D4.2 – Report on Perception of Security and Acceptance of Risk

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Executive summary

The deliverable focuses on risk perception across and outside the European Union using a variety of empirical resources as evidence. The deliverable reviews the perception of risk and then seeks to determine varying degrees of risk tolerance as a function of different cultural and socio-economic conditions. It offers general overview of citizens´ perceptions and attitudes toward risk and security, conditionality of these, as well as attitudes to the various trade-offs, as demonstrated on the tensions between freedom and privacy on one hand and security on the other hand. The deliverable begins with a review of existing social science literature assessing risk and risk perception. Using s number of cross-national surveys, the study comparatively assesses number of issues connected with perceptions of risk and threats by citizens of multiple countries. The presented analysis shows interesting results; however, it also points to the weaknesses of the secondary analysis of available international data. The main limitation being the link to case studies of the project. Given the limited availability of relevant data, alternative strategy is outlined in the conclusions to obtain own data directly related to research needs of the project. Collection of qualitative data on the dilemmas between security and freedom, from the perspective of citizen and her acceptance of policy-decisions, legislation and measures as a response to existing and future threats; directly related to case studies will not only provide new and unique perspective, but also strengthen the overall cohesion of the project.

Introduction

Although advanced modern societies are in many respects experiencing an unprecedented existential security compared to previous times, they are at the same time paradoxically concerned about security risks and safety threats (Beck 1992 and 2002, Giddens 1999, Inglehart 1997). Ulrich Beck (1992) has described this new phenomenon as a "Risk Society". Danger and insecurity have always been inherent to human life, especially in the form of natural disasters and the like. However, post-modern societies experience a new type of risks, such as nuclear radiation, global warming, genetic modification of food, financial crises and terrorist attacks (Beck 1992 and 2002). These types of risks are different from the previous ones, whereby they have such serious consequences that they constitute a predominant societal and political concern in post-modern societies.

In contrast to old types of risks stemming from natural causes, the new threats are mainly a product of human activity (Beck 1992, Giddens 1999). The repercussions of the new risks are also potentially much more severe than previously. They are not temporally, spatially and socially circumscribed. These risks do not respect boundaries of nation-states, generally have a long latency period and individual culprits are difficult to identify (Beck 2002). According to Beck (1992), the new risks and particularly environmental risks have become a central dynamics that characterizes contemporary societies. The new risks have led to a transformation of the whole society and social order. As Beck argues, the main societal conflict is no longer over the (re-)distribution of "goods", such as income and material property, but over distribution of "bads" that result from realizations of the new risks, such as nuclear fallout and genetically modified food (GMF) (Beck 1992).

Social theorists have identified security and safety risks as one of the most crucial issues that contemporary Western societies are currently facing. But how can we empirically study risks from a social science perspective? How do individual citizens perceive risk? What types of risks are people mostly concerned with? Why do some people worry more about some risks than others? Does concern about various risks have any impact on human behaviour and political decision-making?

This report proceeds as follows; it first provides comprehensive overview of the risk perception research concentrating on assessment of risk perception research in various disciplines, including the sources of perceived risks and their consequences. Second, it presents areas and topics covered in existing cross-national surveys on risks and threats. Third, it demonstrates analyses of cross-national data on nuclear and terrorist threats in cross-national perspectives as a case study of individual and cross-cultural differences in risk perception and attitudes. The report concludes with identification of future avenues for research of risk and risk perception within the SECONOMICS project framework.

1. State of the Art - An overview of the Risk Perception Research

The main goal of this chapter is to review the existing social science literature assessing risks and risk perceptions that address these questions. The chapter first briefly reviews what disciplines within the social sciences focus on this area, thereafter, the main concept of risk perception is introduced. The third section analyses sources and consequences of risk perception. The final part reviews some relevant survey data on the topic of risk perceptions that are publicly available and shortly outlines possible directions for further research.

1.1. Research on Risk Perception in Various Disciplines

Threats and risks are primarily studied within the so-called "risk assessment" analysis. Such studies include a variety of approaches how to study risks; social science approach is only a part of that. In particular, social scientists focus on the concept of "risk perception", drawing on social psychology, another discipline that pays great attention to risk assessment. Originally, the research of risk perception appeared in the late 1960s. In essence, risk perception was considered the major cause people's antagonism to technological development such as nuclear power (Sjöberg, Moen and Rundmo 2004). As a consequence, researchers started to contend that perception of threats and risks is not only a matter of technical knowledge but also of subjective personal opinions and beliefs (Sjöberg 2000).

Political science has largely disregarded the study of risk perception. The only two fields that have devoted some attention to the topic are political psychology and public opinion research. However, as a direct consequence of the 9/11 terrorist attacks in New York, the study of risks and threats have entered into the political science discipline in relation to the study of terrorism. In addition, sociology, social policy and also political science have dedicated a special attention to the issue of perceived threats when studying specific groups of people and minorities such as ethnic groups, immigrants and homosexuals that can represent, to some extent, a "threat".

1.2. Definition of Risk Perception

Risk in general can be defined as the "likelihood that an individual will experience the effect of danger" (Short 1984). Social scientists focus on the concept of "perceived risk/threat/hazard". Perceived risk can be understood as the subjective assessment of the probability of this danger and how much people are concerned about potential consequences (Sjöberg et al. 2004: 8). Risk perception includes three components: 1) subjective assessment that individual people make, 2) (un)certainty that is intrinsic to this assessment and 3) something that will have a negative outcome (Sjöberg et al. 2004: 8). A perceived risk is not studied as a general feeling or attitude when individuals are asked whether they generally feel threatened or in risk. Risk perception is studied as a targeted attitude to specific types of risks, such as terrorism, natural disaster, nuclear power, technological development, crime, etc. As sociological and political science

studies show, perceived threat can also originate in the social world and not only in new technologies and nature. People can perceive the risk of losing their cultural identity, economic and political privileges, and feel threatened by some policies and specific groups of people, such as immigrants (Taylor 1998, Oliver and Mendelberg 2000, Cho and Gimbel 2006). Threat thus clearly has a raft of potential sources.

There are two basic types of risks: personal and collective/national/general (Huddy et al. 2002, Sjöberg 2005, 2000 and 2003). The personal risk represents a personal threat to the individual or the immediate family and is often related to feelings of personal insecurity and fear of physical harm (Huddy et al. 2002). This can be measured by questions such as: "How concerned are you personally about yourself or a family member being the victim of a future terrorist attack in the United States" (Huddy et al. 2002) or "How large do you think that the risk is for you personally of the following?" and the list including variety of possible risks is offered (e.g. Sjöberg 2003). The general, national and collective threat is a threat understood as a risk for the country or society as a whole, and does not have to entail a personal physical risk to an individual. This can be studied through questions such as: "How concerned are you that there will be another major terrorist attack on U.S. soil in the near future?" (Huddy et al. 2002) or "How large do you think the risk is to people in Sweden of the following?", and the list including the same risk items as in the case of personal risk is offered (e.g. Sjöberg 2003). The above-noted two types of threat have also been presented by his factors analysis (Huddy et al. 2002). Similarly, they also differ in their consequences.

1.3. Sources of Perceived Risk

The risk literature has widely studied individual sources of threat perception. There are two main classical theories used for explanation of perceived risk: the psychometric paradigm and cultural theory (Sjöberg 2000, Sjöberg et al. 2004). Some authors as Huddy points out the influence of gender on threat perception (Huddy et al. 2002). In the analysis one has to take into account that people are not isolated units perceiving risk regardless of their environment. For that reason wider context should be taken into account by risk perception analyses.

1.3.1. Psychometric paradigm

The psychometric explanation, drawing on cognitive psychology, was developed by Fischhoff and his colleagues in 1978. The basic assumption of this approach is that threats and risks are in reality interpreted or perceived by individuals. In other words, individual threats are considered to be stimuli to which individuals respond (Slovic 1987, Sjöberg 2000, Sjöberg et al. 2004). Based on this perspective, various characteristics of the possible threats and risks are considered to be the principal factors determining how much people feel threatened or at risk.

Originally, this research agenda was used to account for differences in the level of perceived risk among various types of threats and was intended to predict public acceptance of specific policies that involved some level of risk (Slovic 1987, Sjöberg 2000, Sjöberg et al. 2004). Specifically, the traditional risk perception literature was

interested in the following question: Why are some risks perceived as more severe than others? This focus was motivated mainly by the fact that, surprisingly to risk assessment experts, some of the threats with a rather low actual probability of happening, such as radiation from nuclear power plant, were perceived as much greater risks than other threats that can potentially be more harmful, like X-rays (Slovic 1987). Similarly, authors were puzzled about the discovery that some quite serious accidents had much smaller negative social consequences than other accidents that did not inflict any physical or material harm but induced higher social concerns (Slovic 1987).

These studies conducted an aggregate level analysis explaining the diversity in average risk perception of specific threats (Slovic 1987, for summary see Sjöberg 2000 and 2002, Sjöberg et al. 2004). In particular, as shown for instance in the analysis of Slovic (1987), a long series of possible risks is used and individual risks are treated as units of analysis. Individual cases (risks or threats) are measured on several variables derived as average evaluation of various risk characteristics. Respondents are asked to evaluate the stated individual risks on various scales implying their characteristics, such as how new and researched the risk is, how fatal it can be, whether it is voluntary, how dangerous for future generations it can be, etc. In the next step, factor analysis is used to analyze dimensionality of the evaluations of the individual risks. Usually two factors are derived: 1. Dread risk dimension that includes characteristics such as how catastrophic or fatal the consequences are and how controllable the risk is. 2. New-old dimension that includes items such as how well the risk is known to science, how generally new it is, how known it is to exposed people (Slovic 1987).

Based on the two dimensions a "map of hazards" is designed (Slovic 1987: 282). For example coal-mining accidents score high on the dread dimension and low on the new-old dimension, while chemical technologies display high values on the new-old dimension and low on the dread dimension. Threats related to nuclear power such as radioactive waste and nuclear reactor accidents score high on both dimensions – they are considered simultaneously as unknown and dreadful risks. On the other hand, risks such as alcohol or downhill skiing display low values on both dimensions. What is important is that scores of individual risks on the dread dimension are strongly related to how much people express the desire for strict regulation to reduce the risk (Slovic 1987: 283). People exhibit more proclivity towards greater risk regulation in areas that are difficult to influence and that can have fatal consequences such as nuclear accidents, usage of weapons and DNA technology, in contrast to less hazardous occurrences such as the use of medicaments or bicycles. Subsequently, the psychometric scholars argue that individual threats have a "signal potential" determined by the two main factors of risk characteristics and not only by actual risk calculated by risk assessment experts (Slovic 1987). Specifically, risks such as nuclear power and other new technologies are very likely to have high signal potential that will bring a lot of public concerns, media attention and opposition because they score high on the two risk dimensions.

While the psychometric theory performs well in explaining aggregate differences in perception among individual risks, it is criticized for being much less successful in explaining the individual level differences in risk perception (Sjöberg 2000 and 2002, Sjöberg et al. 2004). The question "why some people perceive a specific risk more dangerous than others" cannot be answered only by perceived attributes of individual

threats, specifically the novelty and dread dimensions. Although the threat attributes show some effect on individual perception of a particular risk, they explain much less of the variance among individuals than it does in the cross-risk analysis (Sjöberg 2002).

1.3.2. Cultural theory

The second theory that belongs to the basic explanatory framework of risk perception is the so-called cultural theory. Unlike the psychometric paradigm that looks at characteristics of risks themselves, the cultural theory focuses on individual attitudes and values that can influence the levels of perceived risk (for summary see Sjöberg 2000, Peters and Slovic 1996). In other words, while psychometric analysts have pointed out that "risk debates are not merely about risk statistics" and are related to other characteristics of threats, authors relying on cultural theory have argued that "some of these debates may not even be about risk" but about the individuals themselves (Slovic: 1978: 285).

The cultural perspective was introduced into the risk perception literature by Douglas and Wildavsky (1982) and later elaborated upon by Dake (1991). According to this perspective, the perception of risk is driven by more general attitudes towards the world around us (Dake 1991). Culturalists assume that people have specific worldviews that determine their interpretations of the surrounding world. In contrast to the psychometric theory, possible risks and hazards are not expected to influence individual attitudes directly but through interpretative schemata (Peters and Slovic 1996). Especially relevant to the explanatory potential in cross-individual research is that people naturally differ in their worldviews.

According to Dake (1991), two components are important in regards to an individual's general worldview: his/her relations to groups (individual/group-based perspective on beliefs of right and wrong, responsibility etc.) and characteristics of rules that are needed for society according to that particular individual (the number of rules and the level of acceptance of these rules across society). Combining these two dimensions Dake derives four basic worldviews: 1) hierarchist, 2) fatalist, 3) individualist, and 4) egalitarian. Based on those characteristics, his study then shows what types of risks hierarchists, individualists and egalitarians are concerned with (Dake 1991, Sjöberg 2000). Hierarchists score high on both dimensions – they are group-oriented and require many and stratified rules to control people's behavior. Hierarchists worry about societal risks associated with people's civil disobedience and at the same time are not concerned about restrictions to civil liberties. Individualists are expected to require lower level of stratified prescription and are oriented towards the individual. They are concerned about civil disobedience of ordinary people and worry about risks associated with economic failures. Egalitarians want the same as individualists in terms of how society should be ruled, i.e. few rules to govern people's behavior, but they are more group oriented. Egalitarians worry primarily about technological and environmental risks because a non-egalitarian society will probably exploit environment. They are also concerned about restrictions on civil liberties.

Some scholars criticize this explanatory approach for limited empirical evidence that would support this theory and for a low effect of the worldview types on risk perception (Sjöberg 2000). Implications of other more general types of values and attitudes, such as position on the left-right ideological scale, postmaterialism or responsibility on risk

perception were also studied. However, according to critics, they fail to explain interpersonal variation in risk perception (Sjöberg 2000).

Searching for more powerful explanatory models, Sjöberg (2000) suggests including a specific attitude to the object of risk. Specifically, he includes into the analysis of risk perception of nuclear power the factor of an attitude towards nuclear power. So far, research has assumed that particular attitudes towards policies related to risks were the result of risk perceptions and not the other way round. However, Sjöberg (2000) reverses the causal direction and argues that it is attitudes that influence risk perceptions. Although this model performs much better in statistical terms than the other predictors, the question remains whether it offers a theoretical improvement in determining the causes of risk perception.

Regarding the explanatory potential of cross individual difference in risk perception, the approach could be criticized for a short distance between the two concepts. To put it bluntly, it is not surprising that people tend to picture worse scenarios for things that they dislike. Similarly, Sjöberg's inclusion of general risk sensitivity that is construed as mean risk perception of various objects (not counting the object that is analyzed as dependent variable) raises similar concerns. Undoubtedly, his findings are a relevant contribution to a more detailed understanding of the puzzle of risk perception. However, their potential for causal explanation should not be evaluated only on the basis of how much of variance in risk perception they succeed to explain. Theoretical concerns of how far those concepts are in the line of causality should also be taken into account.

Other factors explaining risk perception have been used. Sjöberg (2005) in his risk perception analysis of terrorism uses various indicators, such as the perceived characteristics of a terrorist, general suspicious thoughts, and reasons for a "risky world". Although some of these factors are significant, they lack a developed theoretical explanation why and how they should determine the perceived risk of terrorism.

1.3.3. Gender factor

One of the stable findings of risk perception studies is the significant difference between men and women. Women tend to exhibit a higher level of apprehension of both threats - the perceived personal and national - than men, despite the fact that they are not more likely to be affected by the threat (Huddy et al. 2002). The analysis will therefore compare cross-national differences in risk perception among male and female respondents. Further analyses, which are beyond the scope of this report, will also incorporate other socio-demographic factors such as age, residence (city vs. countryside), family status (single vs. family), education (lower vs. higher), class and income and cross-section of these factors.

1.3.4. Context

The vast majority of traditional risk perception scholars limit their analysis to individual characteristics of citizens. It is done either by psychometric modelling that includes risk into the analysis as "inherently subjective" that exists only in the minds of people and how they perceive it (Sjöberg 2004), or in cultural theory approach that treats culture as a set of individual values and attitudes. However, people are not isolated units perceiving risk regardless of their environment. Wider context should also be taken into

account by risk perception analyses. Moreover, literature has demonstrated that contextual differences in risk perception exist. Mazur (2006) analyzes the differences in perceived threats of environmental damage across western democracies. He shows such differences through a temporal prism and concludes that the level of people perceiving threat increased from 1993 to 2000. Similarly, several studies show quite a fast decrease of reactions that first soar in the immediate aftermath of an accident or event but soon quite quickly wane (Sjöberg 2005, Sjöberg and Drottz 1991, Silver et al 2002). For instance Silver and his colleagues (2002) provide evidence that there had been more than a ten-per cent decline in occurrences of post-traumatic symptoms since the immediate aftermath of the 9/11 attacks when compared to two months thereafter.

First and foremost, the risk perception and related individual attitudes and behavioral patterns are undoubtedly related to actual risks and risky situations (Sjöberg 2000, Huddy et al.2002). One can hardly argue that the 9/11 events and the Chernobyl accident as such would not have had any social impact. Similarly, if there was no nuclear power, people could hardly be afraid of it. In this regard, longitudinal designs studying attitudes to risk and risk perception before and after major accidents seem to be very promising. For instance, Kam and Kinder (2007) analyzed the levels of support for war on terrorism in their unique panel study conducted before and after 9/11. As the main explanatory variable they identified an increased ethnocentrism in 2002 compared to 2000. They claim that it is the context, specifically the events of 9/11 together with the reactions of political elites and media that activated a latent ethnocentrism of Americans that subsequently led to the support of the war in Iraq.

Similarly, analyses across countries, regions and neighbourhoods measuring the actual level of threat could provide some important results. For instance, research on ethnocentrism and racial attitudes has paid a lot of attention to these approaches (Oliver and Mendelberg 2000). Most of these studies consider as one of the main explanatory variable of white people's anti-black attitudes the "power-threat" theory. In general, the theory specifies that whites see their economic, political, and status privileges threatened by the increasing percentage of blacks in their community (Taylor 1998, cf. Oliver and Mendelberg 2000).

In addition to actual risks and threats, political and social environment is very likely to play an important role in shaping individuals perceptions of risks. Public opinion research has paid a lot of attention to how political elites influence public opinion (Dalton, Beck and Huckfeldt 1998, Zaller 1992). There is no reason why this effect should not be found also in the case of attitudes towards and perceptions of risks. Mazur (2006) shows that the change in the level of perception of environmental risks in a particular country is related to changes in the coverage of these risks in the national media. Mazur compares environmental risk perception in ten countries between 1993 and 2000. In countries, such as Spain and Japan, where media coverage of environmental issues had increased, the level of perceived environmental danger soared as well. Also in countries where media paid less attention to environmental dangers than in the past, such as Germany and Bulgaria, a decrease in perceived environmental risks was observed. However, Mazur's study remains rather sole standing. Risk assessment research in general has not paid very much attention to contextual determinants of risk perception.

Also, micro-contexts of individuals such as their social networks are very likely to influence their attitudes and behavior related to risks. Social networks present quite stable links between individuals and a wider political environment (Knoke 1990). Generally, people involved in those networks are more likely to get information about political and social issues and about the wider environment. For example, when analyzing effect of policy threat to Arab Americans that appeared with the acceptation of the Patriotic Act, Cho and Gimbel (2006) found support for the importance of information and socio-economic status in transmitting the effect of the actual threat. They show that people with a better access to information were able to identify a potential policy threat to them and able to action accordingly - oppose it. Because of the necessary transmission process, it was paradoxically Arab Americans with English knowledge and high status, who had felt more threatened by the introduction of the Patriot Act. Yet they were less likely to be threatened by it than disadvantaged Arab Americans.

1.4. Consequences of Perceived Risk

Various consequences of threat perception have been widely documented in the literature. Huddy et al. (2002: 486) summarize observed outcomes of threat perception in general: higher risk perception increases political intolerance, ethnocentrism, xenophobia, and prejudices. Threat perception also reduces cognitive abilities, leads to closed-mindedness and intolerance to challenging opinions. For example, Brade, Valentino and Suhay (2008) show that journalistic portrayal of immigrants as a threat in the media increases individual anti-immigrant protest behavior. In addition to anxiety, both perceived personal and national harm caused by immigration, are shown as mechanisms through which this influence takes place.

Risk perception also supports individuals' willingness to forego basic civil rights and liberties (Huddy et al. 2002: 486). Viscuci and Zeckhauser (2003) analyze how people are willing to sacrifice civil liberties to reduce the risk of terrorism on the case of airport checks of passengers, i.e. whether they should be random and standardized or targeted according to race, gender, nationality, etc. Their analysis supports opinions that the discussion about liberties and terrorism is not about extreme views, i.e. sacrifice all liberties or none of them in the effort to lower the terrorism risk. On the contrary, the individual attitudes have seemed to be rather conciliatory and a result of a series of trade-offs. Specifically, they show that only 45 per cent of respondents were in support of targeted checks based on demographic data such as race, gender and nationality if the alternative was random checks causing 10 minutes delays at the airport for everyone. However, if the general delays caused by random checks should increase to 60 minutes, then 74 per cent of people were in support of targeted checks. Interestingly, the assessment of the general risk of terrorist attack did not show any effects on the willingness to introduce targeted air checks.

It should also be stressed that there is a difference between the implications of personal and collective risk perception. Personal threats educe higher feeling of fear and anxiety than the national one (Huddy et al. 2002). They also lead individuals to alter their personal behavior in order to avoid a risky situation. For example, Huddy et al. (2002) show that people who felt more at risk of being personally affected by a terrorist attack

were more cautious in handling their mail, tried to spend more time with their family, and happened to change their air travel plans.

The main difference between personal vs. national/societal threat should be in how they influence attitudes towards policies. Huddy et al. (2002) argue that the level of perceived personal threat does not influence the attitudes towards national policy issues because individuals follow the distinction between private and political arenas in their evaluation of general societal process and policy issues in particular. In fact, they show that perceived collective threat of terrorist attacks affected the evaluation of national consequences of terrorism, while the level of perceived personal threat of being hurt by a terrorist attack did not render any effect whatsoever. Similarly Kam and Kinder (2007) show that greater fear of a higher national threat of terrorism increases the support for the war on terrorism such as increase spending on security, defence, border control, and support for military action in Iraq. Figure 1 displays a summary of above reviewed studies. The figure outlines the fundamental questions and findings the empirical studies have been concerned with.
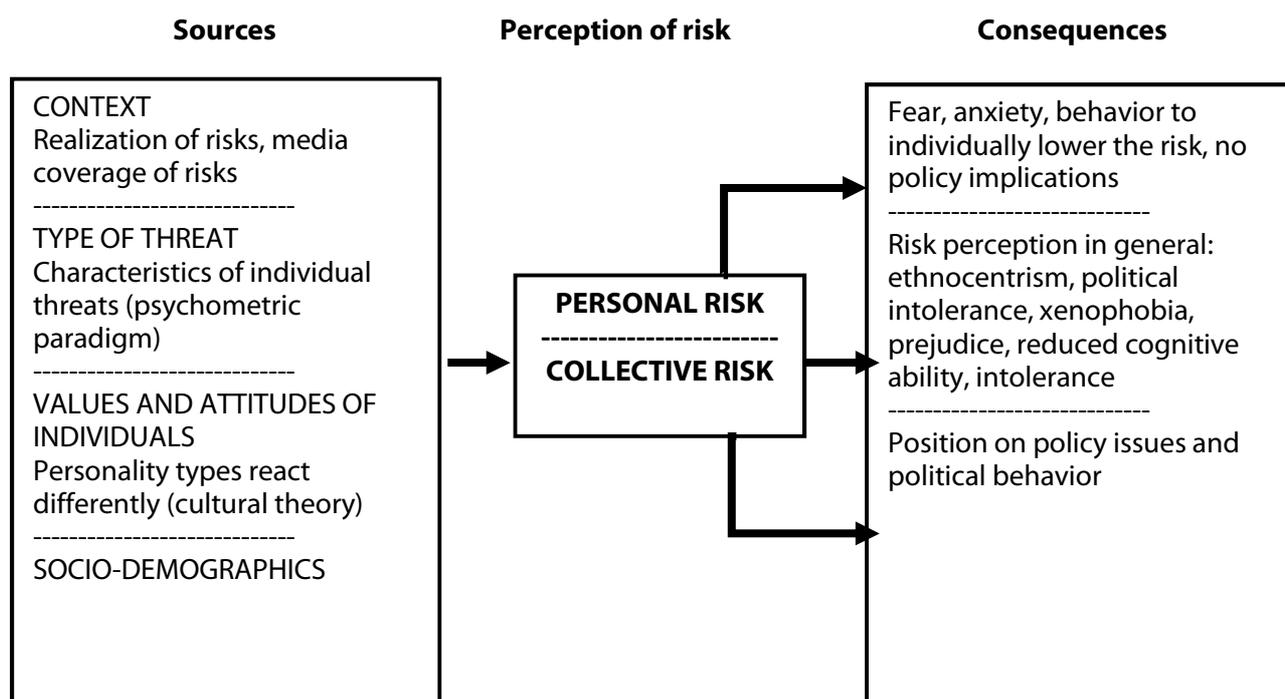
Sources	Perception of risk	Consequences
CONTEXT Realization of risks, media coverage of risks ---------------------------- TYPE OF THREAT Characteristics of individual threats (psychometric paradigm) ---------------------------- VALUES AND ATTITUDES OF INDIVIDUALS Personality types react differently (cultural theory) ---------------------------- SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS	PERSONAL RISK ---------------------------- COLLECTIVE RISK	Fear, anxiety, behavior to individually lower the risk, no policy implications ---------------------------- Risk perception in general: ethnocentrism, political intolerance, xenophobia, prejudice, reduced cognitive ability, intolerance ---------------------------- Position on policy issues and political behavior

Figure 1. Elements and Consequences of Risk Perception – Summary

After outlining the various social science approaches to risk perception, the next chapter turns to existing cross-national data on risk attitudes and perceptions.

2. Risks and Threats in Cross-National Surveys

The second chapter presents an overview of questions on perceptions of risks and threats covered by a number of cross-national surveys. The chapter offers 1) an overview of the international surveys available and 2) areas and topics covered by these

surveys. Before we will move to part one, two important caveats must be made – all the surveys described in this document are collected by other researchers for their purposes, hence the usual methodological and conceptual issues connected with the use of secondary data imply and present certain limitation to the analyses the SECONOMICS research will be able to undergo. Secondly, although the data come from large-scale international survey, not all countries included in the SECONOMICS consortium are covered.

Analyses of risk perception mostly rely on individual surveys conducted in a particular country or city. Regarding cross-national surveys, modules of International Social Survey Program (ISSP) focused on the environment, covering question about perceived environmental threats. The ISSP studied the role of government in 2006 and included the question on how much a government should be allowed to reduce peoples' rights and liberties in situations where a terrorist attack might be imminent. The World Value Survey (WVS) asks respondents about helpfulness or harms of scientific advances in the long run. The first wave of the WVS (1981-1984) included questions on individuals' assessment of the likelihood of their country being at war in five years. The second wave of the WVS (1989-1993) asked how people liked potentially "threatening" groups (various nationalities, political groups, minorities etc.). The third and fourth wave of the European Social Survey (ESS) included questions about the frequency of worries about becoming a victim of crime and being physically assaulted or mugged. They also covered questions on the likelihood of a terrorist attack in Europe and the respondent's country.

Moving beyond these limitations, the survey data available offer an interesting view of number of issues connected with perceptions of risks and threats by the citizens of multiple countries within and beyond Europe.

2.1. Areas and Topics Covered by International Surveys

First survey included in this overview is the International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) – a continuing annual programme of cross-national collaboration on surveys covering topics important for social science research. It is the largest continuous international program of attitudes survey in the world. Since 1984, ISSP encompasses over 48 countries and periodically covers crucial issues such as Role of Government, Social Networks, Social Inequality, Environment, etc. For the SECONOMICS research three waves of the ISSP are relevant ISSP 1993 on Environment I., ISSP 2000 on Environment II., and ISSP 2006 on the Role of the Government. The questions and countries covered by the individual surveys are included in the following part of this document. From a theoretical perspective ISSP 2006 Role of Government, is of particular interest as it included question on how much a government should be allowed to reduce peoples' rights and liberties in a risk of terrorist attack.

The next survey is the European Value Survey (ESS), an academically-driven social survey designed to gain understanding of the changing interaction between Europe's institutions and the attitudes of the citizens of 30 nations in Europe since 2001. Until today, five rounds of the data were collected (2002, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2010). For the SECONOMICS analysis in this paper rounds three, four and five are most relevant.

Next survey is World Value Surveys (WVS) which is a global research project that explores people's values and beliefs, how they change over time and what social and political impact they have. It is carried out by a worldwide network of social scientists who concentrate on changing values and their impact on social and political life. The WVS currently covers more than 90 percent of worlds' population and conducted five waves of surveys from 1981 to 2007. For the SECONOMICS research rounds 1981-1984, 1989-1993 and 1994-1998 are relevant.

Last relevant surveys are the Eurobarometers (EB) – public opinion analysis surveys conducted by the European Commission since 1973. Eurobarometer monitors the evolution of public opinion in the EU member states in order to aid decision-makers in policy formulation and policy preparation phases. Major issues covered by Eurobarometer are enlargement, social situation, health, culture, information technology, environment, etc. The perception of risk is quite a lot covered by Eurobarometer, over the years see table 2.1. Although the variety of the EB surveys is very wide, only some items are repeatedly surveyed over time, as with other surveys described above, questions were not prepared by and for the SECONOMICS research and thus does not relate fully to the WP1,WP2 and WP3 case study topics.

Table 2.1. Risk Perception Items in Eurobarometers (EBs)

RISK PERCEPTION ITEM	EB-No.-Year
Personal risks – crime, diseases and transportation	
Risk of being a victim of crime, environmental pollution, economic crisis, injury in a car accident, serious illness and a raft of risks related to food.	EB-73.5-2010 EB-64.1-2005
Risk of having AIDS, being a victim of crime, and having a car accident etc.	EB-44.3-1996
Risk of accidents for various means of transportation and risks related to specific research topics	EB-35.1-1991
Risks of technologies and nuclear power	
Risk of pollution by various energy resources	EB-35.0-1991 EB-39.1-1993 EB-75.1-2011 EB-31A-1989 EB-37.0-1992 EB-43.1-1995
Risk of technological incidents (electricity blackout, gas cut-off and raising energy prices)	EB-65.3-2006
Risk of nuclear energy and radioactivity	EB-66.2-2006 EB-43.1-1995 EB-63.2-2005 EB-56.2-2001
Risks associated with new technologies	EB-64.3-2005 EB-46.1-1996 EB-52.1-1999 EB-58.0-2002
Risks related to industrial development	EB-51.1-1999
Cultural risks and societal consequences	

Items that should be or should not sacrificed during the war on terror	EB-60.0-2003
Risk caused by immigrants threatening our way of life	EB-60.1-2003
Risk of globalization for European culture	EB-67.1-2007
Risk of losing cultural diversity	EB-55.1-2001 EB-47.2-1997 EB-47.2-1997 EB-48.0-1997

Source: Eurobarometer surveys 2001-2011

In terms of empirical research, the current studies tend to concentrated on two sets of questions:

1) survey based literature aiming at analysing the existence of individual and cross-cultural differences in perception of risk and preferences for security measures;

2) studies focusing on the dilemma/tension between privacy and security, on civil rights and acceptance of security measures.

In the subsequent overview following areas of risk and threat perception are covered:
1. Pollution and Environment
2. Radiation and Nuclear Power Stations
3. Food and Health
4. Technologies (GMOs, CO_2, research, etc.)
5. Terrorism, War and Civil Liberties
6. Crime and Personal Threat
7. Reporting about risks and attitudes towards personal information
8. Cultural threat and perceived threat from a group of people
9. Other – general attitudes towards general threats and risks such as violence, poverty, drugs, etc.

2.2. Availability of Surveys by Countries

Before we will move to the next part and analyse the data, two important caveats must be made: 1) all the surveys described in this document are collected by other researchers for their purposes, hence the usual methodological and conceptual issues connected with the use of secondary data imply and present certain limitation to the analyses the SECONOMICS research will be able to undergo; 2) although the data come from large-scale international survey, not all countries included in the SECONOMICS consortium are covered. Detailed overview is in Appendix 1.

However, some of the topics in the available data are very relevant. This background study does not intend to analyses numerous aspects of the data; its role is to outline what the data can offer and future avenues for research. In order to bring various countries in various surveys systematically together, the authors have chosen to analyse the data from the perspective of the old, the new and non-EU member states. In these categories, various countries appear, yet, we can observe patterns emerging over time. We also see systematic difference between the old and the new member states over

time. This is a result of the fact, that some issues (nuclear energy safety, terrorist threat) have entered the public discourse in the NMS with certain time delay.

Moving beyond various limitations outlined above, the survey data available offer an interesting view of number of issues connected with perceptions of risks and threats by the citizens of multiple countries within and beyond Europe.

# 3. Comparative Analysis of Risks and Threats in Selected Cross-National Surveys

This part aims to: 1. discover the existence of individual and cross-cultural differences in perception of risk and preferences for security measures; 2. focus on the dilemma/tension between privacy and security and between civil rights and acceptance of security measures.

3.1. Individual and Cross-cultural Differences in Risk Perception

3.1.1. Terrorist attack

The possibility of terrorist attack and feeling of being personally threaten, surely point to individual differences, however, from our perspective - risk prevention, influencing public opinion and communication between policy makers and citizens – it is important to evaluate cross-country differences. Following graphs indicate results of the answer to the question "Do you think that a terrorist attack somewhere in Europe during the next twelve months is", with the following possible answers: very likely; likely; not very likely; not at all likely in 23 and 29 countries respectively – both among EU member states (old and new) and beyond. In the following graphs (3.1. and 3.2.) we see, that no significant differences can be found among the old and the new member states of the EU (with some outliers both within the old member states which tend to perceive the terrorist attack as more likely, such as the UK and Denmark, while selected new member states, such as Hungary and Bulgaria, which tend to perceive terrorist attack in their country as rather unlikely). Furthermore, we do not detect any significant change over time.

Graph 3.1. Cross-country comparison of subjective likelihood of terrorist attack in Europe in next twelve months (in 2006)
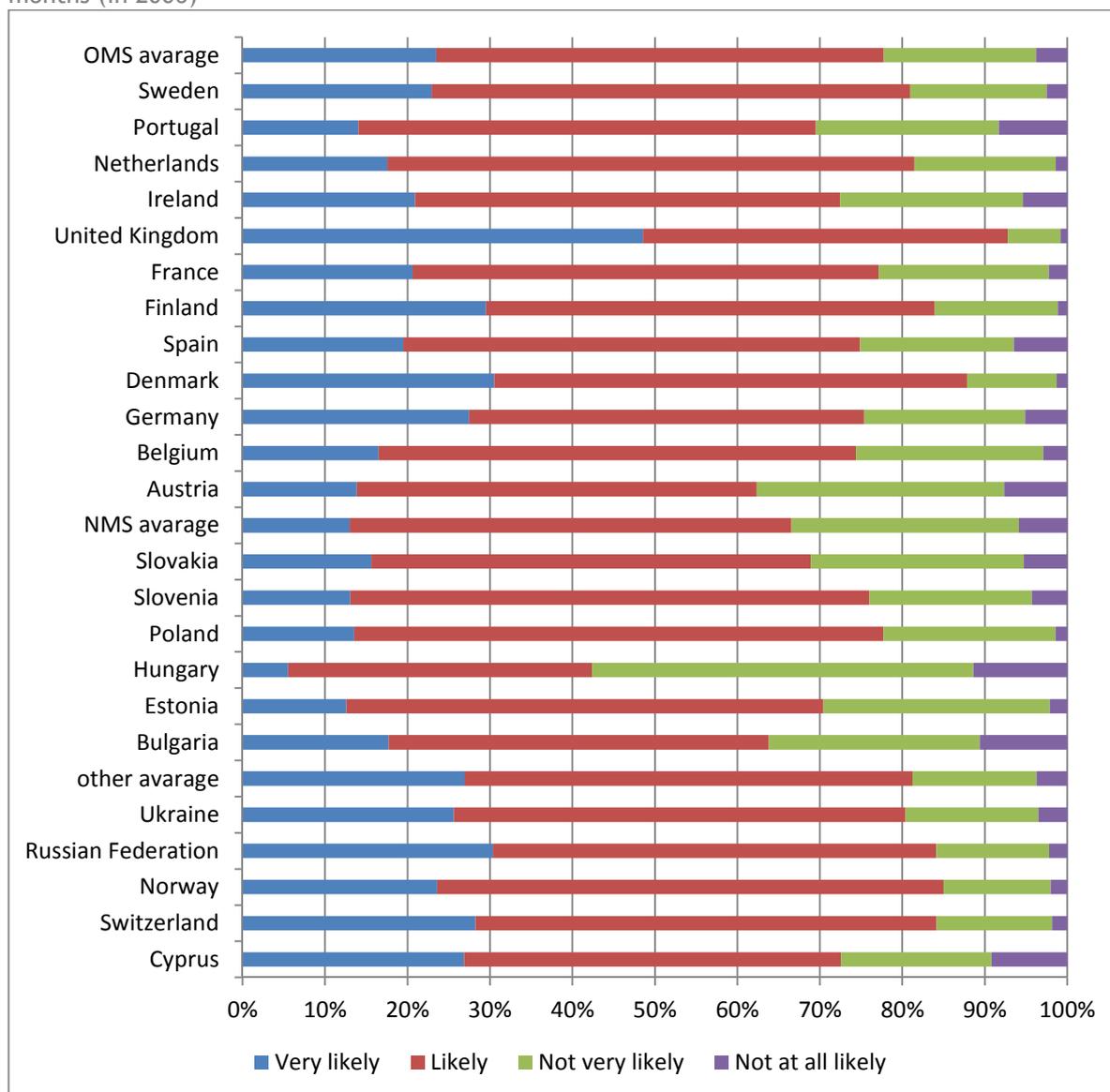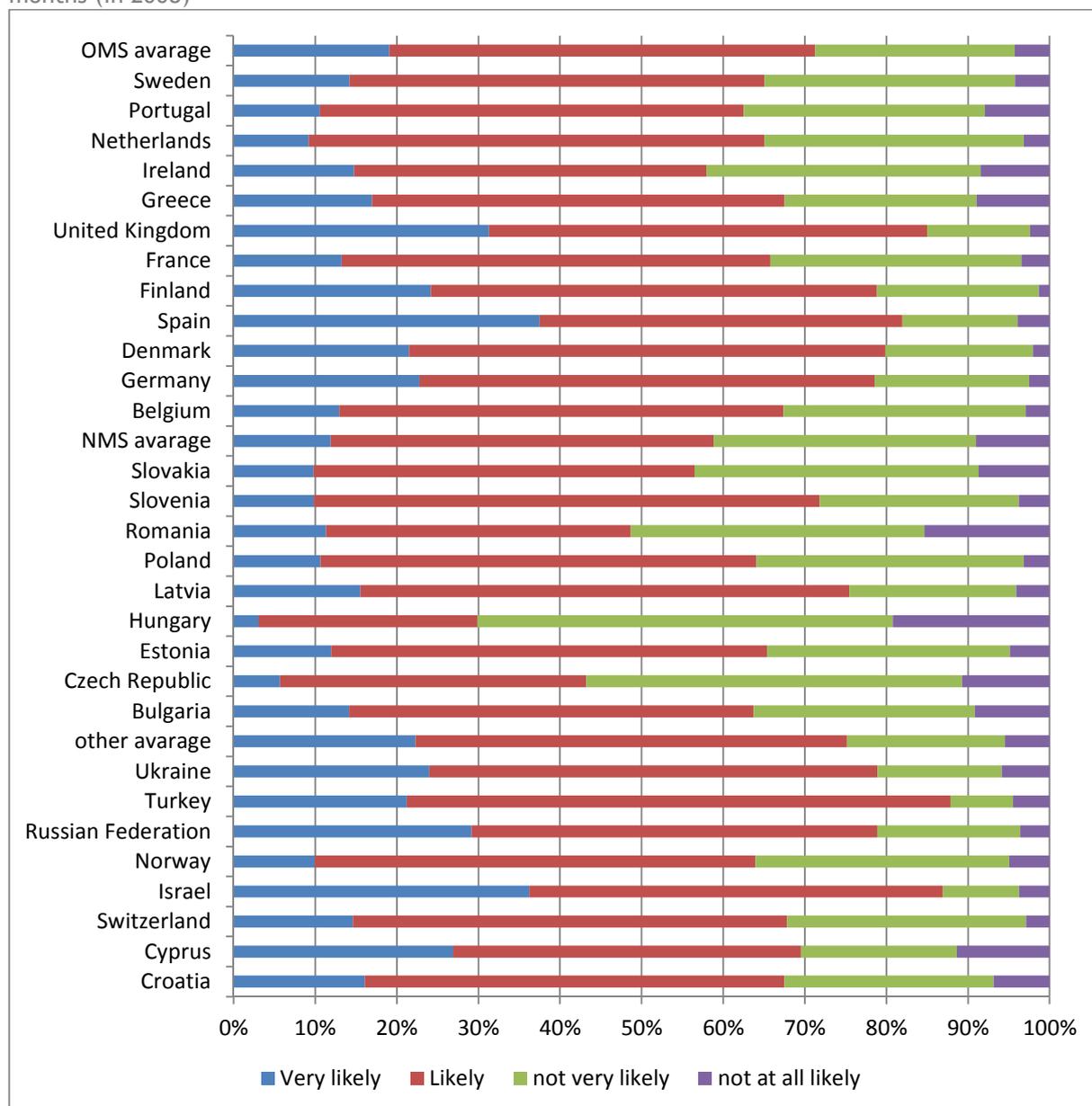

Note: Survey ESS3, the question C11 "Do you think that a terrorist attack somewhere in Europe during the next twelve months is … Select answer: very likely, likely, not very likely, not at all likely."
Source: European Value Survey 2006

The analysis also points out the fact, that past experience with terrorist attacks in respondent's country significantly influences the subjective feeling of threat. The EU countries such as Spain and the United Kingdom therefore show higher subjective feeling of threat among respondents. The presence of countries with past terrorist experience among the old member states (OMS) and their absence among the new member states (NMS) at the time of the survey also explains the difference between these two groups (in particular Spain being an important outlier).

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Graph 3.2. Cross-country comparison of subjective likelihood of terrorist attack in Europe in next twelve months (in 2008)

Note: Survey ESS4, Question C11 "Do you think that a terrorist attack somewhere in Europe during the next twelve months is … Select answer: very likely, likely, not very likely, not at all likely."
Source: European Value Survey 2008

Among the countries covered by the survey we do not see significant regional differences between the old and the new member states. The subjective risk perception on the aggregate level outlines different country-level patters, which tend to stay relatively stable over time (important outlier being Spain, where likelihood of terrorist attack grew significantly between 2006 and 2008 survey, both surveys after the terrorist attacks in 2004 case of Spain more attention should be paid to media coverage of these issues in the time between 2006 and 2008 as well as to any important events). Among the EU member states there are countries which exhibit higher terrorist threat perceptions such as the United Kingdom, Denmark, but also Finland, France and

Slovenia, and countries who show low terrorist threat perceptions Ireland, Portugal, Romania, Hungary, the Czech Republic. Among the non-EU countries the risk perception is higher (this can be due to selection bias, here we cannot generalize for the non-EU states, also because different countries are included in 2006 and 2008 data) than in the OMS and EU in general. In particular Russian federation, Norway and Switzerland were strongly aware of the terrorist risk in 2006, followed by Israel and Turkey in 2008.

After the terrorist attacks in the USA, Spain and the UK, a number of countries adopted measures for better terrorist threat monitoring and improved the security vis-à-vis terrorism. However, the counter-terrorist measures are not necessarily positively acknowledged by the citizens. We can observe both national and regional differences. Furthermore, in some instances counter-terrorist measures are perceived as threats themselves, in particular in relationship to possible negative effects on personal freedoms.

As stated above, the results presented in graphs 3.1. and 3.2. show, that the key factor contributing to threat perception is the past experience of terrorist attack in the respondent's country (in particular in the case of Spain and the UK, outside of the EU Russia represents similar pattern). In these countries, terrorism is seen as more important threat for the country (see table 3.1). However, the more time passes after a terrorist attack, the less salient the terrorist threats are (we see for example significant drop in Spain from 2005 onwards if compared with 2003 and 2004 data). Comparing the old and the new EU member states, we see that the citizens of the old member states are more sensitive to terrorist threat.

Table 3.1. EU Citizens' Perceptions of the Salience of the Terrorist Threat (2003–2007) [1]

	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU	LU
2003	4	NA	12	3	NA	4	51	9	2	9	NA	NA	NA	NA	7
2004	6	4	20	4	2	2	59	10	6	17	3	2	3	5	10
2005	5	3	32	4	3	1	31	10	6	11	1	2	1	2	4
2006	6	1	28	2	2	3	36	4	5	9	7	0	1	2	4
2007	4	3	17	11	1	2	37	6	4	7	2	0	1	1	3
Avg. [2]	5	3	21	5	2	2	43	8	5	11	3	1	2	3	6

	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SL	SK	FI	SE	UK	BG	RO	EU 15	MNS [3]	EU 25 [4]
2003	NA	4	4	NA	3	NA	NA	2	3	17	NA	NA	12	NA	NA
2004	2	12	5	6	4	3	4	5	6	28	5	4	18	5	16
2005	2	40	3	3	1	2	5	5	6	34	5	4	16	3	14
2006	1	19	2	3	2	2	2	3	5	17	5	4	11	2	10
2007	1	9	9	2	2	1	5	1	2	17	1	2	9	2	7
Avg.	2	17	5	4	2	2	4	3	4	23	4	4	13	3	12

Notes: The numbers are per cent.
Sources: Eurobarometer surveys no. 60 (2003), no. 62 (2004), no. 64 (2005), no. 66 (2006), no. 68 (2007).Quated after Bureš 2010: 77.

An important question also remains, to what extent does media attention and coverage to this topic affect feeling of threat. Authors, such as Bureš point out to the evolution of emergency discourse after the 9/11 attacks. According to this discourse, the majority of counterterrorism measures adopted after 9/11 in the context of the Action Plan are in fact multi-purpose legislation, which failed to gather sufficient support among

European citizens before 9/11, several scholars have argued that the terrorist threat has been exaggerated for instrumental and strategic reasons (Bureš 2010). Hence, the subsequent research on the link between media and risk perception will contribute to better understanding of the development of risk perception and the impact of various measures and of their communication by decision-makers to the citizen's via media on the levels of subjective risk perception.

There is little doubt that since 9/11 some politicians and in particular Justice and Home Affairs ministers have reacted, and in part also contributed, whether deliberately or unintentionally, to public anxiety about terrorism through their public communication and legislative initiatives. The creation of an emergency discourse at home and in Europe has allowed them in some instances to bend legal constraints and political

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[1] For 2003–2007 period, the exact question was: "What do you think are the two most important issues facing (OUR COUNTRY) at the moment?" The answers indicate the percentage of people who named "terrorism" as one of the two most important issues facing their country (from ten items).

[2] Five/four years average

[3] Only the 2007 data includes figures for Rumania and Bulgaria in EU and New Members States (NMSs) totals.

[4] EU27 data for 2007.

opposition to measures that expand the resources and competences of law-enforcement services.

In order to map the counter-terrorist measures, the table 3.3. provides an overview of measures adopted by the European Commission after the 9/11 terrorist attacks in New York. For the purpose of the case studies and their individual scenarios, it is important to point out, that these measures are general – establish security framework in the European union and as such impact all case studies by establishing a framework within which the nine scenarios take place.

Table 3.3. The European Union counterterrorism policy after the 9/11 attacks

Event	Date	Description
Council proposed a coalition strategy with USA	September 20, 2001	The screening of terrorist threats and recognition of terrorist organizations
		Enhanced transatlantic cooperation also means that the American representatives will be invited to meetings of antiterrorist EU bodies
		aviation and other transport security
		police and judicial cooperation, including extradition
		denial of financing of terrorism, including financial sanctions
		denial of other means of support to terrorists
		export control and non-proliferation
		border controls, including visa and document security issues
		law enforcement access to information and exchange of electronic data
Extraordinary European Council meeting	September 21, 2001, Brussels	The European Union Council met to declare their condemnation of the attacks
		putting an end to the funding of terrorism
		strengthening air security
		coordinating the European Union's global action
		it was stressed that the EU had launched 79 actions to track down terrorist
SWIFT (Society for Worldwide Inter-bank Financial Telecommunication)	September 23, 2001	The EU had been cooperating with the U.S. Treasury Department to transfer personal data from financial transactions linked to the Belgian corporation Society for Worldwide Inter-bank Financial Telecommunication
		The primary goal of the SWIFT agreement was to transfer personal data arising from transatlantic financial transactions to the Treasury Department's Terrorist Finance Tracking Program
		This information primarily included financial information such as account numbers and bank addresses, names, telephone numbers and personal addresses. TFTP officials have stated that data collected from SWIFT cannot be used to try persons unless the crime is linked to terrorism
		Since 2001, civil rights groups as well as members of the European Parliament have repeatedly protested that the SWIFT data transfers do not conform to the Data Protection Directive, which specifically prohibits transfers of personal data from the EU to third countries

Event	Date	Description
Second informal European Council meeting	October 19, 2001, Ghent	launching of a 'Declaration by the Heads of State or Government of the European Union and the President of the Commission Follow-up to the September 11 Attacks and the Fight against Terrorism'
		'Anti-terrorism Roadmap' , which was a detailed plan of antiterrorist actions within a cross pillar framework
		based on Article 29 of the Treaty of Amsterdam
'Proposal for Council Framework Decision on combating terrorism'	June 13, 2002	Adopted a framework, which provided for the establishment of a common European Arrest Warrant as well as a common legal definition of terrorism and terrorist acts within the EU15
		to establish minimum rules relating to the constituent elements of criminal acts and to penalties for natural and legal persons who have committed or are liable for terrorist offences which reflect the seriousness of such offences
		defines terrorist acts 'as offences under national law, which given their nature or context, may seriously damage a country or an international organization where committed with the aim of seriously intimidating a population or unduly compelling a Government or international organization to perform or abstain from performing any act, or seriously destabilizing or destroying the fundamental political, constitutional, economic or social structures of a country or an international organization
		it helped to classify those who commit terrorist acts, and also to distinguish terrorism from other offences
		the decision broadened its scope by focusing also on actions which could support or lead to terrorism such as inciting, aiding or abetting terrorist activities
Establishment of EUROJUST	February 2002	Provided a means for justice systems across Europe to share information and collaborate to the EU institution of Europol was given extensive powers to combat and monitor terrorism
European Arrest Warrant (EAW)	2002	Aims to unify already existing extradition procedures and bilateral agreements into one clear document
		a judicial decision issued by a Member State with a view to the arrest and surrender by another Member State of a requested person, for the purpose of conducting a criminal prosecution or executing a custodial sentence or detention order.

Event	Date	Description
		According to the mutual recognition paradigm, national states should not refuse to send their citizens to the state where they committed the crime.
		EAW excludes the political stage of extradition and introduces only the judicial one, which means that national courts are responsible for the decision to extradite.
		guarantees that fundamental rights will be protected according to the European Convention on Human Rights
		PROBLEMS
		Member States are unwilling to cooperate in the judicial sphere because it is strongly connected with their sovereignty
		EAW was part of a framework decision, which means that there was no sanction imposed for rejecting the implementation of this act. Thus, implementation depends entirely on Member States' good will
		EXAMPLE OF GERMANY: In Germany, implementation was even more difficult. The Federal Constitutional Tribunal revoked an implementation law of the EAW, explaining that it 'did not respect fundamental rights and procedural guarantees and so was contrary to the German Constitution'
Eurojust introduced as an independent EU body	February 28, 2002	The aim is not to track down terrorists
		but to 'enhance the effectiveness of the competent authorities within Member States when they are dealing with the investigation and prosecution of serious cross-border and organised crime'
European Security Strategy	2003	Formally marked the passage to a new phase with a more 'internalised' and differentiated threat perception formally marked the passage to a new phase with a more 'internalised' and differentiated threat perception
		The Security Strategy emphasises that terrorism not only endangers lives and causes huge costs but that it also 'seeks to undermine the openness and tolerance of our societies'
Force for the Fight against Terrorism - created within Europol	2004	This unit, which consists of police and intelligence liaison officers from Member States, gathers, analyses and assesses information gathered from open sources. Europol set up a 24hr operational centre focused on receiving and sharing data and intelligence information.
Strengthening air transport security and	December 16, 2002	the establishment of common rules on civil aviation security by the European Parliament and the Council

Event	Date	Description
border controls		the setting up of the European Aviation Safety Agency and EU actions within the International Civil Aviation Organization
		Border Agency (FRONTEX) , which coordinates and unifies border controls in Member State
Declaration on Combating Terrorism	March 25-26, 2004	Need to establish a counterterrorist coordinator. This position was taken by Gijs de Vries and is now continued by Mr Gilles de Kerchove
		Establishment of a 'pioneer group'- G5, which consisted of five countries – Spain, France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy. The aim was to strengthen intergovernmental, antiterrorist cooperation, as well as to exchange information more quickly and effectively, in 2006, Poland was invited to join the group
PNR (Passenger Name Records)	May 2004	The Council adopted a decision approving the conclusion of an agreement between the European Community and the United States on the processing and transfer of PNR (Passenger Name Records) data by air carriers established in Member States of the Community to CBP (Customs and Border Protection)'
Action Plan on Combating Terrorism	March 2004	The Action Plan was a more detailed consequence of the Anti-terrorist Roadmap
		to deepen the international consensus and enhance international efforts to combat terrorism
		to reduce terrorists' access to financial and other economic resources
		to maximize capability within EU bodies and Member States to detect, investigate and prosecute terrorists and prevent terrorist attacks
		to protect the security of international transport and ensure effective systems of border control
		to enhance the capability of the European Union and of Member States to deal with the consequences of terrorist attacks
		to address the factors that contribute to and provide support for terrorism, and that lead to recruitment of terrorists
		to target actions under EU external relations towards priority Third Countries where counterterrorism capacity or commitment to combating terrorism needs to be enhanced
SITCEN	2005	institution named Sitcen was placed under control of Europol in 2005 and was charged with monitoring and preventing threats through information gathering and intelligence

Event	Date	Description
		By 2007 the Council had adopted 75 policy recommendations by Sitcen to further prevent perceived acts of terrorism
		Sitcen remains primarily fixated on performing surveillance and analysing data, it has also developed several research programs within the context of EUROPOL and Commission oversight. The project with perhaps the greatest number of implications for the European security scene is that of INDECT. The concept for INDECT relies upon constructing a new type of search engine, one that is capable of identifying what INDECT designers have determined as "abnormal behaviour."
British The Prevention of Terrorism Act	2005	Subject to robust and heated debate, continued Parliament's trend toward increasing police power, expanding substantive offenses related to terrorism and allowing for the undermining of fundamental civil liberties in the name of national security
		One of the most controversial provisions in the 2005 legislation was the creation of a broad framework for control orders, which authorize the detention of or significantly curtail the freedom of movement of those suspected—but not convicted of—terrorism-related activity, or tendencies toward terrorism-related activity
The European Union Counter-Terrorist Strategy	November 2005	The strategy divides actions into the categories of prevention, protection, pursuance and response and serves as a summary of all previous documents, statements, propositions and decisions of the EU
		prevent 'people [from] turning to terrorism by tackling the factors or root causes which can lead to radicalisation and recruitment, in Europe and internationally'
		protect 'citizens and infrastructure and reduce our vulnerability to attack, including through improved security of borders, transport and critical infrastructure
		pursue and investigate 'terrorists across our borders and global'
		prepare ourselves, in the spirit of solidarity, to manage and minimise the consequences of a terrorist attack, by improving capabilities to deal with: the aftermath; the co-ordination of the response; and the needs of victims'
		disrupt the activities of the networks and individuals who draw people into terrorism

Event	Date	Description
So-called Prüm Convention	June 2005	It establishes, inter alia, the conditions and procedures for the automated transfer of DNA profiles, dactyloscopic data and certain national vehicle registration data as well as the conditions for the supply of information on terrorist suspects, even if not requested, in order to prevent terrorist offences
		It also seeks to improve cross-border police cooperation through various measures, including joint operations
The European Union Strategy for Combating Radicalization and Recruitment to Terrorism	November 2005	Ensure that voices of mainstream opinion prevail over those of extremism
		Promote yet more vigorously security, justice, democracy and opportunity for all
		Directive allowed for the Union to utilize new types of data to track and capture terrorists
Framework Decision on a European Evidence Warrant	June 2007	Similarly to the European Arrest Warrant, the Evidence Warrant constitutes an application of the principle of mutual recognition to a judicial decision in the form of a European Warrant, in this case for the purpose of obtaining from the authorities of other member state's objects, documents and data for use in proceedings in criminal matters
PNR (Passenger Name Records)	July 2007	Upon the signature of a new SWIFT agreement in 2007, U.S. Treasury and EC authorities revealed that data received by the Treasury Department consisted of completed financial transaction messages and their adhering details
		Upon EU acceptance of US demands (after the US threatened to restrict the movement of goods and people), an agreement was signed regarding the transfer of PNR data. The EU signed a similar agreement with Australia
SWIFT (Society for Worldwide Inter-bank Financial Telecommunication)	2007-2010	The SWIFT agreement has undergone two revisions, one in 2007, following public disclosure due to press investigations, and one in 2009 following the Lisbon Reform. Following the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty, the EP disbanded the SWIFT agreement until further notice on February 11, 2010 by voting to disband the program.

Sources: Grajny 2009; Mangels, Colby 2010; Setty, Sudha 2011; Gani, Mathew 2008.

3.1.2. Nuclear Power Station as a threat

Nuclear energy is also perceived as a threat. Both the existence and functioning of nuclear power plants and storage of nuclear waste are increasingly critically evaluated

by the citizens. The threat of nuclear energy is two-fold – related to the environment and potential fatal damage to it and as a target for terrorist attacks. The following graphs 3.3. and 3.4. present answers to the question, whether "Some radioactive waste from nuclear power stations will be dangerous for thousands of years".

Unfortunately, international comparative data after the 2011 Fukushima catastrophe in Japan are not yet available. However, based on media coverage and the impact the catastrophe had on public opinion as well as policy making across the world point to the fact, that the issue is very relevant and that catastrophe of this extent in one country has the potential to shape public opinion and policy-making world-wide. It provides saliency, mobilization potential and arguments to groups and citizens who are strongly aware of the risks of nuclear energy, and allows re-opening and re-negotiation of energy policies on national and international level.

Graph 3.3. Perception of Nuclear power stations as a threat (ISSP 1993)
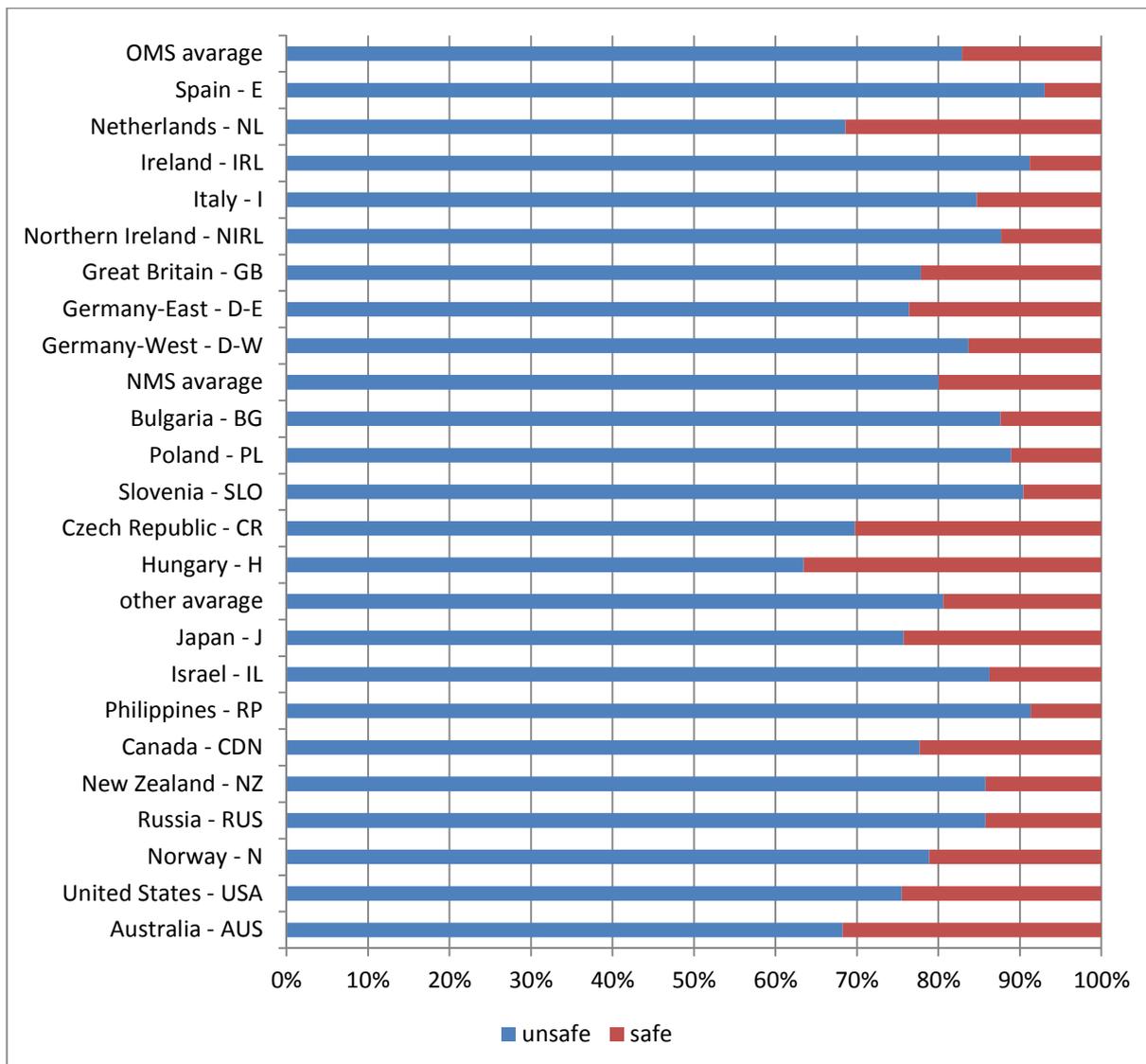
Note: ISSP 1993 Environment, question ZA 2450 "In general, do you think that nuclear power stations are … for the environment. Select answer: extremely dangerous, very dangerous, somewhat dangerous, not very dangerous, not dangerous at all."
*Source: ISSP 1993*

In terms of cross country differences, on the aggregated level, we do not observe any significant differences between the old and the new member states, nor between the EU and the rest of the world. What we see in graph 3.3. are cross country differences, some countries, such as Spain, Ireland, Slovenia and the Philippines are more prone to perceive nuclear energy as a threat. On the other hand, countries like the Netherlands, Hungary and Australia exhibit opposite trend. Looking at gender differences in risk perception, we observe, that women are more prone than man to perceive nuclear energy as a threat. However, the country variance outweighs the gender differences – and so both man and women in Ireland are more prone to perceive nuclear energy as a threat than their British counterparts. The absence of nuclear reactors in Ireland and

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their presence in the United Kingdom does not seem to be the decisive factor in shaping the attitudes towards nuclear energy.

It is difficult to evaluate the change over time between graphs 3.3 and 3.4. as the overlap between the countries included in both 1993 and 2000 survey is rather limited. However, we observe strong and significant trend to perceive nuclear energy as a threat. The relative outliers in this trend being Finland, Denmark, Bulgaria and the Czech Republic, three of these four countries – Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Finland provide approximately one third of their energy from nuclear power plants. Denmark does not have any reactors, yet the issue of nuclear energy was historically salient in Denmark in particular in the 1980s and 1990s. Like in 1993, the gender differences in 2000 show, that women are more prone to view nuclear energy as a threat, however the cross-national differences are better explained by cultural than in socio-demographic factors.

Graph 3.4. Perception of Nuclear power stations as a threat (ISSP 2000)
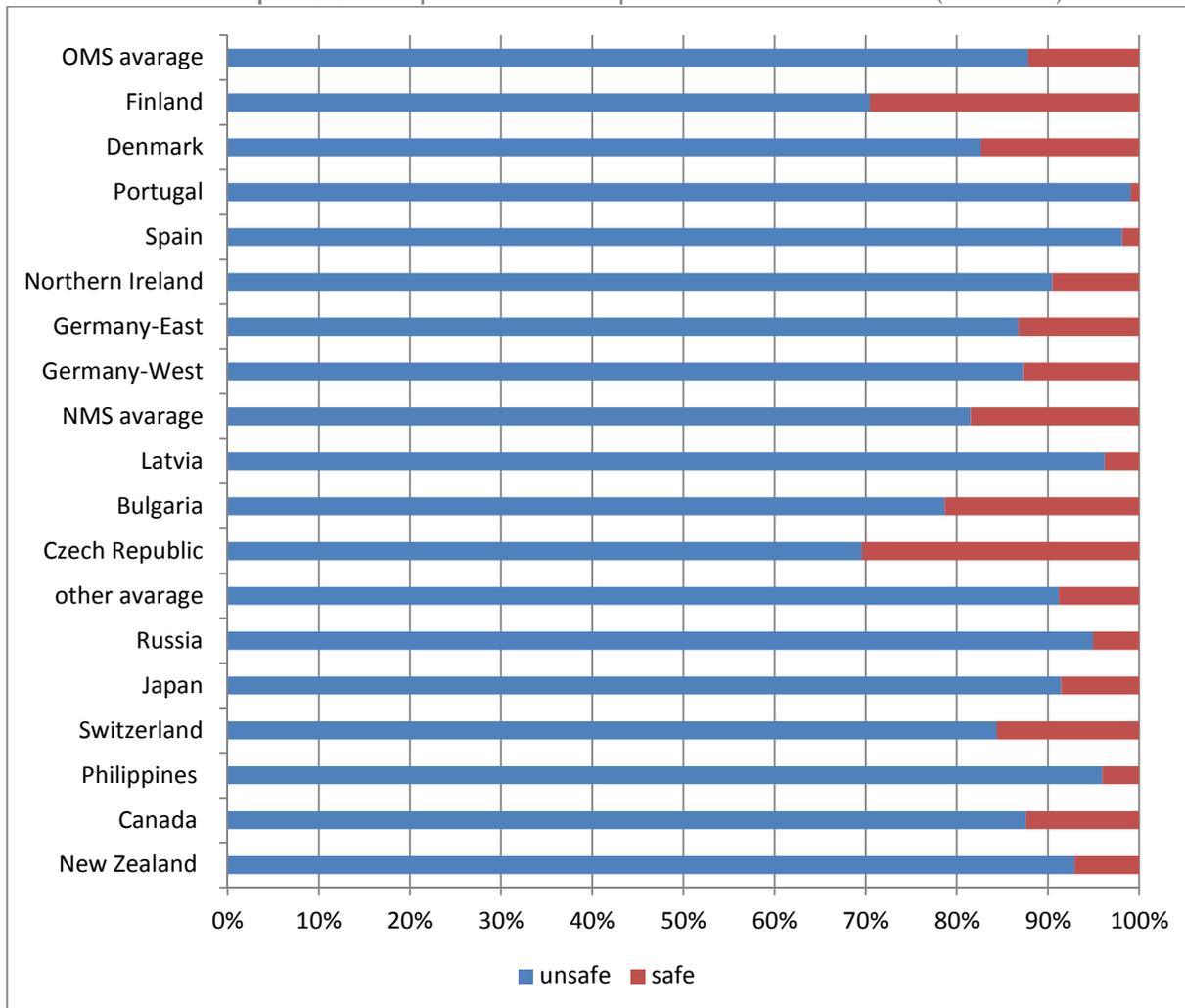
Note: ISSP 2000 Environment, question ZA 3440 "In general, do you think that nuclear power stations are … for the environment. Select answer: extremely dangerous, very dangerous, somewhat dangerous, not very dangerous, not dangerous at all."
Source: ISSP 2000

In the graphs 3.3. and 3.4. we can observe, that over time the perception of nuclear power station as a threat grew. The differences among countries are relatively stable over time, as are the regional differences between the new and old EU member states and the countries outside the EU. The available data do not allow us to draw a direct causal link between threat perception and presence/absence of nuclear power plants on country's territory, their technical situation or by the public and media discourse on energy issues. In order to fill this gap, table 3.4 below provides an overview of the nuclear energy in Europe (as of 2012).

Combining the information provided in graphs 3.3. and 3.4 with those in table 3.4. we can observe, that operation of nuclear reactor in the country is not an explanatory for the perception of nuclear energy as a threat. The alternative explanation, which is more plausible is, that the risk perception in public opinion is influenced by communication of threats and medialization of this issue. We also observe significant change over time – shift towards perceiving nuclear energy as a threat has grown over time between 1993

and 2000. The public demonstration across Europe after the 2011 Fukushima catastrophe and the pressure of public opinion on policy-makers which resulted in profound change of attitudes towards nuclear energy is further continuation and amplification of this trend.

Table 3.4. Nuclear energy in Europe (2012)

Country	Share of nuclear power	In operation		Under construction	Waste management policy
	As of 2011 (%)	Number of reactors	First reactor began operation	Number of reactors	
Belgium	54,0	7	1974	-	reprocessing
Bulgaria	32,6	2	1974	-	n/a
Czech Republic	33,0	6	1985	-	n/a
Finland	31,6	4	1977	1	direct disposal
France	77,7	58	1962	1	reprocessing
Germany	17,8	9	1975	-	reprocessing
Hungary	43,2	4	1982	-	n/a
Netherlands	3,6	1	1973	-	n/a
Romania	19,0	2	1996	-	n/a
Russian Federation	17,6	33	1954	10	reprocessing
Slovakian Republic	54,0	4	1972	2	n/a
Slovenia	41,7	1	1981	-	n/a
Spain	19,5	8	1968	-	direct disposal
Sweden	39,6	10	1972	-	direct disposal
Switzerland	40,8	5	1969	-	reprocessing
Ukraine	47,2	15	1977	2	n/a
United Kingdom	17,8	15	1971	-	reprocessing
Total	-	185	-	16	-

Sources: World Energy Council, World Nuclear Association: http://www.world-nuclear.org, Euronuclear.org: http://www.euronuclear.org/info/encyclopedia/n/nuclear-power-plant-europe.htm

Attitudes to nuclear energy were significantly influenced by the nuclear disaster in Fukushima in March 2011. In public opinion survey done immediately after the nuclear accident in Fukushima a quarter of those who opposed nuclear power in the 24 countries surveyed said they did so because of Fukushima. However, one year after, in some countries the support for nuclear power increased a little bit again (Duffy 2012). This event renewed and invigorated with incomparable intensity public debates concerning security and need of nuclear energy.

While low and medium level radioactive waste is increasingly being taken care of, there is not yet a single final repository for high-level radioactive waste and spent fuel. It is likely that the first repositories of this kind will be opened between 2020 and 2025 in several EU Member States5. Austria was the first country to begin a phase-out (in 1978) and has been followed by Sweden (1980), Italy (1987), Belgium (1999), and Germany (2000). Austria and Spain have gone as far as to enact laws not to build new nuclear power stations. Major anti-nuclear power groups include Friends of the Earth, Greenpeace, Institute for Energy and Environmental Research, Nuclear Information and Resource Service, and Sortir du nucléaire (France).

3.1.3. Recent energy policy and legislative changes after the nuclear disaster in Fukushima[6]

In Belgium, there has been little government support for nuclear energy, and nuclear power generation incurs a EUR 0.5 cent/kWh tax. The Belgian Senate approved the Federal Act of 31 January 2003, which prohibited the building of new nuclear power plants and limited the operating lives of existing ones to 40 years (to 2014-2025). In October 2011 several political parties negotiating to form a new government agreed that the 2003 nuclear phase-out law closing three reactors by 2015 and the others by 2025 should be implemented if adequate power could be secured from other sources and prices would not rise unduly. At the end of 2011 an industry-commissioned poll showed that 58% of Belgians favoured keeping nuclear power, but 62% wanted to reduce its share in the mix (from more than half). Some 69% thought it would be difficult to replace the nuclear share and 74% recognized that electricity prices would rise, if nuclear was phased out.

Bulgaria has two nuclear reactors generating about 35% of its electricity. Two others, shut down under duress as a condition of Bulgaria joining the European Union, could be restarted. Government commitment to the future of nuclear energy is strong, though finance is lacking. Construction of a new nuclear plant was planned, but instead, a third 1000 MWe unit will be added to the present plant.

The Czech Government commitment to the future of nuclear energy is strong. A 2011 draft national energy policy to 2060 involves a major increase in nuclear power, to 13.9 GWe or up to 18.9 GWe in the case of major adoption of electric vehicles. It would then provide some 60% of the country's power.

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[5] European Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/energy/nuclear/waste_management/waste_management_en.htm, retrieved 25 October 2012
[6] Betzer, et al. 2011, Joskow and Parsons, 2012, Schneider et al. 2011, WEP 2012 and WNA 2012

In Finland, the January 2010 TNS Gallup survey (N=1000) commissioned by Finnish Energy Industries (Energiateollisuus) showed that 48% of Finns had a positive view of nuclear power, and only 17% were negative. The gap between the two was the widest since polling began 28 years earlier. Among women, 33% were positive and 23% negative. Among Green League supporters, 37% were negative, down from 57% five years before, and 21% were positive. The survey also found the highest ever proportion of young people aged 15-24 in favour of nuclear power, at 30%. The percentage of 15-24 year olds registering negative attitudes was likewise the lowest the surveys have ever recorded, at 10%. The parliamentary decision in 2002 in Finland to grant a licence for the construction of a fifth nuclear power station was seen as very significant in that it was the first such decision to build a new nuclear power plant in Western Europe for more than a decade.

France is the world's largest net exporter of electricity due to its very low cost of generation, and gains over EUR 3 billion per year from this. France has been very active in developing nuclear technology. Reactors and fuel products and services are a major export. It is building its first Generation III reactor and planning a second. About 17% of France's electricity is from recycled nuclear fuel. Early in 2003 France's first national energy debate was announced, in response to a "strong demand from the French people", 70% of whom had identified themselves as being poorly informed on energy questions. A poll had shown that 67% of people thought that environmental protection was the single most important energy policy goal. However, 58% thought that nuclear power caused climate change while only 46% thought that coal burning did so. The debate was to prepare the way for defining the energy mix for the next 30 years in the context of sustainable development at a European and at a global level. In stark contrast, France did not reconsider its nuclear energy policy after Fukushima disaster. On the contrary, the country is still planning to expand its nuclear energy production. In response to the German reaction, the French President Nicolas Sarkozy said on June 7, 2011: "The decision of the Germans? I'm not criticizing. (...) If they close their plants, they must be replaced. We will be a candidate for selling them electricity…"(China Daily, 2011).

In Germany, a coalition government formed after the 1998 federal elections had the phasing out of nuclear energy as a feature of its policy. With a new government in 2009, the phase-out was cancelled, but then reintroduced in 2011, with eight reactors shut down immediately. Public opinion in Germany remains ambivalent and at present does not support building new nuclear plants. In March 2011 the government declared a three-month moratorium on nuclear power plants, in which checks would take place and nuclear policy would be reconsidered. Chancellor Angela Merkel decreed that the country's nuclear power reactors which began operation in 1980 or earlier should be immediately shut down. Those units then closed and were joined by another unit already in long-term shutdown, making a total of 8336 MWe offline under her direction, about 6.4% of the country's generating capacity. Eight oldest reactors will be closed, and will result in the remaining nine closing by the end of 2022. France, Poland and Russia (Kaliningrad) are expecting to increase electricity exports to Germany, mostly from nuclear sources, and Russia is expected to export significantly more gas.

The Hungarian Parliament has expressed support for building two new power reactors. Consideration of future options for Hungary involves the so-called Visegrad 4 group countries — Poland, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Hungary, which are cooperating closely on nuclear power issues, including in research into future reactor designs and infrastructure development.

In Italy, the government has decided to scrap its previous plans to reintroduce nuclear-generated electricity. A referendum in June 2011 imposed a permanent ban on the reintroduction of a nuclear power programme.

The Netherlands has one nuclear reactor generating about 4% of its electricity. At least one large new unit is proposed. A previous decision to phase out nuclear power has been reversed.

Plans are well advanced for completing two more units in Romania, but finance is lacking; government support for nuclear energy.

Exports of nuclear goods and services are a major Russian policy and economic objective. Russia is a world leader in fast neutron reactor technology. Generally, Russian reactors are licensed for 30 years from first power. Late in 2000, plans were announced for lifetime extensions of twelve first-generation reactors* totalling 5.7 GWe, and the extension period envisaged is now 15 to 25 years, necessitating major investment in refurbishing them. In January 2010 the government approved the federal target program (FTP) "New-generation nuclear energy technologies for the period 2010-2015 and up to 2020" designed to bring a new technology platform for the nuclear power industry based on fast neutron reactors.

Slovakian Government commitment to the future of nuclear energy is strong. Under duress, as a precondition for Slovak entry into the European Union (EU) in 2004, the Slovak government committed to closing the Bohunice V1 units 1 and 2 due to perceived safety deficiencies in that early model reactor. The original date specified for closing them down was 2000, though subsequently 2006 and 2008 were agreed in relation to EU accession.

Slovenia has shared a nuclear power reactor with Croatia since 1981. It has further capacity under consideration.

In Spain, there are plans for renewed uranium mining. Government commitment to the future of nuclear energy in Spain has been uncertain, but has firmed up as the cost of subsidizing renewables becomes unaffordable. In February 2011 parliament removed a legal provision limiting nuclear plant operating lives to 40 years, and early in 2012 an industry report recommended in principle 20-year life extensions. The Socialist government to 2011 came to power on an anti-nuclear platform, but apart from opposing the renewal of license for the Santa Maria de Garona plant, an early BWR-3 model, it was increasingly positive about nuclear power. In 2011 the responsible minister said that nuclear plants are "essential for the supply of electricity in Spain" and that almost all nuclear power units "will be open, operating and even repowering" until 2021. Also he said that "nuclear energy will be useful as a source of electricity for cars," which

the government was promoting, hoping to have one million electric vehicles on the road by 2014. However, that government remained opposed to new nuclear plant construction. The Socialist government's anti-nuclear policy was never translated in to legislation. The November 2011 election brought about a change of government which revisited the decision to close Garona, allowing operation to 2019. Spain has banned the construction of new reactors.

In 1980, the Swedish government decided to phase out nuclear power. In June 2010, Parliament voted to repeal this policy. The country's 1997 energy policy allowed 10 reactors to operate longer than envisaged by the 1980 phase-out policy, but also resulted in the premature closure of a two-unit plant. Sweden has a tax against nuclear power – now about 0.67 Euro cents/kWh, which makes up about one-third of the operating cost of nuclear power. The Three Mile Island accident in the USA resulted in a decision to call a public referendum in Sweden, to remove the issue from the election campaign late in 1979. The 1980 referendum canvassed three options for phasing out nuclear energy, but none for maintaining it. A clear majority of voters favoured running the existing plants and those under construction as long as they contributed economically, in effect to the end of their normal operating lives (assumed then to be 25 years). Parliament decided to embargo further expansion of nuclear power and aim for closing the 12 plants by 2010 if new energy sources were available realistically to replace them. In 1994, the government appointed an energy commission consisting principally of backbench politicians, which reported at the end of 1995 that a complete phase-out of nuclear power by 2010 would be economically and environmentally impossible. Then, in February 2009, the Swedish coalition government said it planned to abolish the act banning construction of new nuclear reactors1. This was narrowly approved by Parliament in June 2010, though construction will only be at existing sites and to replace the present ten units. This is part of the government's climate program, which stipulates that by 2020, renewable sources should supply half of all energy produced, the Swedish car fleet should be independent of fossil fuels in 10 years, and the country should be carbon-neutral by 2050.

In June 2011 the Swiss parliament resolved not to replace any reactors, and hence to phase out nuclear power by 2034. A new government took office in December 2011, and it is to produce a new energy policy without nuclear power by 2013 and submit that to parliament. Until then the long-term future of nuclear power remains uncertain. The first power plant should stop running in 2019, the last in 2034.

Ukraine receives most of its nuclear services and nuclear fuel from Russia. In 2004 Ukraine commissioned two large new reactors. The government plans to maintain nuclear share in electricity production to 2030, which will involve substantial new build. In mid-2011 the Ukraine energy strategy to 2030 was updated, and in the electricity sector nuclear power's role was emphasized, with improved safety and increased domestic fuel fabrication.

The United Kingdom has full fuel cycle facilities including major reprocessing plants. The UK has implemented a very thorough assessment process for new reactor designs and their siting. The first of some 19 GWe of new-generation plants are expected to be on line about 2018. he United Kingdom. A YouGov survey in October 2012 found that 40% of

the 1734 people polled felt that the UK government should use more nuclear power than at present, up from 35% in November 2011. Maintaining current levels was preferred by 21%, while 20% felt that there should be less nuclear power than at present (down from 27% in 2011). 54% of men, and only 26% of women, felt that there should be more nuclear. Of women, 23% supported the status quo, 25% called for a reduction in nuclear and 25% were unsure. Apart from nuclear, 72% were in favour of increasing solar provision, 55% in favour of more wind farms, and 45% wanted less coal-fired power.

The outline of the policy changes shows, that the Fukushima catastrophe profoundly influenced saliency of the risks connected to nuclear energy, policy changes outline deep changes in public discourse on nuclear energy safety and to some degree also show the outcome of public debates in number of countries. In absence of cross-national data after 2000 and in particular after the Fukushima catastrophe the policy changes are an important indicator of changes in attitudes towards nuclear energy.

3.2. Individual and Cross-cultural Differences in Attitudes to Security Measures

After analyzing attitudes and perceptions of risks related to terrorist attacks and nuclear energy, we will not turn to attitudes towards security measures. The analyses in this part will be based on combining ISSP survey data and Eurobarometer data from the years 2003, 2005 and 2006. As in the above described analyses, we will analyze cross-national differences concentrating on the old and the new EU member states as well as on non-EU states which were covered by the survey. Additionally we will also look at the gender differences within the countries included in the surveys. The goal of this part is to demonstrate, that the acceptance of the security measures varies cross-culturally.

In 2006, international survey ISSP 2006 on Terrorism asked following questions "Suppose the government suspected that a terrorist act was about to happen. Do you think the authorities should have right: a. detain people for as long as they want without putting them on trial?; b. tap people´s telephone conversation?; c. stop and search people in the street at random?". The possible answers were: definitely should have right; probably should have right; probably should not have right; definitely should not have right. This part provides comparative analysis of the answers.

As the graph 3.5 shows, there are no significant regional differences among the old and the new member states of the EU and in the non-EU states. Yet, the graph also provides evidence of cross-cultural differences across the countries under study. Countries, where more than half of the respondents support detaining people (combining answers to definitely should have right, probably should have right) are the UK, the Czech Republic, Norway, the USA, New Zealand, and the Jewish citizens of Israel. Countries were the support for the detention of people is the lowest are Sweden, Portugal, Finland, Latvia, Russia, the Philippines, and Taiwan. Gender differences exist on the country level, women are generally more strongly supporting the right of the authorities to detain people, however, these differences are rather marginal and to a large degree copy the cross-cultural differences.

Graph 3.5. Authorities should have the right to detain people for as long as they want
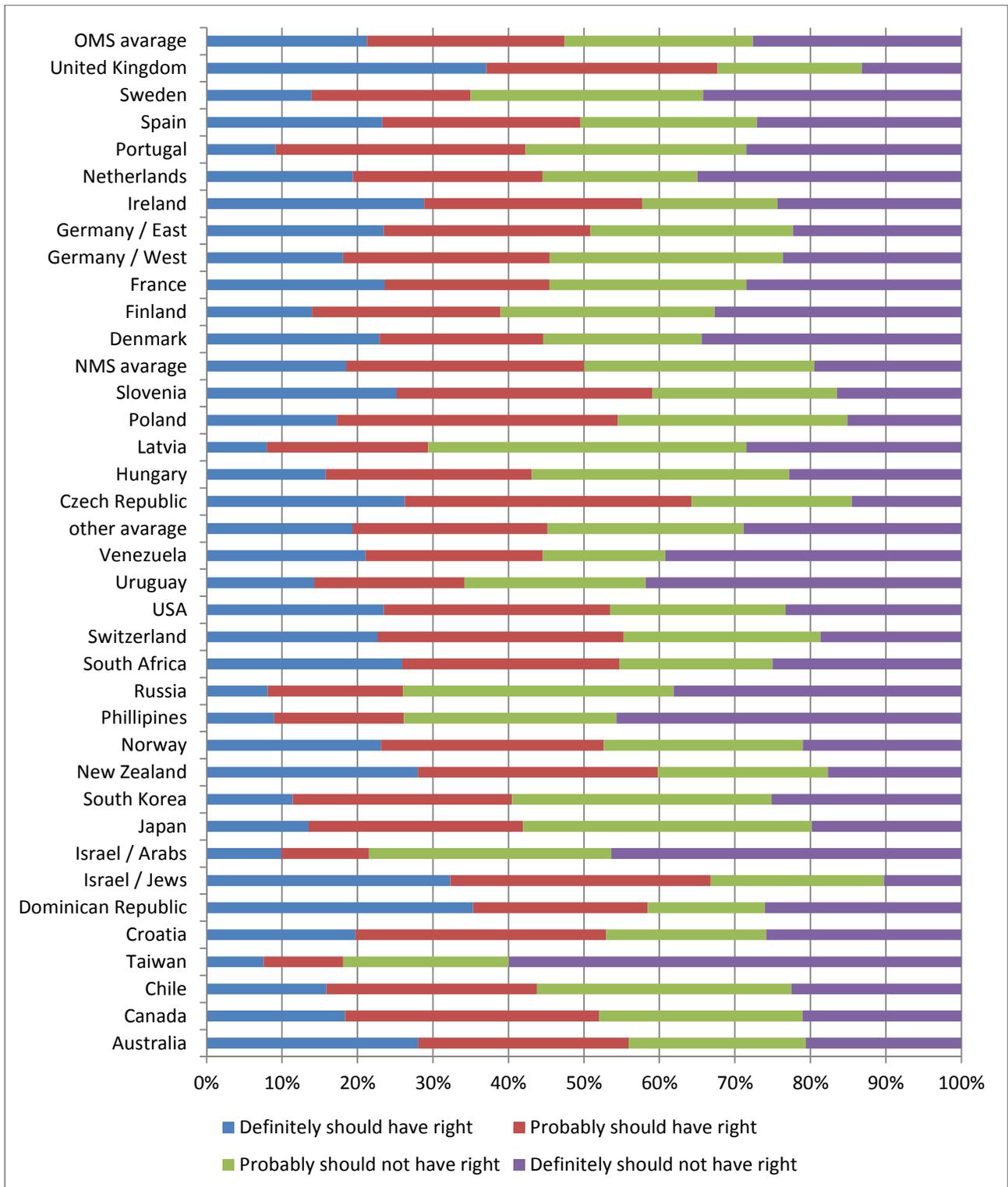
Note: Question 9a "Suppose the government suspected that a terrorist act was about to happen. Do you think the authorities should have the right to…detain people for as long as they want without putting them on trial? Select answer: Definitely should have right, Probably should have right, Probably should not have right, Definitely should not have right."
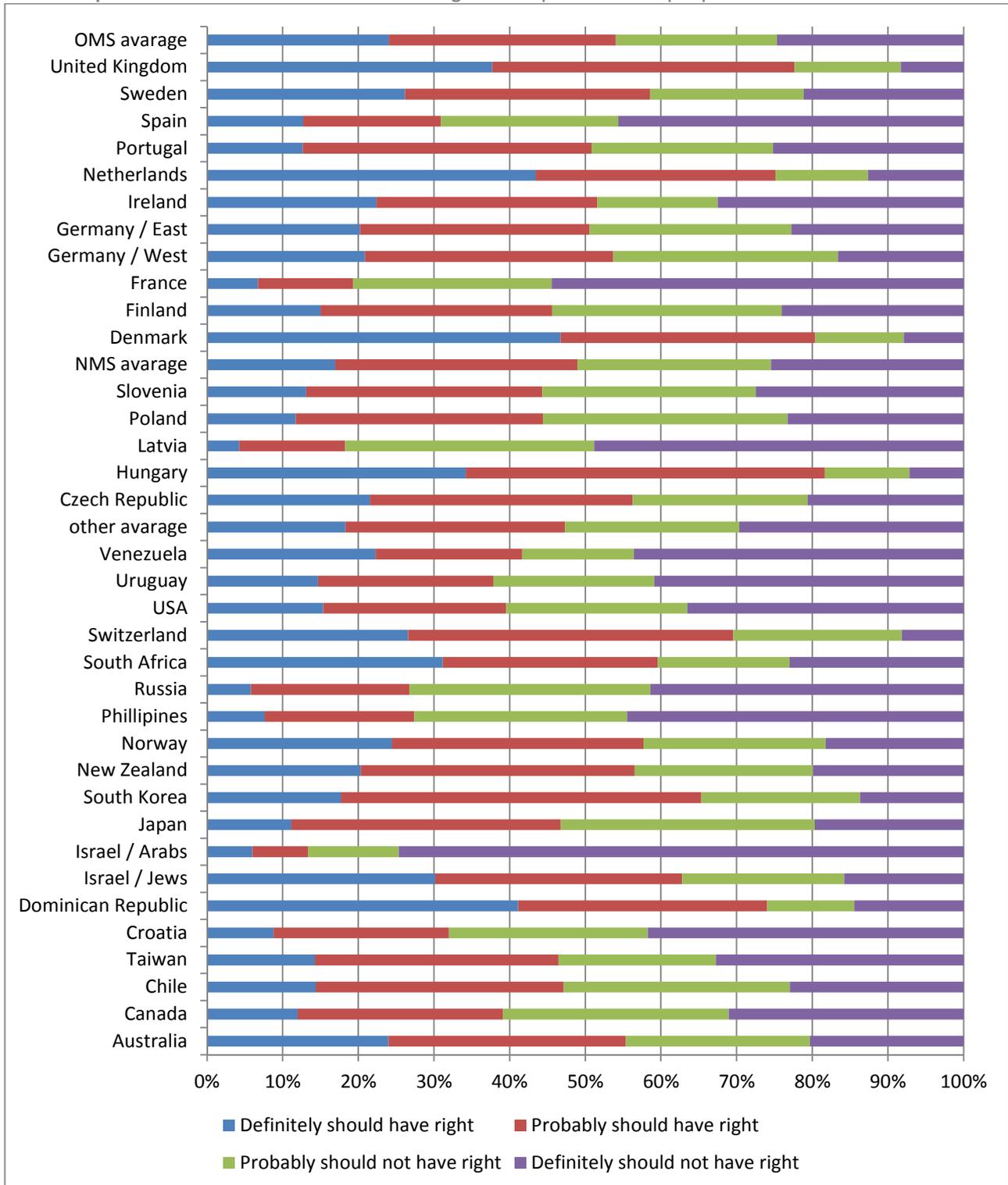*Source: ISSP 2006*

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Graph 3.6. Authorities should have the right to tap people's phone conversations
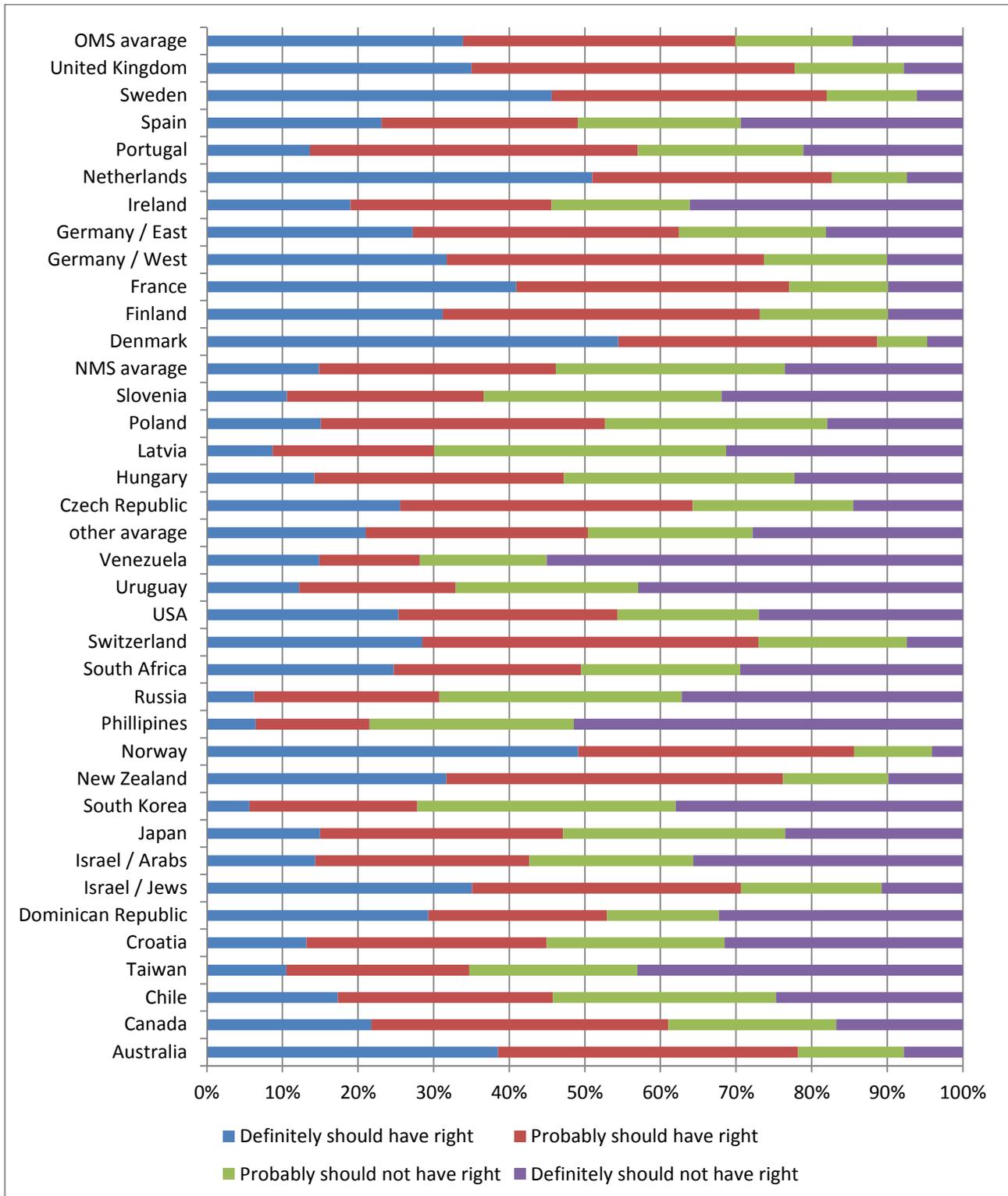
Note: Question 9b "Suppose the government suspected that a terrorist act was about to happen. Do you think the authorities should have the right to...tap people's telephone conversations? Select answer: Definitely should have right, Probably should have right, Probably should not have right, Definitely should not have right."
*Source: ISSP 2006*

In terms of the right of authorities to tap people's phone, we see significant differences between the old and the new EU member states, while the old member states average reaches approximately 70 percent, the average for the new EU member states lies by 46 percent. Among the old member states, the publics in the Netherlands and Sweden are most strongly supporting the right of the authorities to use this measure, while the publics in Ireland and Spain support this measure the least. Among the new member states, the strongest positive pattern is found in the Czech Republic and Poland, while the weakest can be detected among the Slovenian population. The support for this measure among the population of the non-EU countries varies; the regional average is at 50 percent. The most positive pattern is found among the population of Australia and Norway as well as among the Jewish population of Israel. The weakest support for the measure is among the populations of the Philippines, South Korea and Taiwan. The analyses of the gender differences did not uncover any significant differences among the analyzed countries.

Graph 3.7. Authorities should have the right to stop and search people in the street at random

Legend:
- Definitely should have right (blue)
- Probably should have right (red)
- Probably should not have right (green)
- Definitely should not have right (purple)

Countries listed (top to bottom): OMS avarage, United Kingdom, Sweden, Spain, Portugal, Netherlands, Ireland, Germany / East, Germany / West, France, Finland, Denmark, NMS avarage, Slovenia, Poland, Latvia, Hungary, Czech Republic, other avarage, Venezuela, Uruguay, USA, Switzerland, South Africa, Russia, Phillipines, Norway, New Zealand, South Korea, Japan, Israel / Arabs, Israel / Jews, Dominican Republic, Croatia, Taiwan, Chile, Canada, Australia

Note: Question 9c "Suppose the government suspected that a terrorist act was about to happen. Do you think the authorities should have the right to...stop and search people in the street at random? Select answer: Definitely should have right, Probably should have right, Probably should not have right, Definitely should not have right."
Source: ISSP 2006

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The analysis of the next question, regarding the right of the authorities to stop and search people at random on the streets, no significant differences are detected among the old and the new member states, nor among the EU and non-EU countries. The outlier from the general pattern are the United Kingdom, Denmark, the Netherlands, Hungary and the Dominican Republic, whose populations are more prone to support the right of the authorities to stop and search people in the street under terrorist suspicion. On the contrary, the populations of Spain, France, Latvia and Israeli Arabs show strong opposition to this measure. No significant differences have been detected among man and women in the countries covered by the survey.

To summarize the results of the graphs 3.5., 3.6. and 3.7. we see, that within the EU the general acceptance of detention as well as monitoring is rather high (answers definitely should have and probably should have). The cross cultural differences between the old and the new EU member states are rather not significant. We find more sizable difference among the old and the new member state in the attitudes to personal searches. However, without further insight these are hard to be interpreted at this point. As Pavone points out, „the problem wasn't about being monitored but about being interpreted." (Pavone 2008). These data present an interesting basis for future more in-depth analysis which will concentrate on alternative socio-demographic factors as well as on the underlining cross-cultural differences.

Other surveys such as Eurobarometer make direct link between oversight for counter-terrorism purposes and personal freedoms. In the following question; "In light of the fight against international terrorism, do you think that people should agree to have their internet use monitored?" and proposed answers: "a. No, the fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals must always be respected; b. Yes, if the monitoring only affects those suspected of terrorist activities; c. Yes, but only if monitoring takes place under the supervision of a nationality judge; d. Yes, everyone should; and e. Yes, other (spontaneous)". More nuanced attitudes on acceptance of security measures are provided.

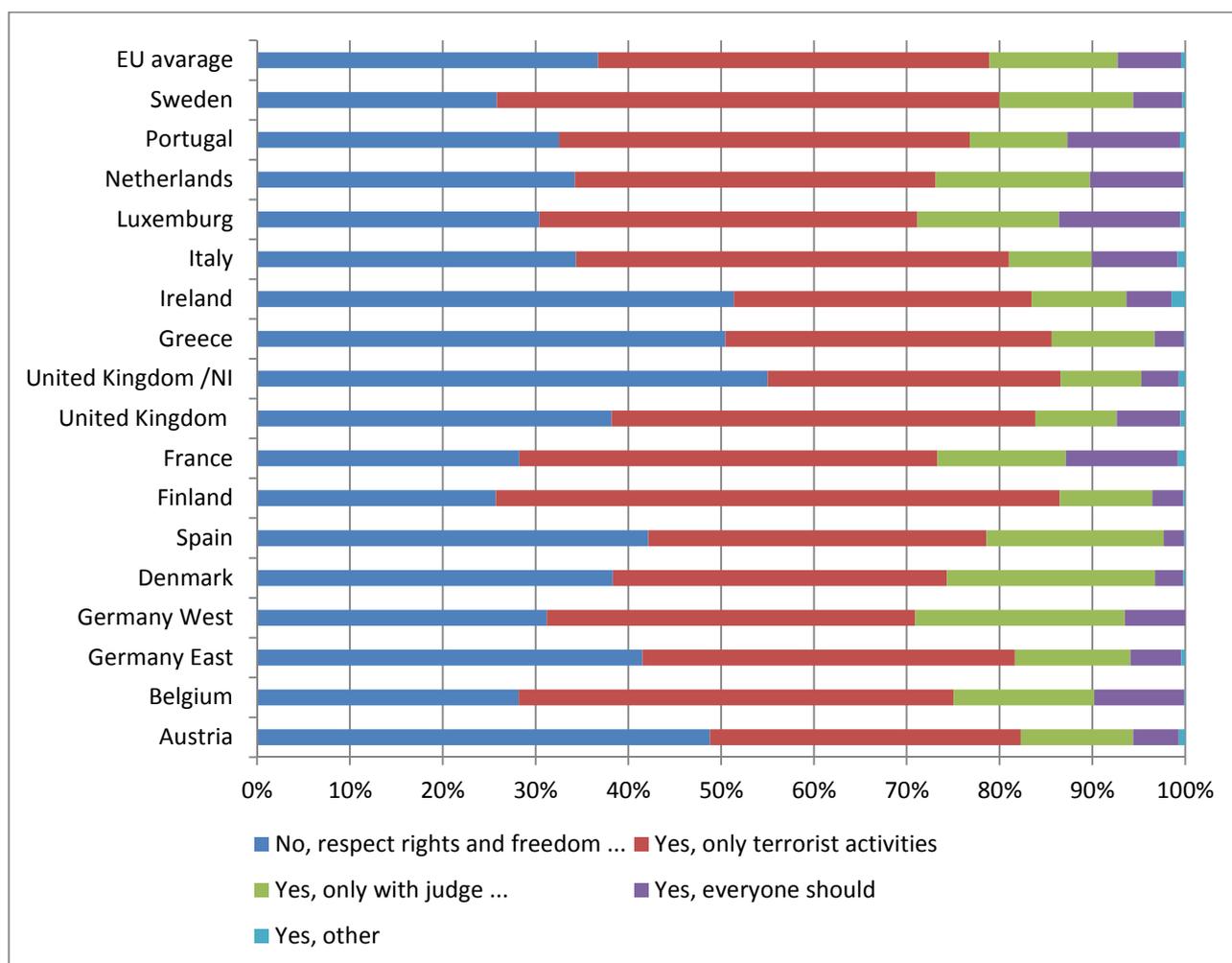**Graph 3.8.** Acceptance of Internet monitoring as a counter-terrorism tool
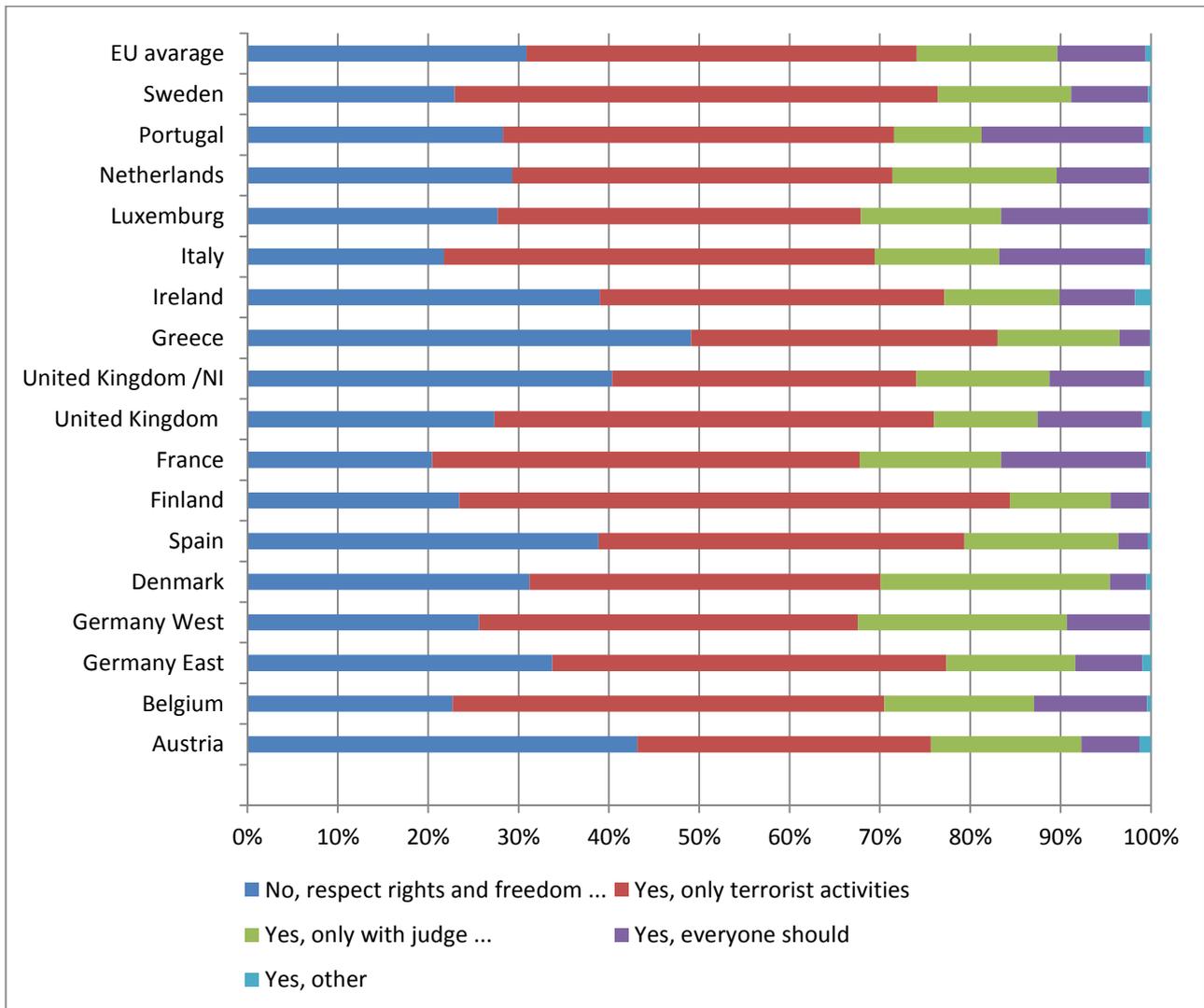
Note: Question 36B "In light of the fight against international terrorism, do you think that people should agree to … have their internet use monitored? Select answer: No, the fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals must always be respected, Yes, if the monitoring only affects those suspected of terrorist activities, Yes, but only if monitoring takes place under the supervision of a nationality judge, Yes, everyone should, Yes, other(spontaneous)."
*Source: Eurobarometer 2003/ EB 60.0*

This question was further elaborated upon in Eurobarometer survey (EB 60.0), which included direct relationship between security and personal freedom. The question "In light of the fight against international terrorism, do you think that people should agree to have their telephone calls monitored" offered following five answers: "1.No, the fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals must always be respected; 2. Yes, if the monitoring only affects those suspected of terrorist activities; 3. Yes, but only if monitoring takes place under the supervision of a nationality judge; 4. Yes, everyone should; 5. Yes, other (spontaneous)." The results of the analysis are presented in the graph 3.9. below.

Graph 3.9. Acceptance of Telephone monitoring as a counter-terrorism tool

Note: Question 36A "In light of the fight against international terrorism, do you think that people should agree to … have their telephone calls monitored? Select answer: No, the fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals must always be respected, Yes, if the monitoring only affects those suspected of terrorist activities, Yes, but only if monitoring takes place under the supervision of a nationality judge, Yes, everyone should, Yes, other(spontaneous)."
Source: Eurobarometer 2003/ EB 60.0

The graphs 3.8. and 3.9. show the acceptance of internet and telephone monitoring as tools in the fight against international terrorism. The obvious weakness of these data lays in the fact, that they only cover the EU member countries at the time. In both graphs, we see similar cross-national patterns as well as overarching support for both measures. In terms of internet monitoring over 73 percent of EU respondents are in favour, and almost 80 percent respondents demonstrate positive attitudes to telephone monitoring as counter-terrorism measure. The strongest proponents of internet monitoring are in Greece and Finland; the strongest opponents of telephone monitoring are in the Northern Ireland, Finland and Austria. The least in favour of the internet as well as telephone monitoring are respondents from the Luxembourg, Italy, Belgium and of the Western part of Germany. No significant gender differences were found on this question.

In order to monitor and apprehend people suspected of organized crime or terrorism, techniques should be developed to allow relevant authorities immediate and direct access ("real time access") to private sector databases (for instance: banks, telecom providers, etc.). To what extend do you agree or disagree with this?

The answers were: a. totally agree, b. tend to agree, c. tend to disagree, d. totally disagree.

Graph 3.10. Acceptance of accession to private sector databases as a tool against organized crime (Eurobarometer 2005)
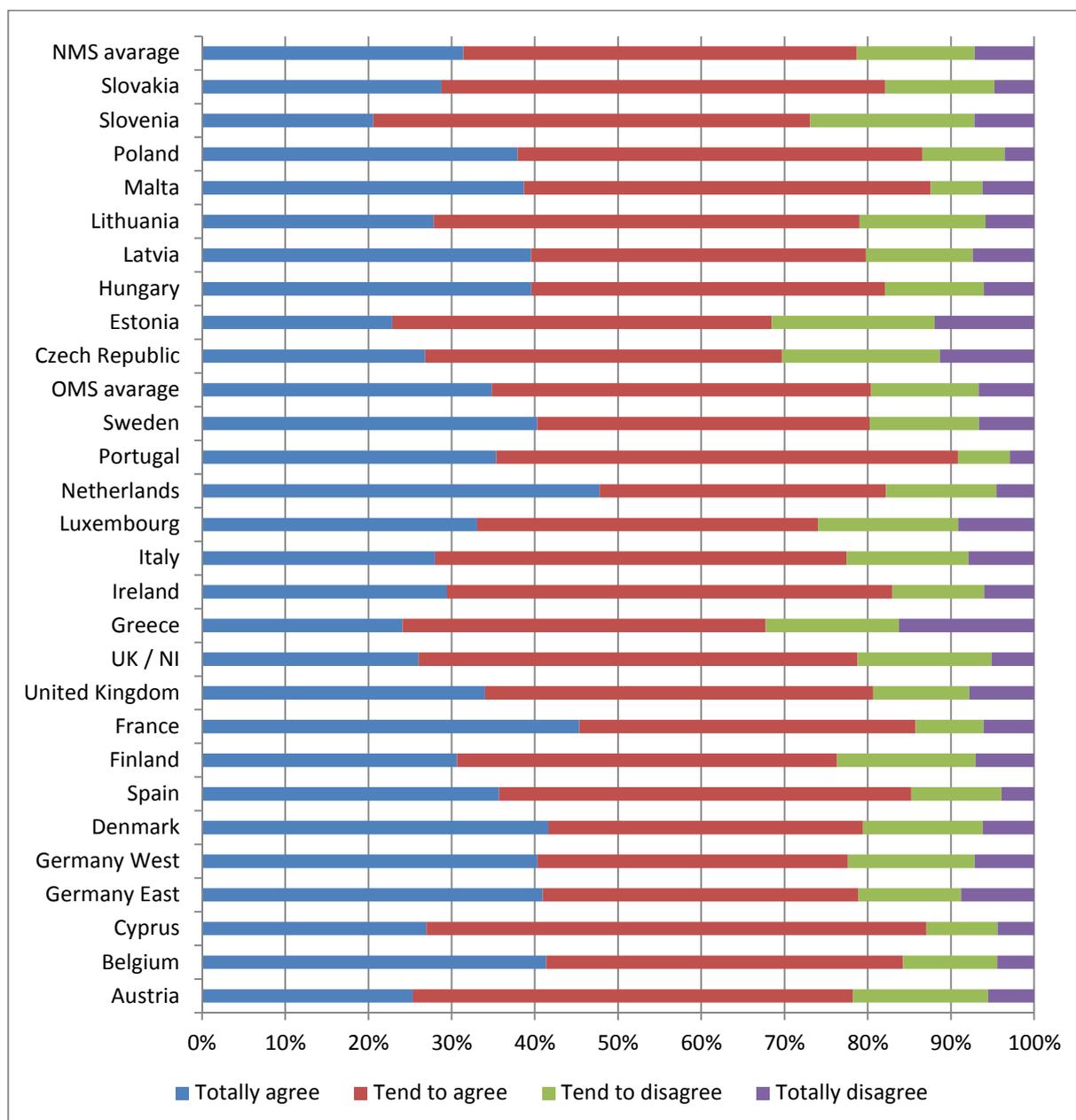
Note: Question C3 "In order to monitor and apprehend people suspected of organised crime or terrorism, techniques should be developed to allow relevant authorities immediate and direct access ("real time access") to private sector databases (for instance: banks, telecom providers, etc.). To what extend do you agree or disagree with this? Select answer: totally agree, tend to agree, tend to disagree, totally disagree."

Source: Eurobarometer 2005/ EB64.3

In the last graph, which shows results from the 2005 Eurobarometer survey and includes both the old and the new member states, respondents were asked about their attitudes on the right of the authorities to access private sector databases as a tool against organized crime. Unlike in the previous questions regarding the internet and telephone monitoring or the search on the streets, most respondents are not personally affected by

these measures. Therefore, the acceptance of this measures ought to be seen more generally as giving the state the right to cross the boundaries of private ownership for public good (in fight against terrorism). Graph 3.10. shows, there are no significant differences among the old and the new member states. The average for both the old and the new member states is close to or at 80 percent. The strongest proponents of this measure are the populations of Malta, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Cyprus. The least support for this tool is found among the populations of Estonia, the Czech Republic and Greece (however still at around 70 percent). No significant gender differences were found among the countries covered by this survey. Like in the previous questions, women are generally more accepting of the measures; however the cross/cultural differences are stronger than the gender differences within the countries under study.

In this part we have demonstrated that in general EU as well as non-EU populations are rather accepting of various counter-terrorism measures. The main intervening variable here is the trust of the citizens, that the governments are making the right decision on the topic. One of the negative intervening issues related to acceptance of antiterrorism laws, however, is their poor implementation. Polish author Filip Jasiński mentions the European Commission Report (Jasiński 2005), which states that the laws that have been enforced are not used enough. He gives several reasons for this: there are not enough educated people who would impose the laws; people are not keen on taking advantage of new instruments provided by the EU; and, finally, there is a lack of awareness of the importance of being open to new solutions as well as obligations. The majority of these allegations actually concern 'old' Member States since the 'new' ones agreed in the accession treaty to implement framework decisions.

Another weak point in counterterrorism policy is the creation of many forums operating from within and outside the EU, which do not act in a compatible way. Even though Europol is well capable of analysing intelligence data, it has serious problems with the collection of data. Europol does not have its own independent source of intelligence information, so it must rely on access from other open sources. The main responsibility in collecting and analysing data remains within the hands of the national services. Thus, providing intelligence data for Europol is an obligation which the agencies are unwilling to fulfil.

Furthermore, Statewatch – an organization which monitors states and civil liberties in Europe, is highly critical of antiterrorist measures taken by the EU. In a report evaluating antiterrorist measures proposed after the Madrid attacks, Statewatch charges that many inappropriate laws unrelated to terrorism had been adopted. Moreover, they violate personal data protection law.

And last but not least, the asymmetry in EU-US relations: The EU is suspicious of sharing information between different bodies, because the reliability of information depends on the body which provides it – on whether it is a judicature, an intelligence service, or the police. Additionally, Americans want to administer the processes of data analysis, despite the fact that the information that they provide has a personal, not a strategic character, therefore discouraging cooperation. The European role is only to gather such information. The most intensive EU-US contacts are in the field of intelligence services.

In terms of achievements, four bodies (Europol, Eurojust, Frontex, and Situation Centre) are involved in combating terrorism. Moreover, it is evident on a daily level that border infrastructures are better protected and that air security has improved in the last few years. On a global scale, it is clear that states have intensified their cooperation with the United Nations (UN).

With the formation of The Hague Program and the expansion of Europol in 2004 and 2005 came the first comprehensive attempt by the Council and Commission to develop regular reports on the threat of terrorism to Europe. Europol was charged with issuing regular reports on the threats of terrorism to the EU. In 2005, Europol had a significant impact in strengthening internal security by breaking up a European network of human smugglers (52 arrests) as well as a network of child pornographers, and was involved in 20 investigations concerning Islamist terrorism. These reports have been developed along with member-state cooperation and are based on figures of arrests, convictions and investigations within each member-state. While certain member-states have refrained from submitting all of the information requested of them by Europol, the reports nevertheless remain an integral part in determining current trends concerning terrorism in the Union. Initial reports in 2007 and 2008 showed how the arrest rates of terrorism suspects had rapidly risen in relation to previous years. In 2007, 1,044 arrests of terrorism suspects were made, a 48% increase since 2006. 2008 also witnessed a large increase in terrorism related arrests compared to 2006 and prior years with 1,009 terror-related arrests. Interviews and surveys made by Europol in Member States reported that new legislation regarding data sharing and cross-border cooperation had improved the ability of police forces to pursue leads and make arrests.

The conflict between the degrees of freedom and security, as well as obvious prioritization of security over liberty, is demonstrated in the wide acceptance of counter-terrorism tools presented in this part. Furthermore, with every terrorist attack the acceptance for wide-range of privacy/liberty curbing measures grows. As an example can serve the follow-up of the December 2012 unsuccessful bomb attack in Bonn, Germany - shortly after the attack, the Minister of Interior called for wide-spread use of CCTV at railway stations and public spaces ("regardless the costs"). In the subsequent public opinion poll by Infratest Dimap for the German TV ARD, 81% of respondents supported this step (Grosse Mehrheit 2012).

However, aside of sharpening the dilemma between security and privacy, the case of Barcelona Metro shows, that such a measures is accompanied with key questions pertaining the collection, evaluation, use, storing, sharing of the data among various authorities point to the need to include not only the economic prize of security in public debates but also the consequences for liberty wide-spread introduction of such measures could have.

3.3. Relationship to the WP1, WP2 and WP3

Our research focus is on the dilemma between security and possible restriction of personal freedoms approached from the perspective of citizen and her acceptance of adopted measures. All three WPs differ in its focus and target groups, but share an emphasis on existing and emerging threats, actual and perceived security, measures adopted to avoid these, and provision of good and reliable service. Simultaneously, all

consider security costs and sociological impacts of adopted measures and policy decisions, and take into account public opinion reactions. In this respect all also share the impact of media as source of information and an important instrument of public opinion formation (both in positive and in negative sense).

3.3.1. Airport Infrastructures
The airport case study focuses on relationship between acceptance of security measures and security by passengers (i.e. customers). Another important specific of the airport is high density of people located in a particular area, which means the potential high death rate due to attacks. Furthermore, the passengers cultural and ethnic background varies, and so does their sensitivity to methods of security control (e.g. full body scanner), as these are closely related to their perception of freedom and privacy, discrimination, as well as sensitivity to possible threats. In the airport, passengers are also rather unlikely to be fully aware of the complexity of the airport space and of the airspace (thus unable to grasp the security measures related to the airspace organization, airside- and landside-based measure).

We can thus with high certainty predict, that passengers will be concerned with privacy and comfort rather than with the feeling of safety. The regularly monitoring of service performance and customer satisfaction - Carta dei Servizi 2012 - supports this assumption - 93% passengers included in the survey show high level of satisfaction with bag control service (security perception) and 93% passengers are satisfied with personal safety/security (Carta 2012:40-41) thus underlining the security versus service duality.

3.3.2. UK National Power Grid
Here, the situation differs, the end user is not an individual (consumer, passenger as in the previous case), but the transmission network and its stakeholders. This WP focuses on understanding and assessing the information/cyber security regulatory frameworks that are or could apply to Critical National Infrastructure operators. National Grid relies on a large and complex IT estate and infrastructure to deliver its business objectives. However, this case study points out that security measures themselves can be perceived as threats, for example new technologies, whose role is optimization of price in respect to service provided can be seen as a privacy intrusion (overview on threat sources is given in D2.3:20-21). Due to virtual non-existence of primary data, our analysis concentrated on secondary analysis of survey data on attitudes to risks related to nuclear energy as well as attitudes connected to internet.

In deliverable D2.3. the authors pointed out the importance and role of Social Media. Organizations across many industries are using social media for various purposes. Therefore in the future, it is possible that CNI operators could start to use social media for sensitive subject areas such as engineering support. This could inadvertently release sensitive/important information which is helpful to attackers. For example, there have already been tensions within National Grid over the publishing of utility pipeline maps for safety purposes versus withholding them for security reasons. With the use of social media for more sensitive purposes, identity and access management will become more difficult to control e.g. passwords and IDs appearing outside of the enterprise (D2.3:30-31). The issues connected to social media will be accentuated in the qualitative data

collection of the WP4 in 2013. Furthermore, the trade-offs between securing the service provision, environmental threats and privacy issues are major issues covered by the comparative qualitative media analysis, together with the attitudes towards regulatory structures and different levels/types of security.

3.3.3. Urban public transport case study

Furthermore, as the meeting in Barcelona in June 2012 pointed out, in order to capture the various facets of safety and security in the public transport scenarios, it became important to disentangle the categories of unsocial and antisocial behaviour. Whilst acknowledging, that in the practical day-to-day life, these are often found simultaneously, we provide following definitions, based on publicly available sources from social and behavioural sciences as well as from social work.

The principal element of unsocial/antisocial behaviour is lack of consideration for others, their or public property. Second key feature is the fact that this type of behaviour often results in damage to the society – intentional or by negligence. The antisocial behaviour can be manifested in various forms and intensities, some of which are breaking formal rules and in some cases also laws. In order to distinguish between the two we regard the unsocial behaviour to show the lack of consideration for others, which can result in emotional or physical harm. Antisocial behaviour is defined as the lack of consideration for public property and public rules resulting in damage and established safety and security risk. In the public transport context, both forms of behaviour negatively affect the subjective feelings of customer satisfaction. The latter however also bears additional financial cost for the transportation authority.

Furthermore, the SECONOMICS D3.3. report points to the distinction between actual and perceived security: "Best practice security measures may impact on actual security, reflected by a reduced number of offenses actually happening, or on perceived security, reflected by a reduced level of fear and anxiety among passengers who feel unsafe when traveling on public transport." (D.3.3: 15). And between punitive and preventive security – both of these measure have a potential to improve or weaken perceived security. It is therefore crucial, that transport operators take into consideration not only possible effect of proposed measures on actual security, but also asses its acceptance and perception by passengers.

3.3.4. Summary

In general the analysis of the case studies materials and additional resources provided by partners highlight following significant differences:

1. Definition of stakeholders – citizens vs. passengers/customers;
2. Stakeholder perception of safety, security and rejection of various forms of behaviour;
3. Perception of space in which threats are perceived and acknowledged (airside vs. landside, private sphere vs. public sphere, physical vs. online public sphere);
4. Cultural differences in definition of privacy, which affects the level of acceptance or rejection of security related measures (in airports, public transport) for example in Barcelona subway system the use of dogs has been modified – the dogs do not bear differentiated signs, regardless whether their use is regular safety or special (i.e.

explosives) in order to build trust among passengers towards the service dogs and to decrease the risk of anxiety or panic among passengers.

5. Cross national differences has to be taken into account in public arenas where passengers with different cultural background meet, security measures have to culturally sensitive and offer adaptation of security measures accepting of culturally-related privacy issues and sensitivities (i.e. female-to-female body check, full body scanner vs. body patting in the airports etc.);

6. Security measures can themselves turn into perceived risk/privacy intrusions – therefore sensitive balance has to be strike between security and privacy;

7. Public opinion is an important factor in public acceptance of security measures, thus communication of the security measures/policies has to take into consideration all above.

4. Future Avenues for Research within the Project Framework

As shown above, the risk perception research abundantly draws on psychological perspectives and mainly focuses on individuals (their perceptions and attitudes and values). It diverts our attention from societal and contextual aspects that play a role in perception of various threats and other related issues. The WP4 can contribute to risk perception research with a contextual analysis of the broader environment. The following aspects can be explored:

1. The role of the micro-environment. Specifically, the effect of social networks, attention to (political) news, political interest in risk perception and in support for specific risk policies can be studied. Some of the available surveys cover questions on characteristics of the respondents' micro-environment and their linkages to a broader environment (such as social group membership, political discussion, attention to media, etc.);

2. National and contextual differences as well as the temporal aspect in risk perception. The classical risk perception literature has insufficiently dealt with cross-country and temporal differences. Multilevel analyses including individuals nested within countries can be used for simultaneous analyses of individual-level variables and country level factors;

3. The role of new technologies and their use, data gathering, individual data provision online (for example in online surveys, customer satisfaction surveys, in registration for online services, etc.). The virtual sphere which is closely link, yet not identical with the private sphere, new risks and varying levels of risk aversion in real life and online (and the issue of visible/invisible risks) highlight new emerging tensions between security and privacy, privacy and comfort versus (or rather than) the feeling of safety. The problem is not about being monitored but about being interpreted. They might also reinforce social and ethnic discriminations;

4. The importance and role of media. As the present study has documented on a number of places, the role of media is crucial – to a large degree media shape public opinion as much as the facts themselves. This view is strongly supported by the literature (Mazur

2006), who points out key contextual determinants of risk perception - cultural differences in risk perception and attitudes towards the freedom vs. security dilemma, as well as the impact of varying degree of medialization of risk-related issues in different countries;

5. The role of social media. After stating the importance of media in forming public opinion, we need to also take into consideration the social media which have in recent years profoundly changed the media landscape – information provision and impact of information on public opinion, as well as use of social media for public mobilization shows, that social media have created new virtual sphere, which is transnational and whose functioning and impact on risk perception and attitudes must be included in the future research, in particular because companies are increasingly seeing social media as a way to strengthen relationship with the customers and as a venue for improvement of services. Yet as the National Grid report points out, the use of social media can also present new risks.

All the surveys described in this deliverable D4.2. are collected by other researchers for their purposes, hence the usual methodological and conceptual issues connected with the use of secondary data imply and present certain limitation to the analyses the SECONOMICS research will be able to undergo. For example, it is impossible to obtain data for desired time point (i.e. perception of nuclear energy as a threat after Fukushima), but rather the researchers have to do with data available and time periods covered. Secondly, although the data come from large-scale international survey, not all countries included in the SECONOMICS consortium are covered.

So far, the empirical data available are not structured in the way SECONOMICS framework requires (lack of data, diverging theoretical framework), in order to provide avenues for internal validation, alternative methods of data collection and analysis will be implemented in the D4.3 and D4.4. in cooperation with WP1, WP2 and WP3 analytical framework will be developed to enable internal validation within the respective case study WPs. In order to address the issues outlined in this report, the authors will not only proceeded to more detailed analyses of the issues outlined in this report using the secondary data, but also collect own qualitative data to cover the role of media and social media in risk perception and attitudes. This will allow the authors to include the specifics of the case studies.

The qualitative research is selected both for financial purposes and as a way to overcome the outlined obstacles. Although we acknowledge the limitations of the qualitative research, we see it as a way to provide in-depth view of the researched topics. Some of the questions, which will be addressed in the second year of the project, inspired in particular by the results of the analysis presented in this report as well as analyses by Pavone (2008) are:

1. How do media actually frame the implications of security and security technologies within the three SECONOMIC case studies?

2. What are the perceived trade-offs between security and privacy? Do questions of security dominate? Who are the proponents and opponents of security vs. freedom (privacy)?

3. Has the media coverage of terrorism made the public more sensitive to the issue of security? And, if so, how are the (security) threats perceived and discussed by the media?

4. What is the role of social media in shaping public opinion and framing security dilemmas?

5. Do new technologies offer some answers to security issues, or do they represent new risks?

To conclude, from the examples used (nuclear power as an example from the energy industry and anti-terrorism) illustrate the adjustment in the perceptions of populations to risk. These examples are useful in placing context on elements on the case studies. The deliverable documents, how the public perception (and subsequent change in cost benefit analysis) has changed with changing public knowledge of the relevant risk vectors. These attempts at calibration forms an important part of policy evaluation. How does public policy stand-up under ever changing socio-cultural paradigms towards risk? The meta-analysis of sociological theories and comparative analysis of public opinion data provides a useful grounding for the more abstract modelling techniques applied in WPs 5, 6 and 8, presenting an abundance of qualitative approaches to assist in calibration of these models. The next set of goals within the project will be to further integrate this methodology into the forward looking predictive models developed in WPs 5, 6 and 8. Importantly the approaches in WP5 and WP6 on public policy offer a vital calibration to the policy parameters needed to ground these models appropriately.

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Appendix 1. Availability of Surveys by Countries

Availability of surveys by countries Eurobarometer 1/2

	73.5 2010	64.1 2005	44.3 1996	35.1 1991	35.0 1991	39.1 1993	75.1 2010	31° 1989	37.0 1992	43.1 1995	65.3 2006	47.2 1997	48.0 1997	74.3 2010
Austria	X	X	X				X			X	X	X	X	X
Belarus														
Belgium:	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Bulgaria	X						X				X			X
Croatia:											X			
Cyprus (Republic)	X	X					X				X			X
Czech Republic	X	X					X				X			X
Denmark	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Estonia	X	X					X				X			X
Finland	X	X	X				X			X	X	X	X	X
France	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Germany (East)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Germany (West)[7]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Great Britain[8]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Greece	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Hungary	X	X					X				X			X
Ireland	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Italy	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Latvia	X	X					X				X			X
Lithuania	X	X					X				X			X
Luxembourg	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	73.5 2010	64.1 2005	44.3 1996	35.1 1991	35.0 1991	39.1 1993	75.1 2010	31a 1989	37.0 1992	43.1 1995	65.3 2006	47.2 1997	48.0 1997	74.3 2010
Malta	X	X					X				X			X
Netherlands	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Northern Ireland	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Norway						X			X	X				
Poland	X	X					X				X			X
Portugal	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Romania	X						X				X			X
Slovakia	X	X					X				X			X

[7] If East Germany is not mentioned, one sample for the whole Germany was collected.
[8] If Northern Ireland is not mentioned, one sample for the UK was collected.

Slovenia	X	X					X				X			X
Spain	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sweden	X	X	X				X			X	X	X	X	X
Turkey											X			
TCC[9]											X			

Table 2.3. Availability of surveys by countries-EUROBAROMETER 2/2

	66.2 2006	43.1 1995	63.2 2005	56.2 2001	64.3 2005	46.1 1996	52.1 1999	58.0 2002	51.1 1999	60.0 2003	60.1 2003	67.1 2007
Austria		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Belarus												
Belgium:	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Bulgaria	X				X							X
Croatia:					X							X
Cyprus (Republic)	X		X		X							X
Czech Republic	X		X		X							X
Denmark		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Estonia	X		X		X							X
Finland	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
France	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Germany (East)	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Germany (West)[10]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Great Britain[11]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Greece		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Hungary	X		X		X							X
Ireland	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Italy	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Latvia	X		X		X							X
Lithuania	X		X		X							X
Luxembourg	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	66.2 2006	43.1 1995	63.2 2005	56.2 2001	64.3 2005	46.1 1996	52.1 1999	58.0 2002	51.1 1999	60.0 2003	60.1 2003	67.1 2007
Malta	X		X		X							X
Netherlands	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Northern Ireland	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Norway		X				X		X				
Poland	X		X		X							X
Portugal	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Romania	X				X							X
Slovakia	X		X		X							X
Slovenia	X		X		X							X

[9] Turkish Cypriote Community
[10] If East Germany is not mentioned, one sample for the whole Germany was collected.
[11] If Northern Ireland is not mentioned, one sample for the UK was collected.

Spain		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sweden	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Turkey					X							
TCC[12]					X							

Table 2.4. Availability of surveys by countries- WVS, ISSP, ESS

	WVS 1981-1984	WVS 1989-1993	WVS 1994-1998	ESS 5	ESS 4	ESS 3	ISSP 2006	ISSP 1993	ISSP 2000
EUROPE									
Albania			X						
Austria		X				X		X	X
Belarus		X	X						
Belgium	X	X		X	X	X			
Bosnia and Herzegovina			X						
Bulgaria		X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Croatia			X		X		X		
Cyprus (Republic)					X	X			
Czech Republic		X	X	X	X		X	X	X
Denmark	X	X		X	X	X	X		X
Estonia		X	X	X	X	X			
Finland		X	X	X	X	X	X		X
France	X	X		X	X	X	X		
Germany (East)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Germany (West)[13]		X	X					X	
Great Britain[14]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Greece					X				
Hungary	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Ireland	X	X			X	X	X	X	X
Italy	X	X						X	
	WVS 1981-1984	WVS 1989-1993	WVS 1994-1998	ESS 5	ESS 4	ESS 3	ISSP 2006	ISSP 1993	ISSP 2000
Latvia		X	X		X	X	X		X
Lithuania		X	X		X				
Moldova			X						
Montenegro			X						
Luxembourg									
Macedonia			X						
Malta	X	X							
Moldova									

[12]Turkish Cypriote Community.

[13] If East Germany is not mentioned, one sample for the whole Germany was collected.

[14] If Northern Ireland is not mentioned, one sample for the UK was collected.

	WVS 1981-1984	WVS 1989-1993	WVS 1994-1998	ESS 5	ESS 4	ESS 3	ISSP 2006	ISSP 1993	ISSP 2000
Montenegro									
Netherlands	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Northern Ireland	X	X						X	X
Norway	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Poland		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Portugal		X		X	X	X	X		X
Romania		X	X		X	X			
Serbia			X						
Slovakia		X	X		X	X			
Slovenia		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Spain	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sweden	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
Switzerland		X	X	X	X	X	X		X
Turkey		X	X		X				
Ukraine			X		X	X			
OTHER COUNTRIES									
Algeria									
Argentina	X	X	X						
	WVS 1981-1984	WVS 1989-1993	WVS 1994-1998	ESS 5	ESS 4	ESS 3	ISSP 2006	ISSP 1993	ISSP 2000
Armenia			X						
Australia	X		X				X		
Azerbaijan			X						
Bangladesh			X						
Brazil		X	X						
Canada	X	X					X	X	X
Chile		X	X				X		X
China		X	X						
Colombia			X						
Dominican Republic			X				X		
Egypt									
El Salvator			X						
Georgia			X						
Iceland	X	X							
India		X	X						
Indonesia									
Iran									
Iraq									
Israel				X	X		X	X	X
Japan	X	X	X				X	X	X

	WVS 1981-1984	WVS 1989-1993	WVS 1994-1998	ESS 5	ESS 4	ESS 3	ISSP 2006	ISSP 1993	ISSP 2000
Jordan									
Kyrgyzstan									
Morocco									
Mexico		X	X						X
New Zealand			X				X	X	X
Nigeria		X	X						
Pakistan			X						
Peru			X						
Philippines			X				X	X	X
Puerto Rico			X						
Russia		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Saudi Arabia									
Singapore									
South Africa		X	X				X		
South Korea	X	X	X				X		
Taiwan			X				X		
Tanzania									
Uganda									
United States	X	X	X				X	X	X
Uruguay			X				X		
Venezuela			X				X		
Viet Nam									
Zimbabwe									

Appendix 2. Questions used in International Surveys

1. POLLUTION AND ENVIRONMENT	
1. How much do you agree or disagree with following statement? Many of the claims about environmental threats are exaggerated environmental threats are exaggerated. Select answer: 　　　－　strongly agree 　　　－　agree 　　　－　disagree 　　　－　strongly disagree	ISSP 2000
2. In general, do you think that air pollution caused by cars is … for the environment. Select answer: 　　　－　extremely dangerous 　　　－　very dangerous 　　　－　somewhat dangerous 　　　－　not very dangerous 　　　－　not dangerous at all	ISSP 2000 ISSP 1993
3. And do you think that air pollution caused by cars is … for you and your family. Select answer: 　　　－　extremely dangerous 　　　－　very dangerous 　　　－　somewhat dangerous 　　　－　not very dangerous 　　　－　not dangerous at all	ISSP 2000 ISSP 1993
4. In general, do you think that air pollution caused by industry is …for the environment. Select answer: 　　　－　extremely dangerous 　　　－　very dangerous 　　　－　somewhat dangerous 　　　－　not very dangerous 　　　－　not dangerous at all	ISSP 2000 ISSP 1993
5. In general, do you think that air pollution caused by industry is … for you and your family. Select answer: 　　　－　extremely dangerous 　　　－　very dangerous 　　　－　somewhat dangerous 　　　－　not very dangerous 　　　－　not dangerous at all	ISSP 1993

6. And do you think that pesticides and chemicals used in farming are … for the environment.
Select answer:
   - extremely dangerous
   - very dangerous
   - somewhat dangerous
   - not very dangerous
   - not dangerous at all
	ISSP 2000
	ISSP 1993

7. And do you think that pesticides and chemicals used in farming are … for you and your family.
Select answer:
   - extremely dangerous
   - very dangerous
   - somewhat dangerous
   - not very dangerous
   - not dangerous at all
	ISSP 1993

8. And do you think that pollution of COUNTRY's rivers, lakes and streams is … for the environment.
Select answer:
   - extremely dangerous
   - very dangerous
   - somewhat dangerous
   - not very dangerous
   - not dangerous at all for
	ISSP 2000
	ISSP 1993

9. And do you think that pollution of COUNTRY's rivers, lakes and streams is … for you and your family.
Select answer:
   - extremely dangerous
   - very dangerous
   - somewhat dangerous
   - not very dangerous
   - not dangerous at all
	ISSP 1993

10. In general, do you think that a rise in the world's temperature caused by the 'greenhouse effect' is … for the environment.
Select answer:
   - extremely dangerous
   - very dangerous
   - somewhat dangerous
   - not very dangerous
   - not dangerous at all
	ISSP 2000
	ISSP 1993

11. In general, do you think that a rise in the world's temperature caused by the 'greenhouse effect' is … for you and your family.
Select answer:
   - extremely dangerous
   - very dangerous
   - somewhat dangerous
   - not very dangerous
	ISSP 1993

- not dangerous at all	
12. In general, do you think that nuclear power stations are … for the environment. Select answer: - extremely dangerous - very dangerous - somewhat dangerous - not very dangerous - not dangerous at all	ISSP 2000 ISSP 1993
13. In general, do you think that nuclear power stations are … for you and your family. Select answer: - extremely dangerous - very dangerous - somewhat dangerous - not very dangerous - not dangerous at all	ISSP 1993
14. And do you think that modifying the genes of certain crops is … for the environment. Select answer: - extremely dangerous - very dangerous - somewhat dangerous - not very dangerous - not dangerous at all	ISSP 2000 ISSP 1993
15. Thinking now at (our country´s) energy resources over the next ten years or so, which one involves the lowest risk of pollution for the future? Select answer: - Solid fuel (coal, lignite, peat …). - Oil. - Natural gas. - Nuclear energy. - Renewable energy (solar, hydro-electricity, wind).	EB 39.1 EB 35.0 EB 31a
16. Here are three opinions about the development of nuclear power stations that is installations which use nuclear energy to produce electricity. Which of these three statements comes closest to your own opinion on this subject: Select answer: - It is worthwhile to develop nuclear energy. - The development of nuclear energy involves an unacceptable risk and should be abandoned. - One should neither develop, nor abandon nuclear energy.	EB 39.1 EB 35.0 EB 31a[15]
17. Now, thinking about (our country), are you … about the following problems: - Pollution in rivers and lakes. - Pollution of the sea and coasts. - Damage to animals, plants and habitats.	EB 37.0 EB 51.1

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[15] 31a has different answers it is worthwhile, no particular interest, the risks involved are

- Air pollution, Agricultural pollution (insecticides, herbicides, slurry).
    - Industrial waste.
    - The possible risks to the environment of the development of biotechnology.
    - The use of animals for experiments.
    - Hunting and shooting.
    - The risks related to use of nuclear energy.
    - Motor sports in the natural environment such as motor boats, motorbike scrambling, all-terrain vehicles, jet skis, snow-scooters.
    - The damage caused by tourism.
    - The expansion of cities.
Select answer:
    - very worried
    - somewhat worried
    - not very worried
    - not at all worried	

18. I am going to read out a few sectors of economic activity. For each of them, could you please tell me whether, on a balance, you are worried or not worried about the effects this sector can have on the environment?
    - Transport.
    - Energy.
    - Industry.
    - Tourism.
    - Agriculture.
	EB 37.0

19. Are you …about the following problems:
    - The disappearance of certain types of plants, animals and habitats throughout the world.
    - Using up natural resources throughout the world.
    - The disappearance of tropical forests.
    - Global warming (the greenhouse effect).
    - The destruction of the ozone layer.
    - The risk that pollution from industrialised countries spread to the less industrialized.
Select answer:
    - very worried
    - somewhat worried
    - not very worried
    - not at all worried
	EB 37.0

20. At present, are you … about the following problems:
    - The disappearance of certain types of plants, animals and habitats through the world.
    - Using up natural resources throughout the world.
    - The disappearance of tropical forests.
    - Global warming (greenhouse effect).
    - Pollution of the air, water, ground.
    - The destruction of the ozone layer.
	EB 51.1

- Urban problems (traffic in towns, noise, pollution).
- Nuclear power stations and radioactive waste processing.
- The use of genetically modified organisms, like genetically modified corn, in other food products.
Select answer:
    - very worried
    - somewhat worried
    - not very worried
    - not at all worried	

21. Within the next ten years, how likely do you think it is that there will be a large increase in ill-health in (country) cities as a result of air pollution caused by cars?
Select answer:
    - Certainly to happen.
    - Very likely to happen.
    - Fairly likely to happen.
    - Not very likely to happen.
	ISSP 1993

2. RADIATION AND NUCLEAR POWER STATIONS	

22. For statement bellow, just tick the box that comes closest to your opinion of how true it is.Some radioactive waste from nuclear power stations will be dangerous for thousands of years.
Select answer:
    - Definitely true.
    - Probably true.
    - Probably not true.
    - Definitely not true.
	ISSP 1993

23. I am going to read out to you some opinions about nuclear energy and radioactivity. For each of these, could you tell me if you tend to agree or tend to disagree?
    - Living near a nuclear power station increases the risk of cancer of having abnormal children.
    - In our country, the risk of radioactive contamination is lower than the risk of chemical pollution.
    - An accident like Chernobyl could not happen in a nuclear power station in our country.
	EB 39.1
	EB 35.0
	EB 43.1

24. I am going to show you a certain number of situations which expose people to radiation. From this list could you tell me the two situations which in your opinion lead to the most serious consequences?
Select answers:
    - Living near a nuclear power station.
    - Spending a long time in the mountains.
    - Living near a uranium mine.
    - Fallout from military testing of atomic weapons.
    - Having an X-ray done.
    - Living near a road along which radioactive minerals or waste are transported.
	EB 43.1

– Travelling in an aircraft at high altitude.	

25. When you think about nuclear power, what first comes to mind?
Select answer:
   – The advantages of nuclear powers as an energy source outweigh the risks it poses.
   – The risks of nuclear power as an energy source outweigh its advantages.
   – Neither.
	EB 66.2

26. To what extend do you think that (the) nuclear power plant(s) in your country represent(s) a risk to you and your family?
Select answer:
   – A big risk.
   – Some risk.
   – Not much of a risk.
   – No risk at all.
	EB 66.2

27. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?
   – It is possible to operate a nuclear power plant in a safe manner.
   – The disposal of radioactive waste can be done in a safe manner.
   – Terrorism is a major threat to nuclear power plants.
   – Radioactive materials can be transported safely.
   – The use of nuclear materials is sufficiently protected against misuse.
	EB 66.2

28. Do you think that the storage of low level of radioactive waste is something that represents …
Select answer:
   – A very high risk.
   – A fairly high risk.
   – A low risk.
   – No risk at all.
	EB 63.2

29. Do you think that the transport of low level radioactive waste is something that represents…
Select answer:
   – A very high risk.
   – A fairly high risk.
   – A low risk.
   – No risk at all.
	EB 63.2

30. If a deep underground disposal site for radioactive waste were to be built near your home, what would worry you most?
Select answer:
   – Transport of waste to the disposal site.
   – The risks of radioactive leaks while the site is in operation.
   – The risks due to a terrorist attack.
   – The possible effects on the environment and health.
   – A major drop in local property prices.
   – None.
	EB 63.2 EB 56.2

31. Would you say you are … about the way radioactive waste is managed in our	EB

country?
Select answer:
   - very worried
   - fairly worried
   - not very worried
   - not at all worried
	56.2

32. Would you say you are … about the way radioactive waste is managed and in the other EU countries?
Select answer:
   - very worried
   - fairly worried
   - not very worried
   - not at all worried
	EB 56.2

33. Would you say you are … about the way radioactive waste is managed and in the central and Eastern European countries which would like to join the EU?
Select answer:
   - very worried
   - fairly worried
   - not very worried
   - not at all worried
	EB 56.2

3. FOOD AND HEALTH RISKS	

34. For following statement, please tell me whether you …to say that in general, counterfeit products pose a threat to health.
Select answer:
   - totally agree
   - tend to agree
   - tend to disagree
   - totally disagree
	EB 75.1

35. To what extend do you agree or not … with each of the following statements?
   - Food today is safer compared to ten years ago.
   - Food produced in the EU is safer than food imported from outside the EU.
   - There are strict laws in the EU to make sure that food is safe.
   - Public authorities in the EU are quick to act when a danger to citizens´ health is identified.
   - Public authorities in the EU take into account most recent scientific evidence when they take decisions related to food risks.
   - Public authorities in the EU do a good job in informing people about the risks related to food.
   - Scientific advice on food related risks is independent of commercial or political interests.
 	
Select answer:
   - totally agree
   - tend to agree
	EB 75.1

- tend to disagree - totally disagree	
4. TECHNOLOGIES (GMOs, CO2, RESEARCH, etc.)	

36. I am going to read out a list of areas in which new technologies are currently developing. For each of these areas, do you think it will improve our way of life in the next 20 years it will have no effect, or it will make things worse?
    - Solar energy.
    - Computers and information technology.
    - Biotechnology and genetic engineering.
    - Telecommunications.
    - New materials or substances.
    - Space exploration.
	EB 39.1
	EB 35.1

37. Please tell me whether you … with following statement. The storage of CO2 represents a safety risk in the future.
Select answer:
    - totally agree
    - tend to agree
    - tend to disagree
    - totally disagree
	EB 75.1

38. Why would you be worried?
Select answer:
    - The transport of CO2 to the storage site might not be safe.
    - The risk of leaks while the site is in operation.
    - The risk of terrorist attack.
    - The possible negative effects on the environment and health.
    - A possible drop in local property prices.
	EB 75.1

39. If a deep underground storage site for CO2 were to be located within 5 km of your home, do you think that you would be...?
Select answer:
    - very worried
    - fairly worried
    - not very worried
    - not at all worried
	EB 75.1

40. Why do you think you would not benefit from the use of CCS technology in your region?
Select answer:
    - There would be a risk of water pollution.
    - There would be a risk of air pollution.
	EB 75.1

41. Are you concerned over the potential health risks of electromagnetic fields?
Select answer:
    - very concern
    - fairly concerned
    - not very concerned
    - not at all concerned
	EB 66.2

42. Plant research – such research may involve risks to human health or to the environment.	EB 39.1

Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	
43. Micro-organism research on food – such research may involve risks to human health or to the environment. Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	EB 39.1
44. Micro-organism research and genetic engineering on waste - such research may involve risks to human health or to the environment. Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	EB 39.1
45. Biotechnology, genetic engineering to farm animals – such research may involve risks to human health or to the environment. Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	EB 39.1
46. Biotechnology, genetic engineering on food – such research may involve risks to human health or to the environment. Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	EB 39.1
47. Biotechnology, genetic engineering for medicine – such research may involve risks to human health or to the environment. Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	EB 39.1
48. Application of some of the methods of biotechnology and genetic engineering to human beings – such research may involve risks to human health or to the environment. Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree	EB 39.1

- definitely disagree	

49. For following issues regarding gene therapy, please tell me if you agree or disagree with it. Gene therapy is a risk for society.
Select answer:
    - totally agree
    - tend to agree
    - tend to disagree
    - totally disagree
	EB 64.3

50. Genetically modified food is a risk for society.
Select answer:
    - totally agree
    - tend to agree
    - tend to disagree
    - totally disagree
	EB 64.3

51. Nanotechnology is a risk for society.
Select answer:
    - totally agree
    - tend to agree
    - tend to disagree
    - totally disagree
	EB 64.3

52. And now, some questions about various applications which are coming out of modern biotechnology. To what extent do you agree or disagree that this application is risky for society?
    - Use modern biotechnology in the production of foods, for example to make them higher in protein, keep longer or change the taste.
    - Taking genes from plant species and transferring them into crop plants, to make them more resistant to insect pests.
    - Introducing human genes into bacteria to produce medicines or vaccines, for example to produce insulin for diabetics.
    - Developing genetically modified animals for laboratory research studies, such as a mouse that has genes which causes it to develop cancer.
    - Introducing human genes into animals to produce organs for human transplants, such as into pigs for human heart transplants.
    - Using genetic testing to detect deceases we might have inherited from our parents such as cystic fibrosis, mucoviscidosis, and thalassaemia.
	EB 46.1

53. People have different views about the benefits and risks of modern biotechnology and about how it should be regulated and controlled. I am going to read you a number of statements. For each one, please tell me whether you tend to agree or tend to disagree:
    - Current regulations are sufficient to protect people from any risks linked to modern biotechnology.
    - Irrespective of the regulations, biotechnologists will do whatever they like.
    - Only traditional breeding methods should be used, rather than changing the hereditary characteristics of plants and animals through
	EB 46.1

modern biotechnology. - We have to accept some degree of risk from modern biotechnology if it enhances economic competitiveness in Europe	
54. Please tell me whether you tend to agree or tend to disagree with each of the following statements? - Genetically modified food poses no threat to future generations. - Eating genetically modified food will be harmful to my health and my family´s health. - Genetically modified food threatens the natural order of things. - Growing genetically modified crops will be harmful to the environment. - Current regulations are sufficient to protect people from any risks linked to modern biotechnology.	EB 58.0
55. To what extend you... that this application is a risk for society? - Use modern biotechnology in the production of foods, for example to make them higher in protein, keep longer or change the taste. - Taking genes from plant species and transferring them into crop plants, to make them more resistant to insect pests. - Introducing human genes into bacteria to produce medicines or vaccines, for example to produce insulin for diabetics. - Cloning human cells or tissues to replace a patient's diseased cell that are not functioning properly. - Using genetic testing to detect diseases we might have inherited from our parents such as cystic fibrosis, mucoviscidosis, thalassaemia. - Cloning animals such as sheep to get milk which can be used to make medicines and vaccines. - Developing genetically modified bacteria to clean up slicks of oil or dangerous chemicals Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	EB 52.1 EB 58.0
56. To what extend you agree that this application is a risk for society? Using genetically modified organisms to produce enzymes as additives to soaps and detergents that are less damaging to the environment. Select answer: - definitely agree - tend to agree - tend to disagree - definitely disagree	EB 58.0
57. Tell me whether you ... with each of the following statements? - Cloning animals threatens the natural order of things. - The risks from cloning animals are acceptable. - Whatever the risks from cloning animals, you can avoid them if you really want to. - If anything went wrong with cloning animals, it would be a	EB 52.1

worldwide catastrophe.
    - I dread the idea of cloning animals.
    - Cloning animals poses no danger for future generations.
    - Of all the risks we face these days, the risk from cloning animals is quite small.
Select answer:
    - strongly agree
    - somewhat agree
    - neither agree nor disagree
    - somewhat disagree
    - strongly disagree	

58. Tell me whether you … with each of the following statements?
    - Genetically modified food threatens the natural order of things.
    - The risks from genetically modified food are acceptable.
    - Whatever the risks from genetically modified food, you can avoid them if you really want to.
    - If anything went wrong with genetically modified food, it would be a worldwide catastrophe.
    - I dread the idea of genetically modified food.
    - Genetically modified food poses no danger for future generations.
    - Of all the risks we face these days, the risk from genetically modified food is quite small.
Select answer:
    - strongly agree
    - somewhat agree
    - neither agree nor disagree
    - somewhat disagree
    - strongly disagree
	EB 52.1

59. Still in the same urban area and taking account of the traffic conditions, how do you rate the overall risk of a traffic accident for … 1 means a very low risk of accidents 6 means a very high risk of accidents.
    - Pedestrians.
    - Cyclists.
    - Car drivers.
    - Public transport users.
	EB 35.11

5. TERRORISM, WAR AND LIBERTIES	

60. Suppose the government suspected that a terrorist act was about to happen. Do you think the authorities should have right:
    - Detain people for as long as they want without putting them on trial?
    - Tap people´s telephone conversation?
    - Stop and search people in the street at random?
Select answer:
    - Definitely should have right.
    - Probably should have right.
    - Probably should not have right.
	ISSP 2006

- Definitely should not have right.	
61. Do you think that a terrorist attack somewhere in Europe during the next twelve months is: Select answer: - very likely - likely - not very likely - not at all likely	ESS 4 ESS 3
62. Do you think that a terrorist attack somewhere in (country) during the next twelve months is: Select answer: - very likely - likely - not very likely - not at all likely	ESS 4 ESS 3
63. Using this card please say how much you agree or disagree with each of these statements. If a man is suspected of planning a terrorist attack in (country) the police should the power to keep him in prison until they are satisfied he was not involved. Select answer: - agree strongly - agree - neither agree nor disagree - disagree - disagree strongly	ESS 4 ESS 3
64. Torturing a prisoner in a (country) prison is never justified, even if it might provide information that prevents a terrorist attack. Select answer: - agree strongly - agree - neither agree nor disagree - disagree - disagree strongly	ESS 4 ESS 3
65. In light of the fight against international terrorism, do you think that people should agree to: - Have their telephone calls monitored? - Have their internet use monitored? Select answer: - No, the fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals must always be respected. - Yes, if the monitoring only affects those suspected of terrorist activities. - Yes, but only if monitoring takes place under the supervision of a nationality judge. - Yes, everyone should. - Yes, other(spontaneous).	EB 60.0
66. How likely do you think is that there will be another major war in which	WVS

your country will be involved in the next five years? Scale between 1=not at all and 10=very likely.	1998 WVS 1982
6. CRIME AND PERSONAL THREATS	

67. How often, if at all, do you worry about your home being burgled?
 Select answer:
  - All or most of the time.
  - Some of the time.
  - Just occasionally.
  - Never.
	ESS 5
	 ESS 4
	 ESS 3

68. Does this worry about your home being burgled have …
 Select answer:
  - A serious effect on the quality of your life.
  - Some effect.
  - No real effect on the quality of your life.
	ESS 5
	 ESS 4
	 ESS 3

69. How often, if at all, do you worry about becoming a victim of violent crime? Please choose your answer from this card.
 Select answer:
  - All or most of the time.
  - Some of the time.
  - Just occasionally.
  - Never.
	ESS 5
	 ESS 4
	 ESS 3

70. Does this worry about becoming a victim of violent crime have …
 Select answer:
  - A serious effect on the quality of your life.
  - Some effect.
  - No real effect on the quality of your life.
	ESS 5
	 ESS 4
	 ESS 3

71. To what extend are you worried about becoming the victim of such a crime (burgled, robbed, beaten) in the near future?
 Select answer:
  - I am very much worried of it.
  - I am worried of it.
  - I am not really worried of it.
  - I am not afraid of it at all.
	EB
	 44.3

72. I will read out a list of potential risks. For each of them please tell me how likely you think they are to happen to you personally.
  - Being a victim of a crime.
  - The food you eat damaging your health.
  - Environmental pollution damaging your health.
  - The economic crisis negatively affecting your life.
  - Being injured in a car accident.
  - Getting a serious illness.
 Select answer:
  - very likely
  - fairly likely
  - not very likely
	EB
	 75.1

- not at all likely	
73. I will read out a list of potential risks. For each of them please tell me how likely you think they are to happen to you personally. 　- Victim of a crime. 　- Victim of terrorism. 　- Serious illness. 　- The food damaging my health. 　- Car crash. 　- Unsafe consumer goods. 　- Environmental pollution damaging my health. Select answer: 　- very likely 　- fairly likely 　- not very likely 　- not at all likely	EB 64.1
74. I am going to read out a list of possible risks. How confident are you that you can personally take steps to avoid these risks? 　- Possible risks from chemical contamination of foods, for example pesticide residues or environmental pollutants like mercury in a fish. 　- Possible risks from bacterial contamination of foods, for example salmonella in eggs. 　- Possible risks to health from your diet, for example high fat intakes and heart disease. 　- Possible risks from new technologies such as animal cloning and nanotechnology. Select answer: 　- very confident 　- fairly confident 　- not very confident 　- not at all confident	EB 75.1
75. Now we would like to know if you think that public authorities in the EU are doing enough to protect you from these possible risks. 　- Possible risks from chemical contamination of foods, for example pesticide residues or environmental pollutants like mercury in a fish. 　- Possible risks from bacterial contamination of foods, for example salmonella in eggs. 　- Possible risks to health from your diet, for example high fat intakes and heart disease. 　- Possible risks from new technologies such as animal cloning and nanotechnology. Select answer: 　- Yes, definitely. 　- Yes, probably. 　- No, probably. 　- No, certainly not.	EB 75.1

76. Here is a list of things that some people say they are afraid of. For each of these, please tell me if, personally you are afraid of it, or not?
    - A world war.
    - A nuclear conflict in Europe.
    - A conventional war in Europe (not nuclear, bacteriological or chemical).
    - The accidental launch of a nuclear missile.
    - An accident in a nuclear power station.
    - Spread of nuclear, bacteriological or chemical weapons of mass destruction.
    - Ethnic conflicts in Europe.
    - Terrorism.
    - Organized crime.
    - Epidemics.
Select answer:
    - afraid
    - not afraid
	EB 56.2

77. Over the next 12 months, do you think there is a risk that you will personally be ...
    - Theft of mobile phone.
    - Theft of other personal property.
    - Burglary or break-in at home.
    - Mugging or robbery in order to steal a mobile phone.
    - Mugging or robbery in order to steal something else.
    - Assault or threat of assault.
Select answer:
    - yes
    - no
	EB 58.0

REPORTING ABOUT RISKS AND PERSONAL INFORMATION	

78. Suppose a serious food risk were found in a food you eat regularly such as fish, chicken or salad. How much confidence would you have in the following sources to give you accurate information about these risks?
    - Media (TV, newspapers, radio).
    - Scientists.
    - National and European food safety agencies (EFSA).
    - European institutions, (Nationality government).
    - Consumer organizations.
    - Environmental protection groups.
    - Farmers.
    - Food manufactures.
    - Supermarkets and shops.
    - Your physician/doctor and other health professionals.
    - Family and friends.
    - Information found on the internet.
Select answer:
    - very confident
	EB 75.1
	EB 60.1

– fairly confident – not very confident – not at all confident[16]	
79. The police and judicial system, intelligence services and European organizations such as Europol and Eurojust exchange information from personal databases in order to fight against international terrorism and organized crime. Do you agree that personal data should be shared for such purposes? Select answer: – Yes, under all circumstances. – Yes, but only in order to track those clearly suspected of organised crime or terrorist activities. – Yes, but only under the supervision of a judge or equivalent authority in the Member states concerned. – No, under any circumstances.	EB 64.3
80. In order to monitor and apprehend people suspected of organised crime or terrorism, techniques should be developed to allow relevant authorities immediate and direct access ("real time access") to private sector databases (for instance: banks, telecom providers, etc.). To what extend do you agree or disagree with this? 7. Select answer: – totally agree – tend to agree – tend to disagree – totally disagree	EB 64.3
81. Do you believe that the information schools offer to children on the risks and benefits of energy choices in general and nuclear energy in particular is sufficient or not for children to acquire a basic knowledge on these issues? Select answer: – Yes, certainly. – Yes, probably. – No, probably not. – No, certainly not.	EB 66.2
82. Do you believe that the information the media offers on the risks and benefits of energy choices in general and nuclear energy in particular is sufficient or not for you to draw your own conclusions on these topics? Select answer: – Yes, certainly. – Yes, probably. – No, probably not. – No, certainly not.	EB 66.2
83. For each of the following statements: – The media are fair in their reporting of radioactive waste issues. – The nuclear industry is open in providing information about	EB 56.2

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[16] In 6.1 similar question but different wording – asks who is the most trustful, does not have category EFSA, internet, and political authorities are in one category.

radioactive waste.
please tell me if you:
   – strongly agree
   – tend to agree
   – tend to disagree
   – strongly disagree	

84. The use of some services provided on the networks we have just mentioned, leaves "electronic tracks", that is pieces information such as name, address, date of birth, gender. Would you be … about leaving such personal tracks on the networks?
Select answer:
   – very worried
   – quite worried
   – not very worried
   – not at all worried
	EB 46.1

85. The personal information which could be collected about people when they use these services could be used to send them advertising leaflets, or be sold to shops, insurance companies or given to public bodies. Would you be … about this?
Select answer:
   – very worried
   – quite worried
   – not very worried
   – not at all worried
	EB 46.1

86. Which of the following opinions comes closest to your own?
Select answer:
   – I would not use these new communication technologies and new services they offer, because the risk that someone could use my personal information in a way I do not agree with seems to me to be too great.
   – I would not hesitate to use these new technologies and new services if there was a way to guarantee that I could control how my personal information would be used.
   – I would use these technologies and services anyway, because when you use a bank or credit card, for instance, you also leave personal information, tracks.
   – I already use these new technologies and services, but as little I can so as to leave the least possible personal information.
   – I already use these new technologies and services.
	EB 46.1

87. For each of the following statements:
   – You should be informed why organisations are gathering your personal data if they are sharing it with other organisations.
   – The level of personal data protection provided by the law in our country is high.
   – You are worried about leaving personal information on the internet such as name, address, date of birth, gender.
please tell me if you:
	EB 60.0

– tend to agree – tend to disagree	

88. I will read out a list of potential risks. According to you, what are the most important risks connected with disclosure of personal information on social networking sites and/or sharing sites?
Select answer:
   – You information being used without you knowledge.
   – Your information being shared with third parties without you agreement.
   – Your information being used to send you unwanted commercial offers.
   – Your views and behaviors being misunderstood.
   – Your identity being at risk of theft online.
   – Your personal safety being at risk.
   – Yourself being victim of fraud.
   – Yourself being discriminated against (e.g. in job selection, receiving price increases, getting no access to a service).
   – You reputation being damaged.
   – Your information being used in different contexts from the ones where you disclosed it.
	EB 74.3

89. Nowadays, cameras, cards and website record your behavior, for a range of reasons. Are you … about your behavior being recorded...?
   – On the internet (browsing, downloading files, accessing content online).
   – In a public space (street, subway, airport, etc.).
   – In a private space (restaurant, bar, club, office, etc.).
   – Via mobile phone/mobile internet (call content, geolocation).
   – Via payment cards (location and spending).
   – Via store or loyalty cards (preferences and consumption, patterns, etc.).
Select answer:
   – very concerned.
   – fairly concerned.
   – not very concerned .
   – not at all concerned.
	EB 74.3

90. For each of the following, could you please tell me whether it is very important to you to be better informed, yes or no?
   – The environmental risks posed by certain everyday products.
   – Ways of harmlessly disposing of certain waste (paints, pharmaceutical products, motor oil, used batteries, packaging...).
   – What to do in the event of an industrial accident, a natural or technological disaster.
   – The potential risks of nuclear radiation.
	EB 37.0

8. CULTURAL THREAT AND PERCEIVED THREAT FROM A GROUP OF PEOPLE	
91. Which of the following statements best describes what the EU means to you personally?	EB 55.1

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Select answer:
    - A way to create a better future for young people.
    - A European government.
    - The ability to go wherever I want in the EU.
    - Guaranteed lasting peace in the EU.
    - A means of improving the economic situation in the EU.
    - A way to create jobs.
    - Away to protect the rights of citizens.
    - A lot of bureaucracy, a waste of time and money.
    - Just a dream, a utopia.
    - The risk of losing our cultural diversity.
	EB 47.2
	EB 48.0

92. For each of the following statements, please tell me if you … Immigrants are a threat to our way of life.
Select answer:
    - totally agree
    - tend to agree
    - tend to disagree
    - totally disagree
	EB 60.1

93. I will now read out statement or opinion that is sometimes heard. Globalisation threatens European culture, Europe and its countries must take measures to preserve it. Please tell me if it corresponds to what you think personally.
Select answer:
    - corresponds very well
    - fairly well
    - fairly badly
    - very badly
	EB 67.1

9. OTHER	

94. Here is a list of things that some people say they are afraid of. Please tell me which one worries you the most? And next most? And next? And next? And next?
    - Violence.
    - Poverty.
    - Social exclusion.
    - Unemployment.
    - Underdevelopment in the third world.
    - Global economic problems.
    - Damage to the environment.
    - Non respect of human rights.
    - Health problems (AIDS, cancer, epidemics, etc.).
    - Thing being genetically modified.
    - Lower standards of education and training.
    - Drugs.
	EB 51.1