hissediyor musunuz?

- 1) (....)Evet
- 2) (....)Hayır

18. Aile bireylerinizden birinden haber alamadığınızda aklınıza onların bir suçun mağduru olabileceği ihtimali ne sıklıkla gelir?

- 1) (....) Sık sık
- 2) (....) Zaman zaman
- 3) (....)Nadiren
- 4) (....)Hiçbir zaman

19. Sizce yaşadığınız şehirde suç oranı ne düzeydedir?

- 1) (....) Çok yüksek
- 2) (....) Yüksek
- 3) (....) Çok düşük
- 4) (....) Düşük

20. Sizce yaşadığınız mahallede suç oranı ne düzeydedir?

- 1) (....) Çok yüksek
- 2) (....) Yüksek
- 3) (....) Çok düşük
- 4) (....) Düşük

21. Sizce kadınlar mı erkekler mi daha çok suç mağduru olmaktadır?
Neden?

- 1) (....) Kadınlar. Çünkü
- 2) (....) Erkekler. Çünkü.....
- 3) Diğer.....

22. Son bir yılda oturduğunuz mahallede aşağıdaki durumlarla ne sıklıkla karşılaştınız?

Kategoriler	Sık sık	Zaman zaman	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
(22.1) Arabaların camlarının kırılması				
(22.2) Otobüs duraklarına zarar verilmesi				
(22.3) Sokakların pisletilmesi				
(22.4) Duvarlara çeşitli yazılar yazılması, resimler yapılması				

23. Son bir yılda, oturduğunuz mahallede sarhoş kişilerle ya da tiner kullanan çocuklarla şahsen ne kadar sıklıkla karşılaştınız?

- 1) (....) Sık sık
- 2) (....) Zaman zaman
- 3) (....) Nadiren
- 4) (....) Hiç bir zaman

24. Getiđimiz bir yıl ierisinde yařadığınız evrede ařađıdaki su trleri grld m?

Kategoriler	1) Evet	2) Hayır
Araba hırsızlıđı		
Arabadan mal/eřya alınması		
Motosiklet, scooter, motorlu bisiklet hırsızlıđı		
Eve hırsız girmesi		
Gasp		
Dolandırıcılık		
Darp		
Szl veya filli cinsel taciz		
Tehdit		
Kapka		
Biliřim (internet) suları		
Diđer		

25. Evinizde gvenlik amacı ile hangi tedbirler bulunmaktadır?

- 1) (....) Hırsız alarmı
- 2) (....) zel kapı kilitleri
- 3) (....) Pencere/kapı demirleri
- 4) (....) Hırsızı fark edecek bir kpek
- 5) (....) Yksek parmaklık
- 6) (....) Kapıda gvenlik
- 7) (....) Site/mahalle gvenliđi
- 8) (....) Komřular arasında bir birinin evine dikkat etmek gibi bir anlařma
- 9) (....) Hi biri yok
- 10) (....) Diđer.....

26. Geçtiğimiz bir yıl içerisinde, siz ya da ailenizden biri aşağıdaki suçlardan birinin mağduru oldu mu?

Kategoriler	1) Evet	2) Hayır
Araba hırsızlığı		
Arabadan mal/eşya çalınması		
Motosiklet, scooter, motorlu bisiklet hırsızlığı		
Eve hırsız girmesi		
Gasp		
Dolandırıcılık		
Darp		
Sözlü veya fiili cinsel taciz		
Tehdit		
Kapkaç		
Bilişim (internet) suçları		
Diğer		

27) Olayı polise bildirdiniz mi?

- 1) (....) Evet
- 2) (....) Hayır (neden?).....

28. Evinizin hırsızlık sigortası var mı?

- 1) (....) Evet
- 2) (....) Hayır
- 3) (....) Bilmiyorum

29. Evinizde tabanca, pompalı tüfek, av tüfeği veya havalı tüfek var mı?

- 1) (....) Evet
- 2) (....) Hayır

30. Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people

- 1) (....) Most people can be trusted
- 2) (....) Can't be too careful

31. Komşularınızla sosyal ilişkileriniz ne derece güçlüdür?

- 1) (....) Çok zayıf
- 2) (....) Zayıf
- 3) (....) Güçlü
- 4) (....) Çok güçlü

32. Genellikle komşularınız hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak ister misiniz?
1) (....) Evet
2) (....) Hayır
33. Komşularınızı yakından tanımak sizin güven duygunuzu artırır mı?
1) (....) Evet
2) (....) Hayır
34. Sizce toplumumuzda insanlar, aşağıda belirtilen suç mağdurlarından en çok hangisine karşı duyarlı davranırlar?
1) (....) Hırsızlık
2) (....) Cinayet
3) (....) Cinsel saldırı
4) (....) Kapkaç
35. Son iki hafta içerisinde aileniz, arkadaşlarınız veya meslektaşlarınız ile aranızda suç hakkında bir sohbet geçti mi?
1) (....) Evet (Bu sohbetiniz ne ile ilgiliydi?).....
2) (....) Hayır
36. Oturduğunuz çevrede genel olarak yaşadığınız en önemli sorun nedir?
37. Bu sorunu aşmak için komşularınızla ortak bir görüşmeniz oldu mu?
1) (....) Evet
2) (....) Hayır
38. Medyada suçla ilgili okuduğunuz, izlediğiniz, duyduğunuz haberlerden en çok hangi suç türleri ile ilgi olanlar sizi etkiliyor?
39. Sizce medya suç haberlerini doğru bir şekilde yansıtıyor mu?
1) (....) Evet
2) (....) Hayır
40. Sokakta bir kadının bir erkek tarafından taciz edildiğine tanık oldunuz. Ne yaparsınız?
1) (....) Kendim hemen müdahale ederim
2) (....) Başıma dert almak istemem, görmezden gelirim
3) (....) Polise haber veririm
4) (....) Diğer (belirtiniz):

41. Sokakta bir hırsızlık olayına tanık oldunuz. Ne yaparsınız?

- 1) (...) Kendim hemen müdahale ederim
- 2) (...) Başıma dert almak istemem, görmezden gelirim
- 3) (...) Polise haber veririm
- 4) (...) Diğer (belirtiniz):

42. Bir komşunuzun evine hırsız girdiğine tanık oldunuz. Ne yaparsınız?

- 1) (...) Kendim hemen müdahale ederim
- 2) (...) Başıma dert almak istemem, görmezden gelirim
- 3) (...) Polise haber veririm
- 4) (...) Diğer (belirtiniz):

43. Ülkemizde yaşanan sıkıntıları önem sırasına göre 1'den 5'e kadar sıralayınız.

Kategori	Önem sırası (1 - 5)
İşsizlik	
Altyapı sorunları	
Eğitimsizlik	
Suç	
Çevre sorunları	

44. Sizce insanlar neden suç işler?

45. Sizce suçla mücadele etmek için yapılması gerekenler nelerdir?

APPENDIX B.

Questionnaire No:

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

This survey is carried out with the purpose of determining your opinions and comments on some matters regarding the phenomenon of crime. There are no correct or false answers for the questions. Please mark the most appropriate option for you. The answers you provide will be academically evaluated for a 'Doctorate Study' carried out at the Department of Sociology of the Middle East Technical University. We highly appreciate the invaluable time you spared and your contributions.

1. Your sex:

- 1) (....) Male
- 2) (....) Female

2. Your marital status:

- 1) (....) Married
- 2) (....) Single
- 3) (....) Divorced
- 4) (....) Widow/Widower

3. Do you have any children?

4. Date of birth:

5. Your place of birth:

- 1) (....) City
- 2) (....) Town
- 3) (....) Village

6. How long do you live in this city?

.... Year(s) / Month(s)

7. How long do you live in the same house?

.... Year(s) / Month(s)

8. Your educational level:

- 1) (....) Illiterate/No formal education
- 2) (....) Elementary school dropout – Can read and write
- 3) (....) Elementary school graduate (5 years)

- 4) (....) Secondary school dropout
- 5) (....) Secondary school graduate (3 years)
- 6) (....) Primary school dropout
- 7) (....) Primary school graduate (8 years)
- 8) (....) High school dropout
- 9) (....) High school graduate (3 or 4 years)
- 10) (....) University dropout
- 11) (....) Higher education / university graduate (2 years of more)

9. Are you currently working at an income-generating job? (Regular or temporarily; at home or outside)

- 1) (....) Yes, I am.
- 2) (....) No, I am retired.
- 3) (....) No, I am unemployed.
- 4) (....) I am retired, but I am working.

10. If you are working, please define your current job (Please specify your workplace and exactly what you are doing there. For example: janitor at the Ministry of National Education, accounting officer at the Union of Agricultural Cooperatives for the sales of Hazelnuts)

11. What is the total monthly net income your family (income such as salary, wage, rental, etc.)?

12. Please mark to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below from 1 to 5:

- Strongly agree → 1
- Agree → 2
- Neutral → 3
- Disagree → 4
- Strongly disagree → 5

Question	Statement	1→5
12.1	Prevention of crime is entirely the duty of the police, not the citizen's.	
12.2	Recently, the police are quite successful in the fight against the crime.	
12.3	The citizens should help the police in the fight against the crime as well.	
12.4	I feel safe in my neighbourhood	
12.5	I feel safer during the day time.	
12.6	The place I feel safest is my house.	
12.7	Seeing the police around assures me.	

13. How safe do you feel when you are walking alone in dark at nights in your neighborhood??

- 1) (....) Extremely unsafe
- 2) (....) Rather unsafe
- 3) (....) Quite safe
- 4) (....) Extremely safe

14. If you make an assessment of the close environment (places within walking distance) you live in terms of perpetration, how would you describe it?

- 1) (....) Definitely an insecure place
- 2) (....) I am not that sure; sometimes I feel safe, sometime not
- 3) (....) To me, it is quite safe

15. What is the probability that your house will be burgled in the coming months?

- 1) (....) A low probability
- 2) (....) Probable
- 3) (....) A high probability

16. In order not to be a victim of various crimes such as snatching or harassment, are you (or family members) making any changes in your daily life?

- 1) (....) Yes (Specify).....
- 2) (....) No (Specify).....

17. Do you worry when you go out to the street that your purse/wallet might be stolen?

- 1) (....) Yes
- 2) (....) No

18. In what frequency do you think that any family member of yours might be a victim of crime when you cannot hear from him/her?

- 1) (....) Often
- 2) (....) Sometimes
- 3) (....) Seldom
- 4) (....) Never

19. What do you think is the crime rate of the city you live in?

- 1) (....) Very high
- 2) (....) High
- 3) (....) Very low
- 4) (....) Low

20. What do you think is the crime rate of the neighborhood you live in?

- 1) (....) Very high
- 2) (....) High
- 3) (....) Very low
- 4) (....) Low

21. Who do you think becomes more the victim of crime; women or men?
Why?

- 1) (....) Women. Because
- 2) (....) Men. Because
- 3) Other

22. Within the recent year, in what frequency have you confronted with the following cases in the neighborhood you live?

Categories	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
(22.1) Broken glasses of cars				
(22.2) Vandalization of bus stops				
(22.3) Dropping litter in the street				
(22.4) Various graffiti, pictures on the walls				

23. Within the recent year, how often have you met with / seen drunken people or thinner-addict children in the neighborhood you live?

- 1) (....) Often
- 2) (....) Occasionally
- 3) (....) Seldom
- 4) (....) Never

24. Within the past year, was any of the following types of crime seen in the neighbourhood you live?

Categories	1) Yes	2) No
Car theft		
Stolen goods/belongings from car		
Motorcycle, scooter, motorbike theft		
Burglary into house		
Usurpation/Mugging		
Fraud		
Battery		
Verbal or actual sexual harassment		

Menace		
Stealing by snatching		
Computer (internet) crimes		
Other.....		

25. What are the security precautions in your house?

- 1) (....) Burglar alarm
- 2) (....) Special door locks
- 3) (....) Window/door bars
- 4) (....) A dog
- 5) (....) High fences
- 6) (....) Security personnel at the gate
- 7) (....) Security personnel for the building complex/quarter
- 8) (....) Agreement among the neighbors to keep an eye on the house of the other
- 9) (....) None
- 10) (....) Other

26. Within the past year, were you or any family member a victim of the any of the following crime?

Categories	1) Yes	2) No
Car theft		
Stolen goods/belongings from car		
Motorcycle, scooter, motorbike theft		
Burglary into house		
Mugging		
Fraud		
Battery		
Verbal or actual sexual harassment		
Threat		
Snatching		
Computer (internet) crimes		
Other		

27) Did you inform the police about the incidence?

- 1) (....) Yes
- 2) (....) No (Why?).....

28. Is your house covered under burglary insurance?
- 1) (....) Yes
 - 2) (....) No
 - 3) (....) I do not know
29. Do you have gun, pump rifle, hunting rifle or air gun in your house?
- 1) (....) Yes
 - 2) (....) No
30. Do you generally think that most of the people are trustworthy or untrustworthy?
- 1) (....) Most people can be trusted
 - 2) (....) People are not trustworthy; we should be cautious and wary.
31. How strong are your social relations with your neighbors?
- 1) (....) Very weak
 - 2) (....) Weak
 - 3) (....) Strong
 - 4) (....) Very strong
32. Generally speaking, would you like to be informed of your neighbors?
- 1) (....) Yes
 - 2) (....) No
33. Do you think knowing your neighbors closely increase your sense of trust?
- 1) (....) Yes
 - 2) (....) No
34. To which of the following victim of crime do you think people in our society are sensitive most?
- 1) (....) Theft/burglary
 - 2) (....) Murder
 - 3) (....) Sexual attack
 - 4) (....) Snatching
35. Within the last two weeks, have you had a chat with your family, friends or colleagues about crime?
- 1) (....) Yes (What was your chat about?).....
 - 2) (....) No

36. What is the most important problem in general in the neighbourhood you live?

37. Have you ever had a common meeting/discussion with your neighbours to solve that problem?

- 1) (....) Yes
- 2) (....) No

38. What types of news of crimes among the ones you read, watch or hear on the media affect you most?

39. Do you think the media reflect the news of crime in a correct manner?

- 1) (....) Yes
- 2) (....) No

40. You witness that a woman is being harassed by a man in the street. What would you do?

- 1) (....) I intervene myself immediately
- 2) (....) I do not want to get into trouble; I turn a blind eye to it
- 3) (....) I notify the police
- 4) (....) Other (specify):

41. You witness an incidence of theft in the street. What would you do?

- 1) (....) I intervene myself immediately
- 2) (....) I do not want to get into trouble; I turn a blind eye to it
- 3) (....) I notify the police
- 4) (....) Other (specify):

42. You witness that the house of one of your neighbors is being burgled. What would you do?

- 1) (....) I intervene myself immediately
- 2) (....) I do not want to get into trouble; I turn a blind eye to it
- 3) (....) I notify the police
- 4) (....) Other (specify):

43. Please specify the problems in our country based on the order of importance from 1 to 5.

Category	Order of Importance (1 - 5)
Unemployment	
Infrastructure problems	
Lack of education	
Crime	
Environmental problems	

44. Why do you think do people commit a crime?

45. What do you think are the things to be done in order to fight with the crime?

APPENDIX C.

TURKISH SUMMARY

'Suç' yüzyıllardan beri insanların ilgilerini yönelttikleri bir konudur. Bu ilgi pratik yansımalarının yanında akademik anlamda da kendini göstermiştir. Suç sosyolojisi çalışmalarında ilk adımda suçun tanımı üzerinde tartışmalar yürütülürken, ilerleyen zamanlarda suçun nedenleri, suçlu profilinin mental, fiziksel özellikleri, kişiyi suç iten toplumsal nedenler, suç önleme politikaları, polislik uygulamaları gibi gelişmeler pratik ve akademik anlamda bir süreç içerisinde yaşanmıştır. İlk dönemlerde suç sosyolojisi disiplininde, suç konusuna makro yaklaşımlar gözlenirken, daha sonra daha mikro yaklaşımlarla çok boyutlu suç konusu araştırılır olmuştur.

Bu sürecin sonraki adımlarında ise ihmal edilen bir alanın, bir tarafın varlığı dikkat çekici olmuştur, bu da 'mağdur' yani suçtan direkt olarak etkilenen, suçun birebir mağduru olan kişilerdir. Bu gelişme ile birlikte suçun bireysel sonuçları araştırılmıştır. Ancak biz biliyoruz ki, suçun sadece bireysel sonuçları değil, ötesinde toplumsal sonuçları da bulunmaktadır. İşte bu noktada 'suç korkusu' çalışmaları ortaya çıkmaktadır. 'Suç korkusu' suçtan direkt mağduriyeti kapsasa da ötesinde suçun yarattığı toplumsal etkilerin gözlemlenebileceği en temel araştırma konularından biri olmuştur. Yukarıda değinilen süreçte 'mağduriyet' çalışmalarının bir sonraki adımının da 'suç korkusu' olduğu söylenebilir.

Diğer bir deyişle suç korkusu çalışmaları, mağduriyet alanının bir parçasını tamamlamak yönünde önemli bir adımdır. Suç korkusu çalışmalarının literatüdeki yerini almasıyla birlikte suç korkusunun boyutları, bireysel ve toplumsal sonuçları gibi al başlıklarda konunun ayrıntıları incelenmiştir.

Suç korkusu çok boyutlu ve komplike bir konudur. Her şeyin ötesinde suç korkusu yaşam kalitesinin önemli bir belirleyicisidir ve pek çok sonuçları görülmektedir. Suç korkusundan hareketle alınan tedbirler konusu bu sonuçlara ilk aşamada örnek olarak verilebilir. Bu tedbirler sadece kişilerin kendilerini direkt olarak etkilemekle kalmayıp, ailelerini, çevrelerini ve sonuç olarak toplumun tümünü etkilemektedir. Korkunun daha yüksek olduğu boyutlarda kimi topluluklar, topyekün korunma tedbirlerine gidebilmektedir. Bu, potansiyel suçlu olduklarını düşündükleri etnik gruptan insanları dışlamak şeklinde olabileceği gibi, teknolojik olanaklardan yararlanarak topyekün en son güvenlik tedbirlerini kullanmak şeklinde de olabilmektedir.

En temelde belirtilmesi gereken, suç korkusunun toplumsal yaşamın önemli yapıtaşlarından biri olduğudur. Ve öyle ki suç korkusunun sonuçları suçun olası sonuçlarından daha büyük ve etkili olmaktadır. Bu anlayışla birlikte suç korkusunun sadece artan ya da azalan suç oranlarına verilen bir tepki olmadığı, pek çok başka noktanın da suç korkusu analizine katılması gerektiği anlaşılmıştır. Bunlardan bazıları; önceden yaşanmış bir mağduriyet deneyimi, kadınlar, yaşlılar, farklı etnik gruplardan kişiler,

sakatlar gibi insanların kendilerini daha incinebilir olarak tanımlamaları, bir kişinin yaşadığı ortamdaki komşuluk ilişkileri, günlük yaşamda karşılaşılan sosyal ya da fiziksel düzensizlikler, polise ve yasal uygulamalara duyulan güven gibi konulardır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı toplumda suç korkusunu anlamaktır. Literatürde suç korkusunu tema alan pek çok araştırma bulunmaktadır. Bu araştırmalar, farklı çıkış noktalarından hareketle konunun farklı boyutlarını ele almış ve farklı sonuçlara ulaşmışlardır. Bu çalışma, literatürde yer alan temel yaklaşımları da dikkate alarak eldeki veri seti üzerinden analizler yaparak özgün yorumlara ulaşmayı hedeflemiştir.

Farklı coğrafyalardaki farklı insanlar, çeşitli nedenlerle farklı şekillerde suç korkusu yaşayabilirler. Bu nedenle, içinde bulunulan toplumun niteliklerine göre analizler yapılması gerekmektedir.

Dünya'dakinin aksine Türkiye'de suç korkusu konusunda az sayıda akademik araştırma bulunmaktadır. Suç gibi gündelik yaşamın hemen her noktasında insanın karşısına çıkan bir olgu nedenleri ve sonuçlarıyla birlikte detaylı bir şekilde incelenmesi gereken bir konudur. Suç korkusu da bu sonuçlardan birisidir.

Akademik ve metodolojik anlamda değerlendirildiğinde Dünya genelinde pek çok ülkede ulusal düzeyde uygulanan Ulusal Suç Mağduriyeti

Anketlerine (NCVS) değinilebilir. Aynı şekilde uluslar arası düzeyde uygulanan Uluslararası Suç Mağduriyet Anketleri (ICVS) de bulunmaktadır. Bu uygulamalar ağırlıklı olarak mevcut ve potansiyel mağdur profili belirleme amacıyla yürütülmektedir. Suç korkusu ise bu anketlerin ana başlıklarından birini oluşturmaktadır. Türkiye’de ulusal düzeyde uygulanan mağduriyet anketleri bulunmamaktadır. Aynı şekilde, Türkiye’nin uluslararası mağduriyet anketi uygulamasına düzenli katılımı söz konusu değildir. Sadece 2005 yılında bu araştırmanın bir ayağı İstanbul ilinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu anlamda Türkiye’de suç korkusu çalışmaları akademik düzeyde sınırlı kalmakta, ulusal düzeyde ya da kurumsal bir çabayla uygulanmamaktadır diye yorum yapabiliriz. Ancak akademik düzeyde de sınırlılıkların altını çizmek zorundayız. İşte bu çalışmada bu boşluğu doldurma niyetiyle yola çıkılmıştır.

Literatürde genelde suç sosyolojisi, özelde suç korkusu konusunda yapılan çalışmalar yabancı toplumların, ağırlıklı olarak batı toplumlarının toplumsal dinamikleri içerisinde yürütülmüştür. Bu anlamda toplumumuza özgü değerlendirmelerin yapılmasına yönelik ihtiyacın olduğu açıktır. Az önce de belirttiğim gibi, literatürde yürütülen araştırmalar farklı çıkış noktalarından hareket etmişlerdir. Örneğin bazı araştırmalar sadece toplumsal cinsiyet üzerinden konuya yaklaşmıştır ve teoride yer alan kadınların suç korkusunun erkeklerden daha fazla olduğu hipotezini test etmiştir. Öte yandan bazı araştırmalar ise, yaş üzerinden analizler yapmış, bazıları mağduriyet deneyimlerinin insanların suç korkusunu arttırdığını

öne sürerek arařtırmalar yapmıřlardır. Ya da kimi zaman arařtırmaların odak noktası sadece eđitim, sadece komřuluk iliřkileri olabilmektedir. Kiřilerin hangi bireysel özellikleri onların suç korkusu duymasına neden olmaktadır? Kiřilerin içinde bulunduđu hangi toplumsal ya da fiziksel kořullar onların suç korkusunu etkilemektedir? Bunlar ve benzeri sorular arařtırmaların hipotezlerini oluřturmuřlardır.

Ancak, mevcut alıřma, Trkiye’de bu boyutta yapılmıř az sayıdaki arařtırmadan biri olması nedeniyle- btnlkl bir suç korkusu analizi yapmayı hedeflemiřtir. Literatrde var olan yaklařımlar bu arařtırma kapsamında referans gsterilmiř, metodoloji kısmında ise bu yaklařımların analiz noktalarına deđinilmiřtir. Literatr kısmında referans gsterilen alıřmalar, bu meseleyle ilgili olarak en iyi okuma yapılabilecek yaklařımlardır. Yukarıda deđinilen ‘btnlkl yaklařıma’ buradan hareketle ulařmak hedeflenmiřtir.

Bu arařtırmada bir alan alıřması yapılmıřtır. Arařtırma yntemi olarak anket uygulaması tercih edilmiřtir. Yař, cinsiyet, eđitim, gelir dzeyi gibi demografik belirleyicilerin yanında polise gven, yařanmıř bir mađduriyet, komřuluk iliřkileri ve dayanıřma, suç algısı, sosyal ve evresel dzensizlikler gibi suç mađduru olma korkusunu etkileyen olası belirleyicilerin analiz edilmesi ve sosyolojik olarak yorumlanması amacıyla bir soru kađıdı hazırlanmıřtır.

Bu araştırmanın özgünlüğünü sağlayan bir başka nokta da 'örneklem seçimi' aşamasında ortaya çıkmaktadır. Değınildiđi gibi kişilerin suç korkusunu belirleyen pek çok etken olduđu varsayılmaktadır. Bunların arasında sayılabilecek sosyo-ekonomik statü farklılıklarına bu araştırma kapsamında yer verilmiştir. Farklı sosyo-ekonomik statüden insanların suç korkusunu da farklı şekillerde yaşayabilecekleri varsayılmaktadır. Sosyo-ekonomik statü başlıđı altında deđişen kimliklerin, sosyal kategorilerin suç korkusundan nasıl etkilendikleri, ya da nasıl farklılaştıkları bu araştırmanın örneklem seçiminin, tasarımının arkasında yatan kavrayıştır. Ve araştırma boyunca da bunun izleri görölmektedir, eğitim, gelir ve mesleki statü farklılıklarıyla da desteklenen bu durum, suç korkularının düzeyinde, aldıkları tedbirlerde, gündelik yaşamlarındaki pratiklerinde dahi kendini göstermektedir.

Bu çalışmada, var olan bir sosyal gerçeklik 'suç korkusu' sosyal gerçekliđi sosyolojinin bize verdiđi teorik ve ampirik araçlarla araştırmaya çalışılmıştır. Ancak belirtmek gerekir ki, bu araştırma 'suç korkusunu' sadece bir 'soru kađıdı' ile ölçmemiştir, alan çalışmasının uygulanması edilmesi süresince de 'suç korkusu' yaşandıđı gözlemlenmiştir.

Bu araştırmanın örneklem seçimi 'Türkiye İstatistik Kurumuna' başvurularak yapılmıştır. Altındađ ve Çankaya ilçelerinden toplam 20 mahalleden, 90 tanesi ikame adresi olmak üzere, 620 hane adresi

alınmıştır. Toplamda 530 kişiyle görüşülmüş, 20 tanesi güvenilirlik nedeniyle elenmiş ve 510 soru kağıdı analize katılmıştır.

Bu araştırmada hem gözlemlenen hem de örtülü (latent) değişkenlerin varlığı mevcuttur. Soru kağıdı, hem gözlemlenen ve hem örtülü (latent) değişkenler elde etmek üzere hazırlanmıştır. Soru kağıdında, örneğin, cinsiyet, yaş, gelir gibi gözlemlenen değişkenler olduğu gibi tek soruyla ölçülemeyecek ancak bir dizi sorunun indeks değişkenine dönüştürülmesiyle ölçülmesi mümkün olan; örtülü (latent) değişkenler elde edilmiştir.

Analizlere gelindiğinde, bu çalışma tartışmalarını öncelikle temel yaklaşımlar üzerine kurmayı hedeflemiştir. Eldeki veri seti üzerinde, yaklaşımların test hipotezlerini test etmeden daha gelişmiş analizlere gitmek doğru olmayacaktır. Bu nedenle araştırmada, literatürde yer alan çalışmaların temel hipotezleri eldeki veri setine uygulanmış ve test edilmişlerdir.

Ancak, sosyal bir gerçeklik tek bir ya da birkaç değişkene bağlı olarak açıklanamaz. Ya da tek tek değişkenler üzerinden kümülatif bir analize gitmek doğru değildir. Sosyal bir gerçekliği analiz etmenin bir yolu, birden fazla değişkenin birlikte yer aldığı, sosyolojik yorumlara imkân verebilecek, istatistiki bir analiz yapmaktır. Bu amaçla bir regresyon analizi yapmak uygun görülmüştür. Böylece, 'suç korkusu' bağımlı değişkenini, hangi

bağımsız değişkenlerin etkilediğini ya da etkilemediğini görme fırsatımız olabilmektedir. Böylelikle, suç korkusu gibi karmaşık örüntülere sahip bir sosyal gerçekliği ölçmek ve analiz etmek mümkün olabilmektedir. Hipotez testlerinde olduğu gibi tek tek değişkenlerle yapılan analizler ancak bize kısıtlı düzeyde betimsel bilgiler sunabilir. Oysa böyle bir analiz yapmak, daha keşfedici bir kavrayış geliştirmenin olanağını sunabilecektir.

Bu beklentiden hareketle oluşturulan suç korkusu belirleyicileri analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar değerlendirildiğinde; sosyal ve fiziksel düzensizlikler bu analiz içerisinde suç korkusunu en çok etkileyen faktör olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Hipotez testinde de ortaya çıkan bu duruma göre insanlar, yakın çevrelerindeki sosyal ve fiziksel düzensizliklerin oldukça farkındadırlar ve bu durum da onların suç korkusunu artırmaktadır.

İkinci sırada bu çalışmanın başından beri kullanıldığı şekliyle yaşanan bölgeler (districts) yer almaktadır. Bu çalışmanın örneklem seçimini belirleyen bölgesel farklılıklar, aslında insanların sosyo-ekonomik statüsünün de bir belirleyicisi olarak yorumlanmıştır. Buradaki yaşam alanıyla kast edilen şey, salt ilçe farklılığını değil, komşuluk ilişkilerinin çeşidini ve yoğunluğunu, ilçenin altyapı ve fiziksel şartlarını, ilçe sakinlerinin sosyal ve ekonomik profillerini de kapsamaktadır. Tüm bu fiziksel ve sosyal farklılıklar dikkate alındığında bu iki farklı ilçe sakinlerinin, suç korkusu oranlarının da farklı olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Çankaya

Altındağ karşılaştırması anlamında da Çankaya sakinlerinin Altındağ'a göre suç korkusunun daha az olduğu görülmektedir.

Üçüncü sırada toplumsal cinsiyet suç korkusunu etkileyen bir faktör olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Hipotez testinde kadınların erkeklere oranla daha fazla suç korkusuna sahip oldukları doğrulanamamıştır ancak mevcut model içerisinde toplumsal cinsiyet suç korkusunu etkileyen bir faktör olarak ortaya çıkmıştır.

Suç korkusunu etkileyen son faktör olarak kişilerin dolaylı mağduriyet deneyimleri yer almaktadır. Suçun direkt mağdurlarının yanında, bu suçtan çeşitli kaynaklar yoluyla haberdar olan kişilerin mağduriyeti de söz konusu olmakta bu da onların suç korkusunu artırmaktadır.

Öte yandan, yaş, eğitim, gelir, cana karşı ya da mala karşı suç mağduriyeti, çocuk sahibi olma durumu, komşuları tanıma ve komşuluk ilişkilerinin yoğunluğu gibi değişkenler ise suç korkusunu etkileyen değişkenler olarak bu analiz içerisinde ortaya çıkmamaktadır.

Tekrarlamak gerekirse, suç korkusu konusunda daha mikro düzeyde araştırmalar yürütülmesi mümkündür. Böylelikle suç korkusu belirleyicilerinin teker teker analiz edilmesi mümkün olabilir. Ancak mevcut çalışmada pek çok değişken bir arada değerlendirilmiş ve böylelikle bütünlüklü bir suç korkusu analizine ulaşmak hedeflenmiştir.

APPENDIX D.

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

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EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
PhD	METU Sociology	2010
Msc	METU Sociology	2002
BA	BILKENT University International Relations	1998

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2006-2007	Cyprus International University, Department of International Relations	Instructor

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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HOBBIES

Tennis, Swimming, Movies, Cooking