

# Fearing Future Terrorism: Perceived Personal, National, Regional and International Threats of Terrorism

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**Abstract** The aim of the study is to investigate Arab university students' fearing future terrorism: Perceived personal, national, regional and international threats of terrorism. It aims to examine gender differences in fear of terrorism. Moreover it examines the determinants of fear of terrorism.

A sample of 188 students (Mutah University, Jordan) was randomly selected. A questionnaire was developed based on the existing scales. A construct validity of the scale was estimated by the calculating the correlation between Terrorism Catastrophizing Scale and the current Fear of Terrorism Scale and found a positive significant relationship (0.564,  $\alpha=0.000$ ), a sign of strong validity of the scale. A Reliability of the scale is strong and was estimated by Cronbach's alpha and was 0.889.

Findings of this study reveals that students concerned 42% that they personally about themselves, a friend or relative being the victim of future terrorist attack in Jordan. Also students are worried that there will be another terrorist attack on Jordan soil, region and global in the near future with average of 5.4 (54%), 5.3(53%), and 6(60%) respectively. Factor analysis produced three factors explaining 63.9% of the variance, the first factor explained (personal threat) 41.9% of the variance, the second factor (national threat) explained 14% of the total variance and the third factor (external threats "regional and global") explained 7.8% of the variance. Multiple regression analysis show a significant impact ( $F=8.741$ ,  $\alpha=0.00$ ) of demographical variables; political orientation; justice; students satisfaction, Low self-control; catastrophizing, radicalization, bullying, and bullying incidents on fear of terrorism and all explained 57.5% of the variance on the fear of terrorism. Moreover, findings show a significant relationship between fear of terrorism and catastrophizing (.564,  $\alpha=0.000$ ), low self-control, (.465,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); personal perceived terrorism threat (.699,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); personal perceived fear risk( .840,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); personal perceived risk of terrorism, .809,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); national terrorism threat (.631,  $\alpha=0.000$ ), regional terrorism threat (.651,  $\alpha=0.00$ ), and global terrorism threat (.575,  $\alpha=0.00$ ). Significant deference between males and females is found in the fear of terrorism ( $F=9.621$ ,  $\alpha=0.002$ ).

**Keywords.** Future Terrorism, Fear, International threats, national threat, personal threat, Jordan.

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## Introduction

Arabs fear terrorism, and perceived terrorism as threat factor to their personal, national security. Throughout the past few decades, Jordan has developed a set of legal, criminal justice and other law enforcement initiatives, which fall under the wide paradigm of 'counterterrorism policy'. Anti-terrorism law and Jordan Intelligence Anti-Terrorism Special Force are examples of such efforts. These various laws, regulations and programs are integrated with notions of 'dangerousness', 'risk assessment' and 'security'. The emergence of these concepts and their transformation into policies is part of a wider global paradigm described by Beck (2002) as originating in the formation of a 'risk society'. According to Beck, [1] individuals today live in fear of threatening situations and as a response, policy makers are looking for ways to Anti-avoid the harm inflicted by various hazards. Terrorism is yet another manifestation of this fear culture, which leads societies to establish immediate responses deemed necessary for survival [2].

Jordan has suffered from terrorism since its early days, Terrorists tried to pressure Jordan to influence its' political stands which are characterized by moderately and rationality in unstable area torn by extremism. Terrorists struck Jordanian national symbols, citizens and interests. Jordan had lost its' founder His Majesty King Abdullah bin al-Hussein by terrorism[3]. King Abdullah was shot dead while he was attending Friday prayers at the Dome of the Rock in Jerusalem by a Palestinian terrorist from the Hussein clan on 20 July 1951. [4]

Leftist terrorist organizations threatened Jordan's security and stability in the 1960's, and such organization helped to instigate the Jordanian civil war in 1970-1971.[5]. Jordan has also lost two Prime ministers ( Haza'a Al-Majali 1960 and Wasfi Al-Tal ,1971) as victims of Palestinian terrorism, Terrorists have also targeted Jordanian citizens, internal institutions, embassies, diplomats and interests abroad[6].

On Sept. 6, 1970, Palestinian terrorists belonging to the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP) almost simultaneously hijack three jetliners shortly after they take off from European airports on routes toward the United States. When hijackers on one plane are foiled, hijackers seize a fourth jet, divert it to Cairo, and blow it up. The two other hijacked planes are ordered to a desert air strip in Jordan known as Dawson Field.

Three days later, PFLP hijackers seize another jet and divert it to the desert strip, which the hijackers call Revolution Field. Most of the 421 passengers and crew on board the three planes in Jordan are freed on Sept. 11, but hijackers hold on to 56 hostages, most of them Jewish and American men, and blow up the three jets on Sept. 12. There were 29 hijackings attempts carried out by Palestinian factions between 1968 and 1977, trigger what is called Black September in Jordan, as the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) and the PFLP attempt to seize control of Jordan and overthrow King Hussein. Hussein's toppling fails, however, and the hostage crisis is resolved on Sept. 30 when the PFLP releases the last six hostages it held in exchange for the release of several Palestinian and Arab prisoners held in European and Israeli jails.[7]

The 1980s was a decade where terrorists attacked Jordanian targets in Lebanon, Turkey, and other European countries. Shitie groups hijacked a Jordanian plane in Lebanon in protest to Jordan's support to Iraq during the Iran-Iraq war during that decade. In 1981, Jordan's Intelligence Department foiled a terrorist attack, planned by Syria, to assassinate the Jordanian Prime Minister. Abu Nidal Organization attacked

Jordanian targets (diplomats and offices) in Europe. Moreover, Jordan was targeted by religious-based terrorism in the 1990s. Groups and individuals of Jordanians, who fought in Afghanistan in the 1980s, returned to Jordan and used violence and terrorism against public targets. Those people were known as “Jordanian –Afghan groups. “Jaish Muhammad for example attacked intelligence officer in 1991. The famous Abu Mosab Al-Zarqawi, was arrested in the 1990s for his activities with these groups [8]

### **National Fear of Terrorism**

Terrorist has not only tried to terror civilians, but also to change their happy days into nightmares. November, 9, 2005 was a sad and fearful day in Jordan, for all Jordanians, and for the families who had lost their beloveds in Amman's Bombings targeted three hotels. The explosions at the Grand Hyatt Hotel, the Radisson SAS Hotel, and the Days Inn Hotel started around 20:50 local time. The attacks killed 60 innocent people and injured 115 others. The three attacks took place within minutes of one another and they were carried out by suicide bombers. At the Radisson SAS, two suicide bombers (a husband and wife team—Ali Hussein Ali al-Shamari and Sajida Al Rishawi—entered the Philadelphia Ballroom, where Ashraf Akhras and his bride, Nadia Al-Alami, were celebrating their wedding with around 300 Jordanian and Palestinian guests. Sajida al-Rishawi was unable to detonate her belt. Her husband Ali al-Shamari, apparently admonished her and told her to get out of the room. As she was leaving, the lights went out in the ballroom; Ali jumped onto a dining-room table and detonated himself. Amongst the 38 people killed in the explosion were the fathers of the bride and groom [9]. The Iraqi wife of a suicide bomber said that she also tried to blow herself up during a hotel wedding reception but the explosives concealed under her denim dress failed to detonate. She and her husband, Ali Hussein Ali al-Shamari, 35, were wearing explosive-laden belts when they strolled into a Radisson ballroom where hundreds of guests, including children, were attending a Jordanian-Palestinian wedding reception. She said:

*“My husband wore a belt and put one on me. He taught me how to use it, how to pull the (primer cord) and operate it, my husband detonated (his bomb). I tried to explode (my belt) but it wouldn't. I left, people fled running and I left running with them.” [9, 10]*

The second blast happened about 500 yards (500 m) from the Radisson SAS. It destroyed the Grand Hyatt hotel's entrance, along with badly damaging the reception and bar areas. After the bomber ordered orange juice in the hotel's coffee shop, he went to another room (to get his explosive belt) and then came back and detonated his bomb. Seven hotel employees were killed in this blast, as were Syrian-American movie producer Moustafa Akkad who was in the Grand Hyatt lobby, was severely wounded and died in a hospital on November 11. His 34-year-old daughter Rima was also killed in the blast [11]. Akkad, who is best known for producing the Halloween series of Salshar films, was also the producer of Mohammad, Messenger of God. At the time of his death, he was in the early stages of producing a film about Saladin, the Kurdish Muslim leader who expelled the Crusaders from Palestine.

At the Days Inn, the bomber entered the restaurant on the hotel's ground floor. He tried to detonate his explosive belt but had trouble; a waiter noticed this and called security. The bomber ran outside of the hotel and successfully detonated himself, killing three members of a Chinese military delegation. Among the dead were thirty-six Jordanians,

mostly from a Muslim wedding, The rest were six Iraqis, five Palestinians, four Americans, two Arab-Israelis, two Bahrainis, three Chinese, one Saudi, and one Indonesian citizen. The bombers were: Abu Khabib, Abu Muaz, Abu Omaira and Om Omaira, all Iraqis. At that time, there have been concerns that terrorist attacks may occur in Jordan, due in part to its close proximity to Iraq, but also due to its government's cooperation in the United States' War on Terrorism[12].

In American shorthand date notation, the month number is followed by the day number, i.e. 9/11 corresponds to September 11. However, elsewhere in the world, the month number follows the day number; thus, November 9 would be notated in most nations, including Jordan, as 9/11. It has been speculated that this may constitute a parallel between the two dates (and thus to the September, 11, 2001 attacks). In other words, the hotels bombings were viewed in Jordan as their own 9-11 in terms of ruthlessness and were the biggest terrorist attacks in Jordan in its modern times.

In August 2005 several Katyusha rockets were fired from within Jordan. Some hit near the Eilat airport and two hit very close to 2 United States Navy ship docked in Aqaba, south of Jordan. A terrorist group linked with al-Qaida claimed to have made that attack. The ships and their crews were awarded the Combat Action Ribbon in response to the attack. One of the rockets hit a Jordanian military hospital, killing a Jordanian soldier. The attack is regarded as having been perpetrated by the al-Zarqawi branch of Al Qaeda [13]. The attack took place in the early morning. The projectiles were Iranian-made 122mm Grad missiles, each weighing 6 kilograms and with ranges of approximately 20 kilometers.

Two rockets fell in front of the International Continental hotel in Aqaba. Five Jordanian men traveling in a taxi nearby were wounded, one seriously. The driver, Subhi Yousef Alawneh, died from his injuries later the same day. The road was damaged and two vehicles were destroyed, though the hotel itself escaped harm. Three rockets fell on the city of Eilat, one in a drainage pool in the northern part of the city, causing no reported injuries or damage. One rocket fell near an Egyptian security installation near Taba, and another fell into the Red Sea [14].

Amman's bombings was the most serious attack on American targets in Jordan since the 2002 killing of American diplomat Laurence Foley in Amman, who was killed by gunshots from 9mm silenced pistol as he was walked to his car outside his Amman home by two men paid by Abu Musab al-Zarqawi[15].

As mentioned above, Jordan has been targeted by all types of terrorism since its early days as a political state. It was attacked by Palestinian terrorists, state-sponsored terrorists, religious-based terrorists, left-wing terrorists, and like-minded individuals/groups terrorists. Jordan's political policies and its position in the Middle East made it a suitable target for all kinds of terrorism.

## **RELEVANT LITRUTURE REVIEW**

Nineteenth century anarchists and radical social reformers recognized that they were able to send a powerful messages to audiences by committing violence, they defend terrorism as "propaganda by the deed". Scholars have assumed that the mere threat of terrorists strikes affects societies that have experienced actual act of terrorism. Most definitions of terrorism include the threat of violent political acts against civilians [16]. As Frost [17: 44] points out, "Terror by definition, a matter of fear: 'terror'

means fear in the extreme.” The success of terrorism is intertwined with fear, Preventing public from fear will eliminate terrorism goals.

Threats has an effects on people’s attitudes, emotions and behaviors. It can increase ethnocentrism, and xenophobia[18]; increases reliance on stereotypes [19]; bias cognitive processing[20] and increase willingness to take risks[21], [22]. According to Pratkanis and Aronson [23:165]fear persuasion is effective when it accomplishes the following, (1) it scares the hell out of people, (2) it offers a specific recommendation for overcoming the fear-arousing threat, (3) the recommended action is perceived as effective for reducing the threat, and (4) the message recipient believes that he or she can perform the recommended action. Americans' concerns about the threat of terrorism within their own borders remained quite high during the post 9-11 years and increased frequently in the increases in reporting of threats and terrorism alerts. Mass-mediated threat messages by al Qaeda leaders and announced alerts and threat assessments by U.S. administration officials had a significant impact on the American public’s threat perceptions in the post-9/11 years[16].

A 2004 New York Times survey revealed that 43% felt that USA was prepared for another terrorist attack. Also A Brown University (2004) survey of providence Rhode Island found that 60% are willing for city reallocate funds to protect against terrorism. Almost half (48%) report that terrorism makes them very angry, while 45% say that they become more careful about their surroundings[24]. In their review[16]stated that As a result of anti-American terrorism abroad, four of five Americans believed in the second half of the 1980s and in the 1990s that terrorist attacks inside the U.S. were very likely or somewhat likely. In April 1995, shortly after the Oklahoma City bombing, 86 percent of the American public thought that an act of terrorism in the United States within the next twelve months was “very likely” (48 percent) or “somewhat likely” (38 percent) (Nacos 2006, 261–62 as cited in [16]. After 9/11, however, the focus of public officials, the news media, and presumably the public was on international terrorism. When asked about the likelihood of another terrorist attack in the United States within the next few months, the majority of Americans felt consistently that more terrorism was “very likely” or “somewhat likely.” In the weeks after 9/11, up to 88 percent of respondents believed that additional terrorist strikes were “very likely” or “somewhat likely” within a few months. Thus, by the summer of 2005 and early 2006 only 52 percent and 53 percent of the public, respectively, thought terrorist attacks within the next few months were “very likely” (9 to 10 percent) or “somewhat likely” (43 percent) [16]. Huddy , Feldman, and Weber, found a sense of insecurity among a minority of American coupled with a perceived threat. [17]

Gender differences in fear of terrorism are found in the literature. Women are more fearful than men [26]. A study aimed to explore the demographic variables’ role on the perception of personal and national threat, and to investigate the effects of perceived terrorist threat on people’s ways of life, moods, opinions and hopes. 313 residents of Palermo (Italy) were interviewed. Findings showed that the fear of terrorism affects three areas: the cognitive, the emotional and the behavioral one[27].

In Jordan Ayou and Al Zagou, studied perceived social support among victims and their families and relatives of Amman terrorist hotels explosions(354 participants). Findings showed no significant differences were found in social support attributed to the gender. Moreover, no significant differences were found attributed to the direct exposure to the terrorists attack (being in the location (hotel) at the time of the terrorist attack).[28]

In KSA, Al Mozaa'nen, in his dissertation fear of terrorist showed that there is fear of terrorist crime among all participants and it was higher among non- Saudi and non-Arab participants. Also females were more afraid of terrorism more than males; and Christians were more afraid of terrorism than Moslems. Moreover, low educational levels expressed more fear of terrorism than high educational levels [29].

## **THE PRESENT STUDY**

Fear is a powerful motivator for individuals' behaviors and attitudes [30]. In spite of terrorism exploits public fear, fear of terrorism is a new area of criminological research and stimulate little empirical research has been conducted on fear of terrorism [17]. There are a lack of terrorism research in the Arab world, due to the fact that most Arab governments consider terrorism a political problem and most of the time all terrorists have handled in secrecy and by Intelligence department or equivalent government agencies such as State Security Court.

Terrorism studies are rare in the Arab Word. Using [GTD](#) data Al-badayneh found a negative relationship between the total number of terrorists incidents; fatalities, human development, human poverty index, average gender inequality. All measures of corruption were significantly correlated with the total number of terrorists; incidents and fatalities. A positive relationship was found between unemployment and the number of terrorists; incidents and fatalities. A positive significant relationship between terrorists' incidents and Arab youth unemployment and Arab youth share of unemployment. Moreover, findings show that total number of terrorists; incidents and fatalities do vary according to the human development index (HDI) level (high, medium and low development). ANOVA analysis has shown significant differences in terrorists incidents, fatalities and injuries, according to human development levels [31]

Moreover it examines the effects of perceived terrorist threat on people's ways of life, attitudes and hopes. Terrorism is consider a crime against the state and most of the time is handled by the national intelligence departments or state security departments. The present study aims to investigate university students' fearing future terrorism: Perceived personal, national, regional and international threats of terrorism. Moreover, to determine the relationship between fear of terrorism and demographical and other variables such as bullying, students satisfaction and students political orientation. Finally, It aims to examine gender differences in the fear of terrorism.

## **METHOD**

### **A. Participants**

A conveniences sample of 188 university students was used from university obligatory classes in the Faculty of Social Sciences, Mutah University, Jordan. The sample included 47 (25%) males and 141(75%) females. The mean age was 19 years old with 1.9 standard deviation. Research questionnaire was administered in class rooms at the last 15 minutes of each class.

### **B. Measures**

The dependent variable of this study was fear of terrorism. It was measured with survey questions asking students on a scale of 10 how they agreed that they were fearful of terrorism (0= not fear at all, 9= very fearful). A questionnaire was developed and used

as a research tool for this study. Fear of Terrorism scale is consisted of 14 items measuring perceived personal , national, regional and global terrorist threat. The scale was based on measures and literature review such as: [27, 21, 26,24, 32,33,] Terrorism Catastrophizing Scale [34] consisted of 13 items also used to estimate the validity of Fear of terrorism scale and Two other sales were used: Gatehouse Bullying scale (2007) consisted of 12 items and Low self-control [35].

**Reliability:** Cronbach's Alpha reliability was calculated using SPSS V.17 and it was as follows: Fear of terrorism scale (0.889) Gatehouse Bullying scale (0.719); Terrorism Catastrophizing Scale (0.665) and Low self-control (0.74)

**Validity:** To estimate the validity of the scales, judgment validly was used and a criterion was set for 90% agreement among 10 judges of the questionnaire. Also Terrorism Catastrophizing Scale was used to estimate the construct validity of Fear of Terrorism scale. A correlation coefficient was 0.564 ( $\alpha=0.000$ ).

## **RESULTS**

### **THREATS OF TERRORISM**

Findings of this study show that students express a moderate level of fear of terrorism in general. Students are more worried that there will be a terrorist attack on the Jordan soil and in the region in the near future. However, they are more worried that will be a terrorist attack on the world in the near future. Moreover, students believe that they might be a victim and will witness a terrorist attack more than being on hijacked airplane or bombed building. As can be seen from Table 1 the grand mean is 4. and slandered deviation of all items.

### **FEAR OF TERRORISM AND LOW SELF-CONTROL**

As can be seen from table 2, a significant relationship was found between fear of terrorism and each sub scale of fear of terrorism among university students. A strong significant relationship was found between fear of terrorism and personal perceived terrorism threat and personal perceived risk of terrorism. A significant relationship is also found between fear of terrorism and Low self-control scale, and Personal perceived terrorism threat, Personal perceived fear risk, Personal perceived risk of terrorism, and national, regional and global terrorism threat. Figure 1 presents mean value for each fear of terrorism scale item.

Table 1 Mean and standard deviation of perceived terrorism threats

| Item  | Mean       | SD         |
|---|------------|------------|
| 1. How concerned are you <b>personally</b> about you yourself, a friend or a relative being the victim of a future terrorist attack in Jordan?                        | 4.23       | 3.56       |
| 2. How concerned are you <b>personally</b> about you yourself, a friend or a relative being the victim of a future terrorist attack in Jordan with biological weapon? | 3.45       | 3.63       |
| 3. How worried are you that there will be another terrorist attack on <b>Jordan</b> soil in the near future?  | 5.44       | 3.47       |
| 4. How worried are you that there will be another terrorist attack on the <b>region</b> in the near future?   | 5.46       | 3.50       |
| 5. How worried are you that there will be another terrorist attack on the <b>world</b> in the near future?  | 6.13       | 3.62       |
| 6. How afraid are you that you will be a victim of terrorist attack in <b>Jordan</b> in the near future?  | 3.97       | 3.59       |
| 7. How afraid are you that you will be a victim of terrorist attack in the <b>region</b> in the near future?  | 3.87       | 3.44       |
| 8. How afraid are you that you will be a victim of terrorist attack in the <b>world</b> in the near future?   | 4.61       | 3.56       |
| 9. Do you believe that you might be on a <b>hijacked</b> airplane?  | 2.97       | 3.24       |
| 10. Do you believe that you might be on <b>bombed</b> bus or train?   | 2.71       | 3.20       |
| 11. Do you believe that you might be in a bombed building?  | 3.01       | 3.28       |
| 12. Do you believe that you might be <b>a victim</b> of terrorist attack?   | 3.49       | 3.28       |
| 13. Do you believe that you might be a witness of terrorist attack?   | 4.13       | 3.47       |
| <b>All Items</b>  | <b>4.4</b> | <b>2.9</b> |



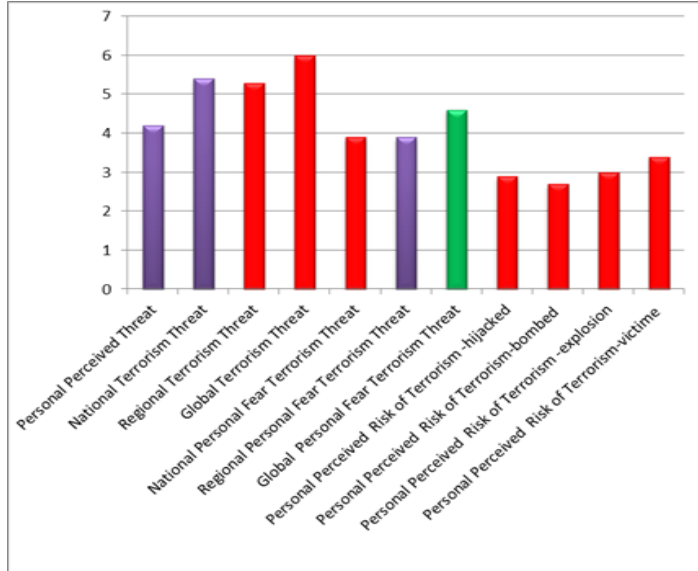


Figure 1 Mean of fear of terrorism scale items

Table 2 Correlation coefficients between measures of Fear of Terrorism

| Scales                               | Fear of Terrorism | Low-self-control |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Fear of terrorism                    | 1                 | .365**           |
| Low self-control                     | .365**            | 1                |
| Personal perceived terrorism threat  | .699**            | .187*            |
| Personal perceived fear risk         | .840**            | .318**           |
| Personal perceived risk of terrorism | .809**            | .290**           |
| National terrorism threat            | .631**            | .301**           |
| Regional terrorism threat            | .651**            | .270**           |
| Global terrorism threat              | .575**            | .215**           |

\*\* correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

First, in order to accomplish cooperation across national borders, police institutions must have gained a position of relative independence from the dictates of the governments of their respective national states. Such a condition of institutional independence or formal bureaucratic autonomy allows public police institutions, though formally sanctioned by states, to autonomously plan and execute relevant strategies of crime control and order maintenance.

### **TERRORISM THREESTS**

As can be seen from table 3 there are significant relationships between fear of terrorism and each type of terrorist threat. A significant relationship is found between **personal perceived terrorism threats** and national threat, regional threats and global terrorism threats. Also a significant relationship is found between **personal fear terrorism threats** and national threat, regional threats and global terrorism threats. Moreover, a significant relationship is found between **personal risk of terrorism threats** and national threat, regional threats and global terrorism threats.

Table 3 Pearson Correlation coefficients between fear of Terrorism threats

| Threats                                 |      | Fear of<br>Terrorism | PPT      | PFT      | PPRT     | Jordan   | Region   | Global   |
|---|------|----------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Fear of<br>Terrorism                    | r    | <b>1</b>             |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|   | Sig. |                      |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|   | N    | 184                  |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| Personal<br>Perceived<br>Threat         | r    | .699**               | <b>1</b> |          |          |          |          |          |
|   | Sig. | .000                 |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|   | N    | 180                  | 180      |          |          |          |          |          |
| Personal Fear<br>Threat                 | r    | .840**               | .483**   | <b>1</b> |          |          |          |          |
|   | Sig. | .000                 | .000     |          |          |          |          |          |
|   | N    | 183                  | 179      | 183      |          |          |          |          |
| Personal<br>Perceived Risk<br>Terrorism | r    | .809**               | .411**   | .554**   | <b>1</b> |          |          |          |
|   | Sig. | .000                 | .000     | .000     |          |          |          |          |
|   | N    | 183                  | 179      | 183      | 183      |          |          |          |
| National<br>Threat                      | r    | .631**               | .458**   | .491**   | .265**   | <b>1</b> |          |          |
|   | Sig. | .000                 | .000     | .000     | .000     |          |          |          |
|   | N    | 182                  | 178      | 182      | 182      | 182      |          |          |
| Regional<br>Threat                      | r    | .651**               | .421**   | .522**   | .292**   | .735**   | <b>1</b> |          |
|   | Sig. | .000                 | .000     | .000     | .000     | .000     |          |          |
|   | N    | 182                  | 178      | 182      | 182      | 181      | 182      |          |
| Global Threat                           | r    | .575**               | .315**   | .468**   | .283**   | .458**   | .497**   | <b>1</b> |
|   | Sig. | .000                 | .000     | .000     | .000     | .000     | .000     |          |
|   | N    | 182                  | 178      | 182      | 182      | 181      | 181      | 182      |

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### DETERMINANT OF FEAR OF TERRORISM

Predictors: bullying incidents, Education, Radicalization, Gender, LSC, Political orientation, Justice, Bullying scale, Father education, Catastrophizing Scale, students satisfaction, Mother education ,and Age explained together 57.5% of the variance on the Fear of terrorism scale.

Table 4 Regression analysis for study predictor on fear of terrorism\*

| Model      | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F     | Sig.              |
|------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| Regression | 43259.841      | 13 | 3327.680    | 8.741 | .000 <sup>a</sup> |
| Residual   | 31977.476      | 84 | 380.684     |       |                   |
| Total      | 75237.316      | 97 |             |       |                   |

Table 5 Regression coefficients

| Model                 | Unstandardized Coefficients |            | Standardized Coefficients |        |      |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
|                       | B                           | Std. Error | Beta                      | t      | Sig. |
| (Constant)            | -67.694                     | 44.313     |                           | -1.528 | .130 |
| Gender                | 9.077                       | 5.602      | .132                      | 1.620  | .109 |
| Age                   | 1.618                       | 1.452      | .116                      | 1.115  | .268 |
| Education             | -.853                       | 3.280      | -.027                     | -.260  | .795 |
| Father education      | .627                        | 2.174      | .028                      | .288   | .774 |
| Mother education      | -1.975                      | 2.473      | -.081                     | -.799  | .427 |
| Political orientation | 5.267                       | 3.266      | .128                      | 1.613  | .111 |
| Justice               | 1.617                       | 2.498      | .052                      | .648   | .519 |
| Students satisfaction | -.981                       | 2.517      | -.032                     | -.390  | .698 |
| LSC                   | .149                        | .059       | .193                      | 2.511  | .014 |
| Catastrophizing Scale | .638                        | .090       | .567                      | 7.095  | .000 |
| Radicalization        | -.070                       | .471       | -.011                     | -.148  | .883 |
| Bullying scale        | .369                        | .512       | .057                      | .721   | .473 |
| Bullying incidents    | 1.229                       | .770       | .124                      | 1.596  | .114 |

GENDER DEFRENCES

As can be seen from table (6), females were more fearful than males. However, high variation among males and females in their fear of terrorism was found. Significant differences were found between males and females in the fear of the terrorism ( $F=9.621, \alpha = 0.002$ ).

Table (6) Gender differences in the Fear of Terrorism

|        | N   | Mean    | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean |             |
|--------|-----|---------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|
|        |     |         |                |            | Lower Bound                      | Upper Bound |
| male   | 34  | 38.2353 | 27.19744       | 4.66432    | 28.7457                          | 47.7249     |
| female | 129 | 55.4419 | 29.16947       | 2.56823    | 50.3602                          | 60.5235     |
| Total  | 163 | 51.8528 | 29.53199       | 2.31312    | 47.2850                          | 56.4205     |

ANOVA analysis of gender differences in the Fear of Terrorism

|                | Sum of Squares | df  | Mean Square | F     | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|
| Between Groups | 7966.535       | 1   | 7966.535    | 9.621 | .002 |
| Within Groups  | 133319.932     | 161 | 828.074     |       |      |
| Total          | 141286.466     | 162 |             |       |      |



Figure 1 Gender differences in fear of terrorism

Figure (1) shows gender difference in the fear of terrorism, where females were more fearful than males.

#### FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis using Varimax rotation, produced three factors explaining 63.9% of the variance, the first factor explained (named personal threat) 41.9% of the variance, the second factor (named national threat) explained 14% of the total variance and the third factor (named external threats “regional and global”) explained 7.8% of the variance (KMO=.837, Bartlett’s test of sphericity = 1066.5,  $\alpha=.000$ ).

#### CONCLUSION & DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates how Arab university students’ fearing future terrorism: Perceived personal, national, regional and international threats of terrorism. It aims to examine gender differences in fear of terrorism. Moreover, it examines the determinants of fear of terrorism in the Arab world.

The effects of terrorism depend on how targeted public responds. Findings revealed three determinants of fear of terrorism (personal, national and outside threats). Personal threat occupies the highest level as a determinant factor of fear of terrorism, followed by the national threat and finally outside threat. Factor analysis using Varimax rotation, produced three factors explaining 63.9% of the variance, the first factor explained (named personal threat) 41.9% of the variance, the second factor (named national threat) explained 14% of the total variance and the third factor (named external threats “regional and global”) explained 7.8% of the variance. These three factors that determine the fear of terrorism can be seen in the light of attribution explanations. Applying a **Black-sheep effect**, which refers to the tendency for group members to evaluate a disliked in-group member who performs an offensive behavior more harshly than an out-group member who performs the same offense. People judge in-group deviants more harshly than out-group deviants in order to maintain a positive image of their in-group[36]. According to this idea, negative in-group members are perceived as atypical or, in other words, as black sheep by other in-group members[37]. People fear terrorism to avoid out-group stigma and to keep group image in a good stand. The **fundamental attribution error** describes the tendency to over-value dispositional or personality-based explanations for the observed behaviors of others while under-valuing situational explanations for those behaviors. This discrepancy is called the actor-observer bias. People fear terrorism to avoid similar negative consequences that might occur to them as being civilian targeted by terrorists.

Applying Ferraro’s fear of crime model to fear of terrorism, fear of terrorism can be explained by the neighborhood factors, measures of risk, and constrained behaviors, alongside demographic factors known to be associated with fear of terrorism. There are ecological forces that increase both terrorist opportunities and the perceptions of risk of victimization of potential victims, In order to understand fear of terrorism; these ecological forces must be combined with micro-level factors that affect fear and risk. Both the prevalence of terrorism in the country and the characteristics of a individual affect perceived risk, fear of crime, and behavioral adaptations to risk and fear[38,39].

Findings of this study reveal that students concerned 42% that they personally about themselves, a friend or relative being the victim of future terrorist attack in Jordan. In addition, students are worried that there will be another terrorist attack on Jordan soil, region and global in the near future with average of 5.4 (54%), 5.3(53%), and 6(60%) respectively. These findings might support the Jordanian government antiterrorism measures. A perception of high terrorist threat might promote public support government national security policy.

Fear of terrorism might lead to what is known as collective security and fear and loathing (McDowall and Loftin, 1983) specifically, when collective security fails, individuals tend to take over and provide security and justice for themselves. The passive ways of achieving such protection are to install an alarm system, window bars, or special locks to help prevent break-ins; this approach is also called *target hardening*. The more aggressive way to achieve security is to arm oneself by purchasing a gun, and organize one's neighbors in the programs such as community crime watch [40].

Multiple regression analysis show a significant impact ( $F=8.741$ ,  $\alpha=0.00$ ) of demographical variables; political orientation; justice; students satisfaction, Low self-control; catastrophizing, radicalization, bullying, and bullying incidents on fear of terrorism and all explained 57.5% of the variance on the fear of terrorism. Moreover, findings show a significant relationship between fear of terrorism and catastrophizing (.564,  $\alpha=0.000$ ), low self-control, (.465,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); personal perceived terrorism threat

(.699,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); personal perceived fear risk (.840,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); personal perceived risk of terrorism, (.809,  $\alpha=0.000$ ); national terrorism threat (.631,  $\alpha=0.000$ ), regional terrorism threat (.651,  $\alpha=0.00$ ), and global terrorism threat (.575,  $\alpha=0.00$ ). Significant deference between males and females is found in the fear of terrorism ( $F=9.621$ ,  $\alpha=0.002$ ). Terrorists, policy-makers, and terrorism scholars have long assumed that the mere threat of terrorist strikes affects societies that have experienced actual acts of terrorism. For this reason, most definitions of terrorism include the threat of violent political acts against civilians[16].

Females were more fearful of terrorism than male. This is consistent with fear of terrorism research findings [26, 21, 41]. Gender has been shown to be a strong correlate of personal as well as perceived public risks and fears regarding terrorism, with women indicating higher levels than men [21]). Women are more fearful, engage in more avoidance behaviors, and are more likely to seek information in response to terrorism-related information. Moreover, women differ from men in predictors of their terrorism fears as well as engagement in terrorism related avoidance and information-seeking behaviors[30]

Moreover, it is the most consistent findings in fear of crime research for decades have been that women are more afraid than men are. Stanko has argued that the structural, cultural, and physical context women experience in a male-dominated society (*patriarchal society*) easily explains their heightened fear of crime. Women's "ordinary experiences" ([42:2] lead them to believe and worry every day that they are at risk of being victimized by men in many situations. Violence is an "ordinary part of life," and that people regularly adjust their lives to manage the risk and danger they face both inside and outside the home [43: 5]. In her, book *Intimate Intrusions*, where she noted, "To be a woman—in most societies, in most eras—is to experience physical and/or sexual terrorism at the hands of men" [44:9]

Fear of terrorism might be interoperated in the light of Agnew's general Strain Theory. Fear of terrorism might be seen as a strain factor, According to Agnew's (2010) general strain theory of terrorism, states that terrorism is most likely when people experience 'collective strains' that are: (a) high in magnitude, with civilians affected; (b) unjust; and (c) inflicted by significantly more powerful *others*, including 'complicit' civilians, with whom members of the strained collectivity have weak ties. These collective strains increase the likelihood of terrorism for several reasons, but they do not lead to terrorism in all cases.[45], general strains produce negative feelings such as fear, anger and aggression. Negative feelings such fear might lead to criminal copying, fear of terrorism might be seen as a general strain that causes criminal copying.

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