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„The Islamic State and Fear of Terror – Exploring the
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Emotional and Attitudinal Responses“

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1 Introduction

The importance of the mass media for modern terrorism is clear – through the mass media it is possible for terrorists to reach and subsequently influence the psychological states/opinions of large audiences. At the same time, the mass media is trying to meet the needs of its consumers (e.g., information, entertainment) and therefore readily covers terroristic acts due to their sensational nature (e.g., dramatic, emotional, disturbing). Consequently, it seems that the mass media and terrorists form some kind of symbiotic relationship, in which both profit from each other (e.g., newsworthy articles/coverage for media outlets and media exposure/attention for terrorists). (Prior, 2005; Camphuijsen & Vissers, 2012; Schmid, 2004; Wilkinson, 1997; Martin, 1986)

Research findings highlight this symbiotic relationship, as terrorist acts arouse media attention, and media attention itself also seems to impact subsequent terrorist acts. (Beckmann, Dewenter, & Thomas, 2017; Jetter, 2017; Rohner & Frey, 2007)

Terrorism is a widespread problem, affecting many countries. (Institute for Economics & Peace, 2018) Due to this symbiotic relationship and the ongoing “war on terror”, the following questions arise: How does the media coverage of terrorism impact its news consumers? How important is the framing of terrorist acts?

Most terrorist acts are committed in countries considered “culturally distant”. (Institute for Economics & Peace, 2018) Research findings show that terrorist acts committed in Western nations receive more media attention and are covered differently, than acts committed in “culturally distant” countries. When a terrorist attack is committed in a “culturally close” country, the media tends to sensationalize the attack, through emotional reporting and by focusing on the victims of the attack. (Patrick, 2014; Nevalsky, 2015; El-Nawawy & Elmasry, 2017; Rohner & Frey, 2007) Additionally, research reveals that Muslims are often negatively portrayed by the media and frequently linked to terrorism. (Ahmed & Matthes, 2017; Arendt & Karadas, 2017) The next question therefore concerns this association with terrorism: Can this association affect news consumers’ attitudes towards Muslims?

Following the call for research proposals by the AdME (Advertising and Media Effects) Research Group this thesis investigates the media audience effects of terrorism news coverage, trying to answer these questions through an online-experiment. Testing how the

following two factors: victim exemplification (i.e., sensationalized reporting) and proximity (spatial and cultural) in news articles covering terrorist acts impact audiences' emotional (i.e., fear of terrorism) and attitudinal (i.e., Islamophobic attitudes) responses.

To improve comprehension, chapters two and three first outline and define what constitutes terrorism and Islamophobia. The fourth chapter explains with Social Identity Theory, Social Categorization and Intergroup Discrimination how outgroup attitudes are built. The framing and news coverage of Muslims and terrorism will be examined in chapters five and six. Chapter seven explores audience effects of terrorism news coverage through the framework of the intergroup threat theory, additionally focusing on the effects of proximity, perceived similarities and victim exemplification. Chapter eight explores Islamophobic attitudes as a consequence of fear of terrorism and chapter nine examines the mitigating effect of intergroup contact. Chapter ten introduces the hypotheses and research questions, while chapter eleven describes the employed methods. Chapter twelve gives an overview of the measures used and chapter thirteen statistically investigates the hypotheses and research questions. Chapter fourteen provides the limitations of this study, chapter fifteen discusses the results and in chapter sixteen the practical implications are outlined.

2 Terrorism and the Islamic State

In scientific literature, there are many different views as to how “terrorism” should or should not be defined. Over the years there have been various attempts by academic scholars to define terrorism. A group of researchers, for example, examined 73 definitions, published in academic journals, which they then tried to condense into a consensus definition (encompassing only elements most frequently mentioned). (Weinberg, Pedahzur, & Hirsch-Hoefler, 2004) According to this abstracted definition “Terrorism is a politically motivated tactic involving the threat or use of force or violence in which the pursuit of publicity plays a significant role.” (Weinberg et al., 2004, S. 786) The authors themselves criticized that this merged product is too vague, too general and therefore suffers from border problems. Likewise, it also lacks the important component of the psychological effects of terrorism (e.g. eliciting fear), as well as the illegal/unlawful nature of these acts. (Weinberg et al., 2004)

A universally accepted and applied operational definition is however greatly needed, because without one, analyzing and observing trends in terrorism is not feasible. This means that depending on the definition, an incident might be counted as a terroristic act, while with another definition it might not be counted. (Combs, 2017) Emphasizing these ambiguities and different opinions regarding the efforts of defining terrorism, Eason and Schmid (2011) compiled an impressive list of more than 250 (Academic and (Inter-) Governmental) definitions.

Due to the underlying different perspectives and biases of attempted definitions, some scholars even argue that universal agreement on a definition of terrorism will also be unlikely in the future. (Bruce, 2013; Ramsay, 2015)

In contrast, Shanahan (2016) tried to formulate a broader definition, which he argued should also be applicable to a wide range of terroristic species/constructs (e.g., Political terrorism, Ecoterrorism, Cyberterrorism) and could henceforth serve as a central organizational concept advancing understanding and research endeavors. He defines terrorism as “[...] the strategically indiscriminate harming or threat of harming members of a target group in order to influence the psychological states of an audience group in ways the perpetrators anticipate may be beneficial to the advancement of their agenda.” (Shanahan, 2016, S. 110) This thesis will use Shanahan’s definition of terrorism since it highlights the pivotal role the “psychological states” of an “audience group” have on terrorist activities.

The annually published Global Terrorism Index uses the same definition of terrorism since its implementation, thereby avoiding the definitional problem. (Dugan & Distler, 2016; Institute for Economics & Peace, 2018) It (utilizing the definition of the Global Terrorism Database) defines terrorism as “the threatened or actual use of illegal force and violence by a non-state actor to attain a political, economic, religious, or social goal through fear, coercion or intimidation” (START, 2018, S. 10; Institute for Economics & Peace, 2018, S. 6). This definition includes a total of six criteria, of which a terroristic act has to meet the following three to be counted in the Database: 1) intentionality, 2) violence or the threat of it, 3) being carried out by non-state actors (e.g.: state terrorism is not counted). For inclusion in the Global Terrorism Database from 1997 (which is used by the Global Terrorism Index) additional two of three criteria have to be met: 1) trying to attain a political, religious, social or economic goal, 2) intention of conveying a message (e.g. intimidate, coerce, publicize) to an audience who are not directly involved in the incident, 3) the act is violating international humanitarian law (e.g. targeting civilians). (START, 2018; Institute for Economics & Peace, 2018)

In 2017, according to the most recent Global Terrorism Index, terrorism caused 18,814 deaths globally, which is a 27% decrease in deaths compared to the year before. This decrease is mainly due to the weakening of the Islamic State (also known as IS, ISIS, ISIL) in Syria and Iraq. Despite their decline, the IS continues to be the deadliest terrorist group worldwide. Terrorism fatalities also fell in Europe by 75% from 827 deaths in 2016 to 204 deaths. Although the general trend is positive, negative developments are also observable: Despite generally fewer deaths from terrorism, there had been an increase in terrorist incidents from 253 to 282 in Europe. Terrorism also continues to be a widespread problem, with eight countries in Western Europe (the highest number for the last 20 years) and 67 countries globally recording at least one death from terrorism (Institute for Economics & Peace, 2018)

The IS, is an extremist terrorist group, trying to establish a caliphate that should span across numerous countries. Since this group remains responsible for the highest death toll regarding terrorist acts and receives considerable media attention, people around the globe continue to perceive them as a major threat. (Satti, 2015; Farwell, 2014; Institute for Economics & Peace, 2018; Pew Research Center, 2019)

A study conducted by Pew Research Center (2019) asking Europeans to rate potential threats (e.g. IS, climate change), found that a median of 68% rated the IS as a

major threat to their country. Ranking the IS, after climate change, as the greatest perceived threat.

In a survey comparing U.S. Muslims with the U.S. general public, it was also found that 82% of Muslims and 83% of the general public were either “very concerned” or “somewhat concerned” about extremism in the name of Islam around the world. Roughly 70% of U.S. Muslims and the U.S. general public alike were also concerned about extremism in the United States. (Pew Research Center, 2017) Thus, it can be said that terror organizations such as the Islamic state are perceived by the general public as a major threat to (inter-) national security.

Due to the extremist religious nature of the IS and its seemingly continuous media presence, the question of how/if this relationship could foster hostile Muslim attitudes or in other words “Islamophobic attitudes” arises. The next chapter will therefore first define what constitutes “Islamophobia”.

3 Islamophobia

In the past few years the concept of Islamophobia has received increased academic attention. In the literature, there are diverging views as to how and when the term “Islamophobia” first appeared, with many authors dating its first emergence back to the 1990s. (Martín-Muñoz, 2010; Sheridan, 2006; Bleich, 2011) López (2010) on the other hand shows that the origins and the first use of the term “Islamophobia” can even be traced back to the late nineteenth/early twentieth century. Some attempted definitions at that time could, according to him, still be applied today, describing Islamophobia as an unfounded hostile belief in which Islam and Muslims are viewed as the enemy (e.g. of Christianity/Europe). He also discusses the different ways in which the term was defined over the years and argues that Islamophobia should not be equated to (ethnic/cultural-) racism or general religious intolerance (although there are confounding elements e.g., one can be racist and an Islamophobe but one can also only be Islamophobic, without being a racist; the same applies for general religious intolerance). Racism (ethnic/cultural) is not a core concept of Islamophobia but can be an inherent companion/consequence of Islamophobia. If someone is additionally racist, is dependent upon how the outgroup “Muslims” is viewed or categorized: When Muslims are identified based on ethnic features instead of religious criteria the outgroup can be racialized, thereby denoting racist attitudes). (López, 2010) Bleich (2011) argues similarly that without universal understanding/agreement of what constitutes Islamophobia, measuring such a concept might prove difficult (e.g., measuring confounding variables like racism instead of Islamophobia). In order to advance understanding and research endeavors (i.e., learning more about this form of intolerance, increasing comparability of results) he attempted to provide a more specific and more usable scientific definition of Islamophobia. He defined Islamophobia as “[...] indiscriminate negative attitudes or emotions directed at Islam or Muslims”. (Bleich, 2011, S. 1582) This definition is open and distinct enough (e.g., it is possible to distinguish between Islamophobia and differentiated criticism/attitudes/emotions towards certain aspects of Islam) while also including the necessary components constituting Islamophobia (e.g., negative attitudes: evaluations of the “outgroup”; negative emotions: suspicion, fear, hostility, anger). He additionally called for research, to explore if Islamophobic sentiments could be triggered or altered under specific circumstances. (Bleich, 2011) Having established this definition, the next chapter explores with Social Identity Theory how outgroup attitudes are built.

4 Social Identity Theory, Social Categorization and Intergroup Discrimination

Human beings have a fundamental motivation for interpersonal attachments. This drive, the need to belong, can explain why humans establish group behavior and form relationships. (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) A theory that tries to explain social perceptions/attitudes, relations and behavior is the Social Identity Theory. (Tajfel, 1982; Hogg, 2016; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) Social identification is a perception of being one with a group of persons, sharing (at least to some degree) the same social category, emotional involvement and similar evaluations of their group/membership. Prestige, the distinctiveness of the group one belongs to and the salience of outgroups play a pivotal role in the identification process, leading to congruent activities (e.g., support for institutions embodying the identity) and stereotypical perceptions of oneself and others. Thereby reinforcing the antecedents of identification. (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986)

Tajfel and Turner (1986) place social behavior between two polar extremes; namely interpersonal and intergroup behavior (the pure forms hardly exist in real life). Interpersonal behavior can be defined as interactions between two or more individuals, which are solely determined by their individual characteristics or specific relationships and not affected by their social categorization or grouping (e.g., relations between old friends; or husband and wife). Intergroup behavior on the other hand can be described as the interactions between individuals (or groups of individuals) which are fully determined by their belonging to social groups or categories and not affected by personal specific characteristics or relationships (e.g., battling soldiers from opposing armies).

Underlying the formation of a group identity is the aforementioned Social/Self-Categorisation of individuals and groups: “Human groups are categories that people mentally represent as *prototypes* – fuzzy sets of interrelated attributes (attitudes, behaviours, customs, dress, and so forth) that capture overall similarities within groups and overall differences between groups.” (Hogg, 2016, S. 8) A prototype in this sense would for example be a person’s mental image of a certain object/subject/item/person/group (e.g., mental representation for “student” or “terrorist”). If this mental representation, or prototype, is shared by many people in one or another group, then it can also be classified as a stereotype. (Hogg, 2016)

Social categorization is a cognitive tool that helps individuals to systematize their social world and provide orientation, thereby creating and defining one's place in society. (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) This identification process mostly consists of relational or comparative binary categorizations, defining individuals as similar/different or superior/inferior to members of other groups (i.e., performing ingroup-outgroup categorizations). To preserve or enhance one's self-image, individuals will make favorable comparisons between in- and outgroup members, oftentimes resulting in the perception, that the individuals' ingroup is positively differentiated. (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Hogg, 2016; Simon, 1992)

Additionally, when individuals of a group tend to exhibit intergroup- rather than interpersonal behavior, they will be more likely to view characteristics and behaviors of members of an outgroup as more similar (e.g., stereotyping the outgroup). (Tajfel, 1982; Hogg, 2016) This bias is described by the outgroup homogeneity effect, an individual's fallacy to perceive the outgroup as more homogeneous than the ingroup (which is perceived as different and variable). This way of thinking can lead to depersonalization, social stereotyping as well as dehumanization of the outgroup. (Simon, 1992; Tajfel, 1982; Linville, Salovey, & Fischer, 1989) This outgroup homogeneity effect can be mitigated through contact to outgroup individuals, reducing prejudice, negative attitudes, promoting empathy and identification towards other outgroup members. (Pettigrew, 1997)

Since many people living in Western societies only have limited contact and relationships with Muslims, the media serves as an important conveyor of information about Islam and Muslims. (Green, 2015) The mass media thus plays an important role as to how Muslims are perceived by the public, in the way they portray and frame them (i.e., providing "contact"). When Muslims are positively portrayed, ingroup categorization could be made salient – when they are negatively portrayed (e.g., in stereotypical ways), outgroup categorization could be made salient. The next chapter will therefore explore how Muslims are framed by the media.

5 Frames and News Coverage of Muslims

According to the famous definition by Entman (1993):

“Framing essentially involves selection and salience. To frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation for the item described.” (1993, S. 52)

Through frames one can make sense of situations/events, by organizing and interpreting them accordingly. (Goffman, 1974/1986) When something was framed, embedded information or positions were actively highlighted or omitted, thereby providing a “horizon of meaning”. (Matthes, 2014, S. 10) With the concept of framing, one can examine frames in strategic communication (i.e., the goal is to establish ones’ own framed message/position in the public discourse over framed messages/positions from competitors), journalists frames (i.e., highlighting/omitting certain aspects and/or adding their own interpretation/position/topic, dependent on their knowledge and pre-existing beliefs), media frames (i.e., contextualization of a message/topic through added interpretations/evaluations/problem definitions and offered remedies/solutions) and audience/recipients frames (i.e., depending on their pre-existing beliefs/knowledge they can choose to adopt/ignore a message/position or only adopt/ignore certain aspects of it). (Matthes, 2014; Matthes, 2012)

Numerous studies investigated how Muslims and Islam are portrayed in the media (i.e., journalists and media frames). Research shows, that news coverage about Muslims and Islam has increased over the years, especially after major terrorist attacks and during times of conflict and war. (Lewis, Mason, & Moore, 2009; Ettinger & Udris, 2009; Nacos, 2003)

Ettinger and Udris (2009) for example analyzed the Swiss media coverage from 1998 to 2007. They found that coverage of international events involving Muslims (i.e., wars, terrorism) also increased the medias’ focus on Muslims in Switzerland. They further noted that the framing of Muslims changed drastically with the Madrid terror attack (train bombings in 2004). Muslims were from then on increasingly portrayed as problematic by questioning their ability to integrate into Swiss society and by magnifying the threat posed by Islamism. Similarly, Lewis et al., (2009) found that British press coverage about Muslims/Islam almost doubled between 2005 and 2008 compared to 2001 and 2004. They further identified the five most frequently used discourses and grouped the articles

accordingly. Four discourses (83% of the articles) were negatively connotated, covering Islam/Muslims as a threat, as incompatible to Western values and linking Muslims to terrorism.

In contrast, a group of researchers observed (analyzing newspaper headlines of four British newspapers between 2001 and 2012) that the portrayals of Islam/Muslims was not as negative as expected, but still more negative compared to the portrayal of other religious groups (e.g., Jews, Christians). When comparing the different newspaper types however, they observed that left-leaning papers published much more positively than negatively toned headlines about Islam/Muslims. The opposite was the case for right-leaning papers, which published more negatively than positively toned headlines about Muslims/Islam. They further noted that most British newspaper readers were predominantly exposed to negatively toned headlines, since the right-leaning tabloid had the highest readership numbers. (Bleich, Stonebraker, Nisar, & Abdelhamid, 2015) The study from Hajek, Siegl and Schwaiger (2012) revealed similar results for the Austrian press. Their analysis consisted of articles about Muslims and Islam published between the beginning of September to the end of November in 2011 by Austrian quality newspapers and tabloids. They found that the tabloids' (i.e., Österreich, Kronen Zeitung) coverage of Islam/Muslims was more negatively than neutrally toned and never positively toned. The left-leaning quality newspapers' (i.e., Der Standard) reporting on the other hand was more positively than neutrally toned, but not negatively toned. Approximately half of the center-right-leaning quality newspaper's (i.e., Die Presse) coverage was negatively toned but consisted, in contrast to the tabloids, also of positively toned articles. Taken together, it was observed that more than 40 percent of the Austrian press coverage (for the observed papers) was in a negative context, roughly 30 percent in a neutral context and just a little more than 25 percent in a positive context, with the most prominent subject being Islamism. Since the right-leaning tabloid (i.e., Kronen Zeitung) has the highest readership (Verein Arbeitsgemeinschaft Media-Analysen, 2019), it can similarly be concluded that most Austrian newspaper readers were exposed to negative news coverage about Islam and Muslims. Another interesting study used automated content analysis to compare the mediated associations of the concept of Islam (i.e., Islam, Muslims, Koran, mosque, imam) to the mediated associations of the concept of Christianity (i.e., Christianity, Christians, Bible, church, priest) in the German press. Their results revealed that the concept of Islam was significantly more often associated with general negativity, violence, terror and dehumanizing (i.e., animal-related) terms compared to the concept of Christianity. (Arendt

& Karadas, 2017) Baker, Gabrielatos and McEnery (2013) further noted that Muslims are often depicted as a homogenous distinct entity, which is portrayed as different to “the West” and connected to conflict. Examining over 345 research articles, Ahmed and Matthes (2017) also concluded in their meta-analysis that the media seems to generally depict Islam as violent and also seems to establish a strong link between Muslims and terrorism.

The studies presented thus far highlight that the medias’ portrayal of Muslims/Islam can be considered problematic at best. The linking of Muslims/Islam and terrorism and the depiction of Muslims/Islam as threatening is especially troubling. The next chapter will therefore examine how the media frames terrorism.

6 Frames and News Coverage of Terrorism

As already established, the mass media and terrorists form some kind of symbiotic relationship, in which both actors profit from each other. (Camphuijsen & Vissers, 2012; Schmid, 2004; Wilkinson, 1997; Martin, 1986) In order to better understand this relationship, the following chapter will explore the medias' framing of terrorism, because as Martin (1986, S. 127) noted: "[...] terrorism has no meaning without media coverage [...]".

Rohner and Frey (2007) compared the news coverage of two quality newspapers (i.e., New York Times, Neue Zürcher Zeitung) with data about terrorist acts committed between 1998 and 2005. Their results revealed that the media coverage of terrorism changed drastically with 9/11. The media's attention on terrorism increased that day and also remained significantly higher afterwards. Nacos, Bloch-Elkon, & Shapiro (2007) showed through analysis of evening TV news from three major US networks (ABC, CBS, NBC), that terrorism news/alerts were generally prominently placed, sensationalized and magnified (while the lowering of terror alert levels was in contrast underreported).

Research further reveals that terrorism news coverage differs depending on the religion of the perpetrator – namely Islamic faith. Studies show that Muslim perpetrators are more likely to be labelled as terrorists and are frequently connected by the media to other (unrelated) acts of terrorism, thus magnifying the threat of Islamist terrorism. Compared to non-Muslim perpetrators, they also receive more media attention with the news coverage being more likely to focus on their religious and ethnic background. (Kearns, Betus, & Lemieux, 2019; Morin, 2016; Kanji, 2018; Elmasry & el-Nawawy, 2019; Powell, 2018).

Through quantitative content analysis of U.S. newspaper articles published between 2006 and 2016, a group of researchers for example found that news coverage of terrorist acts committed in the United States was heavily skewed towards Muslim perpetrators. They discovered, even after controlling other factors like the number of fatalities, that terrorist attacks received approximately 357% more media coverage if the perpetrator was identified as Muslim. (Kearns et al., 2019) In the same vein, Kanji (2018) examined how Canadian news media covered Islamist and extreme right-wing terrorist acts committed in Canada. She found that the likelihood of an act being labelled as terrorism was 23 times higher if the perpetrator was identified as Muslim. Likewise, her analysis also revealed that Islamist terrorism received more media attention, although the examined extreme right-wing

terrorist acts killed far more people. Morin (2016) discovered similar patterns when comparing how the Fort Hood shooting (Muslim perpetrator killed 13 people, 2009) and the Navy Yard shooting (non-Muslim perpetrator killed 12 people, 2013), were covered by the U.S. press. He additionally found that the perpetrators were “othered” differently, although both incidents were very similar. Othering refers to a rhetorical technique, in which the othered person is distanced from “normal” society (i.e., describing why a person does not belong to the ingroup, in this case, a “normal” U.S. citizen). While the news coverage of the Muslim perpetrator focused on his identity and othered him through his religion and ethnicity (i.e., Arab, immigration background), the non-Muslim perpetrator was othered by focusing on his mental illness.

In another comparison, Elmsary and el-Nawawy (2019) further discovered that the non-Muslim perpetrator was significantly more often humanized (e.g., through reporting about his hobbies, relationships) compared to the Muslim perpetrator. Moreover, they found that the act committed by the Muslim perpetrator was significantly more often associated with violent threats in the future. This association with future threats seems to be caused by thematic framing (i.e., connecting an attack to the broader context of terrorism), which is more frequently employed when covering a Muslim perpetrator, compared to the episodic framing (e.g., depicting the attack as an isolated incident) of a non-Muslim perpetrator. (Morin, 2016; Powell, 2018) Powell (2018) criticizes that these discussed framing patterns create an association between Islam and terrorism and contribute to Islamophobia and “[...] a fear of the “other” that intensifies with each terrorist event.” (Powell, 2018, S. 11)

Additionally, research findings show that terrorism news coverage also differs, dependent on the geographic location of the attack. (Patrick, 2014; Nevalsky, 2015; el-Nawawy & Elmasry, 2017; Rohner & Frey, 2007) Patrick (2014) compared with a deductive content analysis (i.e., analyzing media/journalists frames with predefined categories) how the Madrid train bombings in 2004 and the Baghdad twin car bombings in 2009 were covered by the US, British and Spanish press. Both incidents were similar in scope - each killing more than 150 people. Compared to the Baghdad attack, the Madrid attack received considerably more media attention and was covered for a longer period of time, likely increasing news consumers’ emotional and psychological reactions to the attack. The Madrid coverage was largely dramatized, the attack connected to other terrorist acts with the press focusing on the committed atrocity, its’ abnormality, the victims and the public’s response. The Baghdad coverage on the other hand lacked context, the violence of the attack was trivialized, portrayed as routine and therefore indirectly connected to the

nation itself. Quotations with civilian commentary in the Madrid coverage were used to sensationalize and emotionalize the attack (e.g., victims describing the attack), while for the Baghdad coverage quotations were often utilized to blame the Iraqi government for the security breach. Patrick attributes these framing differences to “orientalism” and criticizes that this type of reporting contributes to Islamophobia and an “us-them mentality” (i.e., promoting ingroup-outgroup categorization). Orientalism can be understood as a school of thought which differentiates between “the Occident” (i.e., the West) and the “the Orient” (i.e., the East). (Said, 1978) “The relationship between Occident and Orient is a relationship of power, of domination, of varying degrees of a complex hegemony [...]” (Said, 1978, S. 5) in which the Occident sees itself as “superior” over the Orient’s “backwardness”. (Said, 1978, S. 7) Orientalism also ties into the concept of ethnocentrism/cultural similarity, as we (i.e., North-Westerners) often structure and view our world “[...] along the east-west, north-south or center-periphery axes [...]” (Galtung & Ruge, 1965, S. 68). Galtung and Ruge (1965) explain that events from culturally distant/dissimilar countries have to meet additional criteria (e.g., negativity, unexpectedness), compared to culturally close/similar countries, to be considered newsworthy by the Western media. The analysis of Rohner and Frey (2007) supports this view, showing that even quality newspapers tend to underreport terrorist acts committed in developing countries (i.e., culturally distant/dissimilar countries). They argue that terrorists operating in non-Western countries have to commit “bloodier” attacks in order to garner Western media attention.

Another study found similar framing patterns as mentioned previously, when comparing how the series of attacks in Paris (five terrorist attacks starting with Charlie Hebdo, killing 17 people, January 2015) and Borno (mass killings by Boko Haram over a four-day period, it is estimated that over 2000 people were killed, January 2015) were covered by the U.S. press. The author points out that these differences in reporting strengthen existing negative perceptions about developing countries and he discusses several explanations for this discrepancy in news coverage, one of them also being cultural proximity/similarity (i.e., culturally “close” countries like Spain and France are more thoroughly covered by the Western media than culturally “distant” countries like Iraq and Nigeria). (Nevalsky, 2015)

But the mainstream media/journalists are not the only actors framing articles/positions - the IS also has (compared to other terrorist groups) a sophisticated understanding of media strategies and knows how to employ them (i.e., strategic framing). Using social media (e.g., Twitter, Facebook, Instagram) the IS builds its own narrative,

distributing emotionalizing images (e.g., warriors, gore, executions) and messages across various platforms, trying to influence regional and international mass media, adversaries/fighters against the IS and supporters/IS sympathizers (e.g., trying to radicalize and recruit) alike. (Chatfield, Reddick, & Brajawidagda, 2015; Farwell, 2014) Courty, Rane and Ubayasiri (2018) identified two key narratives communicated by the Islamic State namely “[...] 1) ‘formidable foe’, which characterises IS as a brutal and indomitable force; and 2) ‘clash of civilisations’, which sees the West is waging a war against Islam and Muslims. ” (Courty et al., 2018, S. 69) The authors found that all of the analyzed newspapers either directly and/or indirectly reinforced those narratives. Sensationalized, emotionalized reporting (e.g., magnifying the threat posed by the Islamic State, highlighting IS’ brutality – through for example victims describing the attack, excessive media coverage) contributes to the “formidable foe” narrative, which legitimizes the IS and also aids them in creating a climate of fear. Stereotypical, overgeneralized news coverage, not differentiating between Islam and Islamism, or conflating Muslims/Islam with terrorism advances the “clash of civilisations” narrative, which promotes Islamophobia and othering of Muslims. (Courty et al., 2018)

The often intensive and emotionalizing media coverage of terrorist acts coupled with the overrepresentation and othering of Muslim perpetrators based on their religious and ethnic identity paints a bleak picture and doesn’t bode well for public perceptions and attitudes towards Muslims living around the globe. The following chapter will try to answer the question as to how terrorism news coverage affects its news consumers.

7 Terrorism News Coverage and Audience Effects

In contrast to other calamities (e.g., natural disasters) modern terroristic acts target with malevolent intent whole societies or nations, creating the perception that each citizen is personally threatened. In doing so the effects of terroristic acts reach beyond their directly affected victims, creating a persistent apprehension of threat. (Breckenridge & Zimbardo, 2007) The intergroup threat theory (which is the updated/revised version of the integrated threat theory) provides a framework to better understand the different effects terrorism news coverage can have on its news consumers. (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; Stephan & Stephan, 2000)

According to this theory, terroristic acts (communicated with the ensuing news coverage) could be perceived by its news consumers as threats, which generally trigger negative emotions, which can impact attitudes/cognitions and even behavioral responses. (Stephan & Stephan, 2017) Two types of threats can be differentiated¹: realistic threats (tangible harms e.g., threats of physical harm, loss of power/resources) and symbolic threats (intangible harms e.g., threats to meaning system/values/identity). (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; Stephan, Ybarra, & Rios, 2016) As a group of researchers pointed out, terroristic acts could be perceived as both realistic and symbolic threats (since these acts threaten both: physical well-being as well as the ingroups' values/meaning system) and should therefore strongly affect emotions, attitudes/cognitions and behaviors. (von Sikorski, Schmuck, Matthes, & Binder, 2017)

Dependent on the severity (i.e., magnitude/immediacy) of the perceived intergroup threat, the emotional responses can range from low intensity (e.g., anxious, annoyed) to high intensity (e.g., fear, anger, vulnerability). Those negative emotional responses in turn can prime relevant/associated cognitions (e.g., negative attitudes, stereotypes, prejudice like Islamophobia) and increase their accessibility, especially if those emotions and cognitions are consistent with each other. (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; Stephan et al., 2016)

¹ Realistic and symbolic threats can be further differentiated into which actor (i.e., group/individual) is perceived to be targeted: realistic group threats, realistic individual threats, symbolic group threats and symbolic individual threats. (Stephan et al., 2016)

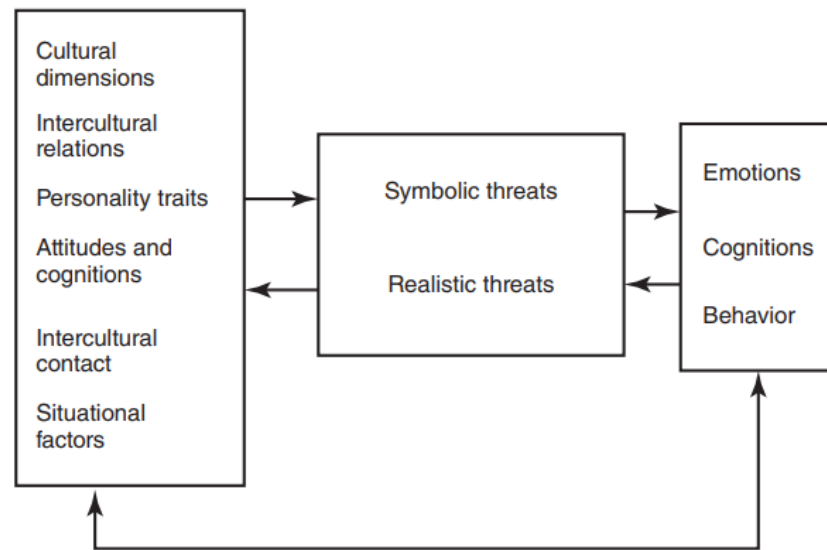
Doyen, Klein, Simons and Cleeremans (2014) describe that priming:

“[...] reveals the powerful ways in which our past experiences can influence our present and future behavior. Priming takes many forms, from more efficient processing the second time we encounter a stimulus (repetition priming) to activation of other related concepts (semantic priming) to triggering an associated goal (goal priming).” (Doyen et al., 2014, S. 15)

Thus, explaining why the perception of intergroup threats can result in negative outgroup attitudes. It is also likely that threats elicit physiological arousal, which can intensify the emotional/cognitive/behavioral responses. Furthermore, threats can activate a wide range of perceptual/cognitive biases and undermine empathy for outgroup members. The behavioral responses, which can arise from negative emotions and cognitions/attitudes, encompass many different reactions towards the “threatening” outgroup such as: avoidance, aggression, harassment, discrimination, enacting laws harming the outgroup, protests, warfare and even genocide. The authors note that these effects can occur, irrespective of the perceived threats being accurate/inaccurate. (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; Stephan et al., 2016) According to Stephan and Stephan (2017) the following categories of factors can influence/increase threat perceptions: cultural dimensions (e.g., group power/status/size inequalities), intercultural relations (intercultural conflict e.g., terrorism/war), personality traits (e.g., fearfulness, suspiciousness, rigidity, extreme conservatism, right-wing authoritarianism, strength of cultural identity), attitudes and cognitions (e.g., negative attitudes/stereotypes, opposition to multiculturalism/immigration), intercultural contact (e.g., lack of contact, negative personal contact) and situational factors in intergroup interactions (e.g., contextual framing/labelling of the outgroup, unfamiliarity of context, lack of structure, cultural/language barriers).

This theory should however not be understood as a linear, unidirectional model but rather as dynamic with reciprocal relationships amongst many of its variables (see Figure 1). (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; Stephan et al., 2016) The intergroup threat theory highlights the importance of exploring the effects of terrorism and its’ ensuing news coverage, since threat perceptions may not only impact present emotions, cognitions and behaviors but also future threat perceptions and subsequent responses.

Figure 1: “Threat model” from Stephan and Stephan (2017, S. 2), showing antecedents and consequences of intergroup threats



In line with this framework research shows, that terrorist acts communicated with the media seem to be especially successful in instilling widespread fear, specifically the fear of terrorism. (Nellis & Savage, 2012; Cho, et al., 2003; Williamson, Fay, & Miles-Johnson, 2019; Vasilopoulos, 2018) Fear of terrorism can be understood as “[...] worries about losing one’s valuable resources (i.e., life and health of both the individual and his or her family). The higher the level of fear of terror, the more likely individuals are to perceive their valuable resources as threatened.” (Toker, Laurence, & Fried, 2015, S. 273)

Through a telephone survey, Nellis and Savage (2012) for example found a positive relationship between time spent watching TV news and perceived terrorism risk for oneself, others and fear of victimization for a family member.

A panel survey by another group of researchers also revealed a positive relationship between TV news use and emotional responses to the attack, while no significant relationship was found for newspaper news use. (Cho, et al., 2003) The analysis of Williamson et al., (2019) found that television and newspaper news usage, as well as using multiple media sources for information about terrorism were associated with increased levels of fear of terrorism. They further grouped the different media types dependent on the effort to access them, into actively (i.e., newspapers, Internet, government leaflets) and passively (i.e., TV, Radio) accessed media sources about terrorism. Their findings revealed that participants who actively accessed media sources tended to exhibit more fear and perceived knowledge of/about terrorism, compared to participants who passively accessed

media sources. The authors theorized that the relationship between media news use and fear of terrorism would be reciprocal. The analysis of a two-wave panel survey by Vasilopoulos (2018) supports this assumption, demonstrating that already fearful individuals were also more likely to closely follow the news.

Experimental research findings similarly provide evidence that terrorism news exposure increases news consumers' fear of terrorism (Matthes, Schmuck, & von Sikorski, 2019; von Sikorski et al., 2017; Lerner, Gonzalez, Small, & Fischhoff, 2003; Woods, 2011; von Sikorski, Matthes, & Schmuck, 2018). The conducted experiments further demonstrate that certain factors/characteristics of terrorist acts or news reports can increase fear of terrorism like for example: undifferentiated reporting (i.e., conflating Muslims and Islamist terrorists), threats posed by radical Islamists², threat severity (e.g., many offenders/potential terrorists, perceived "power" of the terrorist group) and diffuse threats/attacks (e.g., unpredictable and uncontrollable acts/threats targeting completely random places like for example a supermarket). (von Sikorski et al., 2018; von Sikorski et al., 2017; Matthes et al., 2019; Woods, 2011; Giner-Sorolla & Maitner, 2013)

Another aspect intertwined with fear of terrorism is avoidance behavior or precautionary measures. (Lerner et al., 2003; Blalock, Kadiyali, & Simon, 2005) According to Ferraro's (1995) research about fear of crime, individuals estimate their risk of victimization and either adapt their behavior/environment to reduce said risk and/or become afraid. In line with this reasoning, the results from a U.S. national field experiment by Lerner et al., (2003) showed that priming the participants with the emotion "fear" increased risk estimates of terrorism and plans for precautionary measures. In a similar vein, Blalock et al., (2005) observed that in the months after 9/11, people living in the U.S. seemed to travel more by car in order to avoid airline traffic. Since traveling by plane is safer than by car, they estimated that this behavioral adaptation resulted in an additional 1200 driving fatalities. The results from Ito and Lee (2005) further show that 9/11 also impacted air travel globally. They found significant declines in demand for international flights for all observed regions (i.e., Australia, Canada, Europe, Japan, U.S.). Furthermore, they estimated in their analysis that passenger demand had decreased even more in Europe and Japan than in the United States, where the terrorist attacks occurred.

² It should be acknowledged that Woods (2011, S. 216) used the wording of "Radical Islamic groups" and "Islamic extremism" in his stimuli

These findings seem perplexing since Europe and Japan are arguably quite “distant” to the attack sites. The next section will therefore further explore this topic, trying to make sense of the impact of proximity on fear of terrorism.

7.1 Proximity, (Perceived-) Similarities and Fear of Terrorism

As previously established, the intensity of emotional responses to intergroup threats is dependent on the perceived magnitude and immediacy of the perceived threat. (Stephan et al., 2016) Thus, it can be argued, that physical proximity to a terrorist act plays a significant role for news consumers’ threat perceptions and subsequent fear responses. Physical proximity can increase an individual’s perceived vulnerability, by increasing familiarity (i.e., easier to feel personally threatened) and should in this context here be understood as the spatial distance to an attack site. (Avdan & Webb, 2019) Terrorist acts committed “close” to the news consumer should therefore be perceived as more threatening and arouse stronger (fear-) reactions than “distant” acts. Research findings seem to generally support this notion, while also yielding mixed results. Most studies in this area used survey data, while only few employed experimental designs. (Goodwin, Kaniasty, Sun, & Ben-Ezra, 2017; Lin, Margolin, & Wen, 2017; Schuster, et al., 2001; Fischhoff, Gonzalez, Small, & Lerner, 2003; von Sikorski et al., 2018; Avdan & Webb, 2019; Dumont, Yzerbyt, Wigboldus, & Gordijn, 2003)

A group of researchers for example employed two panel surveys four weeks after the January and November terrorist attacks in Paris in 2015. Their analysis demonstrated that Paris residents experienced greater psychological distress after each attack, compared to respondents living outside the city. (Goodwin et al., 2017) Another interesting study examined Twitter data from users who were geo-tagged to be in the greater Paris area when the November terrorist attacks occurred. After computing the geographic proximity to the attack sites for a sample of Twitter users and analyzing their tweets, it was found that proximity was significantly associated with greater anxiety expression. (Lin et al., 2017) Fischhoff et al., (2003) on the other hand showed that proximity to an attack site increased terrorism risk estimates/fears – but only for certain groups (e.g., men, adults). Through two experiments von Sikorski et al., (2018) also found diverging results. They exposed German/Austrian participants to terrorism news about the IS of either nearby (i.e., in Germany/Austria) or far away (i.e., in Russia) events. Their findings revealed that

participants' fear of terrorism did not significantly differ between groups (i.e., close and distant). The authors theorized that the frequency of exposure to terrorism news and the randomness of attacks could render the location less important and instill the perception, that an attack near oneself will be more likely.

Avdan and Webb (2019), provide an explanation for differences in proximity effects. Aside from physical proximity, they identified another influential factor impacting threat perceptions and responses, namely personal proximity. They define personal proximity as “[...] the affinity one feels with the victims of an attack.” (Avdan & Webb, 2019, S. 91) This affinity is determined by the perceived similarities between oneself and the victims. Those similarity perceptions itself are built on estimated victim identities, which are imputed from rough cues of information about a terrorist act (e.g., affected country, nationality, ethnicity, religion of the victims/perpetrators). (Avdan & Webb, 2019) Building on social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) they argue that audience responses to terrorism also depend on the extent of which an individual categorizes the perpetrator to belong to the outgroup and the victim to the ingroup. The affinity or perceived similarities with the victims should therefore amplify threat perceptions and responses since an ingroup member was threatened/hurt/killed. The authors support their assumptions through two experiments, showing that both factors were significant predictors for threat perceptions. (Avdan & Webb, 2019)

The experiments of Dumont et al., (2003) provide further evidence. They conducted two experiments one week after the 9/11 attacks with participants from Belgium and the Netherlands. Participants received cues that the victims of the terrorist attacks either belonged to one's ingroup or outgroup. Their results showed that the participants cued to include American victims to the ingroup were significantly more fearful than participants where outgroup categorization was made salient.

Although both studies (Avdan & Webb, 2019; Dumont et al., 2003) did not directly measure participants' perceived similarities with the victims, it can still be assumed that (physical) proximity increases fear of terrorism, especially when participants perceive themselves to be similar to the victims. Distance to a terrorist act, on the other hand, will likely mitigate fear of terrorism when the victims are perceived to be dissimilar to oneself. Since ingroup categorization of the victims seems to be an important factor when examining the effects of proximity - the next chapter will explore how victim exemplification by the media (i.e., sensationalized reporting, by focusing on the victims of the attacks) could further impact terrorism fears.

7.2 Victim Exemplification, (Perceived-) Similarities and Fear of Terrorism

The premise of the exemplification theory of media influence is quite similar to the social identity theory/self- categorization theory: According to Zillmann (2002) events are categorized, aggregated and extrapolated to gain information about other or future events belonging to the same category. The number of experiences serving as implicit generalizations, are relatively small and represent like a prototype a larger body of occurrences, defining knowledge and guiding future behavior. These occurrences can also be adapted from communicated experiences by other persons, or through the media. Singular cases or events, which do not share any similarities with other events would just constitute unique events, but not exemplars.

Exemplars, which are most frequently understood as personal descriptions or opinions of people, are frequently used by journalists, to improve understanding of a complex issue and/or illustrate the story at hand. (Brosius & Peter, 2017) Since there are no guidelines for journalists on how to select appropriate exemplars, biased exemplar selection can be problematic. (Daschmann, 2008) This is because a few selected cases by the media/journalists can entirely define issues (i.e., exemplify them) and be somewhat to not at all representative for their respective category/case/event, which can also lead to misperceptions. (Zillmann, 2002) These misperceptions arise because reliable base-rate information (e.g., a factual report, statistics) is often neglected/ignored in favor of the presented individual cases (i.e., exemplars) when making assessments. (Zillmann, Gibson, Sundar, & Perkins, 1996; Brosius & Bathelt, 1994) It has for example been found that readers of a news story were greatly influenced by quotations in their perception of issues. Without being able to detect biased reporting, respondents were more likely to adopt the directly quoted position than the paraphrased one. The authors proposed, that direct quotations could render the quoted persons as more salient exemplars, enhancing information processing and leading to more credibility. (Gibson & Zillmann, 1998) Zillmann (2002) argues that elemental, concrete events are usually easier to process and therefore superior exemplifiers to complex, abstract events. Likewise, are vital events (i.e., events of consequence) more emotional, attract more attention and are more thoroughly processed than inconsequential ones. Representativeness and availability heuristics determine which exemplars are cognitively present. Heuristics can be understood as cognitive mechanisms that streamline and simplify information intake and subsequent

utilization of information. These cognitive shortcuts however, can also lead to more erroneous judgements compared to systematic/careful elaboration. The representativeness heuristic essentially describes the process of determining if a specific case belongs into (i.e., represents) a particular class of cases. The availability heuristic depicts that perceptions and judgements are dependent on which information is currently available. (Zillmann & Brosius, 2000; Zillmann, 1999).

This theory provides an additional explanation as to why individuals who consume more terrorism news tend to be more fearful. As already discussed in chapter 6, the media coverage of terrorism is oftentimes extensive and sensationalized. Since sensationalized reporting often contain various victim accounts (i.e., victim exemplification), a person could for example overestimate his/her risk of victimization, since he/she encountered many victim exemplars through the media – or in the same vein, encountered many threatening Islamist terrorists. The following results support this reasoning.

Aust and Zillmann (1996) for example manipulated two broadcast news stories (i.e., food poisoning, gun violence) for three conditions: emotional victim exemplification, unemotional victim exemplification and no victim exemplification. They found that the stories with emotional victim testimonials increased participants' emotional distress and perceived victimization risk for oneself, when compared to the group without victim exemplification. In another experiment Gibson and Zillmann (1994) constructed a news report, varying the degree of representativeness of exemplars affected by carjacking to the presented base-rate information. The victim exemplars were either not harmed, slightly harmed, severely injured or killed – with the exemplars who were not harmed being the most representative to the base-rate information. They found that the participants who read about killed victim exemplars were the ones most upset, who attributed the most fatalities to carjacking and perceived carjacking as a more severe national problem compared to the other groups. Iyer, Webster, Hornsey and Vanman (2014) also conducted an experiment in which participants first read an article about the London terrorist attacks from 2005. They afterwards exposed them to photos of either terrorists or wounded victims of the attack. Their results showed that participants exposed to photos of wounded victims (i.e., victim exemplification) felt more sympathy but less fear and anger compared to the group exposed to photos of terrorists. Since the group exposed to photos of terrorists also perceived them (i.e., terrorists) as more dangerous and threatening, this result is hardly surprising. As their experiment lacked a control group, it is unclear if fear reactions were generally less pronounced for participants exposed to victim exemplars – or if terrorist photos were

generally more effective in triggering fear responses. Both groups however did not significantly differ from each other in their distress reactions (i.e., worried, upset, anguish).

Brosius (1999) argued that social learning theory could additionally provide an explanation for exemplification effects. Social learning theory at its' core describes that individuals can learn vicariously by observing others, so-called "models". Actual or perceived similarities between "model" and observer can determine if the observer "matches" (i.e., learns from) the "model". (Bandura, 1969) Brosius (1999) proposed that exemplars could easily be perceived as "models", as they usually draw attention and are more vivid. He theorized that increased similarity between exemplars and media consumers would also evoke stronger exemplification effects, with individuals being more likely to adopt attitudes and behaviors from the presented exemplars. He reasons, that exemplars could then generally be perceived as models who "[...] function as agents for identification [...]" (Brosius, 1999, S. 213) for the news consumers. Bandura (1969, S. 214) refers to identification as "[...] a process in which a person patterns his thoughts, feelings, or actions after another person who serves as a model." Brosius (1999) tested his assumption through an experiment in which he constructed exemplars who were either similar or dissimilar to the participants. His findings revealed that the presented exemplars affected audiences' judgements, while no effect was found for similarity. In another experiment, Peter and Zerback (2017) presented students with exemplars who were similar/dissimilar (i.e., young and elderly citizens) to them. Their results showed that when public opinion estimates are concerned, similarity mattered. When the participants had to estimate the opinions of certain groups (e.g., young and elderly citizens), they relied more heavily on exemplars that represented (i.e., were similar to) that group. However, similarity did not affect participants' personal opinions in meaningful ways. In a secondary analysis, Kim, Shi and Cappella (2016) calculated the similarity between participants and presented exemplars. They found that similarity increased engagement and perceived effectiveness for the presented anti-smoking ads. The three studies mentioned here however, did not measure participants' perceived similarities to the exemplars. (Brosius, 1999; Peter & Zerback, 2017; Kim et al., 2016) Hoffner and Ye (2009) included this measure in an experiment about skin cancer and sunscreen use. Their results show that perceived similarities between participants' and presented exemplars increased personal risk estimates. Likewise, Andsager, Bemker, Choi and Torwel (2006) found that participants' perceived similarities with the exemplar was associated with higher ratings for credibility, usefulness and relevance of the communicated message. Another group of researchers also suggested that perceived similarity between

exemplar and individuals should be further examined when exploring exemplification processes and responses. (Spence, et al., 2017)

The results show that victim exemplars can increase news consumers' risk estimates and impact their emotional reactions. (Iyer et al., 2014; Aust & Zillmann, 1996; Gibson & Zillmann, 1994). The (perceived-) similarity between exemplar and news consumer seems to be an influential but generally underexplored factor when examining exemplification effects. (Peter & Zerback, 2017; Kim et al., 2016; Hoffner & Ye, 2009) Concludingly, it could be argued that the mere inclusion of victim exemplars could increase an individuals' fear reactions by promoting identification, thereby reducing psychological distance (i.e., feeling more connected to the victims, increasing perceived similarities). (Small, 2015) The next chapter will now explore the effects of fear of terrorism on Islamophobic attitudes.

8 Effects of Fear of Terrorism on Islamophobic Attitudes

As established by the intergroup threat theory, emotional responses to threats can also prime associated cognitions and increase their cognitive accessibility (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; Stephan et al., 2016). Research has demonstrated, that the media not only tends to overrepresent Muslim perpetrators, but also oftentimes focuses on their religious background – thereby creating an association between Muslims and terrorism. (Kearns et al., 2019; Morin, 2016; Kanji, 2018; Elmasry & el-Nawawy, 2019; Powell, 2018). This “[...] repeated exposure to the Muslim terrorist stereotype may lead news viewers to conclude that all Muslims are terrorists” (Dixon, Weeks, & Smith, 2019, S. 2). In that sense, the news consumer could categorize Muslims to belong into the same outgroup as terrorists.

A group of researchers tested this assumption through an experiment, consisting of three groups. The first group received terrorism news articles, each including an expert statement who emphasized the difference between Muslims and Islamist terrorists. The second group was exposed to almost the same articles, but instead containing an expert statement who did not differentiate (i.e., even conflating Muslims and Islamist terrorists). The third group represented the control group, who received unrelated news articles. Their results clearly showed that compared to the control group, undifferentiated news coverage significantly elevated participants’ fear of terrorism, while differentiated news coverage did not. Furthermore, they found that fear of terrorism mediated and increased hostile Muslim attitudes. (von Sikorski et al., 2017) In two similar experiments, von Sikorski et al., (2018) also exposed participants to undifferentiated and differentiated terrorism news articles. Besides providing additional evidence that undifferentiated news coverage can elevate news consumers’ fear of terrorism, they further found that undifferentiated articles increased (negative) Muslim stereotypes. Negative Muslim stereotypes in turn were also found to predict Islamophobic attitudes. These results (von Sikorski et al., 2018; von Sikorski et al., 2017) highlight, that terrorism media coverage can trigger news consumers’ fear reactions and activate “[...] other related concepts (semantic priming) [...]” (Doyen et al., 2014, S. 15), such as stereotypes and Islamophobic attitudes. Experimental evidence by Schmuck, Matthes, von Sikorski, Materne and Shah (2018) additionally demonstrates how effective semantic priming is. They found that terrorist acts committed by unidentified perpetrators were equally attributed to Islamist terrorists, as acts committed by identified Muslim perpetrators. Numerous research findings support the notion that negative emotional responses to terrorism and anti-Muslim attitudes are strongly connected. (von

Sikorski et al., 2018; von Sikorski et al., 2017; Anderson & Mayerl, 2018; Goodwin et al., 2017; Skitka, Bauman, Aramovich, & Morgan, 2006; Das, Bushman, Bezemer, Kerkhof, & Vermeulen, 2009; Saleem, Prot, Anderson, & Lemieux, 2017) Anderson and Mayerl (2018) for example even suggested that researchers should also consider measuring Islamophobic attitudes, when assessing fear of terrorism. Their results from a quota-based survey revealed that over one third of the observed variance in respondents' fear of terrorism, could be explained by Islamophobic attitudes.

Research further shows that fear reactions to terrorist attacks can also negatively impact the intention for intergroup contact with the perceived outgroup. (Skitka et al., 2006; Goodwin et al., 2017) A group of researchers conducted panel surveys in the aftermath of the Paris terrorist attacks in 2015. In response to the attacks, they found that psychologically distressed respondents scored higher for symbolic racism and lower for willingness to interact with Muslims. (Goodwin et al., 2017) Between 2001 and 2002, Skitka et al., (2006) examined with a representative survey (for the United States) how the public reacted to the 9/11 terrorist attacks. Their results showed that participants' fear of terrorism was significantly associated with support for deporting various groups (i.e., Muslims, Arab-Americans, immigrants). Oswald (2005) conducted a study in response to the 9/11 attacks. He found that the reduced willingness for intergroup contact was also tied to an individuals' degree of self-categorization (i.e., ingroup-outgroup thinking).

These results are especially concerning, since a lack of contact can amplify and also cause threat perceptions. (Stephan & Stephan, 2017) Contact to outgroup individuals is additionally important, because contact can also mitigate the outgroup homogeneity effect (i.e., stereotyping the outgroup, see Chapter 4). (Simon, 1992; Tajfel, 1982; Linville et al., 1989; Pettigrew, 1997; Hutchison & Rosenthal, 2011) The next chapter will therefore further explore how intergroup contact can affect Islamophobic attitudes.

9 The mitigating effect of Intergroup Contact

According to Pettigrew (1997, S. 182), positive intergroup contact can reduce negative outgroup attitudes through “[...] four broad, encompassing processes: (a) learning about the out-group, b) empathizing and (c) identifying with the out-group, and (d) reappraising the in-group.” When a person knows more about the outgroup, it is easier for him/her to empathize and identify with outgroup members. By incorporating other perspectives and ideas, the definition of one’s ingroup can broaden, reducing ingroup-outgroup thinking, which can further lead to the inclusion of previously perceived outgroup members/outgroups to one’s ingroup. A person can generalize positive intergroup contact with an outgroup individual to entire outgroups, when outgroup membership of the individual is salient at one point, thereby allowing for recategorization of the perceived outgroup/s. (Pettigrew, 1997; Pettigrew, 1998)

In line with this reasoning two studies from Hutchison and Rosenthal (2011) for example showed that frequent positive intergroup contact was associated with less anxiety, positive perceptions, attitudes and behavioral intentions towards Muslims. Their results additionally revealed that these positive effects for intergroup contact also applied for extended contact (e.g., knowing someone with a Muslim friend).

Another group of researchers conducted representative surveys for the United Kingdom before and after the London terror attacks in 2005. They found that intergroup contact reduced anti-Muslim prejudice, regardless of the attacks. (Abrams, Van de Vyver, Houston, & Vasiljevic, 2017) Through secondary analysis Bulut (2016) also showed that strong ingroup identification and lack of contact were associated with Islamophobic attitudes. A study conducted by Pew Research Center (2018) similarly reveals that familiarity with Muslims was negatively associated with anti-minority and anti-immigrant attitudes. Von Sikorski et al., (2017) further demonstrated through an experiment, that fear of terrorism did not increase participants’ Islamophobic attitudes if they had (very) positive prior contact with Muslims.

Concludingly it can be said, that intergroup contact is an important factor when examining outgroup attitudes, since it can mitigate negative outgroup attitudes and perceptions.

Taken together, the outlined research has highlighted the importance of exploring audience effects of terrorism news coverage, since threat perceptions can significantly impact outgroup attitudes. The media can further facilitate specific outgroup perceptions and subsequent responses, which can lead to problematic social ramifications. This thesis tries to contribute to research endeavors by exploring the audience responses (i.e., emotional and attitudinal) to terrorism news coverage. The following chapter outlines the hypotheses and research questions.

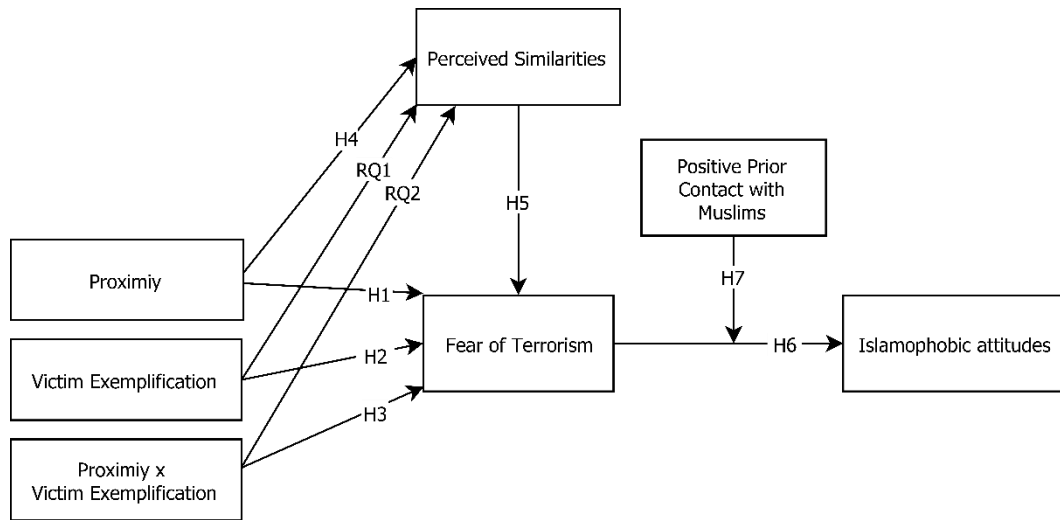
10 Hypotheses and Research Questions

Based on recent research it can be said that people around the globe see Islamist terrorism as a major threat (see Chapter 2). It was found that Muslims and Islam are predominantly negatively portrayed by the media and frequently linked to terrorism (see Chapter 5). In the same vein, recent framing research shows that terrorism news coverage differs depending on the religion of the perpetrator/s and the geographic location of an attack. Numerous studies demonstrate that the media tends to disproportionately focus on Muslim perpetrators. Acts carried out by Muslim perpetrators are more likely to be labelled as terrorism, receive more media coverage, and are oftentimes associated with future threats. Regarding geographic location, it was found that terrorist acts committed “close” to the news consumers or in culturally “similar” countries tend to receive more media attention, are often sensationalized and more thoroughly covered than acts committed in “distant” or “culturally dissimilar” countries (see Chapter 6). Terrorism news coverage aids terrorists in instilling widespread fear. Research shows, that there is a link between terrorism news exposure and fear of terrorism (see Chapter 7). Proximity to a terrorist act, victim exemplars (in terrorism news coverage) and perceived similarities with the victims are assumed to affect fear reactions (Chapter 7.1, Chapter 7.2). Based on previous research it is also expected that fear of terrorism should impact Islamophobic attitudes (Chapter 8). Additionally, the mitigating effect of intergroup contact on negative outgroup attitudes was explored (Chapter 9).

The following chapter will now outline the hypotheses and research questions. It should be noted that they are ordered differently from the chapter structure of this thesis. This was done in order to improve understanding, since some hypotheses and research questions will be examined with the same statistical analyses later on.

An overview of the proposed hypotheses and research questions is provided in figure 2.

Figure 2: Hypotheses and Research Questions



10.1 Proximity and Fear of Terrorism

Terrorist acts can be perceived as both realistic and symbolic threats, which can trigger negative emotions, impact attitudes/cognitions and behaviors. (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; von Sikorski et al., 2017) If a terrorist attack is committed “close” (i.e., spatial distance) to the news consumer, the act should be perceived as a more severe threat and therefore elicit emotional responses of high intensity (Stephan & Stephan, 2017; Stephan et al., 2016; Avdan & Webb, 2019). Research generally supports this notion, showing that physical proximity to a terrorist act intensified individuals’ emotional responses. (Goodwin et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2017; Schuster, et al., 2001; Fischhoff et al., 2003) One of the only studies however to experimentally test the effects of proximity on fear of terrorism, found no significant effects. (von Sikorski et al., 2018) Fear of terrorism refers to “[...] worries about losing one’s valuable resources (i.e., life and health of both the individual and his or her family).” (Toker et al., 2015, S. 273) The results from Avdan and Webb (2019) have shown that aside from physical proximity (i.e., spatial distance), personal proximity (i.e., affinity for the victims) can also impact threat perceptions. A news report about a terrorist act committed in a country considered physically and personally “close” should therefore increase fear reactions. Therefore, the first hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): News articles reporting about a “close” terrorist act will elicit higher levels of fear of terrorism in participants, than news articles reporting about “distant” acts.

10.2 Exemplification and Fear of Terrorism

Due to the low probability for oneself of becoming a victim of a terrorist attack, the media serves as the primary source of information about these acts. Victim exemplars of a terrorist act (i.e., personal descriptions, victim statements) should therefore be considered as superior exemplifiers, since they represent concrete, vital events, are emotional, attract attention and are therefore easy to process. (Zillmann, 2002; Brosius & Peter, 2017) Previous research provides evidence that victim exemplification can impact news consumers’ emotional responses. (Aust & Zillmann, 1996; Gibson & Zillmann, 1994; Iyer et al., 2014). The second hypothesis is derived from these findings:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Participants exposed to news articles about terrorist acts with victim exemplification will experience higher levels of fear of terrorism, than participants exposed to articles without victim exemplification.

10.3 Interaction effect between Proximity and Victim Exemplification on Fear of Terrorism

Framing research findings revealed that terrorism news coverage about “close” (i.e., spatial and cultural) acts is often sensationalized through victim exemplars. (Patrick, 2014; Nevalsky, 2015; el-Nawawy & Elmasry, 2017) It is expected (H1, H2) that news articles about terrorist acts committed “close” to the news consumer and news articles including victim exemplars would elicit higher levels of fear of terrorism in participants, compared to “distant” acts without victim exemplars. Therefore, an interaction effect between those two factors (proximity and victim exemplification) is anticipated. The highest fear reactions are expected when terrorism news articles include both features: “close” terrorist acts, containing victim exemplars. Based on these musings Hypothesis 3 was formed:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): News articles about “close” terrorist acts including victim exemplification arouses the highest levels of fear of terrorism – whereas articles reporting about “distant” acts without victim exemplification, arouse the lowest levels of fear of terrorism.

10.4 Proximity and Perceived Similarities

Avdan and Webb (2019) proposed that an individuals' reaction to a terrorist act is also influenced by how the victims are categorized. The perceived similarities between oneself and the victims of an attack is a determining factor for ingroup categorization. Since those similarity perceptions are based on estimated victim identities (e.g., nationality, ethnicity), and proximity also tends to increase familiarity/perceived similarities, the next hypothesis is articulated:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Participants exposed to news articles about “close” terrorist acts will perceive themselves to be more similar to the victims of the attack than participants exposed to articles about “distant” acts.

10.5 Victim Exemplification and Perceived Similarities

Brosius (1999) theorized with social learning theory (Bandura, 1969) that exemplification effects could be traced back to exemplars constituting “models” for the news consumers, by promoting identification. Identification can be understood in this context as “[...] a process in which a person patterns his thoughts, feelings, or actions after another person who serves as a model.” (Bandura, 1969, S. 214), implying that more similarities would be perceived when an individual identifies with the “model”. Little research so far has examined the role of (perceived) similarities in exemplification effects. (Peter & Zerback, 2017; Kim et al., 2016; Hoffner & Ye, 2009; Andsager et al., 2006; Spence, et al., 2017) Thus, the first research question is formulated as follows:

Research Question 1 (RQ1): How does victim exemplification in news articles about terrorist acts affect participants' perceived similarities with the victims?

10.6 Interaction effect between Proximity and Victim Exemplification on Perceived Similarities

As established, proximity to a terrorist act is expected to increase perceived similarities. (Avdan & Webb, 2019) It is unclear however, how victim exemplification affects perceived similarities and if or how victim exemplification might interact with proximity. Hence, the second research question is established:

Research Question 2 (RQ2): How do proximity and victim exemplification interact in their effects on perceived similarities with the victims of reported terrorist acts?

10.7 Perceived Similarities and Fear of Terrorism

Perceived similarities with the victims of a terrorist act can determine if victims are categorized to belong to the ingroup. Research shows that ingroup categorization can increase threat perceptions and responses. Likewise, it was also found that perceived similarities can impact risk estimates. (Avdan & Webb, 2019; Dumont et al., 2003; Hoffner & Ye, 2009) Derived from these findings Hypothesis 5 is formulated:

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Perceived similarities with the victims of a terrorist act increases fear of terrorism.

10.8 Fear of Terrorism and Islamophobic Attitudes

Research has demonstrated that fear of terrorism and Islamophobic attitudes are connected. This is because repeated exposure to “the Muslim terrorist stereotype” (Dixon et al., 2019, S. 2) can lead news consumers to categorize terrorists to belong into the same outgroup as Muslims. Research findings show that terrorism news coverage can trigger emotional responses and semantically prime other related concepts like for example Islamophobic attitudes. (von Sikorski et al., 2018; von Sikorski et al., 2017; Anderson & Mayerl, 2018; Goodwin et al., 2017; Skitka et al., 2006; Das et al., 2009; Saleem et al., 2017) Based on this research Hypothesis 6 states:

Hypothesis 6 (H6): Fear of terrorism increases Islamophobic attitudes

10.9 Intergroup Contact and Islamophobic Attitudes

Intergroup contact is theorized to reduce negative outgroup perceptions and attitudes by increasing knowledge, empathy and identification with outgroup members, which can subsequently lead to reappraisals of ingroup-outgroup perceptions. (Pettigrew, 1997; Pettigrew, 1998) In line with these assumptions, various research findings demonstrate that (positive) intergroup contact can reduce negative outgroup perceptions/attitudes. (Hutchison & Rosenthal, 2011; Abrams et al., 2017; Bulut, 2016; Pew Research Center, 2018; von Sikorski et al., 2017) A group of researchers further showed that very positive

prior contact with Muslims mitigated the effects of fear of terrorism on Islamophobic attitudes. Derived from these findings the following two hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 7a (H7a): Prior (positive) experience with Muslims reduces Islamophobic attitudes.

Hypothesis 7b (H7b): Prior (positive) experience with Muslims moderates the effects of fear of terrorism on Islamophobic attitudes.

11 Methods

The following chapter explains the methodological approach: the research design, the stimuli, the pretest, quota sampling and the online experiment.

11.1 Research Design

To address the proposed hypotheses and research questions, an online experiment was carried out. Two factors were varied in newspaper articles dealing with terrorist incidents: proximity (personally and physically “close” vs. personally and physically “distant”) and victim exemplification (with victim exemplification vs. without victim exemplification). Consequently, a 2x2 between-subjects factorial design (2 factors with 2 levels) was applied, which also consisted of an additional control group. This design results in five groups:

- 1) Control group (“ordinary” news articles)
- 2) News article about a “close” terrorist act with victim exemplification
- 3) News article about a “close” terrorist act without victim exemplification
- 4) News article about a “distant” terrorist act with victim exemplification
- 5) News article about a “distant” terrorist act without victim exemplification

The control group received two articles about different topics, unrelated to terroristic incidents. The second group received two newspaper articles dealing with terrorist acts carried out in Austria with victim exemplification, while the third group received the same articles but without victim exemplification. Group four and five received the same articles, but with the important difference that the places and affected people of the terroristic incidents were all changed to take place in India (e.g. only switching the names/titles of the localities and of the persons mentioned in the articles, while everything else remained the same). Therefore, group four received articles about terroristic incidents taking place in India with victim exemplification, while the fifth group received articles about the same Indian terrorist acts but without victim exemplification. The construction of the stimuli will be further explained in the next chapter.

11.2 Stimulus Material

In each group the participants had to read two news articles, thus 10 news articles were constructed as stimuli.

The stimuli for the control group (i.e., group 1) consisted of two existing news articles (Der Standard, 2017; Derka, 2017), which did not contain any references to terrorism whatsoever. One article dealt with oil pollution and its effects on fishes, while the other was about dog education/training. Both were only slightly modified (i.e., design and layout) to resemble the other stimuli used in the experiment.

For the experimental conditions (i.e., groups 2-5) a wide range of existing news articles covering terroristic incidents were used as a reference point, to construct the fictional reports about Islamist terrorism. Austria is a small country and an Islamist terror attack resulting in fatalities would be intensively covered in the Austrian media sphere (i.e., most people would have heard of such attack). Hence, it was decided, that the manufactured news articles would only cover terror attacks, resulting in no fatalities. Due to the 2x2 between-subjects design (see Research Design, Chapter 11.1), it was only necessary to create two different articles dealing with terrorism, which were then modified to fit the aforementioned factors (e.g., proximity: close vs. distant, victim exemplification: with victim exemplification vs. without victim exemplification).

One of the manufactured articles reported about a terroristic incident on a train: An Islamist (with suspected ties to the IS) attacked and severely hurt a woman with a knife. Three other passengers (one of them the husband of the victim) could subdue the perpetrator but were slightly hurt in the process. The other manufactured article covered an attempted terror attack in front of a popular tourist spot: A young mother and her child were deliberately almost run over by a car. The driver then left his vehicle, knife in hand, but was quickly overpowered by the local police. On a piece of paper found in the vehicle, the perpetrator professed his allegiance to the Islamic State (which the article states would be further investigated).

To adjust these two articles according to the factor “proximity” meant, that these fictional incidents took place either in Austria or India (i.e., close vs. distant). Thus, all the names of the people and places were adapted and accordingly modified, while the rest of the text remained unchanged. Statements of the victims (i.e., the husband of the severely wounded

woman and the mother who almost got hit by the car) were included with direct quotations, to adapt these articles for the factor “victim exemplification” (with victim exemplification vs. without victim exemplification). The victim accounts were describing their experiences and emotions in these incidents, meaning that no crucial additional information was revealed (i.e., all experimental groups received the same base information about the events). Each article consisted of a headline, title and (sub-)headings, with the headline summarizing in a few words the most important features of the article. In the experimental conditions, the headline additionally named the general location (i.e., country and place) where the incidents happened. Title and subheadings were included, which revealed (for the experimental conditions) the exact location and contained cues that the perpetrators of these incidents were IS-/Islamist terrorists. For the experimental conditions with victim exemplification, victim statements (i.e., quotations) from the text were also included in the subheadings.

The layout and general design of all articles were adapted to make it seem like they were published on the webpages of either “Kurier” (an Austrian daily quality newspaper) or in the “Kronen Zeitung” (an Austrian daily tabloid newspaper). Each group (i.e., including the control group) therefore received one article from “Kurier” and one from “Kronen Zeitung”.

11.3 Pretest of Stimulus Material

To ensure that the stimuli used in the following online experiment exhibited adequate validity, a pretest was conducted.

In order to do so an online experiment was carried out, consisting of five sections: 1) sociodemographic questions (e.g., sex, age, education level), 2) the stimuli (i.e. two newspaper articles per group), 3) questions concerning the stimuli (e.g., journalistic quality, credibility, authenticity) 4) questions probing if the manipulation of the stimuli was successful³ (e.g., for proximity - if the reported incidents happened in Austria; for victim exemplification – if the reported incidents contained victim accounts).

³ Only the experimental conditions (i.e., groups 2-5, n=41) received these questions

The sociodemographic questions were asked at the beginning of the survey, to be able to screen-out participants. Participants that were not living in Austria were excluded, because otherwise the factor proximity would be irrelevant. Due to the topic of this study, another exclusion criterion was the religion of the participants. Participants of Islamic faith were excluded since the main study will also cover Islamophobic attitudes and differing answers would be expected. To thoroughly assess the effects of terrorism news coverage on Muslim participants, a bigger sample size would be needed.

Identically to the following “main” online-experiment, a 2x2 between-subjects factorial design (plus an additional control group) was applied. The pretest was built with Unipark, EFS-Survey (Questback, 2018) and was carried out between the 27th to 31st of July 2018. The link to the pretest was distributed through personal contacts/networks, via e-Mails, posts on social media/forums and private messages.

11.3.1 Results of the Pretest

From 107, a total of 52 participants completed the survey (completion rate: 50.47%) with 14 men (26.9%) and 38 women (73.1%). The participants were between 21 and 60 years old ($M = 30.35$, $SD = 9.59$), of which 5 (5.8%) had attended a vocational school, 14 (26.9%) held a secondary school/high school diploma and 35 (67.3%) of the participants already attained a university diploma. This sample therefore was predominantly female, a lot younger and better educated when compared to the general population of Austria (Statistik Austria, 2017a; Statistik Austria, 2017b). Group 1 (control group) consisted of 11 (21.2%), Group 2 (close with victim exemplification) of 11 (21.2%), Group 3 (close without victim exemplification) of 12 (23.1%), Group 4 (distant with victim exemplification) of 10 (19.2%) and Group 5 (distant without victim exemplification) of 8 (15.4%) participants. Since participants were randomly assigned to one of the five experimental conditions, differences in group sizes occurred. After creating indices, and 2 dummy variables (for the two factors: proximity and victim exemplification) two-way ANOVAs and one-way ANOVAs were conducted to validate the stimuli. All questions were rated on 7-point Likert scales.

Testing both factors (i.e., proximity and victim exemplification) with a two-way ANOVA ($n=41$, excluding control group) on the question if the reported incidents happened in

Austria, a highly significant main effect was found for proximity (close: $M = 6.78$, $SD = 0.67$ vs. distant: $M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.82$), $F(1,37) = 574.223$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .939$. This means, that the stimuli were successfully created for the factor “proximity”. Using the same test on the question if the reported incidents included statements of the victims a highly significant main effect was found for exemplification (with victim exemplification: $M = 6.41$, $SD = 0.88$ vs. without exemplification: $M = 1.70$, $SD = 1.24$), $F(1,37) = 189.574$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .837$.

Hence, it can be also concluded that the stimuli for the second factor “exemplification” was successfully constructed. No significant differences were found between groups employing a two-way ANOVA on the question if the articles reported about an attempted terror attack carried out by an Islamist who has connections to the IS. Consequently, it can be assumed that the important requirement of news articles covering Islamist terrorist acts was also met (except for the control group all the articles used as stimuli should cover Islamist terrorist incidents).

No significant main effects were found conducting two-way ANOVAs (factors: proximity and victim exemplification) for the following variables asking participants to rate the articles for “journalistic quality”, “authenticity”, “credibility”, “objectivity”, “emotionality”⁴ and “how interesting” they found the news reports. For all conducted two-way ANOVAs described in this chapter, no significant interactions between the two factors were found.

The ratings of the articles were also separately examined for each group using one-way ANOVAs with post-hoc Gabriel tests. These results are summarized in Table 1. The findings revealed significant differences between groups ($F(4,47) = 3.663$, $p = .011$), but only for the dependent variable “emotionality”. Gabriel post-hoc tests showed that the groups with exemplification (i.e., “close” with victim exemplification: $M = 6.00$, $SD = 1.10$, $p = .014$ and “distant” with victim exemplification: $M = 5.90$, $SD = 1.66$, $p = .027$) differed significantly from the control group ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.56$). This should however not be problematic since the other experimental groups did not significantly differ from the control

⁴ close to significant for the factor exemplification - with victim exemplification: $M = 5.95$, $SD = 1.36$, vs. without victim exemplification: $M = 5.00$, $SD = 1.72$, $F(1,37) = 3.769$, $p = .060$, $\eta_p^2 = .092$

group or between the experimental conditions. After the successful pre-test the questionnaire was built while the stimuli were only slightly modified.

Table 1: Article ratings, one-way ANOVAs with post-hoc Gabriel tests (N=52)

	control group <i>n</i> =11	Close-Ex <i>n</i> =11	Close-No <i>n</i> =12	Distant-Ex <i>n</i> =10	Distant-No <i>n</i> =8
journalistic quality	3.00	3.45	3.75	3.70	3.63
authenticity	4.36	5.27	5.33	4.60	5.75
credibility	3.82	4.91	4.92	4.40	5.50
objectivity	4.36	3.73	4.42	4.20	4.25
emotionality*	3.73^a	6.00^b	5.08^{ab}	5.90^b	4.88^{ab}
how interesting	3.55	4.45	5.25	4.50	4.63

Note: ANOVA: analysis of variance. Entries are means derived from one-way ANOVAs (with post-hoc Gabriel test),

* symbolizes significant group differences tested with ANOVA (but not how they differ from each other)

a/b/ab: Groups who share the same letter don't have significant differences, groups with different letters differ significantly from each other ($p \leq .05$).

11.4 Quotas for the Online-Experiment

In order to raise the external validity of the online-experiment (i.e., increase the generalizability of the results), the method of quota sampling was employed. The quotas were computed to be representative of the general population of Austria aged between 16 and 69 years⁵ (i.e., $N= 6.19$ million people from 8,670,690 people). (Statistik Austria, 2017a; Statistik Austria, 2017b)

A predicted sample size ($n=200$ participants) was used to be able to impute the quotas into the online-survey tool. (Questback, 2018) The quotas for the following characteristics were calculated: age, gender and education level (the calculated quotas are summarized in Table 2). Those characteristics were not jointly calculated, but independent from each other. The difference in population sizes for education, compared to age and gender, is due to the available population statistics (Statistik Austria, 2017a; Statistik Austria, 2017b) using different parameters. Statistics for the highest completed level of education were depicted in age brackets too wide to correspond with the calculated age quotas; consequently, the

⁵ To be able to impute the age quota, a “cutoff” point at 69 years was selected (therefore the main focus was to recruit participants aged between 16 to 69 years old – persons older than 60 years were still able to participate, complete the survey and were also included in the results).

whole accessible dataset ($N=7,429,137$) was used (i.e., highest education level for every Austrian who is older than 15 years). The acquired education level was condensed (in order to simplify the data collection phase) into the following three categories: 1) “lower” (i.e., completed apprenticeship/vocational training, compulsory education); 2) “middle” (i.e., vocational/secondary school with/or high school diploma) and 3) “higher” (i.e., academic/university degree) acquired education level.

Table 2: Calculated quotas (predicted sample size: $n=200$)

age [years]	16 – 29	30 – 39	40 – 49	50 – 59	60 – 69
$N=6,182,150$	1,508,385	1,147,532	1,297,581	1,303,566	925,086
predicted	~24.4%	~18.6%	~21%	~21%	~15%
$n=200$	49	37	42	42	30
education level	„lower“ level	„middle“ level	„higher“ level		
$N=7,429,137$	5,404,522	1,085,947	938,668		
predicted	~73%	~14.6%	~12.6%		
$n=200$	146	29	25		
gender (for 16-69 years)	female	male			
$N=6,182,150$	3,088,867	3,093,283			
predicted	~50%	~50%			
$n=200$	100	100			

Note: based on the population of Austria (Statistik Austria, 2017a; Statistik Austria, 2017b)

11.5 Questionnaire for the Main Study

The online-experiment was part of larger study, which included a variety of questions. This chapter will therefore briefly outline the broad structure, which is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: *Structure of the online experiment*

Informed Consent
Sociodemographic Variables (1/2)
• <i>gender</i> • <i>age</i> • <i>highest acquired education level</i> • <i>country of residence</i> • <i>religion</i>
Control Variables (1/2)
• <i>fearfulness</i> • <i>empathy</i> • <i>perspective-taking</i> • <i>filler questions</i>
Exposure to Stimuli (1/2)
Exposure to Stimuli (2/2)
Negative Affect
† Perceived Similarities and sympathy/empathy/transportation
Fear of Terrorism and personal risk estimates
Islamophobic Attitudes and stereotypical perceptions of Muslims
Support for specific political policies/actions, anger on specific groups/institutions
† Manipulation Check
Prior Experience with Muslims (moderator variable)
Control Variables (2/2) and Sociodemographic Variables (2/2)
• <i>frequency of contact with Muslims</i> • <i>previous victimization</i>
• <i>media consumption</i> • <i>political orientation</i> • <i>religiousness</i>
• <i>migration background</i> • <i>persons under 18 years in the household</i> • <i>citizenship</i>
Debriefing

Note: † participants in group 1 (i.e., control group) did not receive these questions

The first page informed participants that participation is voluntary and anonymous, all extracted data exclusively used for scientific purposes and handled strictly confidentially. This was followed by an introduction to the study with a warning that the presented newspaper articles could be emotionally unsettling/disturbing and that they could quit the study at any time. After acquiring *informed consent* from the participants, they received *the first part of the sociodemographic questions* to be able to assign them to their respective quota or screen them out (if the quota was full and/or screen-out criteria were met). The first part of the sociodemographic questions asked participants about their gender, age, highest acquired education level, country of residence⁶ and religion⁷. Next, participants

⁶ This question was used to screen-out participants who were not resident in Austria. (see Chapter 11.3)

⁷ This question was used to screen-out Muslim participants (see Chapter 11.3)

received questions about their fearfulness, empathy and perspective-taking (i.e., the *first part of control variables*), which were mixed with *filler questions* (to disguise intent and receive more “truthful” answers). Upon completion, participants were assigned to one of the five conditions (i.e., one control group, four experimental conditions), exposing them to the different news articles (i.e., stimuli). Exposure was forced, meaning that each participant had to read two newspaper articles for at least 20 seconds per article before moving on (i.e., the button to continue to the “next” page was not visible for 20 seconds). This was followed by questions probing participants’ negative affect. Afterwards, the participants in the experimental conditions were asked about their *perceived similarities with the victims*⁸ (and questions assessing sympathy/empathy/transportation). Next, all participants (including the control group) received questions about their *fear of terrorism* and their *personal risk estimates of terrorism in Austria*. This was followed by questions assessing stereotypical perceptions of Muslims and *Islamophobic attitudes*. Afterwards participants were asked about support for specific political policies/actions and anger on certain groups/institutions. Then, participants in the experimental conditions (i.e., excluding the control group⁸) received questions for the later conducted *manipulation check*. After that, all participants received questions regarding their quality of *prior experience with Muslims* (i.e., *moderator variable*). Finally, participants were asked about their *frequency of contact* with Muslims, if they had been previous victims of violent crime, media consumption habits, political orientation, migration background, persons under 18 in the household and religiousness (i.e., the *second part of the control- and sociodemographic variables*). Upon completion of the survey, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation. All questions within each subset described here were randomized.

⁸ The participants of the control group did not receive these questions, as they did not read terrorism newspaper articles.

11.6 Participants and Procedure

A total of 543 participants started the online-experiment, of which 203 (37.38%) also completed it. The lower completion rate of the online-experiment in comparison to the pretest might be because of the quotas in use (exclusion of participants who did not fit the quota) and the main study containing a lot more questions than the pretest (i.e., the longer duration could have increased the dropout rate). Two participants had to be retroactively excluded, as they were younger than 16 years old (in this case written consent from their parents would have been required). This step lowered the completion rate to 37.02%. The main study was conducted from September 2018 to January 2019. The link to the online-experiment was distributed through personal contacts, networks, online via e-Mail, social media groups/forums and messaging services.

During the data collection phase, the online-quotas were closely monitored. The recruitment of participants with a “lower” education level proved to be especially difficult. The author of this study expected this (as she mainly knows individuals belonging to the “middle” or “higher” education levels) and thus tried from the start to actively recruit individuals with a “lower” education level first. Despite these efforts, within the first few weeks, the “high” education level quota was almost full and the “middle” education level quota was also filling up fast. These circumstances would be acceptable if the “better” (i.e., “middle” and “high” education level) educated participants would be evenly distributed across age and gender. Since most initial participants were predominantly younger and “better” educated, corresponding with the social environment of the author of this thesis, steps were taken to avoid selection bias. It was therefore decided to “block” certain groups instead of solely relying on the calculated quotas (e.g., only participants under 30 years old who don’t have an academic/university degree can from then on participate in this study). The quota-based sampling method undoubtedly extended the data collection phase. When January approached, mostly younger participants with a “lower” education level were still needed to fill up the quotas.

Since the data collection phase already took quite long, it was decided to “open up” the quotas for “middle” and “higher” education level. Due to the calculation of the quota for the education levels being based on the whole population of Austria (aged 15 years and older) – this step hopefully did not skew results in a great way, since the sample “focused” on 16 to 69 year-olds, with younger generations being (according to Statistik Austria (2017a; 2017b)) better educated compared to “older” generations (e.g., ~86% of Austrians

aged 64 years and older can be grouped in the “lower” education bracket – which is 13% percent higher than the population average of 73%) and persons under 16 years old not being included in the experiment (e.g., at 15 years old it is also hardly possible to attain a “middle” or “higher” education level). As a result of “opening” the quotas, it was possible to recruit the remaining participants through a university course in which the author of this study tutored students.

In total 101 men (~50.2%) and 100 women (~49.8%) completed the online-experiment (i.e., meeting the set gender quota of 50% men and 50% women). The age quota was also met (i.e., ~24.4% of the participants were between the ages of 16-29, ~18.4% were between 30-39, ~20.9% were between 40-49, ~21.4% were between 50-59 and ~14.9% were older than 60 years) with the mean age being 43.03 years and a standard deviation of 14.936 years. Looking at the highest completed educational levels: 1) 98 participants (~48.8%) acquired a “lower”; 2) 54 participants (~26.9%) a “middle” and 3) 49 (24.4%) a “higher” education level. Table 4 compares the obtained sample to the calculated quotas, displaying that except for education level, the quotas were reached. Consequently, also showing that the participants of the online-experiment were better educated when compared to the general population of Austria.

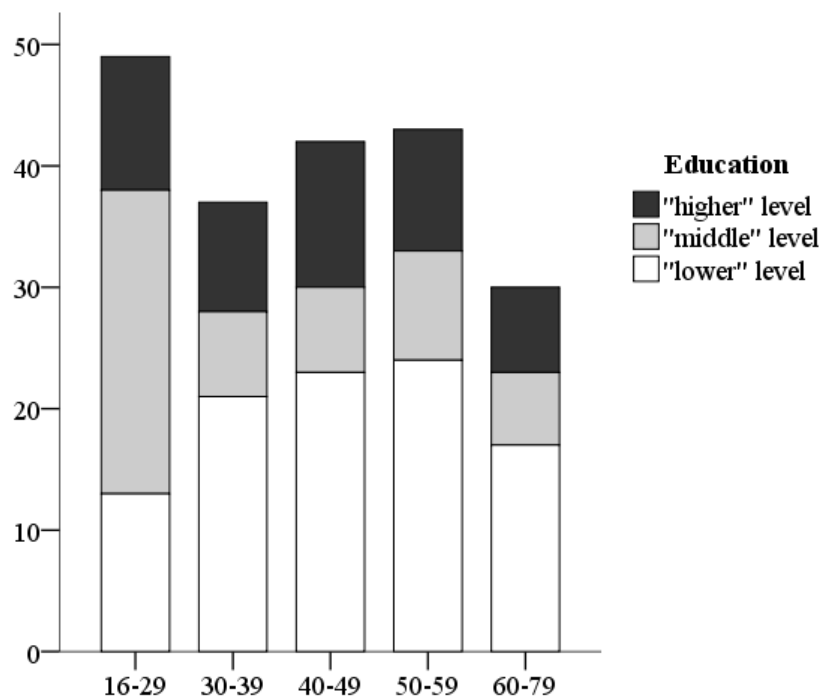
Table 4: Comparing the calculated quotas ($n=200$) to the obtained sample ($N=201$)

age [years]	16 – 29	30 – 39	40 – 49	50 – 59	60 – 78
<i>c. quota $n=200$</i>	49 (~24.4%)	37 (~18.6%)	42 (~21%)	42 (~21%)	30 (~15%)
<i>o. sample $N=201$</i>	49 (~24.4%)	37 (~18.4%)	42 (~20.9%)	43 (~21.4%)	30 (~14.9%)
education level	„lower“ level		„middle“ level		„higher“ level
<i>c. quota $n=200$</i>	146 (~73%)		29 (~14.6%)		25 (~12.6%)
<i>o. sample $N=201$</i>	98 (~48.8%)		54 (~26.9%)		49 (~24.4%)
gender	female		male		
<i>c. quota $n=200$</i>	100 (~50%)		100 (~50%)		
<i>o. sample $N=201$</i>	100 (~49.8%)		101 (~50.2%)		

A chi-square test demonstrated that gender and age ($\chi^2(4) = 4.262, p = .372$, *Cramer's V* = .146) as well as gender and education level ($\chi^2(2) = 0.253, p = .881$, *Cramer's V* = .035) were not associated (i.e., not connected and therefore evenly distributed). Age and education level however were associated ($\chi^2(8) = 21.226, p = .007$, *Cramer's V* = .325).

Figure 3 displays how age and education level are associated. As previously discussed, this association was expected. Compared to the rest of the sample, the youngest participants (i.e., 16-29 year-olds) were “better” educated (i.e., fewer participants with “lower” education level and more participants with “middle” education level), than the other, older participants.

Figure 3: age categories with education level (N=201)



11.7 Randomization and Randomization Checks

The participants were randomly assigned to five conditions: The first group (i.e., control group) consisted of 43 (21.4%), the second (i.e., close with victim exemplification) of 42 (20.9%), the third (i.e., close without victim exemplification) of 38 (18.9%), the fourth (i.e., distant with victim exemplification) of 39 (19.4%) and the fifth (i.e., distant without victim exemplification) of 39 (19.4%) participants.

To determine whether randomization was successful, a post-hoc randomization check using chi-square tests, one-way ANOVAs and (when more than 20% of the cells had less than 5 expected cases) Fisher’s exact test. Indices were inspected (with reliability analyses) and calculated for “trait fearfulness”, “trait empathy”, “trait perspective taking” and “prior experience with Muslims” (see table 5).

Table 5: Reliability analyses, measure of central tendencies for Randomization Check

Indices	Cronbach's α	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
trait fearfulness (<i>N</i> =201)	.824	5	2.81	1.29
trait empathy (<i>N</i> =201)	.782	3	5.55	1.12
trait perspective taking (<i>N</i> =201)	.775	3	5.42	1.11
prior experience with Muslims (<i>N</i> =201)	.973	2	4.61	1.71

The following variables were examined: *age* (using the grouped variable: “16-29”, “30-39”, “40-49”, “50-59”, “60-78”), *gender*, *education level* (grouped into three categories – “lower”, “middle”, “higher” education level), *migration background* (variable with three categories, 1: oneself born in a non-German speaking country, 2: one parent born in a non-German speaking country, 3: neither parent nor oneself born in a non-German speaking country), *political orientation* (ranging from 0 – “left” to 10 – “right”), *religiousness* (ranging from 0 – “not religious” to 10 – “very religious”), *trait fearfulness*⁹ (index ranging from 1 “low” to 7 “high”), *trait empathy*¹⁰ (index ranging from 1 “low” to 7 “high”), *trait perspective taking*¹¹ (index ranging from 1 “low” to 7 “high”), *frequency of contact with Muslims* (ranging from 1 – “no” contact to 7 “very often”), *prior experience with Muslims*¹² (index ranging from 1 – “negative” to 7 – “positive”), *previous victim of violent crime* (ranging from 1 – “never” to 7 – “multiple times”), *duration* (time to complete survey – measured in seconds), *days since survey start* (days passed since the start of the survey).

No significant differences were found for *age* ($\chi^2(16) = 6.225, p = .985$), *gender* ($\chi^2(4) = 2.002, p = .735$), *education level* ($\chi^2(8) = 4.122, p = .846$), *migration background* ($\chi^2(8) = 11.080, p = .197$, Fisher's Exact Test $p = .133$), *political orientation* ($F(4,196) = 1.344, p = .255$), *religiousness* ($F(4,196) = 0.096, p = .984$), *trait fearfulness* ($F(4,196) = 0.604, p = .662$), *trait empathy*¹³ ($F(4,196) = 2.246, p = .065$), *trait perspective taking* ($F(4,196) = .902, p = .464$), *frequency of contact with Muslims* ($F(4,196) = 0.352, p = .843$), *prior*

⁹ Index consisting of five items, derived from the fearfulness subscale of the EAS Temperament Survey (Buss & Plomin, 1984)

¹⁰ Index consisting of three items, derived from the “empathic concern” subscale of the IRI (Davis, 1980)

¹¹ Index consisting of three items, derived from the “perspective taking” subscale of the IRI (Davis, 1980)

¹² Index consisting of two items – which will be further elaborated in Chapter 12.1

¹³ Close to significant – inspection with Gabriel post-hoc test revealed no significant differences between groups.

experience with Muslims ($F(4,196) = 1.186, p = .318$), *previous victim of violent crime* ($F(4,196) = 0.352, p = .842$), *duration*¹⁴ ($F(4,183) = 0.738, p = .567$), *days since survey start* ($F(4,196) = 0.222, p = .926$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the five groups did not differ significantly on important characteristics (of the participants), indicating that randomization was successful.

11.8 Manipulation Check

Nearing the end of the online-experiment, the participants were exposed to the questions for the manipulation check. This particular order was established to not reveal too much about the study to the participants and as a consequence be able to get more reliable data. For the purpose of performing manipulation checks, the following indices were inspected and created, conducting reliability analyses to verify their internal consistency (the indices are summarized in table 6). Each index consisted of two statements, which the participants could rate (except for index MC_questions_articles, where participants had to correctly identify four features of the article) on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = “I do not agree at all” to 7 = “I agree entirely”). The manipulation check was only established for participants in the experimental conditions (groups 2-5: $n=158$; factor *proximity* – close: $n=80$, distant: $n=78$; factor *victim exemplification* – with victim exemplification: $n=81$, without victim exemplification: $n=77$), because the stimulus for the control group (group 1: $n=43$) had already been sufficiently validated in the pretest (furthermore, asking respondents of the control group questions about an article they did not read would be futile).

¹⁴ Thirteen Participants did not complete the questionnaire in one sitting or were interrupted – therefore their time spent could not be measured and was instead registered as missing values.

Table 6: Reliability analyses, measure of central tendencies for Manipulation Check

Indices	Cronbach's α	Items	M	SD
MC_close (factor proximity $n=158$)	.947	2	3.94	2.70
MC_distant (factor proximity $n=158$)	.942	2	3.58	2.74
MC_victim (factor v. exemplification $n=158$)	.888	2	3.65	2.47
MC_IS_islamist_terror ($n=158$)*	.301	2	5.86	1.35
MC_emotionality ($n=158$)	.813	2	5.05	1.71
MC_questions_articles ¹⁵ ($n=158$)	.625	4	3.42	0.94

*MC_IS_islamist_terror was not used due to a low Cronbach's α

To assess the factor *proximity* the indices MC_close (Cronbach's $\alpha = .947$) and MC_distant (Cronbach's $\alpha = .942$) were investigated. The index MC_close consisted of two statements asking participants to rate whether the reported incidents were domestic/happened in Austria - likewise, the index MC_distant also contained two statements about whether the incidents happened abroad/in India. A two-way ANOVA, carried out with dummy coded variables (for the factors *proximity* and *victim exemplification*), showed a highly significant main effect on MC_local for the factor *proximity* (close: $M = 6.14$, $SD = 1.61$ vs. distant: $M = 1.69$, $SD = 1.41$), $F(1,154) = 344.607$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .691$. Correspondingly a highly significant main effect (following the same procedure) was found for MC_distant, again for the factor *proximity* (close: $M = 1.19$, $SD = 0.63$ vs. distant: $M = 6.03$, $SD = 1.69$), $F(1,154) = 578.264$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .790$. According to these results it can be concluded, that the experimental manipulation for the factor *proximity* was successful.

For the examination of the factor *victim exemplification* the index MC_victim (Cronbach's $\alpha = .888$), consisting of two statements was inspected. One statement asked participants to rate whether the victims themselves were speaking up in the article and the other statement asked to rate if the victims were retelling the events from their perspective. Again, a two-way ANOVA with dummy coded variables (for the factors *proximity* and *victim exemplification*) was employed, which found in contrast to the pretest a significant (but

¹⁵ The Index MC_questions_articles asked participants to correctly identify four specific details (locations and weapons used), which were described in the stimulus material. Two questions were asked with two answers each being correct. Each possible correct answer was separately measured in the dataset (i.e., the index therefore consists of 4 “items”).

small) interaction for *proximity* and *victim exemplification* ($F(1,154) = 4.519, p = .035, \eta_p^2 = .029$) on the index MC_victim. Due to *partial eta squared* being very small (i.e., $\eta_p^2 = .029$), this interaction effect is negligible. A highly significant main effect for the factor *victim exemplification* on the index MC_victim was found (with victim exemplification: $M = 5.46, SD = 1.76$ vs. without victim exemplification: $M = 1.74, SD = 1.47$), $F(1,154) = 208.928, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .576$. It can therefore be similarly assumed that the experimental manipulation for the *factor exemplification* was effective.

To assess whether the experimental manipulation of the perpetrators having an *Islamist/IS background* was successful, participants were asked to rate the following two statements: “The newspaper articles reported about (attempted) terrorist attacks by the Islamic State” and “The newspaper articles mentioned that the perpetrators had an Islamist background”. The reliability analysis showed that combining these two statements into one index would result in too low internal consistency (*Cronbach's* $\alpha = .301$), therefore the two statements were separately instead of jointly investigated. Two-way ANOVAs with dummy coded variables (for *proximity* and *victim exemplification*) revealed no significant main or interaction effects for both statements.¹⁶ These results were as anticipated, since all the articles in the experimental conditions (i.e., groups 2-5) referenced an Islamist/IS background of the perpetrators. When comparing the total mean ratings of both statements: for attacks by the Islamic State ($M = 5.30, SD = 2.18$) and Islamist background ($M = 6.42, SD = 1.196$), it seems that the participants were less sure if the reported attacks were carried out by a member of the Islamic State. This could maybe be due to the articles only stating that “[...] propaganda material of the IS was found.” or “[...] that a document in the vehicle was found, in which the accused pledged his allegiance to the Islamic State.”, while also stating that these possible links would be further investigated (i.e., the articles only suggested possible links, but did not confirm them). This difference could also explain the low *Cronbach's* α . Nevertheless, it can be concluded that the Islamist/IS background of the perpetrators was sufficiently established for the experimental conditions.

To see how the *emotionality* of the stimuli was rated across the experimental conditions the index MC_emotionality (*Cronbach's* $\alpha = .813$) was investigated. This index consisted of

¹⁶ An almost significant (but small) main effect was found for the factor *proximity* (“close”: $M = 6.60, SD = 0.87$ vs “distant”: $M = 6.24, SD = 1.44$), on the second statement about Islamist background, $F(1,54) = 3.757, p = .054, \eta_p^2 = .024$.

two statements asking participants to rate if the news articles reported about the incidents in a dramatic/emotional way. The conducted two-way ANOVA with dummy coded variables revealed a highly significant main effect on MC_emotionality for the factor *victim exemplification* (with victim exemplification: $M = 5.54$, $SD = 1.52$ vs. without victim exemplification: $M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.75$), $F(1,154) = 14.646$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .087$. As expected, participants receiving an article with victim exemplification rated the articles as more emotional compared to the groups without victim exemplification. Thus, it should be taken into consideration, that the perceived emotionality of the news articles was rated significantly higher for articles containing victim exemplars, when examining exemplification effects.

Trying to gauge if the *participants* in the experimental conditions *read the news articles equally thorough* the index MC_questions_articles (Cronbach's $\alpha = .625$) was examined. This index consisted of two questions. The first question asked participants to correctly identify the weapons used (i.e., “knife” and “car”) during the incident and the second question asked them to identify the locations where the reported incidents took place (i.e., “in a train”, “in front of a tourist attraction”). One point was awarded for each correctly identified detail – participants could therefore reach a maximum of 4 points, if they correctly identified all 4 details (i.e., “knife”, “car”, “train”, “tourist attraction”). The two-way ANOVA with dummy coded variables showed no significant main or interaction effects for the factors *proximity* and *victim exemplification*.¹⁷ The average score (i.e., correctly identified details) of the participants was very high, indicating, that that the news articles were equally thoroughly read ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 0.940$).

In conclusion, it can be said that the manipulation checks for *proximity*, *victim exemplification*, *Islamist/IS background* was successful and that the stimuli were thoroughly read by the participants in the experimental conditions. The manipulation check for *emotionality* of the stimuli revealed that the news articles with victim exemplifiers were also rated as more emotional, which should be taken into consideration when examining exemplification effects.

¹⁷ An almost significant (but small) simple main effect was found for the factor *proximity* on the index MC_questions_articles (close: $M = 3.56$, $SD = 0.78$ vs distant: $M = 3.28$, $SD = 1.07$), $F(1,154) = 3.568$, $p = .061$, $\eta_p^2 = .023$.

12 Measures

This chapter describes the independent and dependent variables, which were used in the following statistical analyses.

12.1 Independent Variables

As already discussed, *proximity* and *victim exemplification* were experimentally manipulated. In the later conducted two-way ANOVA, the factor *proximity* therefore represents the first independent variable and the factor *victim exemplification* the second. Both variables were dichotomous, hence *proximity* and *victim exemplification* can be divided into two levels (i.e., proximity: close vs distant and victim exemplification: with victim exemplification vs without victim exemplification). The interaction term of both factors is automatically constructed in the conducted two-way ANOVAs and represents the third independent variable (i.e., *proximity x victim exemplification*). By the application of the 2x2 between-subjects factorial design (including the control group) participants were randomly assigned to one of the five groups (further elaborated in Chapter 11.1 Research Design). When the groups are dummy-coded in order to conduct further statistical analyses, each dummy-coded variable ($k-1$) also represents an independent variable.

Another independent variable is *prior experience with Muslims* (serving as the moderator variable), assessing participants' prior quality of contact with Muslims. The items for *prior experience with Muslims* were derived from von Sikorski et al., (2017), and Voci and Hewstone (2003). It was measured with two items, asking participants to rate the following question "How would you rate your personal contact with Muslims thus far?" on two different scales (both 7 point-Likert scales): one ranging from 1 = "negative" to 7 = "positive", while the other ranged from 1 = "unpleasant" to 7 = "pleasant". Both items were combined into an average index ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 1.71$, *Cronbach's* $\alpha = .973$), indicating that the participants' prior experience with Muslims was on average more positive than negative.

The measure *frequency of contact with Muslims* was also derived from von Sikorski et al., (2017), and Voci and Hewstone (2003), serving as the control Variable for the later conducted moderation analysis. It was measured with one question, asking participants how frequently they have contact with Muslims (i.e., 7 point-Likert scale ranging from 1 =

“never” to 7 = “very frequently”). The mean rating reveals, that the participants had on average more frequent contact with Muslims ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.97$).

12.2 Dependent Variables

The dependent variables were all measured on 7-point Likert scales (labelling only the polar endpoints) all ranging from negatively to positively connotated.

Perceived similarities with victims contained five items and measured participants’ perceived similarities with the victims in the newspaper articles. Three items were derived and adapted from the Empathy Response Scale (Campbell & Babrow, 2004), subscale identification and emotional arousal: “While reading the newspaper articles I thought that I am not much different from the described victims“, “While reading the newspaper articles I thought that the described victims are similar to me”, “While reading the newspaper articles, I felt similar feelings as expressed by the described victims”. Participants could rate these statements from 1 = “I do not agree at all” to 7 = “I agree entirely”. Additionally, two items were adapted from Gordijn, Wigboldus, & Yzerbyt (2001): “How high do you perceive the similarity between yourself and the victims of the reported terrorist attack?” (scale ranging from 1 = “not high at all” to 7 “very high”) and “When you think about your own life, how many similarities do you see between yourself and the victims depicted?” (scale ranging from 1 = “none” to 7 = “very many”). A conducted exploratory factor analysis shows that this index is unidimensional (Eigenvalue for the factor > 1, rotated with Oblimin algorithm with Kaiser correction, $KMO = .861$, Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2(10) = 638.101$, $p < .01$), explained variance = 77.67%), therefore the five items were combined into an average index ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.88$, *Cronbach’s α* = .927). Due to the fact, that only participants in the experimental conditions (i.e., group 2-5, $n=158$) read articles with victims present – these questions probing the *perceived similarities* were omitted from the control group.

Fear of terrorism was assessed with ten items. Three items were derived from Matthes et al., (2019)¹⁸: “I fear that a terrorist attack could occur near me”, “I fear that I could be directly affected by a terrorist attack”, “I am very concerned that I could be the victim of

¹⁸ Their measurement for fear of terrorism was based on research conducted by Crowson, Debacker and Thoma (2006)

an Islamist terrorist attack”. Four items were used from the subscale “Feelings” of the Anticipatory Traumatic Reaction scale (Hopwood, Schutte, & Loi, 2017): “The possibility of an event like this affecting my family or me makes me angry”, “I feel frightened that something similar to this event may happen to me or to people I care about”, “I feel concerned that an event like this will affect my family or me in the future”, “I feel horrified that a similar type of event could affect me or those I care about in the future”. Adapted from Ferraro’s (1995) measure for constrained/avoidance behavior were the following three items: “I avoid public places with large crowds, due to potential terrorist attacks”, “I avoid public transport like the subway, because I’m afraid of possible terrorist attacks” and “I avoid going to major events, because I’m afraid of possible terrorist attacks”. All ten items could be rated on a scale ranging from 1 = “I do not agree at all” to 7 = “I agree entirely”. Two factors were revealed through factor analysis (Eigenvalue for the factor > 1, rotated with Oblimin algorithm with Kaiser correction, $KMO = .911$, Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2(45) = 1948.105$, $p < .01$), therefore fear of terrorism was divided into two (average) indices. One index was named *avoidance behavior* (explained variance = 13.84%, factor loadings from .857 to .939) and consisted of the three items ($M = 1.92$, $SD = 1.39$, *Cronbach’s* $\alpha = .903$) adapted from Ferraro (1995). The second index was labelled *fear of terror*¹⁹ (explained variance = 65.2%, factor loadings from .623 to .959) and consisted of the other seven items ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.77$, *Cronbach’s* $\alpha = .942$).

Islamophobic attitudes were gauged using five items (with only minor adaptations made) developed by Schmuck et al., (2018)²⁰: “The religion of Islam supports acts of violence”, “Islam is a hostile religion”, “Islam promotes violence against non-believers”, “Too many Muslims harm Austria” and “The share of Muslims in Austria is too high”. Participants could rate these five statements on a scale ranging from 1 = “I do not agree at all” to 7 = “I agree entirely”. The exploratory factor analysis shows that this index is unidimensional (Eigenvalue for the factor > 1, rotated with Oblimin algorithm with Kaiser correction, $KMO = .845$, Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2(10) = 1138.144$, $p < .01$), explained variance =

¹⁹ The index was labelled *fear of terror* to be able to differentiate this factor from the general construct *fear of terrorism*.

²⁰ Their developed items were based on the work of Lee, Gibbons, Thompson and Timani (2009) and Park, Felix and Lee (2007)

82.75%), so the five items were combined into an (average) index ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.848$, *Cronbach's $\alpha = .947$*).

In Table 7 the reliability analyses for the calculated indices, concerning independent, dependent and control variables are summarized.

Table 7: Reliability analyses, measures of central tendencies for the independent, dependent and control variables

Indices	<i>Cronbach's α</i>	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Prior positive contact with Muslims ($N=201$)	.973	2	4.61	1.71
Frequency of contact with Muslim ($N=201$)	-	1	4.41	1.97
Perceived Similarities ($n=158$) ^a	.927	5	3.67	1.88
Fear of Terror ($N=201$) ^b	.942	7	3.24	1.77
Avoidance Behaviour ($N=201$) ^b	.903	3	1.92	1.39
Islamophobic Attitudes ($N=201$)	.947	5	3.52	1.85

^a only participants in the experimental conditions (i.e., group 2-5) received questions about perceived similarities

^b fear of terror and avoidance behavior both measure the construct: fear of terrorism.

13 Results

In this chapter, the results of the statistical analyses of the online-experiment are presented and discussed.

13.1 Statistical analyses for Hypotheses 1-3

The first three hypotheses were examined through two-way ANOVAs and linear regressions. To conduct the two-way ANOVAs, the two factors (i.e., *proximity* and *victim exemplification*) were appropriately dummy coded for the experimental conditions²¹ ($n=158$) and used as independent variables/factors. One factor represented *proximity* (close – group 2 and 3, $n=80$; vs distant – group 4 and 5, $n=78$), while the other factor represented *victim exemplification* (with victim exemplification – group 2 and 4, $n=81$; vs without victim exemplification – group 3 and 5, $n=77$). The linear regressions were conducted to examine each group separately, comparing the experimental groups ($n=158$) with the control group ($n=43$). Thus, the five groups were again dummy coded, which resulted in 4 ($k-1$) dummy variables, using the (omitted) control group as the reference group (i.e., each experimental group was compared to the control group).

13.1.1 Hypothesis 1: Proximity increases Fear of Terrorism

The first hypothesis proposed that news consumers will show higher levels of fear of terrorism, if the reported terroristic act is “close” to them. To test this hypothesis, two two-way ANOVAs and linear regressions were conducted using the two factors constituting fear of terrorism as dependent variables: 1) *fear of terror* and 2) *avoidance behavior*. The first conducted two-way ANOVA revealed no significant main effect for proximity on the dependent variable *fear of terror* (close: $M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.78$ vs. distant: $M = 3.13$, $SD = 1.65$), $F(1,154) = 2.728$, $p = .101$, $\eta_p^2 = .017$. Although not significant, the average *fear of terror* rating indicates, that participants reading articles about close terroristic incidents

²¹ The control group did not receive either article and was therefore not included in the two-way ANOVA analysis.

exhibited higher levels of *fear of terror* when compared to participants reading about distant terroristic acts.

The conducted regression using *fear of terror* as the dependent variable revealed group 2 ($\beta = 0.20, p = .022$; close with victim exemplification) as a significant and group 3 ($\beta = 0.15, p = .089$; close without victim exemplification) as an almost significant predictor for fear of terror. However, as the overall model was also not significant ($F(4,196) = 1.651, p = .163, R^2 = .033, R^2_{Adjusted} = .013$) no substantial conclusions can be drawn based on this statistical test (a larger sample size would probably be needed, to further assess the effects of proximity on *fear of terror*).

When examining *avoidance behavior* with the second two-way ANOVA, a significant main effect was found for proximity (close: $M = 2.28, SD = 1.66$ vs distant: $M = 1.70, SD = 1.15$), $F(1,154) = 6.481, p = .012, \eta_p^2 = .040$. Likewise, the calculated linear regression (using *avoidance behavior* as the dependent variable) showed that group 2 ($\beta = 0.19, p = .030$; close with victim exemplification) and group 3 ($\beta = 0.18, p = .044$; close without victim exemplification) were significant predictors for *avoidance behavior* ($F(4,196) = 2.562, p = .040, R^2 = .050, R^2_{Adjusted} = .030$). Proximity therefore only significantly affected *avoidance behavior*, while for *fear of terror* the results were not significant but seem to point in a similar direction. It can be said that proximity to a reported terroristic act can predict avoidance behavior with participants being more likely to exhibit avoidance behavior if they were exposed to a reported terroristic act “close” to them. Because only one factor constituting *fear of terrorism* (i.e., *avoidance behavior*) was significantly affected by proximity, hypothesis 1 (“News articles reporting about a close terrorist act will elicit higher levels of fear of terrorism in participants, than news articles reporting about distant acts.”) is only partially supported.

13.1.2 Hypothesis 2: Exemplification increases Fear of Terrorism

The second hypothesis postulated that news consumers will show higher levels of fear of terrorism, if they were exposed to a reported terroristic act containing victim exemplification. Examining again the conducted two-way ANOVA for *fear of terror*: No significant main effect was found for *victim exemplification* (with victim exemplification: $M = 3.37, SD = 1.79$ vs. without victim exemplification: $M = 3.36, SD = 1.67$), $F(1,154) < 0.001, p = .985, \eta_p^2 < .001$. The regression showed that group 2 ($\beta = 0.20, p = .022$; close

with victim exemplification) would denote a significant predictor, while group 4 ($\beta = 0.05$, $p = .589$; distant with victim exemplification) was not significant. But as was previously explained in Hypothesis 1, because the regression model was not significant ($p = .163$), no substantial statements can be made based on this statistical test. Thus, it can be concluded that exemplification did not increase *fear of terror*. Similar results were found for the dependent variable *avoidance behavior*: the two-way ANOVA showed no significant main effect for *victim exemplification* (with victim exemplification: $M = 1.93$, $SD = 1.45$ vs. without victim exemplification: $M = 2.05$, $SD = 1.47$), $F(1,154) = 0.345$, $p = .558$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. Likewise, the performed regression showed that group 2 ($\beta = 0.19$, $p = .030$; close with victim exemplification) was a significant predictor, while group 4 ($\beta = -0.03$, $p = .751$; distant with victim exemplification) was not. The results indicate that *victim exemplification* had no effect on either factor (i.e., *fear of terror*; *avoidance behavior*) constituting *fear of terrorism*. Thus, hypothesis 2 has to be rejected, as victim exemplification did not increase participants' fear of terrorism.

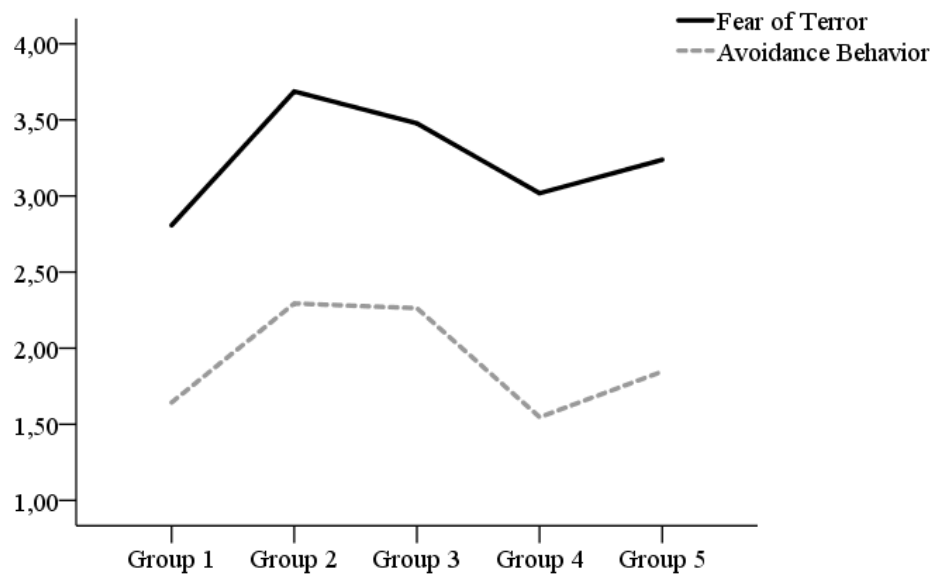
Table 8: Regressions to predict Fear of Terrorism (N=201)

Variables	fear of terrorism					
	<i>fear of terror</i>			<i>avoidance behavior</i>		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE (b)</i>	β	<i>b</i>	<i>SE (b)</i>	β
Group 2 (close_ex)	0.88	0.38	0.20*	0.65	0.30	0.19*
Group 3 (close_noex)	0.67	0.39	0.15 [†]	0.62	0.31	0.18*
Group 4 (distant_ex)	0.21	0.39	0.05	-0.10	0.30	-0.03
Group 5 (distant_noex)	0.43	0.39	0.10	0.20	0.30	0.06
Adj. R^2	.01			.03		
omnibus F	1.651			2.562*		

Note: group 1 (control group) was omitted and served as the reference group
N=201, [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

The results of the two conducted regression analyses (i.e., for *fear of terror* and for *avoidance behavior*), to answer hypotheses 1 and 2, are summarized in table 8. For clarity, the different Means for groups 1-5 for *fear of terror* and *avoidance behavior*, are also visualized through a line graph in figure 4.

Figure 4: Groups 1-5 (N=201), Means for Fear of Terrorism (i.e., fear of terror and avoidance behavior)



13.1.3 Hypothesis 3: Interaction between Proximity and Victim

Exemplification on Fear of Terrorism

Hypothesis 3 stated that news articles about close terrorist acts including victim exemplification arouses the highest levels of fear of terrorism – whereas articles reporting about distant acts without victim exemplification the lowest levels of fear of terrorism. This hypothesis was assessed with the two conducted two-way ANOVAs. The interaction effect of proximity and victim exemplification was not statistically significant for the dependent variables *fear of terror* ($F(1,154) = 0.610, p = .436, \eta_p^2 = .004$) and *avoidance behavior* ($F(1,154) = 0.520, p = .472, \eta_p^2 = .003$). The third hypothesis thus has to be rejected: It can be concluded that there was no statistically significant interaction effect for *proximity* and *victim exemplification* on fear of terrorism.

13.2 Statistical analyses for Hypotheses 4 and Research Question 1 and 2

Hypothesis 4 and the two research questions were assessed through a two-way ANOVA and a linear regression. The two-way ANOVA was conducted in the same way as before (2 factors: *proximity* and *victim exemplification*) and the linear regression was again used to examine each group individually. Due to the fact, that only the experimental groups (i.e.,

groups 2-5, $n=158$) received questions about their *perceived similarities* to the victims the procedure for the regression analysis differed slightly: four instead of five groups were dummy coded into 3 ($k-1$) dummy variables. The group with the lowest expected values for *perceived similarities*, group 5 (i.e., distant without victim exemplification), served as the (omitted) reference group (i.e., group 2-4: $n=119$, were compared to group 5: $n=39$).

13.2.1 Hypothesis 4: Proximity increases Perceived Similarities

The fourth hypothesis proposed that news consumers will perceive more similarities between themselves and the victims, if the reported terroristic act was close to them. The calculated two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for *proximity* on the dependent variable *perceived similarities* (close: $M = 4.12$, $SD = 1.98$ vs. distant: $M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.66$), $F(1,154) = 9.533$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .058$. Looking at the groups individually through a regression analysis, group 2 ($\beta = 0.32$, $p = .001$; close with victim exemplification) and group 3 ($\beta = 0.23$, $p = .018$; close without victim exemplification) were found to be significant predictors for *perceived similarities* ($F(3,154) = 4.150$, $p = .007$, $R^2 = .075$, $R^2_{Adjusted} = .057$). These results show that participants exposed to news articles about terroristic acts close to them significantly perceived themselves to be more similar to the victims (in the reports) when compared to participants reading distant articles. Therefore, hypothesis 4, stating that proximity increases perceived similarities with the victims, is supported.

13.2.2 Research Question 1: Does Victim Exemplification increase Perceived Similarities?

The first research question asked if news consumers will perceive themselves to be more similar to the victims, if the reported terroristic acts contained victim exemplification. The conducted two-way ANOVA revealed no significant main effect for *victim exemplification* on the dependent variable *perceived similarities* (with victim exemplification: $M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.89$ vs. without victim exemplification: $M = 3.42$, $SD = 1.86$), $F(1,154) = 2.603$, $p = .109$, $\eta_p^2 = .017$. Re-examining the regression analysis; group 2 ($\beta = 0.32$, $p = .001$; close with victim exemplification) and group 3 ($\beta = 0.23$, $p = .018$; close without victim exemplification) were found to be significant predictors for *perceived similarities*, while

group 4 ($\beta = 0.13, p = .171$; distant with exemplification) was not. It seems that participants in the victim exemplification condition on average perceived more similarities between themselves and the victims (when compared to group 3 and 5 – without victim exemplification), but as these differences were not statistically significant, the first research question can thus be answered. Victim exemplification did not increase perceived similarities with the victims.

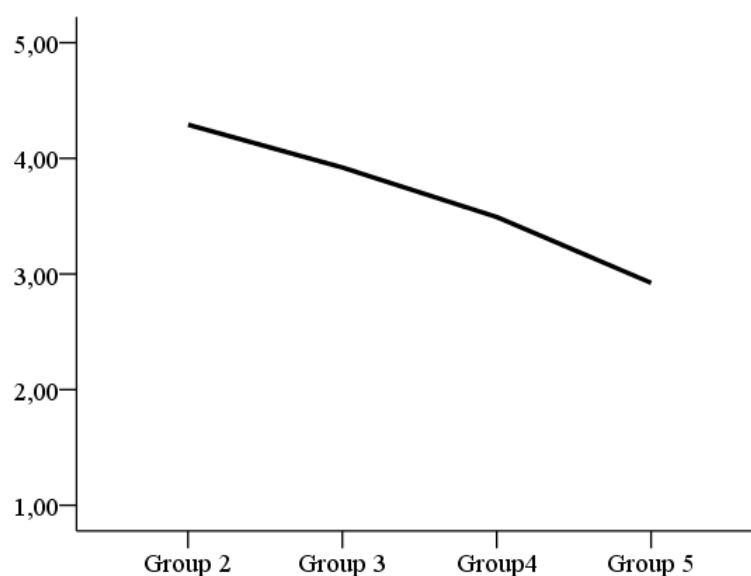
Table 9: Regression to predict Perceived Similarities ($n=158$)

Variables	Perceived Similarities		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE (b)</i>	β
Group 2 (close_ex)	1.37	0.41	0.32**
Group 3 (close_noex)	1.00	0.42	0.23*
Group 4 (distant_ex)	0.57	0.41	0.13
Adj. R^2	.06		
omnibus F	4.150**		

Note: group 5 (distant without victim exemplification) was omitted and served as the reference group, $n=158$, $^{\dagger}p < .10$, $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$

Table 9 displays the result for the regression analysis for *perceived similarities*. Table 9 and Figure 5 further show, that (although not statistically significant) articles with victim exemplification seemed to have also increased participants' perceived similarities.

Figure 5: Groups 2-5, Means for Perceived Similarities, $n=158$



13.2.3 Research Question 2: How do Proximity and Victim Exemplification interact in their effect on Perceived Similarities?

The conducted two-way ANOVA was used to answer the second research question. Since the interaction effect of *proximity* and *victim exemplification* was statistically not significant on the dependent variable *perceived similarities* ($F(1,154) = 0.118, p = .732, \eta_p^2 = .001$). Therefore, the research question can be answered, that there was no statistically significant interaction effect between proximity and victim exemplification.

13.3 Statistical analyses for Hypotheses 5-6

Hypotheses 5-6 were assessed with the PROCESS plug-in (Version 3.3) for SPSS to be able to examine mediation (i.e., using model 4) effects. (Hayes, 2017) Statistical inferences for indirect (i.e., mediation) effects are based on 95% confidence intervals, which were acquired through 10,000 bootstrap samples. The dummy coding process for the independent variable(s) (i.e., grouping variable of the different conditions; containing group 1-5) was automatically performed by the SPSS plug-in. Depended on which variables were entered into the regression models, either four or five groups were compared. When the variable *perceived similarities* was investigated, only the four groups in the experimental conditions ($n=158$) could be examined²². In this case group 5 (distant without victim exemplification) served as the reference group and was omitted. If *perceived similarities* was not assessed, then the participants in the experimental conditions were compared with the control group, serving as the (omitted) reference group.

13.3.1 Hypothesis 5: Perceived Similarities increases Fear of Terrorism

The fifth hypothesis stated that the more similarities the participants perceived between themselves and the victims (of the reported attacks), the more fear of terrorism they will exhibit. Hence, it was proposed, that *perceived similarities* would act as a mediator between the independent variable(s) (i.e., group 2-5, excluding the control group) and *fear of*

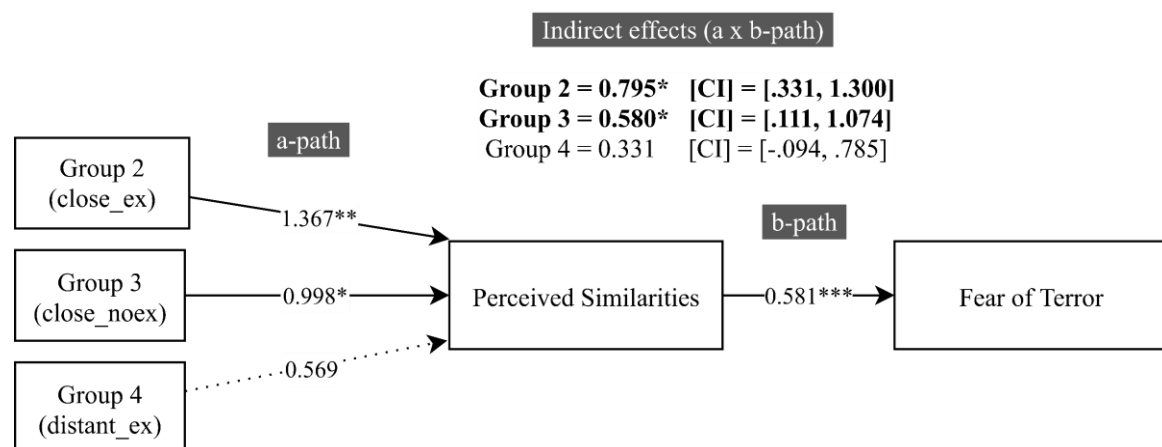
²² further elaborated in (Chapter 13.2, Statistical analyses for Hypotheses 4 and Research Question 1, 2)

terrorism. As mentioned previously, two factors were found constituting fear of terrorism: *fear of terror* and *avoidance behavior* - therefore both were investigated separately.

In the statistical analyses to test hypotheses 4 and the first research question it was established, that group 2 (close with victim exemplification; $b = 1.37$, $SE(b) = 0.41$, $p = .001$) and group 3 (close without victim exemplification; $b = 1.00$, $SE(b) = 0.42$, $p = .018$) were significant predictors for *perceived similarities* with victims (a-path in mediation model).

Perceived similarities ($b = 0.58$, $SE(b) = 0.06$, $p < .001$) in turn was also found to be a highly significant predictor for *fear of terror* (b-path). No significant direct effects (i.e., controlling for the mediator, *perceived similarities*) were found for group 2 ($b = -0.35$, $SE(b) = 0.31$, $p = .274$), group 3 ($b = -0.34$, $SE(b) = 0.32$, $p = .285$) and group 4 ($b = -0.55$, $SE(b) = 0.31$, $p = .079$) on *fear of terror* (c'-path). About 39.15% of the variance in *fear of terror* could be explained by the predictors (i.e., experimental conditions and perceived similarities, $R^2 = .3915$). After bootstrapping, it was revealed that *perceived similarities* served as a mediator (a x b) on *fear of terror*, for group 2 ($b = 0.795$, $SE(b) = 0.247$, 95% CI [.331, 1.300]) and group 3 ($b = 0.580$, $SE(b) = 0.247$, 95% CI [.111, 1.074]), but not for 4 (distant with exemplification, $b = 0.331$, $SE(b) = 0.222$, 95% CI [-.094, .785]). Thus, it can be concluded that *perceived similarities* totally mediated and increased the effects of the experimental conditions on *fear of terror* for participants reading close news articles (see Figure 6).

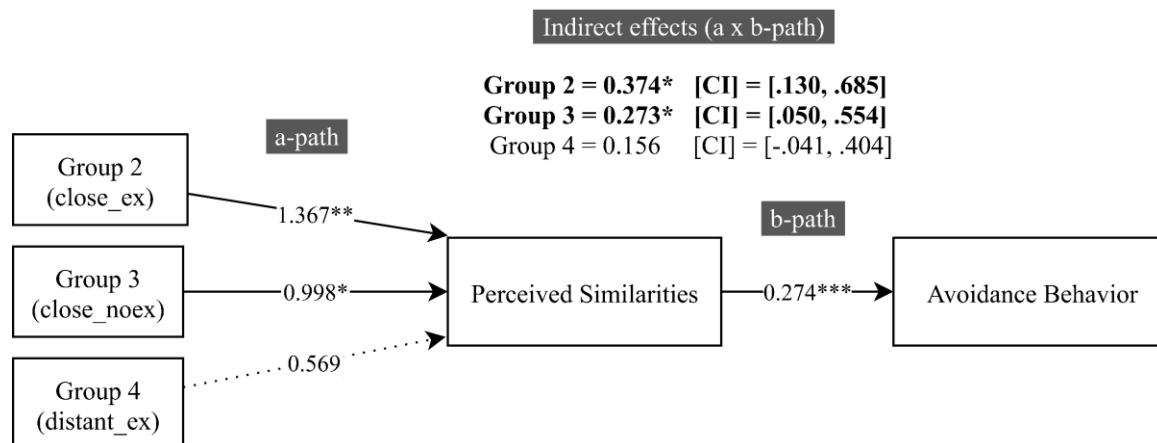
Figure 6: Mediation model showing indirect effects of group 2-4 on fear of terror via perceived similarities (n=158)



Note: Mediation model showing the indirect effects of the news articles on fear of terror via perceived similarities. Unstandardized beta coefficients are shown, 95% confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap samples, continuous lines indicate significant effects, n=158, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ (reference group: group 5, distant without victim exemplification)

The established a-path to investigate indirect effects on *avoidance behavior* is the same as before (i.e., group 2: close with victim exemplification, and group 3: close without victim exemplification as significant predictors for *perceived similarities*). Results show that *perceived similarities* ($b = 0.27$, $SE(b) = 0.06$, $p < .001$) was also a highly significant predictor for *avoidance behaviour* (b-path). No significant direct effects (c'-path) were found for group 2 ($b = 0.07$, $SE(b) = 0.31$, $p = .814$), group 3 ($b = 0.14$, $SE(b) = 0.31$, $p = .647$) and group 4 ($b = -0.45$, $SE(b) = 0.31$, $p = .141$), when the mediator, *perceived similarities*, was included in the regression model (i.e., controlled). In total 16.13% of the variance in *avoidance behaviour* was accounted for by these predictors. Bootstrapping confirmed that in similar fashion (as for *fear of terror*) *perceived similarities* served as a mediator (a x b) on *avoidance behaviour* for group 2 ($b = 0.374$, $SE(b) = 0.143$, 95% CI [.130, .685]) and group 3 ($b = 0.273$, $SE(b) = 0.128$, 95% CI [.050, .554]), but not 4 ($b = 0.156$, $SE(b) = 0.113$, 95% CI [-.041, .404]). The results show (see Figure 7) that *perceived similarities* totally mediated and increased *avoidance behavior* for participants in the close experimental conditions (i.e., group 2 and 3).

Figure 7: Mediation model showing indirect effects of group 2-4 on avoidance behavior via perceived similarities ($n=158$)



Note: Mediation model showing the indirect effects of the news articles on avoidance behavior via perceived similarities. Unstandardized beta coefficients are shown, 95% confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap samples, continuous lines indicate significant effects, $n=158$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ (reference group: group 5, distant without victim exemplification)

Taken together it can be said, that *perceived similarities* mediated and increased the effects of proximity (i.e., experimental conditions with close stimuli: groups 2 and 3) on fear of

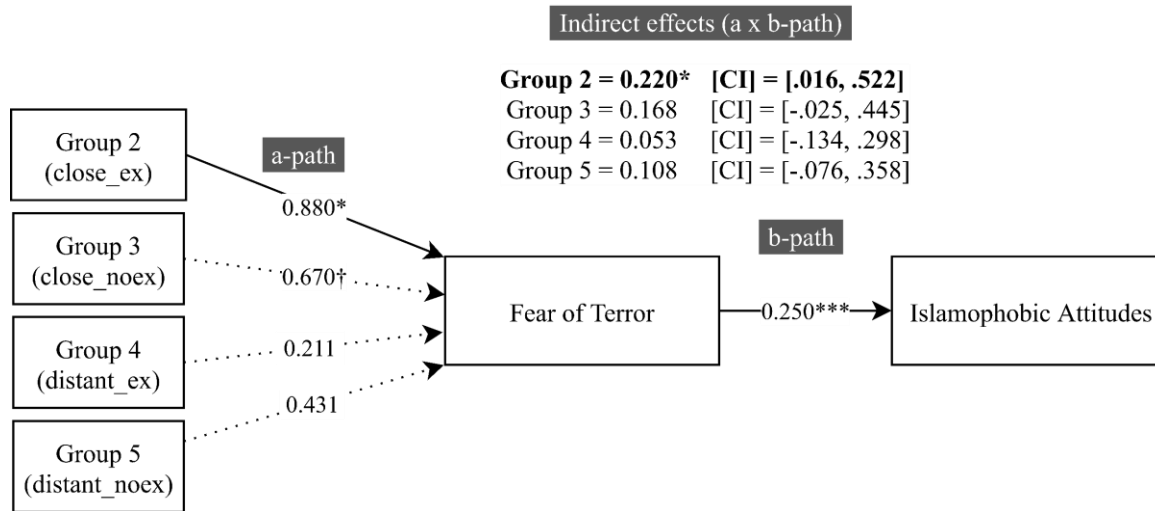
terrorism (i.e., fear of terror and avoidance behavior), which partially supports hypothesis 5 stating that “Perceived similarities with the victims of a terrorist act increases fear of terrorism”.

13.3.2 Hypothesis 6: Fear of Terrorism increases Islamophobic attitudes.

Hypothesis 6 proposed that the more fear of terrorism participants felt, the more likely they will be to exhibit Islamophobic attitudes. In other words: fear of terrorism should mediate the effects of the independent variable(s) (i.e., group 1-5, control group as reference group) on Islamophobic attitudes. Simple mediation analyses were conducted for *fear of terror* and *avoidance behaviour*. Starting with *fear of terror*:

Through hypotheses 1 and 2 it was already demonstrated, that group 2 (close with victim exemplification; $b = 0.88$, $SE(b) = 0.38$, $p = .022$) was a significant and group 3 (close without victim exemplification; $b = 0.67$, $SE(b) = 0.39$, $p = .089$) an almost significant predictor for *fear of terror* (a-path). It should be again noted that the regression model itself was not significant. Results show that *fear of terror* ($b = 0.25$, $SE(B) = 0.07$, $p < .001$) was a highly significant predictor for *Islamophobic attitudes* (b-path). One almost significant positive direct effect was found for the “close” news article with victim exemplification (i.e., group 2: $b = 0.72$, $SE(b) = 0.39$, $p = .068$), while the other groups (group 3: $b = -0.07$, $SE(b) = 0.40$, $p = .870$; group 4: $b = 0.33$, $SE(b) = 0.40$, $p = .404$; group 5: $b = 0.38$, $SE(b) = 0.40$, $p = .335$) were not significant (c'-path). The predictors (i.e., mediator and experimental conditions) explained 8.92% of the variance in *Islamophobic attitudes*. Through bootstrapping it was revealed that *fear of terror* mediated (a x b) the effect of group 2 ($b = 0.220$, $SE(b) = 0.132$, 95% CI [.016, .522]) but not group 3 ($b = 0.168$, $SE(b) = 0.120$, 95% CI [-.025, .445]), group 4 ($b = 0.053$, $SE(b) = 0.107$, 95% CI [-.134, .298]) and group 5 ($b = 0.108$, $SE(b) = 0.108$, 95% CI [-.076, .358]). In conclusion, *fear of terror* mediated and increased the effects for group 2 (i.e., close with victim exemplification) on *Islamophobic attitudes* (see Figure 8).

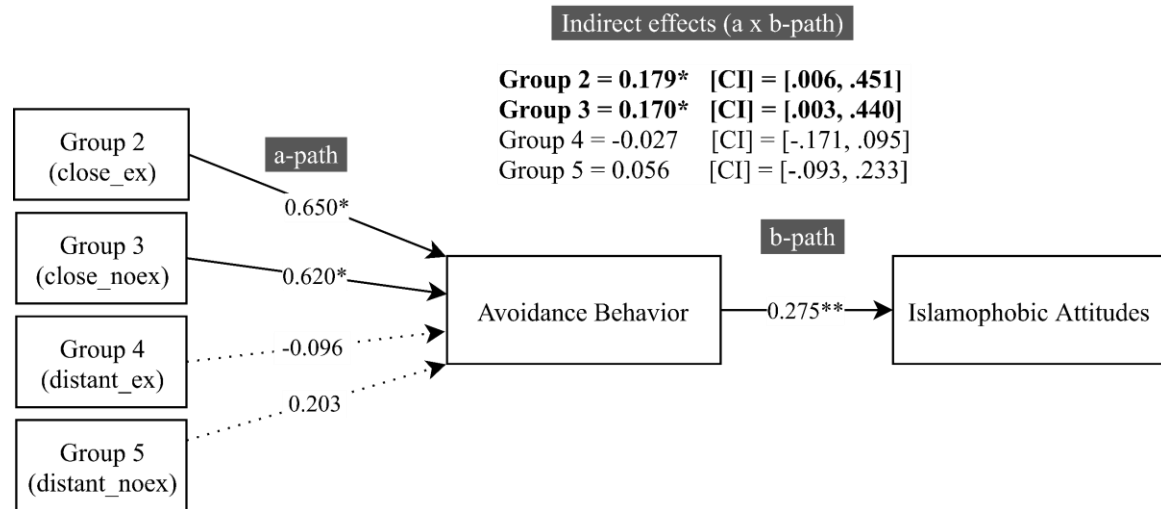
Figure 8: Mediation model showing indirect effects of groups 2-5 on Islamophobic Attitudes via Fear of Terror (N=201)



Note: Mediation model showing the indirect effects of the news articles on Islamophobic Attitudes via fear of terror. Unstandardized beta coefficients are shown, 95% confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap samples, continuous lines indicate significant effects, N=201, $^{\dagger}p < .10$, $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$ (reference group: group 1, control group)

Next *avoidance behavior* as a mediator was investigated: As it had already been shown in hypotheses 1 and 2, group 2 (close with victim exemplification, $b = 0.65$, $SE(b) = 0.30$, $p = .030$) and group 3 (close without victim exemplification, $b = 0.62$, $SE(b) = 0.31$, $p = .044$) were significant predictors for *avoidance behavior* (a-path). With *avoidance behavior* ($b = 0.27$, $SE(b) = 0.09$, $p = .004$) being also a significant predictor for *Islamophobic attitudes* (b-path). Similar to *fear of terror* an almost significant direct effect (c'-path) on *Islamophobic attitudes* was found for group 2 (close with victim exemplification, $b = 0.76$, $SE(b) = 0.40$, $p = .055$) but not for the other groups (i.e., group 3: $b = -0.07$, $SE(b) = 0.41$, $p = .867$; group 4: $b = 0.41$, $SE(b) = 0.40$, $p = .305$; group 5: $b = 0.44$, $SE(b) = 0.40$, $p = .276$). About 7.41% of the variance in *Islamophobic attitudes* was explained by the predictors (i.e., mediator and groups 1-5). Subsequently bootstrapping was performed, revealing that *avoidance behavior* mediated the effects of group 2 ($b = 0.179$, $SE(b) = 0.116$, 95% CI [.006, .451]) and group 3 ($b = 0.170$, $SE(b) = 0.115$, 95% CI [.003, .440]) but not for the other groups (i.e., group 4: $b = -0.027$, $SE(b) = 0.065$, 95% CI [-.171, .095]; group 5: $b = 0.056$, $SE(b) = 0.080$, 95% CI [-.093, .233]). These results show, that *avoidance behavior* was (fully) mediating and increasing the effects of the “close” news articles (i.e., group 2 and 3), but not “distant” (i.e., group 4 and 5) on *Islamophobic Attitudes* (see Figure 9).

Figure 9: Mediation model showing indirect effects of groups 2-5 on Islamophobic Attitudes via avoidance behavior (N=201)



Note: Mediation model showing the indirect effects of the news articles on Islamophobic Attitudes via Avoidance Behavior. Unstandardized beta coefficients are shown, 95% confidence intervals are based on 10,000 bootstrap samples, continuous lines indicate significant effects, N=201, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ (reference group: group 1, control group)

In conclusion, it is very possible, that fear of terrorism (*fear of terror* and *avoidance behavior*) mediated and increased the effects of proximity (i.e., groups 2 and 3, but not 4 and 5) on *Islamophobic attitudes*. Thus, hypothesis 6 stating that fear of terrorism increases Islamophobic attitudes, can be partially supported.

13.4 Statistical analyses for Hypotheses 7a, 7b

Statistical analyses for hypotheses 7a, 7b, were again conducted through the PROCESS plug-in (Hayes, 2017), but this time model 1 for moderation analysis was used. Since *fear of terrorism* consists of two factors – two moderation analyses were carried out: examining first *fear of terror* and then *avoidance behavior* as independent variables. In both analyses, *Islamophobic attitudes* was entered as the dependent variable and *prior positive contact with Muslims* as the moderator, while controlling for *frequency of contact*. The computed interaction terms (*prior positive contact with Muslims* x *fear of terror* and *prior positive contact with Muslims* x *avoidance behavior*) were mean-centered prior to the analyses.

13.4.1 Hypothesis 7a: Prior (positive) Experience with Muslims reduces Islamophobic attitudes.

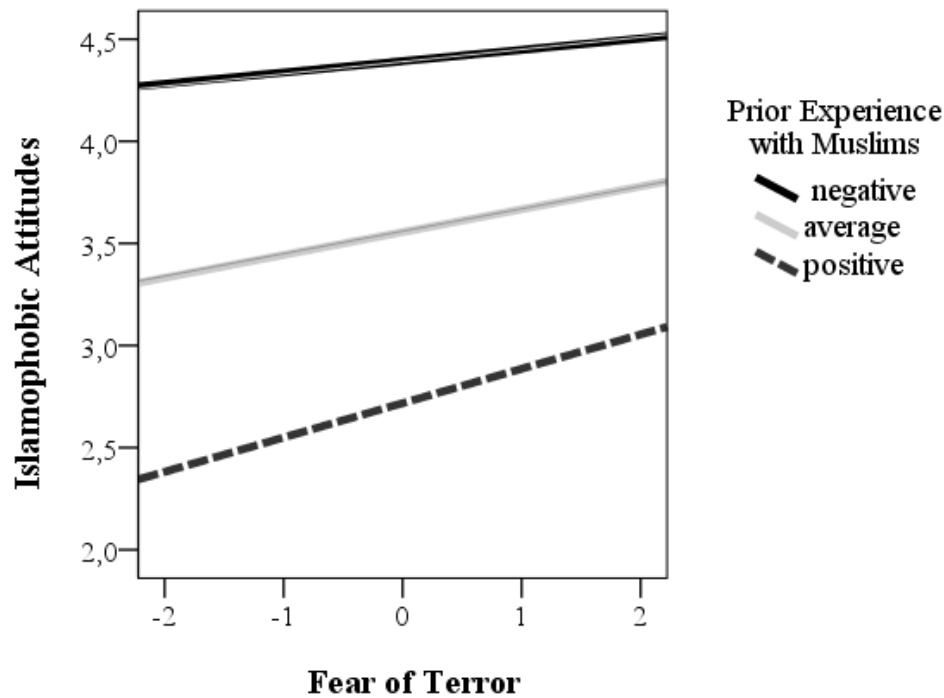
13.4.2 Hypothesis 7b: Prior (positive) Experience with Muslims moderates the effects of fear of terrorism on Islamophobic attitudes.

Hypothesis 7a proposed that positive prior contact with Muslims would mitigate the effects of *fear of terrorism* on *Islamophobic attitudes*. Furthermore, with hypothesis 7b it was assumed that positive prior contact with Muslims would also act as a moderator between fear of terrorism and Islamophobic attitudes.

Beginning with *fear of terror*: The regression model shows that *frequency of contact* ($b = -0.16$, $SE(b) = 0.06$, $p = .005$) and *prior positive contact with Muslims* ($b = -0.49$, $SE(b) = 0.07$, $p < .001$) were significant negative predictors for *Islamophobic attitudes*. *Fear of terror* ($b = 0.11$, $SE(b) = 0.07$, $p = .098$) was an almost significant predictor and the interaction term (*fear of terror* x *positive prior contact with Muslims*) was a non-significant predictor ($b = 0.03$, $SE(b) = 0.04$, $p = .358$) for *Islamophobic attitudes*. Due to the interaction term being not significant, it can be concluded, that both *frequency of contact*, as well as *prior (positive) experience with Muslims* reduces *Islamophobic attitudes*. However, *prior positive contact with Muslims* did not moderate the effects of *fear of terror* on *Islamophobic attitudes*.

Figure 10 further shows the impact of *prior experience with Muslims* and *fear of terror* on *Islamophobic attitudes*. Participants who were most fearful but had positive prior experiences with Muslims (+1 *SD* from the mean), still had less Islamophobic attitudes, compared to the other groups (average experiences: 0 *SD* from the mean; negative experiences: -1 *SD* from the mean). Furthermore, it seems that for participants with negative prior experiences fear of terror had only little impact on their hostile attitudes.

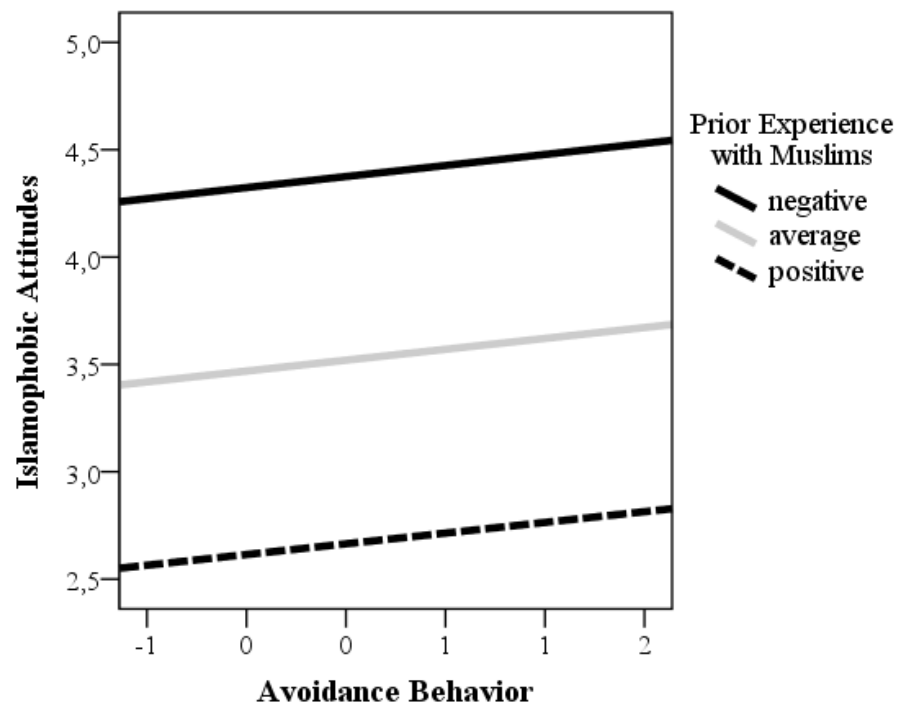
Figure 10: Impact of prior Experience with Muslims, Fear of Terror on Islamophobic Attitudes (N=201)



Next, *avoidance behavior* was entered as independent variable: Similar patterns emerge, as *frequency of contact* ($b = -0.16$, $SE(b) = 0.06$, $p = .005$) and *prior positive contact with Muslims* ($b = -0.50$, $SE(b) = 0.07$, $p < .001$) were significant negative predictors for *Islamophobic attitudes*. *Avoidance behavior* ($b = 0.10$, $SE(b) = 0.09$, $p = .251$) was a non-significant predictor and the interaction term (*fear of terror* x *positive prior contact with Muslims*) was again not significant ($b = -0.00$, $SE(b) = 0.04$, $p = .982$) for *Islamophobic attitudes*. Therefore, it can be said that *frequency of contact* and *prior (positive) experience with Muslims* mitigate *Islamophobic attitudes*. Figure 11 also displays line graphs, showing similar patterns for the effects of *prior (positive) experience with Muslims* on *Islamophobic attitudes*.

In conclusion, Hypothesis 7a stating that prior (positive) experience with Muslims reduces Islamophobic attitudes can be supported. However, since no significant interaction effects were found, hypothesis 7b must be rejected – since prior experience with Muslims did not moderate the effects of fear of terrorism (i.e., fear of terror and avoidance behavior).

Figure 11: *Impact of prior Experience with Muslims, Avoidance Behavior on Islamophobic Attitudes (N=201)*



14 Limitations

The generalizability of this research is subject to certain limitations. One strength of the conducted online-experiment, namely trying to produce a representative sample, is also its major drawback. Several limitations of the sample used in this study must be acknowledged: First, the recruitment of participants lasted a lot longer than expected, in order to “meet” the calculated quotas. Although later recruited participants were evenly distributed across all groups, it remains unclear if this temporal dimension could have skewed results. Second, overfilling of quotas for “middle” and “higher” education levels. Due to difficulties in recruiting participants with a “lower” education level, it was decided to open up the quotas for participants who attained a “middle” and “higher” education level. Third, it is unclear if the exclusion of participants and quotas filling up at different times, could have impacted the results. Fourth, the quota sampling procedure itself was only based on three characteristics (i.e., age, gender, education level) due to practical constraints. For this reason, it was not possible to take other important characteristics (e.g., income, residence area) into consideration. Thus, it can be argued, that this study only managed to employ a quota-based convenience sample. Future research should therefore try to replicate this experiment using a panel-based sample. Additionally, research should also investigate the attitudinal and emotional effects of terrorism news coverage for minority groups (e.g., Muslims).

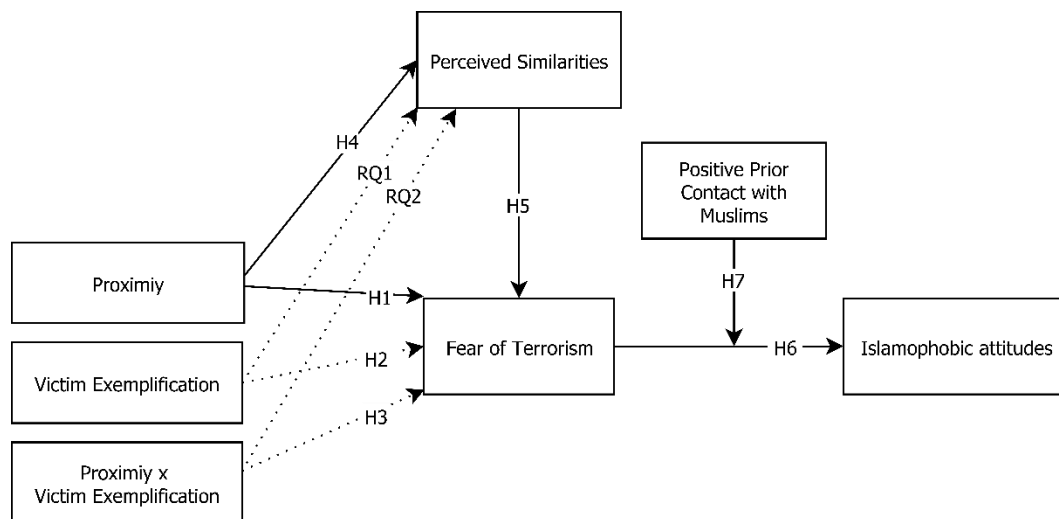
Another limitation concerns the stimuli of the experiment. In order to reduce confounding variables (e.g., knowledge about the attack), fictitious articles about terrorist acts resulting in no fatalities were constructed. The decision to construct articles reporting about terrorist acts with no fatalities, is grounded in the attempt to increase the credibility of the articles (as participants should be more likely to believe to have missed the news coverage about these incidents, if they resulted in no fatalities). Attacks resulting in fatalities would probably exert a stronger impact on news consumers’ emotional and attitudinal reactions. Researchers should therefore also examine the effects of proximity and victim exemplification with different types of terrorist attacks resulting in both fatalities and no fatalities. Another limitation lies in only using newspaper articles as stimuli. It would be interesting to see if terrorism news presented in newspaper articles with photos or other media types would impact participants differently. It is also important to note that the newspaper articles without victim exemplification were a bit shorter compared to the articles with victim exemplification (although no significant differences between groups

were found regarding time spent to complete the experiment). The author of this study tried as much as possible to create realistic articles, both in content and design. But since participants read those news articles in an artificial setting (i.e., through participation in this study), the external validity of this experiment is debatable. Considering that fear of terrorism, Islamophobic attitudes and intergroup contact were only measured after stimulus exposure, causality cannot be inferred with certainty. Therefore, future studies should try to replicate these findings, measuring these variables at two time points: before and after stimulus exposure.

15 Discussion

In this chapter, the results will be discussed, including implications for future research. The effects of proximity, victim exemplification, perceived similarities, fear of terrorism, Islamophobic attitudes and Intergroup Contact were examined through a quota based online experiment. To date only few studies experimentally explored the effects of proximity and victim exemplification in terrorism news coverage. In this context, even fewer studies examined the role played by perceived similarities. This thesis therefore contributed to research endeavors, by exploring how these factors impacted audience responses to terrorism news coverage. The results of the hypotheses and research questions are summarized in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Results for Hypotheses and Research Question



The conducted statistical analyses showed that proximity significantly increased participants' (intentions for) avoidance behavior. While no substantial conclusion could be drawn for the second factor constituting fear of terrorism (i.e., fear of terror), the results point in a similar direction. This is in line with the intergroup threat theory (Stephan et al., 2016) and several other researchers, who also found that proximity to terrorist acts increased individuals' emotional reactions. (Goodwin et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2017; Schuster, et al., 2001; Avdan & Webb, 2019) These findings however contrast with the results from von Sikorski et al., (2018), who found no effect for proximity. This difference could be explained with the employed stimuli. Their newspaper stimulus for a terrorist act committed in a "distant" country, was likely perceived by their participants to be physically

“distant”, but personally “close”. (Avdan & Webb, 2019) Participants reading about “close” (i.e., physically and personally close) terrorist acts also perceived significantly more similarities between themselves and the victims of the reported acts, than participants reading about “distant” (i.e., physically and personally distant) acts. The results additionally demonstrated that perceived similarities completely mediated and increased the effects of proximity on fear of terrorism. This finding, that a substantial amount of variance in fear of terrorism (i.e., fear of terror and avoidance behavior) could be explained by using perceived similarities as a predictor, strongly supports the assumption that the responses to terrorist acts depend on the ingroup categorization of the victims. (Avdan & Webb, 2019) Future research should further explore this topic, investigating how personal and physical proximity impact terrorism fears and additionally try to incorporate perceived similarities in their measurements. Specifically, how perceived similarities affect audience responses to terrorism news for countries considered physically “distant” but personally “close”.

Interestingly and in contrast to other studies, (Aust & Zillmann, 1996; Gibson & Zillmann, 1994) victim exemplification (i.e., sensationalized reporting) had no effect on participants’ fear reactions. This unexpected result could be explained with the study from Iyer et al., (2014) who found that photos with victim exemplars elicited higher levels of sympathy, but less fear compared to photos of terrorists. When examining the employed stimuli in this master thesis, both articles included victim exemplars who were distressed. However, in one article the victim exemplar also described her relief that she and her daughter were not seriously injured. Correspondingly participants in this experiment could have felt relief as well, which evened out their fear reactions. Future studies should re-examine the effects of victim exemplars in terrorism news articles on news consumers’ emotional reactions. Particularly victim exemplars expressing different emotions (e.g., fear, anger, relief). Furthermore, since this study used a 2x2 between-subjects factorial design, it could be argued that participants felt too removed from the “distant” exemplars to feel distressed. Therefore, studies should also compare how victim exemplars affect participants, when they are reading terrorism news about personally “close” but physically “distant” acts. Additionally, in both newspaper stimuli, the perpetrators were caught by the police, which could have reduced threat perceptions. Future studies should also explore the effects of victim exemplification when the perpetrators are still “on the loose”. Brosius (1999, S. 213) theorized that exemplars could “[...] function as agents for identification [...]” for the news consumer, which would constitute an additional explanation for exemplification effects.

Contrary to expectation however, victim exemplification did not significantly increase participants' perceived similarities with the victims. Although not statistically significant, the results still hint that the inclusion of exemplars in a news report might increase perceived similarities. Researchers should reexamine victim exemplification effects (specifically in terrorism news reports), preferably with a larger sample size and different types of stimuli (e.g., news articles with photos, news reports on television). Due to the reasons outlined in this chapter, the non-significant finding regarding an interaction between victim exemplification and proximity could yield different results if reinvestigated. Concerning the role of perceived similarities for the emotional responses to terrorism news, research should also examine the impact of perceived similarities on other emotions (e.g., anger). Additionally, research should also be conducted to explore how other features of sensationalized reporting could impact threat perceptions and responses (e.g., graphic descriptions of violence, suffering).

In line with previous research (von Sikorski et al., 2017; von Sikorski et al., 2018; Anderson & Mayerl, 2018; Goodwin et al., 2017; Skitka et al., 2006), it was found that fear of terrorism (i.e., fear of terror and avoidance behavior) was a significant predictor for Islamophobic attitudes. Fear of terrorism also mediated and increased the effects of proximity on Islamophobic attitudes, showing that news coverage of “close” terrorist acts can significantly impact news consumers fear reactions and subsequent Islamophobic attitudes. In accordance with previous research, the results additionally revealed that prior (positive) experience with Muslims reduced Islamophobic attitudes. (Hutchison & Rosenthal, 2011; Abrams et al., 2017; Bulut, 2016; Pew Research Center, 2018; von Sikorski et al., 2017) In contrast to von Sikorski et al., (2017) intergroup contact did not moderate the effects of fear of terrorism on Islamophobic attitudes.

Additionally, research indicates that the effects of intergroup contact can also apply for mediated contact. Since intergroup contact is an important factor in reducing Islamophobic attitudes, future studies should further explore what types of mediated intergroup contact are (most) effective. (Wojcieszak & Azrout, 2016)

16 Practical Implications

The conducted online experiment has shown that proximity to a reported terrorist act can significantly increase news consumers' fear reactions and subsequently impact Islamophobic attitudes. This finding shows that journalists should be especially careful when reporting about terrorist acts committed "close" to the news consumers. Ethical questions arise as to how should the media inform the public about terrorist acts? It would be generally advisable that terrorist acts receive less news coverage, since terrorists use the media to communicate and disseminate their ideology (Rohner & Frey, 2007; Courty et al., 2018). Furthermore, research even shows that increased media attention on terrorism can also impact and increase the severity (i.e., number of fatalities) and quantity (i.e., number of incidents) of following terrorist attacks. (Beckmann et al., 2017)

Jetter (2017) for example estimated that each additional New York Times article published about a terrorist attack led to approximately 1.4 more attacks with three casualties, over the following days in the country where the initial attack took place. The implementation of small journalistic guidelines for covering those acts like for example actively differentiating between Muslims and terrorists, could make a big difference. Von Sikorski et al., (2017) for example experimentally demonstrated that differentiated reporting about Islamist terrorism did not elevate news consumers' fear reactions. Similarly, journalists should be conscious of and try to counter biased reporting about Muslim perpetrators. (Kearns et al., 2019; Morin, 2016; Kanji, 2018; Elmasry & el-Nawawy, 2019; Powell, 2018) Ideally, this would include a consensus definition for the media as to what acts constitute terrorism, to counter the labelling bias. Journalists should also try to reduce "othering" of Muslims and instead try to make ingroup categorization for the news consumer salient (i.e., providing intergroup contact). (Wojcieszak & Azrout, 2016)

Since the media can also improve outgroup attitudes, it should try to fulfil its' role as a conveyor of information, improving knowledge, understanding and compassion for each other.

17 References

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Vielen Dank für Ihr Interesse an dieser Untersuchung des Instituts für Publizistik- und Kommunikationswissenschaft der Universität Wien.

Bevor Sie fortfahren, möchten wir Sie auf Ihre persönlichen Rechte im Rahmen dieser Untersuchung aufmerksam machen:

- Ihre Teilnahme ist **anonym**, Ihre Daten **können nicht mit Ihren Kontaktdaten** verbunden werden.
- Ihre Daten werden **ausschließlich für wissenschaftliche Zwecke** verwendet.
- Die Teilnahme an der Studie ist **freiwillig**.
- Wir behandeln alle Ihre **Daten streng vertraulich**.

Bitte versuchen Sie, den Fragebogen ohne Unterbrechung zu beantworten (Dauer ca. 15 Minuten) und wechseln Sie bitte nicht zwischen Browserfenstern.

Das Ziel der Untersuchung ist es, die Nutzung und Beurteilung medialer Inhalte besser zu verstehen. Im Rahmen der Untersuchung werden Ihnen verschiedene mediale Inhalte (Zeitungsartikel) dargeboten. Einige Texte und Bilder könnten Sie in emotionaler Weise berühren. Wenn Sie sich während der Nutzung unwohl fühlen oder die Inhalte Sie belasten, können Sie die Teilnahme an der Studie selbstverständlich jederzeit abbrechen.

Wenn Sie mit diesen Informationen einverstanden sind, klicken Sie bitte auf "Weiter".

Bevor wir Ihnen nähere Informationen zur Studie geben, würden wir Sie bitten, folgende Angaben zu Ihrer Person zu machen, damit wir feststellen können, ob Sie sich für die Studienteilnahme eignen.

Welchem Geschlecht fühlen Sie sich zugehörig?

- ☐ weiblich
- ☐ männlich

Wie alt sind Sie? (in Jahren)

Bitte geben Sie Ihren derzeit höchsten Bildungsabschluss an.

- ☐ Pflichtschulabschluss
- ☐ Lehrabschluss
- ☐ Berufsbildende mittlere Schule / Fachschule
- ☐ Matura / Abitur
- ☐ Hochschulabschluss (Bachelor, Master, Diplom, Doktorat)

In welchem Land wohnen Sie derzeit?

- ☐ Österreich
- ☐ Anderes (Welches Land?): _____

Bitte geben Sie Ihr Religionsbekenntnis an:

- ☐ römisch-katholisch
- ☐ evangelisch
- ☐ islamisch
- ☐ israelitisch
- ☐ buddhistisch
- ☐ konfessionslos
- ☐ anderes (Welches?): _____

Die folgenden Fragen beschäftigen sich mit Ihren persönlichen Einstellungen und Eigenschaften. Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen.

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“.

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
Ich bin ein ängstlicher Mensch.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich fühle mich leicht bedroht.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Wenn ich Angst bekomme, gerate ich leicht in Panik.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich bin weniger ängstlich als die meisten Menschen meines Alters.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich fühle mich oft unsicher.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich habe oft Mitgefühl für Personen, die weniger Glück haben als ich.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich versuche mich immer, in die Situation von allen Beteiligten hineinzusetzen, bevor ich in einer Konfliktsituation für jemanden Partei ergreife.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich bin oft sehr berührt von Dingen, die ich sehe.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich glaube, es gibt bei jedem Konflikt zwei Seiten und ich versuche beide zu berücksichtigen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich würde mich selbst als eine sehr mitfühlende Person bezeichnen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bevor ich jemanden kritisiere, versuche ich mir vorzustellen, wie ich mich in der Situation der anderen Person fühlen würde.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich unterstütze politische Interessenverbände oder Parteien bei deren gesellschaftlichem Engagement.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich nutze regelmäßig Medien, um mich über gesellschaftlich relevante Themen zu informieren.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich nutze ein Recyclingzentrum oder recycle einen Teil meines Hausmülls anderweitig.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Um Energie zu sparen, fahre ich so wenig wie möglich mit dem Auto.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Der Mensch fügt der Umwelt erheblichen Schaden zu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde, Grundschulen sollten einen strengeren Erziehungsauftrag erhalten, als dies bisher der Fall ist.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Im Folgenden sehen Sie **zwei Zeitungsartikel** aus verschiedenen österreichischen Tageszeitungen. Bitte lesen Sie sich diese Artikel sorgfältig durch. Der Weiter-Button erscheint erst nach einiger Zeit, Sie haben also genügend Zeit, die Artikel zu lesen. Im Anschluss werden Sie die Möglichkeit haben, eine Bewertung abzugeben.

Bitte lesen Sie sich den Artikel sorgfältig durch. Der „Weiter“-Button erscheint (am Ende des Artikels) erst nach einiger Zeit.

Group 1: control group, stimulus 1



Hunde lernen am besten ohne Druck

Hunde sind schlau, mehr oder weniger gelehrig und meist darauf bedacht, dem Rudelführer zu gefallen. Sie erfüllen damit alle Voraussetzungen, die eine solide Erziehung ermöglichen. KURIER-Tiercoach Katharina Reitl erklärt, was Halter zum guten Benehmen ihres Lieblings beitragen müssen. Schließlich können Mensch und Tier nur dann unbeschwert zusammenleben, wenn der Vierbeiner folgt.

Welpen sind von Natur aus unternehmungslustig. Ohne beharrliche Anleitung machen sie auch später noch, was sie wollen. "Hunde sind sehr unterschiedlich. Zunächst müssen sich Hund und Halter aneinander gewöhnen", erklärt Zoodoc Reitl den ersten Schritt zum Erfolg. Jedes Hirn arbeitet im eigenen Tempo, manches braucht Zeit. Nicht immer geht Motivation durch den Magen, Spiel und Streicheln können bessere Belohnung sein. Nicht jede Trainingsmethode passt zu jedem Charakter. Selbst erfahrene Halter können bei einer neuen Herausforderung an ihre Grenzen stoßen. Dann ist Hilfe vom Profi gefragt oder von einem kundigen Hundebesitzer, der ein ähnliches Problem bereits im Griff hat.

Geduld ist das Um und Auf jeder Erziehung, Konsequenz ist ebenso wichtig. "Ohne dauerndes Training geht es nicht", sagt die Tierärztin aus der Ordination Tiergarten Schönbrunn. Wer nachlässig wird, riskiert, dass Unsitten einreißen.

"Fast alle Hunde wollen folgen. Als denkende Wesen versuchen sie, den Besitzer zu lesen", sagt Reitl. Die Verständigung klappt selten auf Anhieb. Manche Tiere brauchen viele Wiederholungen, sensible geraten schnell unter Druck und in den Teufelskreis von Stress und Versagen. "Hundebesitzer müssen die kritische Situation reflektieren. Und bei Bedarf Hilfe suchen", rät der KURIER-Tiercoach. Oft lassen sich Ticks mit kleinen Tricks beheben.



(Agenturen , kob) Erstellt am 13.09.2018

Great Barrier Reef

18.09.2018 13:40

Erdöl-Verschmutzung macht Fische „high“

Australische Forscher: Beeinträchtigte Fische treffen jede Menge schlechter Entscheidungen

Schon kleine Mengen von Erdöl im Wasser beeinträchtigen langfristig das Verhalten von Fischen an Korallenriffen. Dies geht aus einer in der Zeitschrift "Nature Ecology and Evolution" veröffentlichten australischen Studie hervor. Fische, die dem Öl ausgesetzt sind, fällen demnach gewagte und unbedachte Entscheidungen.

Schlechte Entscheidungen

"Die Fische waren nicht in der Lage, zwischen Freund oder Feind zu unterscheiden, schwammen nicht mehr in Gruppen und fällten eine schlechte Wahl bezüglich ihres Lebensraums", berichtet Koautorin Jodie Rummer. Durch Erdöl beeinträchtigte Fische, wie zum Beispiel Mönchsfische, hätten des weiteren langsam auf Gefahr reagiert – als seien sie betrunken oder high. "Wenn sie die Wahl hatten, entschieden sie sich für den am wenigsten passenden Lebensraum", schildert Rummer ihre Beobachtungen. Die Forscherin der James Cook-Universität in Townsville hatte mit ihren Mitarbeitern fünf Wochen lang das Verhalten von sechs Fischarten untersucht, die am Great Barrier Reef leben. "Statt einer gesunden, voll funktionsfähigen Koralle wählten die Fische eine mit einem Schutthaufen oder offene Gewässer. Keines von beidem bietet Schutz oder Nahrung."

Geringe Menge mit großer Wirkung

Der Studie zufolge führt Kontakt mit Erdölerzeugnissen in den ersten drei Lebenswochen der Fische außerdem zu einer erhöhten Sterblichkeitsrate und zu einem gehemmten Wachstum. Während dieser Zeit entwickeln die Tiere ihre Organe und das Immunsystem. Laut Rummer könnten schon geringe Mengen von Erdölerzeugnissen, zum Beispiel aus der Industrie und dem Schiffsverkehr, erhebliche Auswirkungen auf die Fischpopulationen haben. "Die Menge an Öl, von der wir hier sprechen, ist vergleichbar mit wenigen Tropfen Öl in einem Olympia-Schwimmbecken, aber es hat ihr Verhalten drastisch verändert."



krone.at



Artikel teilen



Täter rief „Allahu Akbar“

18.09.2018 13:40

Linz: Messerangriff im Zug

Ein Mann hat auf der Strecke Linz – Wien in einem Eilzug mit einem Messer eine Person schwer und zwei weitere leicht verletzt – Fahrgast: „Ich fühlte mich vollkommen hilflos.“

Der Railjet RJ663 war in der Nacht auf heute auf dem Weg nach Wien unterwegs, als rund 20 Kilometer nach Linz ein Mann begann, Mitreisende zu bedrohen. Er soll die Passagiere beschimpft und weiters „Allahu Akbar“ und „Für meine Brüder in Syrien“ geschrien haben. Plötzlich stürzte sich der verummte Mann auf eine Frau und stach wahllos auf sie ein. Die Frau befindet sich in einem kritischen Zustand und wird zurzeit in einem Linzer Krankenhaus notoperiert. Drei couragierten Passagieren gelang es schließlich, den Mann zu überwältigen. Sie erlitten dabei jedoch selbst Schnittverletzungen an Händen und Oberkörper. Ein weiterer Fahrgast zog indessen die Notbremse und alarmierte die Polizei. Diese konnte wenig später den 23-jährigen Bharat E. festnehmen.

„Meine Frau lag blutend am Boden“

Stephan R., 33 Jahre alt, Ehemann der schwerverletzten Frau Lisa R., sprach im Krankenhaus über den Vorfall: „Ich begriff zuerst gar nicht, was da eigentlich passiert. Ich kam gerade vom Speisewagen zurück, als ich meine Frau laut schreien hörte, deshalb lief ich gleich, so schnell ich konnte, zu ihr. Es war grauenhaft. Meine Frau lag blutend am Boden. Ich war geschockt und zuerst vor Angst wie gelähmt. Ich handelte nur noch instinktiv und versuchte sofort, den Mann von meiner Frau wegzuzerren.“

„Alles war wie in einem Albtraum“

Dass der Täter mit einem Messer bewaffnet war, habe er erst bemerkt, als er ihn auch verletzte, schilderte Stephan R. weiter. Dank der Hilfe von zwei weiteren Männern konnte er ihn von seiner Frau trennen. „Alles war wie in einem Albtraum – ich weiß noch, wie ich verzweifelt versuchte, Lisa zu beruhigen. Ich fühlte mich vollkommen hilflos und nahm nur am Rande wahr, wie die Polizei dieses Monster verhaftete. Ich kann mir ein Leben ohne meine Frau nicht vorstellen“, erzählte ein aufgewühlter Stephan R.

Laut Auskunft des Innenministers wurden bei der Festnahme des Täters Propagandamaterialien des Islamischen Staates gefunden. Eine erste Überprüfung zeigt, dass er den österreichischen Behörden als Islamist bekannt ist, bisher jedoch keine Straftaten begangen hat.

Salzburg: Versuchter Terroranschlag – möglicher IS Hintergrund

Vor der beliebten Touristenattraktion Schloss Mirabell raste ein Auto auf Fußgänger zu. Opfer berichtet: „Ich war gerade mit meiner Tochter spazieren, als ich plötzlich quietschende Reifen hörte.“

Salzburg 17.23 Uhr - Ein Fahrzeug raste vor dem Schloss Mirabell auf Fußgänger zu und krachte schließlich in eine Straßenlaterne. Die Passanten konnten noch rechtzeitig zur Seite springen, eine Frau und ihr Kind erlitten dabei leichte Verletzungen. Als der Fahrzeuglenker mit einem Messer in der Hand aus dem PKW ausstieg, wurde dieser von der anwesenden Polizei überwältigt und festgenommen.

„Ich dachte, wir sind gleich tot“

Andrea K. (29 Jahre), Mutter eines zweijährigen Mädchens, schildert geschockt den Tathergang: „Ich war gerade mit meiner Tochter spazieren, als ich plötzlich quietschende Reifen hörte. Ich drehte mich um und sah ein Auto direkt auf uns zurasen. Ich dachte, wir sind gleich tot“. In panischer Angst riss Andrea K. ihre Tochter an sich und sprang zur Seite. „Es ging alles blitzschnell, ich spürte den Luftzug des Autos, meine Tochter fing laut an zu schreien und ich dachte, jetzt hat sie das Auto erwischt.“ Ihre weinende Tochter umklammernd, flüchtete sie in ein naheliegendes Restaurant. „Außer blauen Flecken ist uns zum Glück nichts passiert. Gott sei Dank war die Polizei in der Nähe, wer weiß, was sonst noch geschehen wäre?“

Täter bekannte sich zum Islamischen Staat (IS)

Laut Polizeipressesprecherin Irene Stauffer wird wegen versuchten Mordes ermittelt. Zum möglichen Motiv des Täters sagte sie: „Natürlich sollten wir zu diesem Zeitpunkt unvoreingenommen sein, was das Motiv betrifft – jedoch wurde im Fahrzeug ein Schriftstück gefunden, in dem sich der Beschuldigte zum IS bekennt. Daher werden insbesondere mögliche Verbindungen des Täters zur Dschihadistenmiliz IS untersucht.“ Nach Angaben des Innenministeriums wurden Polizeikräfte im Land angewiesen, erhöhte Präsenz auf öffentlichen Plätzen zu zeigen.





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Täter rief „Allahu Akbar“

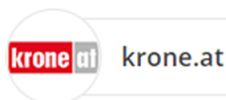
18.09.2018 13:40

Linz: Messerangriff im Zug

Ein Mann hat auf der Strecke Linz – Wien in einem Eilzug mit einem Messer eine Person schwer und zwei weitere leicht verletzt

Der Railjet RJ663 war in der Nacht auf heute auf dem Weg nach Wien unterwegs, als rund 20 Kilometer nach Linz ein Mann begann, Mitreisende zu bedrohen. Er soll die Passagiere beschimpft und weiters „Allahu Akbar“ und „Für meine Brüder in Syrien“ geschrien haben. Plötzlich stürzte sich der verummte Mann auf eine Frau und stach wahllos auf sie ein. Die Frau befindet sich in einem kritischen Zustand und wird zurzeit in einem Linzer Krankenhaus notoperiert. Drei couragierten Passagieren, unter denen auch der Ehemann der verletzten Frau war, gelang es schließlich, den Mann zu überwältigen. Sie erlitten dabei jedoch selbst Schnittverletzungen an Händen und Oberkörper. Ein weiterer Fahrgast zog indessen die Notbremse und alarmierte die Polizei. Diese konnte wenig später den 23-jährigen Bharat E. festnehmen.

Laut Auskunft des Innenministers wurden bei der Festnahme des Täters Propagandamaterialien des Islamischen Staates gefunden. Eine erste Überprüfung zeigt, dass er den österreichischen Behörden als Islamist bekannt ist, bisher jedoch keine Straftaten begangen hat.



Artikel teilen



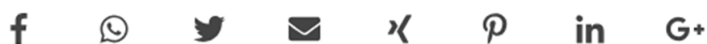
Salzburg: Versuchter Terroranschlag – möglicher IS Hintergrund

Vor der beliebten Touristenattraktion Schloss Mirabell raste ein Auto auf Fußgänger zu.

Salzburg 17.23 Uhr - Ein Fahrzeug raste vor dem Schloss Mirabell auf Fußgänger zu und krachte schließlich in eine Straßenlaterne. Die Passanten konnten noch rechtzeitig zur Seite springen, eine Frau und ihr Kind erlitten dabei leichte Verletzungen. Als der Fahrzeuglenker mit einem Messer in der Hand aus dem PKW ausstieg, wurde dieser von der anwesenden Polizei überwältigt und festgenommen.

Täter bekannte sich zum Islamischen Staat (IS)

Laut Polizeipressesprecherin Irene Stauffer wird wegen versuchten Mordes ermittelt. Zum möglichen Motiv des Täters sagte sie: „Natürlich sollten wir zu diesem Zeitpunkt unvoreingenommen sein, was das Motiv betrifft – jedoch wurde im Fahrzeug ein Schriftstück gefunden, in dem sich der Beschuldigte zum IS bekennt. Daher werden insbesondere mögliche Verbindungen des Täters zur Dschihadistenmiliz IS untersucht.“ Nach Angaben des Innenministeriums wurden Polizeikräfte im Land angewiesen, erhöhte Präsenz auf öffentlichen Plätzen zu zeigen.



Täter rief „Allahu Akbar“

18.09.2018 13:40

Indien: Messerangriff im Zug

Ein Mann hat auf der Strecke Neu-Delhi – Agra in einem Eilzug mit einem Messer eine Person schwer und zwei weitere leicht verletzt – Fahrgast: „Ich fühlte mich vollkommen hilflos.“

Der Eilzug war in der Nacht auf heute auf dem Weg nach Agra unterwegs, als rund 20 Kilometer nach Neu-Delhi ein Mann begann, Mitreisende zu bedrohen. Er soll die Passagiere beschimpft und weiters „Allahu Akbar“ und „Für meine Brüder in Syrien“ geschrien haben. Plötzlich stürzte sich der verummte Mann auf eine Frau und stach wahllos auf sie ein. Die Frau befindet sich in einem kritischen Zustand und wird zurzeit in einem Krankenhaus in Neu-Delhi notoperiert. Drei couragierten Passagieren gelang es schließlich, den Mann zu überwältigen. Sie erlitten dabei jedoch selbst Schnittverletzungen an Händen und Oberkörper. Ein weiterer Fahrgast zog indessen die Notbremse und alarmierte die Polizei. Diese konnte wenig später den 23-jährigen Bharat E. festnehmen.

„Meine Frau lag blutend am Boden“

Sunil R., 33 Jahre alt, Ehemann der schwerverletzten Frau Latika R., sprach im Krankenhaus über den Vorfall: „Ich begriff zuerst gar nicht, was da eigentlich passiert. Ich kam gerade vom Speisewagen zurück, als ich meine Frau laut schreien hörte, deshalb lief ich gleich, so schnell ich konnte, zu ihr. Es war grauenhaft. Meine Frau lag blutend am Boden. Ich war geschockt und zuerst vor Angst wie gelähmt. Ich handelte nur noch instinktiv und versuchte sofort, den Mann von meiner Frau wegzuzerren.“

„Alles war wie in einem Albtraum“

Dass der Täter mit einem Messer bewaffnet war, habe er erst bemerkt, als er ihn auch verletzte, schilderte Sunil R. weiter. Dank der Hilfe von zwei weiteren Männern konnte er ihn von seiner Frau trennen. „Alles war wie in einem Albtraum – ich weiß noch, wie ich verzweifelt versuchte, Latika zu beruhigen. Ich fühlte mich vollkommen hilflos und nahm nur am Rande wahr, wie die Polizei dieses Monster verhaftete. Ich kann mir ein Leben ohne meine Frau nicht vorstellen“, erzählte ein aufgewühlter Sunil R.

Laut Auskunft des Innenministers wurden bei der Festnahme des Täters Propagandamaterialien des Islamischen Staates gefunden. Eine erste Überprüfung zeigt, dass er den indischen Behörden als Islamist bekannt ist, bisher jedoch keine Straftaten begangen hat.



krone.at



Artikel teilen



Jaipur, Indien: Versuchter Terroranschlag – möglicher IS Hintergrund

Vor der beliebten Touristenattraktion Palast Fort Amber raste ein Auto auf Fußgänger zu. Opfer berichtet: „Ich war gerade mit meiner Tochter spazieren, als ich plötzlich quietschende Reifen hörte.“

Jaipur 17.23 Uhr (IST) - Ein Fahrzeug raste vor dem Palast Fort Amber auf Fußgänger zu und krachte schließlich in eine Straßenlaterne. Die Passanten konnten noch rechtzeitig zur Seite springen, eine Frau und ihr Kind erlitten dabei leichte Verletzungen. Als der Fahrzeuglenker mit einem Messer in der Hand aus dem PKW ausstieg, wurde dieser von der anwesenden Polizei überwältigt und festgenommen.

„Ich dachte, wir sind gleich tot“

Akesha K. (29 Jahre), Mutter eines zweijährigen Mädchens, schildert geschockt den Tathergang: „Ich war gerade mit meiner Tochter spazieren, als ich plötzlich quietschende Reifen hörte. Ich drehte mich um und sah ein Auto direkt auf uns zurasen. Ich dachte, wir sind gleich tot“. In panischer Angst riss Akesha K. ihre Tochter an sich und sprang zur Seite. „Es ging alles blitzschnell, ich spürte den Luftzug des Autos, meine Tochter fing laut an zu schreien und ich dachte, jetzt hat sie das Auto erwischt.“ Ihre weinende Tochter umklammernd, flüchtete sie in ein naheliegendes Restaurant. „Außer blauen Flecken ist uns zum Glück nichts passiert. Gott sei Dank war die Polizei in der Nähe, wer weiß, was sonst noch geschehen wäre?“

Täter bekannte sich zum Islamischen Staat (IS)

Laut Polizeipressesprecherin Ishara Shuja wird wegen versuchten Mordes ermittelt. Zum möglichen Motiv des Täters sagte sie: „Natürlich sollten wir zu diesem Zeitpunkt unvoreingenommen sein, was das Motiv betrifft – jedoch wurde im Fahrzeug ein Schriftstück gefunden, in dem sich der Beschuldigte zum IS bekennt. Daher werden insbesondere mögliche Verbindungen des Täters zur Dschihadistenmiliz IS untersucht.“ Nach Angaben des Innenministeriums wurden Polizeikräfte im Land angewiesen, erhöhte Präsenz auf öffentlichen Plätzen zu zeigen.





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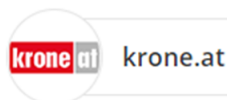
18.09.2018 13:40

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Artikel teilen



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Vielen Dank. Nun möchten wir gerne von Ihnen wissen, wie Sie sich jetzt fühlen. Die folgenden Wörter beschreiben unterschiedliche Gefühle und Empfindungen.

Lesen Sie jedes Wort und tragen Sie dann in die Skala neben jedem Wort die Intensität ein. Sie haben die Möglichkeit, zwischen sieben Abstufungen zu wählen. Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 "stimme überhaupt nicht zu" bis 7 "stimme voll und ganz zu". Geben Sie bitte an, wie Sie sich im Moment fühlen.

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
zornig	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
wütend	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
besorgt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
ängstlich	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
traurig	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
bestürzt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Sie haben soeben zwei Zeitungsartikel über terroristische Anschläge gelesen. Bitte denken Sie nun noch einmal an die erwähnten Opfer in den Zeitungsartikeln. Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen.

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“.

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
Ich konnte mich in die Opfer hineinversetzen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich konnte mir vorstellen, was die Opfer erlebt haben.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich empfinde Mitleid mit den Opfern.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mein Mitgefühl gegenüber den Opfern ist sehr hoch.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Das Leid der Opfer berührt mich.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Als ich die Zeitungsartikel gelesen habe, konnte ich mir die Ereignisse bildlich vorstellen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die beschriebenen Ereignisse haben mich zum Nachdenken angeregt.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die beschriebenen Ereignisse haben mich emotional berührt/mitgenommen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Beim Lesen der Zeitungsartikel habe ich mir gedacht, dass ich mich nicht stark von den beschriebenen Opfern unterscheide.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Beim Lesen der Artikel habe ich mir gedacht, dass mir die beschriebenen Opfer ähnlich sind.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Beim Lesen der Zeitungsartikel, habe ich ähnliche Gefühle empfunden wie die beschriebenen Opfer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Beim Lesen der Zeitungsartikel konnte ich die Gefühle der Opfer gut nachvollziehen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „gar nicht hoch“ bis 7 „sehr hoch“.

	1 „gar nicht hoch“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „sehr hoch“
Wie hoch nehmen Sie die Ähnlichkeit zwischen Ihnen und den Opfern der berichteten Terror-Anschläge wahr?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „keine“ bis 7 „sehr viele“

	1 „keine“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „sehr viele“
Wenn Sie an Ihr eigenes Leben denken, wie viele Gemeinsamkeiten sehen Sie zwischen Ihnen selbst und den dargestellten Opfern?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Die nächsten Fragen beschäftigen sich mit der Terrorbedrohung in Österreich. Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen.

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen. Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“.

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
Ich habe Angst, dass es einen Terroranschlag in meiner Nähe geben könnte.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich habe Angst, dass ein Terroranschlag mich selbst treffen könnte.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich bin sehr besorgt, dass ich selbst Opfer eines islamistischen Terroranschlages werden könnte.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich vermeide öffentliche Orte mit großen Menschenansammlungen aufgrund von möglichen Terrorattacken.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich vermeide öffentliche Verkehrsmittel wie U-Bahnen, weil ich Angst vor möglichen Terroranschlägen habe.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich vermeide Großveranstaltungen, weil ich Angst vor möglichen Terroranschlägen habe.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Möglichkeit, dass ich oder meine Familie/Freunde in Zukunft von einem ähnlichen Ereignis betroffen sein könnten, macht mich wütend.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich habe Angst, dass ich oder die Menschen, die mir wichtig sind, in Zukunft von einem ähnlichen Ereignis betroffen sein könnten.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich bin beunruhigt, dass ein ähnliches Ereignis mich oder meine Familie/Freunde in Zukunft betreffen könnte.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mir graut davor, dass ich oder die Menschen, die mir wichtig sind, künftig von einem ähnlichen Ereignis betroffen sein könnten.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Haben Sie persönlich das Gefühl, dass in Österreich die Terrorgefahr insgesamt eher niedrig oder eher hoch ist?

Eher niedrig ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Eher hoch

Glauben Sie, dass die Terrorgefahr in Österreich in Zukunft eher sinken oder steigen wird?

Eher sinken ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Eher steigen

Bestimmten gesellschaftlichen Gruppen werden oft „typische“ Eigenschaften zugeschrieben. Wenn Sie jetzt mal an den "typischen Muslim" bzw. die "typische Muslima" denken? Wie kann man diese am besten beschreiben?

Bitte kreuzen Sie Zutreffendes an.

böswillig	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	gutmütig
gewalttätig	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	friedlich
aggressiv	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	nicht aggressiv
gefährlich	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	ungefährlich
unzivilisiert	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	zivilisiert
ungebildet	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	gebildet
unkultiviert	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	kultiviert
primitiv	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	nicht primitiv

Die nächsten Fragen beschäftigen sich mit dem Thema Islam und Muslimen in Österreich. Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen.

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“.

1 „stimme
überhaupt
nicht zu“

7 „stimme
voll und
ganz zu“

Der Islam ist eine Religion, die Gewaltakte unterstützt.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Der Islam ist eine feindselige Religion.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Der Islam fördert Gewalt gegen Ungläubige.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Zu viele Muslime schaden Österreich.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Der Anteil an Muslimen in Österreich ist zu hoch.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Nun möchten wir gerne von Ihnen wissen, wie der Staat Österreich mit den in Österreich lebenden Muslimen Ihrer Meinung nach umgehen sollte.

Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen.

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
Ich finde es in Ordnung, wenn die Regierung in Österreich lebende Muslime ohne deren Zustimmung verdeckt überwacht.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde, die Regierung sollte jährlich verpflichtende Sicherheits-Checks mit in Österreich lebenden Muslimen durchführen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde, Geheimdienste sollten mehr Kompetenzen erhalten, um die Gefahr von islamistisch-motiviertem Terror in Österreich zu reduzieren.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde, militärische Einsätze in muslimischen Ländern sind notwendig, um die Gefahr von Terrorattacken in Österreich zu reduzieren.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde, Drohnenangriffe in muslimischen Ländern sind notwendig, um die Gefahr von Terrorattacken in Österreich zu reduzieren.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde militärische Einsätze in muslimischen Ländern sind nicht die richtige Lösung, um die Gefahr von Terrorattacken in Österreich zu reduzieren.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Nun folgen noch einige allgemeine Fragen zum Umgang der österreichischen Regierung mit Terror. Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen:

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“.

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
Es macht mich wütend, dass es in Österreich mit der Terrorgefahr so weit kommen konnte.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich bin wütend, weil die Regierung zu wenig gegen die steigende Terrorgefahr in Österreich tut.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Es macht mich zornig, dass die Regierung die Terrorgefahr in Österreich nicht ausreichend erkannt hat.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde die Opfer von Terroranschlägen und ihre Angehörigen sollten eine finanzielle Entschädigung aus staatlichen Mitteln erhalten.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ich finde, der Staat sollte die Opfer von Terroranschlägen und ihre Angehörigen finanziell unterstützen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Wenn Sie jetzt mal an die Informationen über die Terrorgefahr in Österreich denken, die Sie in letzter Zeit erhalten haben, wie stark empfinden Sie bei diesem Gedanken Ärger gegenüber den folgenden Personengruppen/Institutionen?

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen:

Ich empfinde Ärger gegenüber...

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“	2	3	4	5	6	7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
der österreichischen Regierung	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
den österreichischen Sicherheitsbehörden	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Islamistischen Gruppierungen in Österreich	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Rechtsradikalen Gruppierungen in Österreich	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Muslimischen Vereinen und Organisationen in Österreich	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Nun haben wir noch einige Fragen zu den beiden Zeitungsartikeln, die Sie gerade gelesen haben. Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen.

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“.

	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“							7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“
Die Zeitungsartikel berichteten über einen (versuchten) Terroranschlag in Indien/Ausland.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Zeitungsartikel berichteten über einen (versuchten) Terroranschlag im Ausland.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Zeitungsartikel berichteten über einen (versuchten) Terroranschlag in Österreich.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Zeitungsartikel berichteten über einen (versuchten) Terroranschlag im Inland.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In den Zeitungsartikeln kamen die Opfer selbst zu Wort.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In den Zeitungsartikeln schilderten die Opfer die Ereignisse aus ihrer Perspektive.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Zeitungsartikel erwähnten, dass die Täter einen islamistischen Hintergrund hatten.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Zeitungsartikel berichteten über (versuchte) Terrorattacken des Islamischen Staates.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Zeitungsartikel berichteten über die Ereignisse in emotionaler Weise.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Die Zeitungsartikel berichteten über die Ereignisse in dramatischer Weise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Bitte beantworten Sie die folgenden Fragen zu den gelesenen Zeitungsartikeln. Kreuzen Sie bitte die zutreffende Antwort an:

An welchen der folgenden Orten fanden laut den Zeitungsartikeln Terroranschläge statt?

(Mehrfachantworten möglich)

- ☐ In einem Schuhgeschäft
- ☐ In einem Zug
- ☐ Am Flughafen
- ☐ Vor einer Touristenattraktion
- ☐ Weiß nicht

Welche Tatwaffe wurde in einem der Zeitungsartikel für die beschriebene (versuchte) Terrorattacke verwendet?

- ☐ Ein Maschinengewehr
- ☐ Ein Messer
- ☐ Ein PKW
- ☐ Weiß nicht

Muslime stellen heute einen festen Bestandteil der österreichischen Gesellschaft dar. Im Folgenden sind Ihre persönlichen Erfahrungen mit Muslimen gefragt. Bitte kreuzen Sie Zutreffendes an.

Was meinen Sie, wie häufig haben Sie persönlich Kontakt mit Muslimen?	nie – sehr häufig <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Wie haben Sie Ihre bisherigen Erfahrungen mit Muslimen größtenteils erlebt?	negativ – positiv <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> unangenehm – angenehm <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Bitte geben Sie nun noch an, ob Sie selbst schon einmal Opfer eines Gewaltverbrechens geworden sind. (Falls Sie diese Frage nicht beantworten möchten, können Sie diese auch überspringen) Antworten Sie bitte auf einer Skala von 1 „Nie“ bis 7 „Mehrals“.	
	nie – mehrmals <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Die nächsten Fragen beschäftigen Sich mit Ihren persönlichen Einstellungen und Eigenschaften. Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen.

Antworten Sie bitte mit Zahlen von 1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“.

Ich nutze regelmäßig Medien, um mich über Terrorismus zu informieren	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ – 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“ <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Ich nutze regelmäßig Medien, um mich über aktuelle Ereignisse zu informieren	1 „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ – 7 „stimme voll und ganz zu“ <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Man spricht in der Politik immer wieder von „links“ und „rechts“. Wo würden Sie sich selbst bei einer solchen Einstufung positionieren?

Verwenden Sie dazu bitte die untenstehende Skala, wobei 0 „links“ und 10 „rechts“ bedeutet. Mit den Werten dazwischen können Sie ihre Einschätzung abstimmen.

links ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ rechts

Was ist Ihre wichtigste Informationsquelle, um sich über aktuelle Ereignisse zu informieren?

- ☐ Zeitung
- ☐ Fernsehen
- ☐ Radio
- ☐ Online-Nachrichtenportale
- ☐ Soziale Medien (Facebook, Twitter etc.)
- ☐ Freunde/Familie

Wieviele Personen sind in Ihrem Haushalt unter 18 Jahre alt?

- ☐ Keine
- ☐ Anzahl der Personen unter 18: _____

Was ist Ihre Staatsbürgerschaft?

- ☐ Österreichisch
- ☐ Andere (Geben Sie dies bitte hier an): _____

Sind Sie oder Ihre Eltern im nicht-deutschsprachigen Ausland geboren? (Tragen Sie bitte das Herkunftsland ins nebenstehende Feld ein, falls Sie oder ein Elternteil im Ausland geboren sind.)

- ☐ ja, ich bin selbst im nicht-deutschsprachigen Ausland geboren (Geben Sie bitte das Herkunftsland an): _____
- ☐ ja, mindestens ein Elternteil ist im nicht-deutschsprachigen Ausland geboren (Geben Sie bitte das Herkunftsland an): _____
- ☐ nein, weder ich noch meine Eltern sind im nicht-deutschsprachigen Ausland geboren

Bitte geben Sie an, wie religiös Sie sich selbst einschätzen.

Verwenden Sie dazu bitte die untenstehende Skala, wobei 0 „gar nicht religiös“ und 10 „sehr religiös“ bedeutet. Mit den Werten dazwischen können Sie ihre Einschätzung abstufen.

gar nicht religiös ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ sehr religiös

Möchten Sie zu dieser Befragung oder zum besseren Verständnis Ihrer Antworten noch etwas anmerken? Falls Sie nichts anmerken möchten, können Sie die Frage einfach überspringen.

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Abstract

This thesis examines how proximity (i.e., spatial and personal closeness/distance) and sensationalized reporting (i.e., victim exemplification) of a fictional reported terroristic act affects news consumers in their emotional (i.e., fear of terrorism) and attitudinal (i.e., Islamophobic attitudes) responses. With framing, social identity theory, social/self-categorization theory, intergroup threat theory, exemplification theory and social learning theory, the news coverage of Muslims, terrorism and subsequent audience effects are explored. An online-experiment, using a quota-based sample was conducted. The results of the online-experiment show that *proximity* significantly *increased avoidance* behavior as well as *perceived similarities* with the victims of the fictional terrorist act. The conducted mediation analysis further reveals that *perceived similarities* mediated and increased the effects of *proximity* on *fear of terrorism*. Furthermore, it was found that *fear of terrorism* mediated and increased the effects of *proximity* on *Islamophobic attitudes*. Prior positive contact with Muslims mitigated *Islamophobic attitudes*.

Abstract

Diese Magisterarbeit untersucht, wie sich Nähe (geographische/persönliche) und Sensationsberichterstattung (Opfer Exemplifizierung) eines fiktiven Terrornachrichtenartikels auf die affektiven (Terrorangst) und kognitiven (islamophobische-) Reaktionen seiner Leser auswirkt.

Mit “Framing”, “Social Identity theory”, “Social/Self-Categorization theory”, “Intergroup Threat theory”, “Exemplification theory” und “Social Learning theory” wird die Nachrichtenberichterstattung über Muslime, Terrorismus und Rezipientenwirkungen untersucht. Ein online-Experiment mit Quotenstichprobe wurde durchgeführt. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass Nähe zum fiktiven Terrorschauplatz das Vermeidungsverhalten und die wahrgenommene Ähnlichkeit (mit den Opfern) erhöht. Die durchgeführten Mediationsanalysen demonstrieren weiters, dass wahrgenommene Ähnlichkeiten Terrorangst; und Terrorangst islamophobische Einstellungen mediierte und erhöhte. Positiver persönlicher Kontakt zu Muslimen minderte islamophobische Einstellungen.