Fear of Terrorism and Support for Counter-Terrorism Policies

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Introduction

The United States of America was founded on such rights as “life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.” It is no surprise that our founding fathers held these principles as essential to the foundation of our country. American independence altered world history and set forth the democratic principles that would guide the prospering United States to its status as a world superpower. Today, those principles are being called into question with the War on Terrorism. As the world moves forward trying to neutralize terrorist threats on a global scale, enhanced security measures have been taken to ensure safety. This study attempts to capture the opinions of college students on the necessity of increased national security measures and the tactics that are used to achieve that goal.

No other event in recent years has caused more concern over adherence to the democratic principles this nation was founded on than the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. The days that followed saw a rekindling of what Ji (2004) describes as “the long-lasting debate on the balancing of protection of citizens’ rights and liberties against the national security” (p. 133). However, this date does not mark the first time that the national security/civil liberties conflict came to the forefront of American concern. In fact, this debate has arisen during most wars in American history because times of emergency often call for increased security measures. The first incident occurred with the passage of the Sedition Act in 1798, which made it illegal to speak out against the government. Then, during the Civil War, President Lincoln suspended the writ of habeas corpus, which allows prisoners to challenge their detainment. Later, during World War I, the Espionage Act threatened the expression of political viewpoints. Then, before World War II, shortly after the attack on Pearl Harbor, 120,000 Japanese Americans were placed
in internment camps when President Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 to ensure they would not spy against the United States (Ji, 2004).

Most recently, the September 11th attacks and subsequent War on Terrorism have rekindled this great debate between national security and civil liberties. The argument for national security suggests that the state can minimize violence and threats to infrastructure by enabling police, intelligence services, and military personnel to do what is necessary to protect citizens from threats, both domestic and foreign. On the other hand, the civil liberties argument contends that agents of the state exert power over citizens in order to maintain the authority of the government itself. Proponents of this argument fear that increasing the government’s authority could threaten the rights of citizens and bring into question the principles upon which the United States was founded (Bornstein, 2005, p. 53). Throughout U.S. history, during all major wars, citizens have expressed their beliefs on this subject, and those beliefs fall along a spectrum between security and civil liberties, much like one’s political views are represented on a spectrum between liberal and conservative.

Today, our principles are challenged by the War on Terrorism; however, this new type of threat poses a variety of difficulties. During previous wars, when civil liberties were restricted, they were restored when the conflict ended. However, the war we are presently fighting shows no definitive ending point. This poses the following question: If privacy rights are suspended or diminished, when will they be fully restored? This is a concern for all citizens afforded rights by any government, especially as we enter a new age when wars may no longer be conventional and conflicts may be continuous.

A democratic government stands to represent its people and their wishes, so it is important to understand those desires. This study aims to capture the opinions of college
students about privacy invasion caused by various counter-terrorism investigative techniques. It first identifies what types of techniques students are willing to allow. These opinions will then help us to determine where college students fall along the spectrum between national security and civil liberties in terms of their beliefs. Ultimately, the study attempts to answer the following question: How does fear of terrorism affect one’s willingness to concede to the use of specific investigative techniques? The importance of the views of college students cannot be overlooked, as they will one day be the policy makers and leaders of our country.

The following pages explain the present study in further detail. A review of the current literature on the subject is provided in order to familiarize the reader with important studies that have already been done in the field of terrorism research and to pinpoint the weaknesses and difficulties encountered in those investigations. The literature review is followed by a methods section that explains how the current study was conducted. Subsequently, the raw data obtained is provided, as well as a results segment that analyzes the information. The study concludes with a discussion summarizing the research, contextualizing it within the existing body of terrorism research and suggesting next steps for future investigations.

**Literature Review**

Research regarding terrorism is a fairly new concept. While states such as Israel and Lebanon have been plagued by terrorism for years, the threat is fairly new to Americans living domestically. September 11th marks the deadliest terrorist attack in history, which resulted in a huge escalation in terrorism-related research (Ji, 2004). However, the body of terrorism research that exists is still in its adolescent form. For the purpose of this study, post-9/11 terrorism research can generally be broken down into three main categories: research involving the development of laws to combat terrorism, research regarding fear of terrorism, and research that
aims to gather opinions on counter-terrorism strategies. This review of existing literature
discusses each of those areas, prominent studies that exist in each category, and how they relate
to the current study.

The USA PATRIOT Act, passed after 9/11, revises various U.S. surveillance laws in
order to expand government policing powers to combat terrorism. The following analysis of the
Act covers the major changes in post-9/11 security enhancement. These provisions cannot be
overlooked as an important source of information for any terrorism study. Kerr (2004) clearly
discusses evolving technology that is permitted in investigations due to recent surveillance law
modifications. Wiretapping is a common technique, and with the issuance of a warrant upon
probable cause, wiretaps may be used in criminal investigations. However, with the passage of
the PATRIOT Act, standards have been lowered, and judges may issue wiretap warrants with the
mere promise from the investigating agency that the investigation is “related” to terrorism—no
probable cause needed (Whitehead, 2002). Additionally, this act permits roving wiretaps, which
require blank search warrants. While normally the subject of the warrant would be specified,
along with the area subject to wiretapping, this amendment allows judges to leave the warrant
blank so investigators may move the wiretap device to listen in on unspecified persons in various
geographic locations until they can obtain useful information (Whitehead, 2002). To make
privacy in the home even more controversial, Kerr (2004) explains the use of infrared imaging
devices as a way to peer through houses without actually entering them.

Bloss (2009) adds to the research by explaining the practical implications that the
PATRIOT Act has had on policing. Authorities now have the power to obtain information from
internet service providers regarding website visitation and to require banks to monitor and report
financial transactions. Also, police may now serve search warrants on a residence or business
without telling the owner that they were the subject of a search. If notification is given, police may issue a “gag order” that bans business owners from telling employees that the company was subjected to a search. Surveillance activity is further increased by the government’s authority to collect educational and health records (Bornstein, 2005).

Although not exhaustive, the above list of amendments to surveillance law reveals the significant changes that citizens may perceive as most invasive to their privacy rights. Standards of proof have been lowered to obtain wiretap warrants, and those warrants can now be left blank by the judge so they can be used against anyone, anywhere. Additionally, authorities are not required to notify the subjects of searches, or they may issue gag orders to hush those who wish to provide notification of searches to subjects. Agencies can collect intelligence on website visitation and obtain records regarding education, health, and finances. Furthermore, the likelihood of being searched, or possibly even racially profiled, at public transportation hubs has been dramatically increased. So, while the security versus civil liberties debate may reoccur throughout history during times of conflict, the evolution of technology has allowed for increased invasiveness in the 21st century, which makes the War on Terrorism even more controversial than wars that have preceded it.

Fear of terrorism is another important area of research. Friedland and Merin (1985) describe terrorism as psychological warfare, suggesting that “public perception of threat and danger seems to be disproportionate to terrorists’ actual capabilities” (p. 592). The authors emphasize that a terrorist attack, which may only result in a few casualties, may cause great fear in an entire population. When understood in this way, fear of terrorism becomes important because of its ability to influence beliefs. Those beliefs, in turn, affect policy changes, because changes in policy typically require public support. Support for counter-terrorism strategies may
be augmented by the public’s increased fear of terrorism. If people are fearful of a terrorist attack, it is probable that they will support laws and techniques to help prevent it.

Much of the research done in this area reveals the differences in level of fear based on a variety of demographic variables, such as age or gender. Using a self-report questionnaire (the FSSC-R), Muris et al. (2008) tested a sample of Dutch children and revealed that fear of terrorism ranks in their top ten fears. Unfortunately, the questionnaire cannot measure the frequency of such fears, but it does show they are present in Dutch children. According to Friedland and Merari (1985), females tend to worry more about terrorism than males, and those with a higher education level tend to worry less than those with a lower education level. Although demographic variables do appear to play a role in fear of terrorism, research has found that they are not strongly related (Sjoberg, 2005).

The biggest weakness in opinion polls is generalizability. Cross-population generalizability is a concern for this area of research because, as suggested by Papastamous et al. (2005), “the political and symbolic connotations of terrorism vary across different contexts” (p. 258). While Friendland and Merari’s (1985) study showed that 93% of Israelis feared a terrorist attack would occur in their country in the near future (p. 594), Israel faces a much different dilemma than Sweden, where the last terrorist attack occurred in the 1970s, and citizens there express a relatively low level of concern (Sjoberg, 2005). Therefore, one can deduce that fear of terrorism is relative to location and the specific terrorist threat to which the participant is most susceptible. This phenomenon not only occurs in different countries but may be relative to living in urban versus rural areas as well (Muris et al., 2008). Polls show that in the U.S, as in other countries, fear is also largely related to the temporal proximity to a terrorist-related incident. In
other words, fear decreases as time passes after a terrorist attack, but such fears can be rekindled with the occurrence of another attack (Sjoberg, 2005).

Ultimately, we can conclude that fear of terrorism is present in a variety of different countries. Fear level is affected by various demographic variables, such as gender, age, and education level, but they have not been found to be strongly related. Finally, fear of terrorism diminishes as time passes but can reoccur with subsequent attacks. These important findings represent commonalities in the research.

The final area of research directly related to this study aims to gather public opinion regarding counter-terrorism strategies. To obtain accurate opinions, however, respondents must clearly understand the techniques used to combat terrorism, and due to the classified nature of investigative documentation, we cannot obtain firsthand knowledge of those techniques. Without access to prior case reports, the primary source of information becomes the laws that guide those investigations. However, with this we must assume that investigative agencies are following the law. Relying on the laws then presents another issue: Without a law degree, it may be difficult to understand the essence of each law due to the use of legal jargon. Despite the limitations in this area of research, certain findings appear to be universal. First, political affiliation has been found to be correlated to beliefs about counter-terrorism policies (Papastamous, Prodromitis, & Iatridis, 2005). Second, the media has a significant effect on support for policies. More specifically, television news has a positive effect on increasing public support for increased police authority and restricted civil liberties, while reading the newspaper has an opposite effect. The authors suggest that the difference may be a result of the imagery and drama of television news (Scheufele, Nisbet, & Ostman, 2005).
Little research exists on opinions regarding specific counter-terrorism strategies. Research that has been done in Athens, Greece, found that citizens were willing to diminish the privacy rights and physical integrity of accused terrorists. For example, while awaiting the prosecution of various members of the group “November 17” in 2003, university students claimed they were willing to infringe upon the privacy rights of accused terrorists in “harsh ways” (Papastamous, Prodromitis, & Iatridis, 2005, p. 257). In another study, a sample of nearly 2,000 adults in Kansas revealed that 47.7% were in favor of requiring everyone to carry a national ID badge and to show it to police on request, 31.0% favored banning carry-on luggage on airplanes, and 23.0% favored allowing police to stop people at random in the street and search their possessions (Joslyn & Haider-Markel, 2007, p. 319).

To bypass the problem of respondents having difficulty understanding security-related questions, Sanquist et al. (2008) polled individuals who were already knowledgeable of security issues. Participants responded with negative attitudes toward the government’s reading of e-mail correspondence because it represented a more invasive search than, for example, airport searches, which assure safety for the public in general. Interestingly, participants felt that the measures that are most intrusive tend to be the least effective. However, Sanquist et al. (2008) argue that effectiveness must be quantified and compared against the level of intrusiveness.

This study is specifically attempting to expand on an area of the field that has not received a significant amount of attention. Does a correlation exist between one’s fear of terrorism and one’s willingness to allow for a variety of investigative techniques in order to prevent terrorist attacks? Joslyn and Haider-Markel (2007) support the idea that our personal concerns affect our support for counter-terrorism policies. The authors find it equally important that our perception of what the general public thinks about a counter-terrorism policy will have a
positive effect on what we believe as well. While they do not specify any reason for the relationship, they clearly explain that peer pressure may persuade us to support certain policies. Therefore, it is essential to measure fears, validate them, and create policy accordingly.

With prior research on counter-terrorism laws, fear of terrorism, and opinions on counter-terrorism strategies, this study has compiled a significant amount of information regarding terrorism. Making use of research from the aforementioned categories, this study designed and used a survey that explains counter-terrorism measures and then gathers opinions on them. The following section explains the current study in detail.

Data and Methods

Research Design

The purpose of the current study is to explore college students’ perceptions on terrorism. More specifically, it aims to measure their fear levels and see if their level of fear affects their ideas about counter-terrorism measures. The study is a non-experimental, cross-sectional research design that uses inductive reasoning by collecting data with a survey and then compiling observations. The research is exploratory in nature, seeking to generate information about terrorism. The survey was presented as a general survey regarding various criminal justice issues. The last five questions asked about the participants’ fear of terrorism and their opinions on counter-terrorism strategies. These questions are explained in further detail in the concepts and measurements section.

Sample

All students at Lycoming College, a small liberal arts college in central Pennsylvania, represented the population of interest. The population was sampled based on classes. Five introductory distribution classes in science, math, and theatre were selected to take the survey.
The classes chosen for the sample were thought to have the most potential to provide a representative cross-section of the student population at Lycoming. It was determined that large introductory courses would provide both a sufficient sample size and a good distribution of males and females, different majors, residents and commuters, and class levels ranging from freshman to senior. In addition, the survey was distributed during class periods so the students would be more likely to take their time and answer the questions accurately. The survey was distributed to each of the classes by two members of the Criminal Justice Research Methods class that was conducting the survey. Participants filled out the survey and returned it to the volunteers who handed it out.

Ultimately, 302 students were surveyed and 229 responded (a response rate of 75.83%). The 229 respondents comprised nearly 18% of the Lycoming College population. Of those that responded, 48.03% (n=110) were female and 51.09% (n=117) were male. Two respondents did not give gender. Males were slightly overrepresented in the sample and females slightly underrepresented, because Lycoming College is 45.0% male and 55.0% female. Each grade level was almost equally represented in the survey except for the senior class, which only comprised 11.79% (n=27) of the 229 respondents. The average age for participants was 19.83 years old, with the vast majority of participants ranging in age from 18 to 22 years.

**Concepts and Measurements**

This study set out to determine whether or not fear of terrorism affects one’s willingness to support specific investigative techniques that may be perceived by the public as intrusive, or invasive, to privacy rights. The independent variable, *fear level of terrorism*, was quantified using a Likert-type scale (See Appendix A, Question 54). Respondents received a value ranging from 0 to 4 based upon the description they selected that best describes their fear of terrorism. A
score of 0 meant the respondent had no fear, and score of 4 meant the person’s fears were so intense that they inhibited the person’s daily activities. The dependent variable, support for specific counter-terrorism investigative techniques, was then measured by providing descriptions of five techniques and asking participants to reveal whether or not they think each technique should be permitted in the United States to combat terrorism (See Appendix A, Question 55). Finally, participants were asked to rate each technique on its level of intrusiveness by assigning it a number from 1 to 3, with 1 being not intrusive at all, 2 being somewhat intrusive, and 3 being very intrusive (See Appendix A, Question 56). This would allow for assessment of whether respondents’ fear levels regarding terrorism affected the extent to which they felt their privacy was jeopardized by each technique. In addition to the questions aimed at measuring the independent and dependent variables, participants were asked various questions to assess the possible causes of increased fear. Participants were asked whether or not they have experienced terrorism firsthand or if they know someone who has. In addition, participants were asked how far away they live from various public transportation hubs (See Appendix A, Questions 52 and 53). Demographic questions relevant to this particular study were included in the survey. They included age, sex, and grade level.

Limitations

Like the studies presented before it, the current study is not without its limitations. Most notably is cross-population generalizability. It cannot be assumed that results from college students in a small liberal arts college in central Pennsylvania will be representative of college students from across the United States. Moreover, since fear of terrorism is relative to location and specific experience, a weakness of this specific survey is that it did not ask where the
respondents live. Students coming from large cities may have different fear levels than those from smaller, more rural areas.

This study also chose not to include a definition of terrorism on the survey itself to clarify the concept for participants. There is no general consensus among scholars on a definition, and of the variety of definitions provided by government agencies, no simple definition could be found that would easily be read and understood in the survey. While this could be a weakness, this study asserts that excluding a definition of terrorism left the term open to interpretation of what students fear most.

Another limitation of the study is clearly explaining the laws in order to gather accurate opinions on counter-terrorism strategies. This study began with the assumption that most college students would not be familiar with the specifics of the USA PATRIOT Act, so the survey simplified it, but at the same time tried to preserve its meaning. Due to the survey’s exploring multiple criminal justice subjects, the number of questions for each subject was limited, which made it difficult to create clear, compact questions for the space allotted. Lastly, a limitation that cannot be avoided is that some students may not have filled out the survey seriously, paying little attention to answering the questions accurately. Despite the limitations of the study, the information obtained is sufficient to examine if fear of terrorism has an effect on one’s support for the various investigative techniques described.

The next section reveals the raw data obtained by the survey. It is followed by a discussion that provides possible explanations for the results obtained. Finally, the conclusion summarizes the research and explains what the results mean and how they contribute to the currently existing body of terrorism research.
Results

In analyzing the data, the distribution of various variables across the sample were examined first. Among the variables studied were fear of terrorism, support for various investigative techniques, firsthand experience with terrorism, and demographic variables such as age and gender. Then, the study looked for potential relationships between the variables by searching for patterns in the data.

First, it is significant to note that nearly 10% (n=22) of the sample responded that they had experienced terrorism firsthand or that they know someone who has. However, in general, (see Table 1) the study found that students at Lycoming College are not very fearful of terrorism. Most students (88.65%, n=203) felt that the threat of terrorism did not affect their lifestyle in any way. Furthermore, the study found no differences in fear level across genders, nor did it find any variation among different ages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Fear</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(0) Terrorism never crosses my mind</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) I acknowledge the threat only when I am reminded of it by the media or politicians</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>31.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) I am aware of the threat, sometimes think about it, but it does not affect my lifestyle</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>43.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) I think about somewhat often but it only inhibits some activities, such as vacationing/travel</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) My fears are so frequent they inhibit daily activities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next, the distribution of the dependent variable, support for specific investigative techniques, was assessed. The study found that students were most hesitant to permit roving wiretap surveillance against anyone, anywhere, without specifying to a judge who the subject of the investigation is. On the other hand, the technique that students were most willing to allow
was random searches of passengers at airports. Specifically, the study found that 24.45% (n=56) said they would allow police to engage in roving wiretap surveillance against anyone, anywhere, without specifying to a judge who the subject of the investigation is; 25.75% (n=59) were willing to allow the use of infrared technologies to peer through houses for evidence without entering them; 26.20% (n=60) are in favor of allowing the government to view email correspondence; 40.17% (n=92) were willing to permit the use of search warrants of residences and businesses without notification to the owner; and 69.87% (n=160) said random searches of passengers at airports should be permitted.

Finally, this study looked at how invasive participants, on average, felt each technique was using a scale of 1 to 3, with 1 being not intrusive at all, 2 being somewhat intrusive, and 3 being very intrusive. The results are illustrated in Table 2. Students felt that using infrared technology to peer through a private residence was the most intrusive of the five techniques, while airports searches represented the least intrusive technique. Possible explanations for these findings can be found in the discussion section that follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Average Level of Intrusiveness (Scale of 1 to 3)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infrared Technologies</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search Without Notification</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roving Wiretap</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airport Searches</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading of Email</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1=Not Intrusive; 2=Somewhat Intrusive; 3=Very Intrusive
After noting the univariate distribution of the variables, the study performed a cross-tabulation between the independent and dependent variables. Despite the hypothesis that respondents with a high fear level would be more willing to permit each technique, the study found there was no difference between people’s support for techniques based on their fear levels. Therefore, the study then examined if fear of terrorism affected the average level of intrusion that respondents assigned to each technique. Data for this cross-tabulation can be found in Chart A (Note that only two participants selected fear level 4, which may distort the pattern in the data). The most prevalent patterns can be seen when looking at infrared technology, search without notification, and airport searches. There is a slight indication that one’s level of fear terrorism has a negative effect on the average intrusiveness ratings that participants assigned to each category.
Corresponding Fear Levels for Chart A

(0) Terrorism never crosses my mind

(1) I acknowledge the threat only when I am reminded of it by the media or politicians

(2) I am aware of the threat, sometimes think about it, but it does not affect my lifestyle

(3) I think about somewhat often but it only inhibits some activities, such as vacationing/travel

(4) My fears are so frequent they inhibit daily activities

Discussion and Conclusion

This research sought to answer the following question: Does fear of terrorism affect one’s willingness to allow a variety of counter-terrorism investigative techniques? After surveying 302 students from Lycoming College, the study analyzed the distribution of various variables across the sample. Given the concern that a small liberal arts college in central Pennsylvania would not provide a very diverse sample, it was surprising to discover that nearly 10% (n=22) of our sample claimed to have experienced terrorism firsthand or to know someone who had experienced it. Since the Lycoming student population is mostly comprised of students from the northeast region of the United States, it is plausible that some students would be from areas in close proximity to New York City or Washington, D.C., which may have resulted in their having contact with someone who has been directly impacted by the September 11th attacks. However, it is also possible that students may have responded “yes” to the question if they knew someone serving in the military. The ambiguity of the question allowed for numerous interpretations, but nonetheless, the statistic is interesting.

In looking at the distribution of fear of terrorism across our sample (see Table 1), the study found that Lycoming students are not very fearful of terrorism. This came as no surprise, because, as Sjoberg (2005) stated, fear diminishes as time passes after a terrorist attack. Nine years have passed since the attacks of September 11th, a time frame which may be sufficient for a
decrease in fear. Very few participants responded that they think about terrorism “somewhat often” or that fear of terrorism “inhibits their daily activities.” This unequal distribution posed a significant limitation to finding patterns in the bivariate analysis because the lack of high fear levels meant there were too few respondents with high fear levels to accurately analyze how extreme fear of terrorism may affect one’s support for investigative techniques.

After looking at the level of fear of terrorism in the sample, the study calculated the average level of intrusiveness that participants assigned to the five investigative techniques provided (See Table 2). Respondents felt that using infrared technology to peer through one’s home was the most intrusive technique, while random searches of passengers at airports, on the other hand, was the least intrusive counter-terrorism measure. Searching airport passengers is a very common and public practice, and it is quite possible that the public has become numb to the concept. Furthermore, with the September 11th attacks and various other terrorist attacks around the world involving the use of public transportation in recent years, the public may deem passenger searches essential to public safety.

While the cross-tabulation between fear level and willingness to allow investigative techniques was unsuccessful at revealing a relationship between the two variables, this study still asserts that a relationship may exist. The poor distribution of fear of terrorism and the uniformity of the sample made it difficult to detect any patterns at all. However, it may still be relevant to show if fear of terrorism affects the intrusiveness ratings participants assigned to each investigative technique. Indications of a pattern arose, showing that, in general, as one’s fear level increased, the average intrusiveness level assigned decreased (See Chart A). For example, respondents with a fear level of 0 rated random searches of passengers at airports as a 1.78 on the intrusiveness scale on average. Those with a fear level of 1 rated the same technique as 1.66 on
average. As fear levels rose to 2 and 3, average intrusiveness levels assigned to passenger screening dropped to 1.49 and 1.27, respectively. In other words, participants were more likely to say that a technique was less intrusive if they had a higher fear level.

With the knowledge that one’s fear of terrorism may affect one’s perceived level of intrusiveness of investigative techniques, further research must be done with a more diverse sample in order to confirm the relationship. Furthermore, if it can be found that fear of terrorism does affect one’s willingness to allow a variety of counter-terrorism policies, researchers must then investigate the causes of those fears in order to assess why people are willing to allow intrusive investigative counter-terrorism measures. It is important that we research the validity of our fears so we do not permit the restriction of our own civil liberties, if in fact our fears are unfounded. A harmonious balance must be struck between security and civil liberties, because as Americans, we can afford to sacrifice neither. To unnecessarily relinquish civil rights in a country that was founded on freedom would jeopardize the democracy our forefathers have built, but to indiscriminately lower security standards would surely mean victory for terrorism.
Appendix A

53. How near in proximity do you live to the following public transportation hubs?

Airport:
   a. 0-5 Miles
   b. 6-10 Miles
   c. 11-15 Miles
   d. Over 15 Miles

Bus Depot:
   a. 0-5 Miles
   b. 6-10 Miles
   c. 11-15 Miles
   d. Over 15 Miles

Train Station:
   a. 0-5 Miles
   b. 6-10 Miles
   c. 11-15 Miles
   d. Over 15 Miles

Sea Port:
   a. 0-5 Miles
   b. 6-10 Miles
   c. 11-15 Miles
   d. Over 15 Miles

54. Select the answer which closest describes your fear of terrorism:
   a. My fears are so frequent they inhibit daily activities.
   b. I think about somewhat often but it only inhibits some activities, such as vacationing or travel.
   c. I am aware of the threat, sometimes think about it, but it does not affect my lifestyle.
   d. I acknowledge the threat only when I am reminded of it by the media or politicians.
   e. Terrorism never crosses my mind.

55. Which of the following investigative techniques, if any, do you believe should be permitted in the U.S. to prevent terrorism? (Check all that apply.)
   ___ The use of infrared technologies to peer through houses for evidence without entering them
   ___ Search warrants of residences and businesses without notification to the owner
   ___ Allowing police to engage in roving wiretap surveillance against anyone, anywhere, without specifying to a judge who the subject of the investigation is
   ___ Random searches of passengers at airports
   ___ Collection of any email correspondence
56. On a scale of 1 to 3 (1 being not intrusive, 2 being somewhat intrusive, 3 being very intrusive), please indicate to what degree you believe each of the following intrude upon your privacy rights.

___ The use of infrared technologies to peer through houses for evidence without entering them
___ Search warrants of residences and businesses without notification to the owner
___ Allowing police to engage in roving wiretap surveillance against anyone, anywhere, without specifying to a judge who the subject of the investigation is
___ Random searches of passengers at airports
___ Collection of any email correspondence
References


