Criminal Justice Issues Journal of Criminal Justice and Security

Year XII, Issue 5-6, 2012. ISSN 1512-5505

NEIGHBORHOOD SOCIAL DISORDER AND FEELINGS OF SAFETY IN PRISTINE

Original scientific paper

Elmedin MURATBEGOVIĆ¹ Muhamed BUDIMLIĆ² Fahrudin MEMIĆ³

Summary

The aim of this article is to establish whether there are unique neighbourhood level variations in worry about criminal victimization, independent of neighbourhood composition. An additional purpose is to establish the extent to which proposed mechanisms at the individual level, prior local victimization and perceived disorder, act as mediators of a hypothesized effect of neighbourhood level disorder. This article tested a model of the effects of different predictors on individuals' levels of fear of crime in the neighbourhoods of the Kosovo capital Pristine. In this research, the authors used an interviewing method conducted in the households of the interviewees. The population consisted of the adult (18 years old and more) inhabitants of urban areas of Pristine. The sampling procedure was a multi-stage random probability method. The selection process was carried out through the following four stages defined: (1) city areas, (2) streets or parts of streets, (3) selection of a household, (4) "next birthday "selection-key. The common Neighbourhood Disorder and Safety feeling model has shown that well-developed Neighbourhood social disorder have a positive although non-significant impact on the neighbourhood fear of crime in Pristine.. This does not come as a surprise considering that the people in the post-socialist societies are traditionally more reliant on their family and friends. The above trend was somewhat strong in Kosovo, because observation shows that nearly a half of respondents from Pristine live in households with more than five members while one fifth of them live in households with seven and more members. Residents of EU capitals and capitals in the former Republic of Yugoslavia have greater tendency than residents of Pristine to mention everyday crime as one of the factors that feed their fears. The most serious objection that can be raised in relation to this survey is the application of the interview as the sole data collection technique. Most certainly, the inclusion of other techniques (Focus Groups, etc.) and methods would have achieved more valid results. The limitation of the factor models is that the input variables are mainly non-Normal Likert's scales. This means that the theoretical requirements

¹ Elmedin Muratbegović, PhD. Professor of Criminology at the Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, University of Sarajevo; e-mail: emuratbegovic@fknbih.edu.

² Muhamed Budimlić, PhD. Assistant Professor of Criminology at the Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, University of Sarajevo; e-mail: mbudimlic@fknbih.edu.

³ Fahrudin Memić, BSc. Visiting lecturer at the Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, University of Sarajevo; e-mail: fmemic@gmail.com.

for the application of the factor model are not fully fulfilled which consecutively reduces possibility to generalize the findings of the factor models further analysis using non parametric tools are the results of the factor analysis. In order to fully generalize the findings of the factor models, further analysis using non parametric tools are necessary. The police enjoyed the highest level of trust of all public institutions, which is maybe the most important for our study because the work of police has a direct impact on citizens' sense of security. Such results could have been expected in Pristine given that the police in Kosovo are controlled by the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) operation there. Trust in the police forms is good basis for study of other factors which influence citizens' sense of security, that is, their fear of crime at a local level.

Keywords

Fear of Crime, Neighborhood, Social Disorder, Risk of Crime, Safety feeling

1. INTRODUCTION

People can come to different conclusions about the same social and physical environment: two individuals who live next door to each other and share the same neighbourhood can view local disorder quite differently (Carvalho & Lewis, 2003). Why might people have different levels of tolerance or sensitivity to these potentially ambiguous cues (Sampson & Raudenbush, 2004)? The experience and fear of crime is often linked to peoples' place of residence and significant neighbourhood-level differences in crime have been found in a number of countries where deprived areas often experience higher levels of crime (Hale, 1996; Kawachi, Kennedy, & Wilkinson, 1999; Shaw, Tunstall & Dorling, 2005; Weatherburn, 1992). A lot of criminological research about the experience with and fear of crime has shown that individuals who hold more authoritarian views about law and order, and who are especially concerned about a long-term deterioration of community, may be more likely to perceive disorder in their environment (net of the actual conditions of that environment) (Sampson & Raudenbush, 2004; Hale, 1996; Farrall, Jackson, & Gray, 2009).

They may also be more likely to link these physical cues to problems of social cohesion and consensus, and of declining quality of social bonds and informal social control (Jackson, 2004; Farrall et al., 2009). Some studies have found that local differences in the incidence of crime are associated with variations in the quality and quantity of social interactions, and those communities with strong neighbourhood networks and high levels of social cohesion have lower levels of crime.

A multilevel study in Chicago, USA, found that a combined measure of neighbourhood social cohesion and informal social control was associated with lower levels of violent crime in neighbourhoods (Sampson, Raudenbush, & Earls, 1997; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999). In an Australian study, Carcach and Huntley (2002) found lower crime rates in areas with high levels of participation in community organisations.

In Great Britain, Sampson and Groves (1989) found that the density of local friend-ship networks and participation in local organisations had an impact on a range of crimes such as assaults and burglaries. Less research has considered the impact of neighbourhood social interactions and networks on fear of crime or perceptions of safety. An exception is (McCrea, Shy, Western, & Stimson, 2005) Australia where criminologists found that neighbourhood trust, neighbourhood reciprocity and neighbourhood involvement did not significantly predict fear of crime once age, gender and physical characteristics of the neighbourhood were taken into account.

In this article, an integrated model of neighbourhood level disorder and individual level vulnerability, in relation to explaining individual differences in worry about fear of crime is tested. The aim of the present article is to establish whether there are unique neighbourhood level variations in worry about criminal victimization, independent of neighbourhood composition, and to establish the extent to which proposed mechanisms at the individual level, prior local victimization and perceived disorder, act as mediators of a hypothesized effect of neighbourhood level disorder. This research tested a model of the effects of different predictors on individuals' levels of fear of crime in Pristine neighbourhoods.

2. KOSOVO – THE LAST 20 YEARS AND DESCRIPTION OF TODAY'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Kosovo, spreading over an area of 10,908 km² and with about 2 million inhabitants, has been for years an object of intense interest for politicians, military strategists, intelligence agencies, media and, somewhat less, the scientific community. At the moment, Kosovo is an ethnically very homogenous territory with about 88% Albanian population. The minority populations in Kosovo include Serbs (6%), Bosniaks, Goranis (2%), Roma, Ashkali, Egyptians (RAE) (1.5%), Turks (1%) and others (e.g., Croats) (International Organization for Migration [IOM], 2008). Almost 43% of the Kosovo population is under the age of 19, and its population growth rate (1.3%), as well as population density (193 inhabitants per km²), are estimated to be the greatest in Europe (Statistical office of Kosovo, 2009). There is no unique estimation of vital statistical data, and so the documents of the Ministry of Trade and industry assume that Kosovo is inhabited by 2.4 million of people, but the Ministry of Environment and Regional Planning makes up a new general plan on the basis of 2.2 million of inhabitants, while the Department for Macroeconomic Policy within the Ministry of Finance and Economy operates with the number of between 1.7 and 1.85 million of citizens (Central Election Commission of Republic of Kosovo, 2006). Kosovo has the youngest population in Europe, and it is estimated that 36,000 youngsters enter the labour market each year (United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo, 2004). By the estimations of the World Bank, 40% of the working contingent is unemployed (World Bank, 2007). Kosovo has been an area of conflict for decades and radical differences in the positions of ethnic Albanians striving to separate from Serbia and form an independent state, and Serbia insisting on preserving its territorial integrity is strongly rooted in history. In Kosovo, the pattern of nationalism, mythmaking and revenge has taken on a seemingly permanent character (Knudsen & Lautsen, 2006). During the 1990s clashes between Serbian law enforcement agencies and Albanian paramilitary significantly intensified and that conflict culminated in 1999, when decision makers in the international community assessed that Serbian leadership overstepped its mandate by using excessive force that resulted in ethnic cleansing of Albanian population from the province. NATO launched a bombing campaign against the FR Yugoslavia (March - June 1999). Shortly after the end of the bombing campaign in 1999, about 200,000 Serbs left Kosovo, and the process of their repatriation resulted in a complete fiasco. Approximately 40% from assessed 100,000-140,000 remnant Serbs inhabit the northern part of Kosovo and the other 60% live in three larger communities: in the central part of Kosovo (in a number of settlements around the capital of Pristine), in the south-east of Kosovo (in villages near the towns of Gnjilane, Kosovska Kamenica and Novo Brdo) and in the south (Štrpce), as well as in a series of smaller communities in the Metohia area (around the city of Peć).

Intense restructuring of life in Kosovo commenced in 1999 in the aftermath of the violent conflict. In accordance with UN Security Council resolution 1244, a provisional UN administration mission (UNMIK) was established in order to "provide an interim administration for Kosovo under which the people of Kosovo can enjoy substantial autonomy within the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, and which will provide transitional administration while establishing and overseeing the development of provisional democratic self-governing institutions to ensure conditions for a peaceful and normal life for all inhabitants of Kosovo" (United Nations Security Council [UNSC], 1999). The UNMIK in 2001, announced a Constitutional Framework for provisional self-government, which defined the Provisional Institutions of Self-Government [PISG]. The eight-year period of rule of the provisional administration ended in February 2008 when the Kosovo Parliament proclaimed independence from Serbia. Two months after declaring independence, Kosovo Parliament adopted a constitution and the transfer of mandate from the UN to the institutions of the newly formed state began. The activities of the Kosovo institutions were to be supervised by the EU, which established its mission EULEX (the EU's largest ever European security and defence policy - ESDP operation) in December 2008, with the mandate to assist in building Kosovo's capacities. The international community has a great interest in Kosovo, it being the youngest state in West Balkans, and many EU member countries and the US decided to help Kosovo to develop into a sovereign state and invested a lot in their socio-economic development. Eleven years after the end of the conflict in Kosovo and the establishment of an international protectorate, it can be ascertained that only the first among all the proclaimed goals is fully achieved (finding a new status for the former province). By analysing the presented elements of social life, conclusions can be drawn that the achievements in social reconstruction are modest whilst in the field of reconciling the antagonistic ethnic groups huge challenges will have to be met (Đurić, Kešetović & Meško, 2009). At the end of presenting Kosovo, it is necessary to take these facts in consideration in the creation of an opinion on the impact of international forces in Kosovo and their effort to create, maintain and facilitate socio economic development in a young country where it is assumed that "cleptocracy" is still in power (Dobovšek & Eman, 2008).

3. METHODS

The research "Feelings of Safety in the Kosovo capital Pristine" is an integral part of a larger research "Feelings of Safety in six Capitals of Ex-Yugoslavia". Therefore, the method applied in this research was very similar to that used in other relevant cities, namely: Ljubljana, Zagreb, Sarajevo, Belgrade and Skopje. Further in the text, a short description of the methodological framework for this research will be provided. The research relied on face to face interviews with residents of Pristine who had been visited at their homes. Goal was to collect reliable information about the "feelings of safety" among the adult population (aged 18 and above). Clearly, this could not have been achieved by interviewing all members of the observed population, but only its small fragment, that is a sample of adult citizens (aged 18 and above). The research was conducted during April - June 2009, by the students in the final years of the AAB program at the University in Pristine,⁴ after they had been provided field work training and precise instructions about the procedure for polling and keeping the research documentation. The interviewing process was supervised by experienced researchers of the universities. Researchers completed a three-day training during which a wide variety of issues that can arise during the conduct of the research had been defined, such as: which part (of the street) to go to, what to use as the starting point to identify the right address where to go to, in which way to select household member to be interviewed (next birthday technique), what to do if selected respondent refuses to be interviewed, how many households to visit, what are the deadlines for completion of field work and finally what sort of documents they must have with them and what kind of data they must collect.

The sampling procedure was a multi-stage random probability method. The selection process was carried out through the following four stages: (1) defining city areas or wider neighbourhoods, (2) defining the streets or parts of the streets, (3) selecting convenient households in which the poll or interview would be conducted, (4) selection of one respondent per household. City areas or wider neighbourhoods were defined as a path with a specific starting point and set direction for the pollsters' movement. In Pristine, we obtained a list of 40 precisely defined paths for each city areas where pollsters would move and in such designed areas find their interviewees. Inside each wider neighbourhood, 10 interviews were conducted. When selecting wider neighbourhoods we attempted to ensure representative nature of the sample having the following urban areas' characteristics in mind: (a) centrally located and relatively secluded neigborhoods - 10: 30; (b) areas where individual housing units

⁴Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security AAB-Riinvest University, Prishtine, Kosovo

(family houses) predominate and areas with collective housing (apartment buildings, high-rises) – 10: 50.

Finally, we defined the procedure for selection of interviewees inside previously correctly chosen households, where selection of one respondent per household was based on "next birthday" selection-key. In this way we constructed a sample including 400 Pristine residents (see Table 1.)

Table 1: Pristine respondents' profile

	N	%
Age	400	
18–29	218	54.5
30–39	88	2.,0
40–49	26	6.5
50–59	39	9.8
60–69	19	4.7
70 and more	10	2.5
Gender	400	
Male	169	42.3
Female	231	57.7
Total number of household members	389	
Living alone	9	2,3
2 members	102	26,2
3 members	44	11,3
4 members	69	17,7
5 members	50	12,9
6 members	39	10,0
7 or more members	76	19,6

4. RESULTS

Organization of a local community and its impact on the sense of security of the local population is often a subject of contemporary criminology studies. How safe people feel and how afraid they are of unpredictable circumstances that can arise in their local communities, but also in the city where they live, are often questions that studies with the following titles are striving to answer: Fear of Crime, Victimization Survey, Self-Reported Delinquency etc (Killias, Maljević, & Lucia, 2010; Meško, Fallshore, Muratbegović, & Fields, 2008; Meško, Kovčo Vukadin & Muratbegović, 2008, Maljević, 2002).

If we take a glance on the feeling of security studies conducted in the countries of the former Yugoslavia, we see that they mostly replicated the so-calledVan der Wurff's model which has already been widely used in criminology and which is based on six vignettes describing six different situations. By placing the respondent in the role of the victim in several different scenarios. Van der Wurff's model very realistically extracts possible inconveniences that ordinary people can experience in their day-to-day life (Meško, Kovčo Vukadin & Muratbegović, 2008; Meško, Fallshore, Muratbegović, & Fields, 2008; Meško, Hirtenlehner, Bačanović, Djurić, Kovčo Vukadin, & Muratbegović, 2009; Meško, Hirtenlehner & Vošnjak, 2009). This model offers six hypothetical scenarios: (1)"One evening you are at home on your own. It is late. The doorbell rings, but you are not expecting anyone", respondents are asked to express their concern about the possibility of them becoming the victims in the described situation; (2) "One evening you go to take out the garbage. On the street you see two men walking around a parked car. When they see you looking at them, they begin to walk toward you", the above scenario is closely related to the fact that a significant number of parked personal vehicles are stolen each year in large cities of the Western Balkans, therefore this hypothetical situation is a realistic parameter of citizens' sense of fear.; (3) "You have been invited to a party in a neighbourhood you do not really know. Early that evening you set out by bus. When you get off you still have some way to walk. Suddenly you notice that you have lost your way. A group of youths is following you and are giving unpleasant remarks at you". (4) One afternoon, you are standing at a bus stop when a group of 15 or 16-year-olds comes along. They begin kicking the bus stop and daubing graffiti on the bus shelter", in many victimization studies published in Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and even in one such study published in Kosovo, citizens report youth vandalism as an everyday problem, therefore this situation from the Van der Wurff's model is highly probable and realistic in daily life of urban communities in the aforementioned countries; (5) "You are going out one evening. You are ready and just about to leave when the phone rings. You answer, giving your name. But at the other end you hear only irregular breathing. You ask who is there. They hang up". (6) "You are in a part of town where you have never been before. You go into a bar and inside there is a group of loud speaking local males".

These six situations from the Van der Wurff's model are used to develop a composite variable that is called the "FEAR OF CRIME" (see Figure 1).

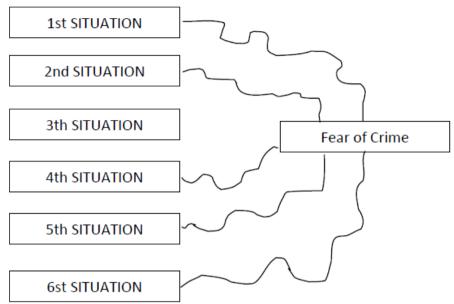


Figure 1. What could determine the Fear of Crime in our research?

As will be presented in this article, all these six situations have significant impact on the citizens' subjective fear of crime. In relation to that, developed composite variables (Fear of Crime) helped us reach desired goal of determining which of the above was the key determinant of the fear of crime among citizens of Pristine.

Quality of life is clearly also generated by trust in the state, that is, local community institutions. There have been several studies of public trust in contemporary criminology. The concept of trust is related to a larger debate on social capital. Social capital refers to connections among individuals –social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them' (Putnam, 2001). According to another definition developed within the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), social capital is a 'network together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups' (Healy & Cote, 2001). Social capital usually refers primarily to social networks of 'personal relationships which are accumulated when people interact with each other in families, workplaces, neighbourhoods, local associations and a range of informal and formal meeting places' (Harper, 2003). On the other hand, social capital also refers to norms of reciprocity and trust. The basic idea behind most definitions of social capital is that well-functioning social networks and communities lay the foundation for the emergence of norms of reciprocity and trust (Kääriäinen, 2007).

In order for our analysis of social factors which are detrimental to the fear of crime in Pristine to be purposeful and scientifically relevant, let us take a look at how citizens of Pristine perceive public institutions. We mention this under the assumption

that the trust in public institutions is an important part of the peoples' general sense of security in urban communities. In that context, let us take a look at how trustworthy the citizens of Pristine think their public institutions are, including: President of the State, Government, Political Parties, Police and Justice. The first descriptive analysis has shown that 44% (95% CI: 30 to 57%) respondents of Pristine mostly supported and trusted their president or were without an opinion about him in 22% (95% CI: 17 to 27%) cases. On the other hand, as many as a half of respondents from Pristine were less trusting of their government than of their president, with one in five surveyed citizens having voiced their trust in the government of Kosovo while only 15% of respondents (95% CI: 10 to 20%) said they trusted political parties. Respondents in Pristine have shown a good level of trust in judiciary 30% (95% CI: 23 to 38%). Police enjoyed the highest level trust of all public institutions, which is maybe the most important for our study because the work of police has a direct impact on citizens' sense of security. About two thirds of respondents in Pristine have voiced their trust in police 64.3% (95% CI: 53 to 76%). Such results could have been expected in Pristine given that the police in Kosovo are controlled by the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) operation there. Trust in police forms good basis for study of other factors which influence citizens' sense of security, that is, their fear of crime at a local level. Variables used to measure the trust in public institutions are the trust in: Presidency (v13a), Government (v13b), Political parties (v13c), Police (v13e) and Judiciary (v13f). Participants were asked to rate their level of trust on a scale from: 1 fully mistrust, 2 somewhat mistrust, 3 doesn't trust or mistrust, 4 somewhat trust and fully trust. These questions were used to develop two composite measurement variables (F1.1) called TRUST IN PRESIDENCY, GOV. AND POL. PARTIES and variable (F1.2) TRUST IN POLICE AND JUDICIARY using Factor Analysis (see Table 7).

In addition to the above, it is very important that citizens feel comfortable in their neighbourhoods and that they trust their neighbours (see Meško, Fallshore, Rep, & Huisman, 2007). Therefore we have analysed the variables which measure the quality of life in a neighbourhood. Let us begin with a set of questions which we had used in an attempt to approximate the quality of life in neighbourhoods of surveyed cities. Better quality of life is determined by a number of factors which obviously also include some which had been covered by the following statements we used: people who live in my neighbourhood can be trusted (v2), I have many friends among my neighbours (v3), there are many people in my neighbourhood on whom I can rely (v4), every day in my neighbourhood I meet many people I know (v5).

Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement with the above statements on a scale from 1 completely disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 – agree, 4 - fully agree. These questions were used to develop a composite measurement variable (F2) called QUALITY OF SOCIAL NETWORKS (see Table 2) using Factor Analysis (see Table 7). One third or some 30% (95% CI: 24 to 37%) of residents in Pristine were somewhat mistrustful of their neighbours, and four fifths of respondents or some 79% (95% CI: 74 to 84%) meet the people they know in their neighbourhood on everyday basis.

A large percentage of respondents in Pristine or some 76% (95% CI: 75 to 78%) have shown complete trust in their neighbourhood. Many respondents in Pristine 72% (95% CI: 63 to 81%) meet the people they know in their neighbourhood on daily basis.

Table 2: Qual	tv of socia	l networks
---------------	-------------	------------

F2 – Quality of social networks				
	Mode	Median	Mean	Std. Deviation
V2-is trustful	3-agree	3-agree	3.05	.76
V3-has many friends	3-agree	3-agree	2.94	.75
V4-relies on people	3-agree	3-agree	2.83	.73
V5-meets many peo- ple	3-agree	3-agree	3.01	.90

One third of surveyed respondents in Pristine or some 37% (95% CI: 30 to 43%) identified presence of graffiti on the walls of residential buildings in their neighbourhood as a major problem. Appearance of buildings and community areas can also influence citizens' opinions on the quality of life in their neighbourhood. Nearly 30% (95% CI: 20 to 40%) of respondents in Pristine believed that rundown buildings were a major problem in their neighbourhood. If we were to consult the Broken Windows Theory, we would conclude that the rundown exteriors also imply that there are some other deviations present (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Half of respondents in Pristine or some 47% (95% CI: 37 to 56%) identified presence of homeless people as a significant problem of their community or their neighbourhood.

How to make an appropriate conclusion about what citizens believe is a "good neighbourhood"? It is hard to say whether their opinion depends on availability of numerous community services in their immediate proximity, clean public areas or something else. For the purpose of this research, participants were asked to rate their level of perception of disorder by rating their agreement or disagreement with the specific statements on a scale from (1) - no problem, to (4) – very significant problem. We selected eight variables from the questioner used in neighbourhood quality surveys conducted in Ljubljana, Zagreb, Sarajevo, Belgrade and Skopje to use them as independent variables for "neighbourhood quality" survey in Pristine. The following variables were used: dirty public spaces, graffiti on the walls, decayed buildings, young people aimlessly wandering the streets, young people aimlessly wandering the streets, street drunks, signs of vandalism, beggars coming up to passers-by and significant number of homeless (see Table 3).

Table 3: Social Disorder & Neighbourhood

F3		Pristine					
Neigh orde	nborhood Social Dis- r	Mode	Median	Mean	Std. Devi- ation		
	V6- dirty public spaces	4-very significant problem	3-important prob- lem	2.80	1.08		
F3.1	V7- graffiti	2-little problem	2-little problem	2.17	1.00		
	V8- decayed build- ings	2-little problem	2-little problem	2.25	.96		
	V11-signs of van- dalism	3-important problem	3-important prob- lem	2.59	1.04		
	V9- street young people	4-very significant problem	3-important prob- lem	2.90	1.08		
F3.2	V10-street drunks	4-very significant problem	2-little problem	2.53	1.14		
	V12-beggars	4-very significant problem	3-important prob- lem	2.58	1.28		
	V13-homeless	1-not problem at all	2-little problem	2.32	1.23		

Note: F3.1. Social disorder in neighbourhoods in terms of infrastructures; F3.2. Social disorder in neighbourhoods in terms of people.

It is very hard to say what concerns citizens the most in relation to crime. Clearly, it would be possible to give a simple answer to this question only if we exactly establish what problems or what types of crime citizens are most worried about. That is exactly what we did in Pristine, we asked the citizens about their concern over everyday occurrence in their local communities and in their city of specific types of crime, namely: mugging, fraud, street fights, theft, insults, robberies. Presence of such criminal behaviours is making one neighbourhood more or less pleasant for living, which is why such experiences can be grouped under one composite variable F4 which is called CONCERN –neighbourhood crime (see Table 4).

F4	Pri	Pristine							
	Мс	ode		Me	dian		Mean	Std. tion	Devia-
V15- mugging		very ned	con-		uite ned	con-	4.08	1.17	
V16- fraud		very			juite ned	con-	3.91	1.17	
V17-street fights		very			very	con-	4.16	1.23	
V18-theft		very			very	con-	4.24	1.03	
V19- insults		very			uite ned	con-	3.70	.84	
V20- robberies		very	con-		very	con-	4.28	1.13	

Table 4: Concern - neighbourhood crime

Respondents expressed concern over frequent street robberies and large percentage (90%) of surveyed residents recognized street robberies as a significant problem in their neighbourhood. With this in mind, it is not surprising that a majority of respondents in Pristine 87% (95% CI: 80 to 94%) fear that they might become the victims of physical assault in the neighbourhoods where they live. A large percentage or 91% (95% CI: 86 to 96%) of respondents in Pristine were also concerned about possibility of burglary in their apartments.

Finally, people show how they perceive quality of their life and how afraid they are for their life and their property by taking some preventive measures. Different people take different precautions including: avoiding some streets and some parts of their neighbourhood (v84), being cautious with unknown people they meet at night (v85), avoiding to use public transport at night (v86) and finally, avoiding to go out at night except when it is absolutely necessary (v88). Participants were asked to rate the frequency of the precaution measures they take by rating their agreement or disagreement with the above statements on a scale from 1 - never, 2 - rarely, 3 - sometime, 4 - frequently, 5 - always. We used above behaviours (variables) to construct composite variable (F5) using Factor Analysis which we called PRECAUTION MEASURES (Tables 5 & Table 7).

F5 –Precaution measures				
	Mode	Median	Mean	Std. Devia- tion
V84-avoiding some streets at night	5-always	4-frequently	3.69	1.24
V85-being cautious with people at night	5-always	4-frequently	4.01	1.18
V86- avoiding public transport at night	3-some- time	4-frequently	2.87	1.46
V88- avoiding to go out at night	5-always	3-sometime	3.35	1.39

Table 5: Precaution measures (self-protection)

Findings have shown that 83% (95% CI: 77 to 88%) of residents of Pristine are very likely to avoid certain streets and parks in their neighbourhood. High percentage of respondents in Pristine or some 87% (95% CI: 83 to 91%) walk away from strangers they meet at night, and also high percentage or some 72% of (95% CI: 62 to 81%) surveyed citizens go out at night only when that is necessary. Over a half of citizens or some 56% (95% CI: 52 to 59%) believed that public transport was not safe at night.

The fear of crime model presented below is related to neighbourhood disorder, in the widest possible sense of those words (F1-F5), in Pristine (Figure 2).

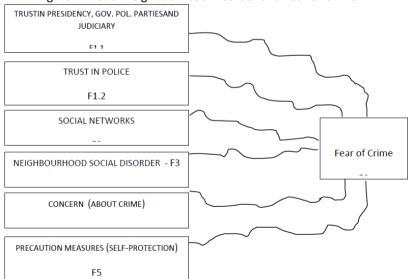


Figure 2: Model Neighbourhood Disorder and Fear of Crime

4.1 Factor and regression analysis

As is usual for this type of surveys, we will also conduct regression analysis through its central part - the so-called regression model (see Figure 2). Regression model we will use in this survey on the sample of Pristina citizens is an algebra model used to analytically express statistical relationships between investigated phenomena. With the above fear of crime model in mind (see Figure 2), we conducted factor analysis relying greatly on the experiences from Farrall and others and Meško and Farrall studies (Farrall, Bannister, Ditton, & Gilchrist, 1997; Meško & Farrall, 1999). In this way we will test the correlation between one dependable variable and several independent variables in order to arrive at an analytical expression of their relationship named "Pristine Fear of Crime Model".

For the purpose of this research, we conducted factor analysis of variables from (1) to (6) (see Table 6)⁵.

We conducted factor analysis that construct composite FEAR OF CRIME variable (F0). The factor analysis included the overall sample for Pristine (see Table 7). In the next step, we conducted regression analysis (forced entry method) for the purpose of which composite variables (F1-F5) were observed as independent variables while FEAR OF CRIME (F0) was observed as dependent variable.

In this segment of the research, we arrived at descriptive statistical analysis of the regression model through assessment of unknown parameters and by determining other statistical-analytical values. We used the results exclusively for description of the given variables and we have not generalized them. After that, we conducted inferential statistical analysis by assessing parameters and testing the hypothesis on the parameters we included in the Pristine Fear of Crime Model. Finally, we also conducted regression diagnostics as a segment of quality testing of the obtained results that is, testing of theoretical assumptions on which we based the used methods of analysis. Results of regression analysis are presented in Table 8.

youths is following you and are giving unpleasant remarks at you". (4) "One afternoon, you are standing at a bus stop when a group of 15 or 16-year-olds comes along. They begin kicking the bus stop and daubing graffiti on the bus shelter"; (5) "You are going out one evening. You are ready and just about to leave when the phone rings. You answer, giving your name. But at the other end you hear only irregular breathing. You ask who is there. They hang up" and (6) "You are in a part of town where you have never been

before. You go into a bar and inside there is a group of loud speaking local males".

⁵ (1)"One evening you are at home on your own. It is late. The doorbell rings, but you are not expecting anyone"; (2) "One evening you go to take out the garbage. On the street you see two men walking around a parked car. When they see you looking at them, they begin to walk toward you"; (3) "You have been invited to a party in a neighbourhood you do not really know. Early that evening you set out by bus. When you get off you still have some way to walk. Suddenly you notice that you have lost your way. A group of youths is following you and are giving unpleasant remarks at you". (4) "One afternoon, you are standing

In Pristine

Table 6: Factor analysis "Safety feeling"

Vignettes		Factor loading	Mean	Standard deviation
F1: Fear of crime (62.74	% var.); KMO=0.88; α=0.88		2.93	0.30
Doorbell (s25)	One evening you are at home on your own. It is late. The doorbell rings, but you are not expecting anyone;		3.29	112
Car (s26)	One evening you go to take out the garbage. On the street you see two men walking around a parked car. When they see you looking at them, they begin to walk toward you;		2.60	1.07
Party(s27)	You have been invited to a party in a neighbourhood you do not really know. Early that evening you set out by bus. When you get off you still have some way to walk. Suddenly you notice that you have lost your way. A group of youths is following you and are giving unpleasant remarks at you;		2.52	1.11
Bus stop (s28)	One afternoon, you are standing at a bus stop when a group of 15 or 16-year-olds comes along. They begin kicking the bus stop and daubing graffiti on the bus shelter;		3.07	1.30
Telephone(s29)	You are going out one evening. You are ready and just about to leave when the phone rings. You answer, giving your name. But at the other end you hear only irregular breathing. You ask who is there. They hang up;		3.00	1.12
Bar(s30)	You are in a part of town where you have never been before. You go into a bar and inside there is a group of loud speaking local males.	0.76	3.09	1.21

Crombach's Alpha coefficient of internal consistency is high (0.88). Factor F0 –Safety feeling describes 62.74 per cent of the overall variance. Factor loadings vary from 0.72 (for s25- Doorbell) to 0.85 (s27 Party).

Table 7:

Other variables	Mean	Standard deviation
F1.1 Trust in Presidency, Gov., Pol. Partiesand Judiciary	•	•
(36.04% var.)		
F1.2 Trust in Police		
(24.81 % var.)		
KMO=0.54; α=0.49	2.74	0.66
F2: Social Networks	•	•
(59.25 % var.); KMO=0.74; α=0.76	2.95	0.09
F3.1: Social disorder in neighbourhoods in terms of people		
(47.75% var.)		
F3.1: Social disorder in neighbourhoods in terms of infrastructure		
(14.84 % var.);		
KMO=0.75; α=0.84	2.52	0.26
F4: Concern (about crime in the neighbourhood)	4.06	0.22
(50.01 % var.); KMO=0.78; α=0.79	4.00	0.22
F5: Precaution measures (self-protection)	3.48	0.46
(59.67 % var.); KMO=0.71; α=0.75	3,40	0.40

In the next stage, we assessed the reliability of the measurement instrument relying on the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. This coefficient is a value that measures consistency, that is, correlation between variables used to measure the Fear of Crime defined by us as the Model. We arrived at the following values: Crombach's Alpha coefficient of internal consistency is acceptable for all factors in the model except for the "Precaution measures" (F5) which is questionable (0.60). Factor named "Social disorder in neighbourhoods in term of infrastructures" (F3.1) was introduced to the regression model as well. This regression model has shown statistical significance at p<0.001 level, in that two components: "Precaution measures" and "Disorder in neighbourhoods in term of infrastructures" (F3.1) were found to significantly influence the sense of fear (see Table 8).

Table 8: Regression Results for Significant Interaction Terms

I	Ì		
Pristine	В	Std. Error	Beta
Constant	-,006	,045	
F1.1 TRUST IN PRESIDENCY, GOV. ,POL. PARTIES AND JU- IDICIARY	,053	,047	,053
F1.2 TRUST IN POLICE	-,001	,046	-,001
F2 SOCIAL NETWORKS	,037	,046	,037
F3.2 NEIGHBOURHOOD SOCIAL DISORDER (People)	,084	,050	,084
F3.1 NEIGHBORHOOD SOCIAL DISORDER (Infrastructure)	,225***	,046	,224
F4 CONCERN OVER CRIME	-,061	,052	-,061
F5 SELF-PROTECTION	- ,389***	,048	-,388

Dependent variable: F1 - "Safety feeling"; *** - p<0.000; R2=0.207; N=400

Based on the results of the regression analysis, we can conclude that there is a very clear picture of the regression model of fear of crime in Pristine. Judging from the model, respondents from Pristine who were more concerned with neighbourhood social disorder reflected in the state of infrastructure such as dirty public spaces, graffiti, decayed buildings and signs of vandalism were also more likely than other surveyed respondents to have greater fear of crime. Fear of crime tended to be lower among respondents in Pristine who take precautions in their everyday life such as avoiding dark places and unknown people they meet at night. Therefore, the findings confirm widely accepted theoretical assumption that the people who have a welldeveloped sense of self-protection also feel safer. On the other hand, untidy neighbourhoods make citizens feel less secure. This claim is in keeping with the "Broken Windows Theory" which states that "derelict surroundings are, in fact, the first broken window of a local community." With all the above in mind, we can conclude that the findings of the "Fear of Crime in Pristine" research conform to a great extend to widely accepted theoretical assumptions based on various studies of security of the local communities in the countries of the European Union.

	_				
Tahle 12.	Regression	analysis –	social de	mographic mode	ı
TUDIC IZ.	INCEL COSTOTI	ullulysis	Jocial ac	mograpine mode	

	Total (N=400)			
Independent variables ⁶	Beta/sig.			
Gender (Woman)	398/***			
Student	392/***			
Position in the labour market (Unemployed)	373/***			
Position in the labour market (Housewife)	461/*			
Sporadic religious activities	398/***			
Bad economic situation	682/***			
$R^2 = .156$				

Dependent variable: Safety feeling, Constant 0.468*** N=400. Significance ***0.001, **0.01, *0.05

When looking for statistical significance for the overall sample (see Figure 3), we established that the persons who have weaker "social network" tend to fear more, but not significantly more. Additionally, persons who are "concerned" over different forms of crime in their neighbourhood were also found to be more likely to show greater fear of crime. More "cautious" respondents in Pristine tend to show greater fear, as additionally confirmed by high value of Beta coefficient (.290). Results of regression analysis for the Pristine sample pointed to statistically significant influence of "neighbourhood disorder" variable in the sense that respondents who consider their neighbourhoods to be in disorder (graffiti and rundown buildings) also tend to be more afraid of crime. Precaution measures variable has statistically significant influence on the intensity of the fear of crime in Pristine (see Figure 3). Fear of crime tended to be lower among respondents in Pristine who take precautions in their everyday life such as avoiding dark places and unknown people they meet at night but they feel higher fear of crime when they take money with them.

 6 Only independent variables (factors) on the 0.05, 0.01 or 0.001 significance levels are included in the table.

Regressions model with socio demographic variables shows that weak socio-economic categories of society in Kosovo as women, students, unemployed, housewives, people with sporadic religious activities and people in bad economic situation have greater fear of crime.

Figure 3: What works? — Pristine

NEIGHBOURHOOD SOCIAL DISORDER (Infrastructure) - F3

Precaution measures (self-protection) - F5

Fear of Crime

5. CONCLUSION

The common Neighbourhood Disorder and Safety feeling Model (see Figure 3) has shown that well-developed neighbourhood social disorder have a non-significant impact in Pristine on the neighbourhood fear of crime. This does not come as a surprise considering that the people in the post-socialist societies are traditionally more reliant on their family and friends. The above trend was somewhat stronger in Kosovo, because above observation (see Table 1) shows that nearly a half of respondents from Pristine live in households with more than five members while one fifth of them live in households with seven and more members. It is logical to expect the people who live in larger households will have better opportunities to develop stronger social networks. This probably also explains the fact that Albanians are considered throughout the former Yugoslavia to be the best organized nation with strongest social and family networks which provide support to their members including by funding their business activities. This opinion can be supported by empirical evidence, since Albanians enjoy nearly exclusive right to small family businesses such as bakeries or cake shops in nearly all cities of former Yugoslavia (with the combine population of some 22 million people).

On the other hand, the high frequency with which crimes are being committed in urban centres in Europe greatly influences the fear of crime felt by residents of large European cities. Not only registered crime rate, but also the so-called dark figure of crime influence public sense of security. Thus, it is not surprising that public concern with crime is a corrective factor which influences and increases the fear of crime among our respondents. However, residents of EU capitals and capitals in ex-Yugo-slavia countries has greater tendency than residents of Pristine to mention everyday crime as one of the factors which feed their fears.

Since some of our findings had been partially interpreted in the above chapters, the conclusion will include only a brief overview of some factors influencing the public fear of crime in Pristine covered by this research. According to the results, only one in fife surveyed residents of Pristine had positive opinion of or trusted their public

institutions (presidency, government and judiciary). The only exception to this was police as police forces in Pristine enjoyed trust of more than a half of respondents. In conclusion, we can also say that the people in Pristine who take more precaution tend to be lower fear of crime. The above finding is realistic and unsurprising. On the other hand, the composite variable "neighbourhood disorder" had a detrimental influence on the fear of crime.

REFERENCES

- Carcach, C. & Huntley, C. (2002).Community participation and regional crime. *Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice*, (222).Retrieved from http://www.aic.gov.au/documents/0/2/8/%7B0280A17B-5E35-4402-B130-5FB03A7C1FE5%7Dti222.pdf
- Carvalho, I. & Lewis, D. A. (2003). Beyond community: Reactions to crime and disorder among inner-city residents. *Criminology*, 41(3), 779-812.
- Central Election Commission of Republic of Kosovo. (2006). Publication of the Kosovo human development report. Retrieved fromhttp://www.kosovo.undp.org/repository/docs/hdr-eng.pdf
- Dobovšek, B. & Eman, K. (2008). Mreže organizirane kriminalitete na Zahodnem Balkanu. Varstvoslovje, 10 (1), 174-194.
- Đurić S., Kešetović, Ž. & Meško, G. (2009). Kosovo crisis as bad infinity. In-Riešenie krizovych situacii v špecifickomprostredi, zbornik z 14. vedeckejkonferencie s medzinarodnou učastou (pp.145-152). Žilina: Fakulteta špeciálneho inžinierstva Žilinskej University.
- Farrall, S., Bannister, J., Ditton, J. & Gilchrist, E. (1997) Questioning the measurement of the fear of crime: findings from a major methodological study. *British Journal of Criminology 37* (4), 658–659.
- Farrall, S., Jackson, J. & Gray, E. (2009). Social order and the fear of crime in contemporary times. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hale, C. (1996). Fear of crime: A review of the literature. *International Review of Victimology*, 4(2), 79-150.
- Harper, D.A. (2003). Foundations of Entrepreneurship and Economic Development, New York: Routledge
- Healy, T., & Cote, S. (2001), The Well-being of Nations: The Role of Human and Social Capital, OECD Publishing.
- International Organization for Migration.(2008). Fact-sheet Kosovo. Retrieved from: http://www.ch.iom.int/fileadmin/media/pdf/programme/laenderprogramme/balkan/allg_infos/Fact_Sheet_Kosovo 2008.pdf
- Jackson, J. (2004). Experience and expression: Social and cultural significance in the fear of crime. British Journal of Criminology, 44(6), 946-966.
- Kääriäinen, J. T. (2007). Trust in the police in 16 European countries: A multilevel analysis. *European Journal of Criminology*, 4(4), 409-435.

- Kawachi, I., Kennedy, B. P. & Wilkinson, R. G. (1999). Crime: Social disorganization and relative deprivation. Social Science and Medicine, 48(6), 719-731.
- Killias, M., Maljević, A., & Lucia, S. (2010). Imported Violence? Juvenile Delinquency Among Balkan Youths in Switzerland and in Bosnia-Herzegovina. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 16, (3) 183-189.
- Knudsen, T. & Laustsen, C. (2006). The Politics of International Trusteeship. In T. Knudsen & C. Laustsen (Eds), Kosovo between War and Pease. London: Routledge.
- Maljević, A. (2002) Building a Model for Studying Fear of Crime in Bosnia and Herzegovina, European Journal of Crime, Criminal Law and Criminal Justice, Special Issue on War-Victimization-Security: The case of Former Yugoslavia, 10(2-3) 182-192
- McCrea, R., Shyy, T.-K., Western, J. & Stimson, R.J. (2005). Fear of crime in Brisbane: Individual, social and neighbourhood factors in perspective. *Journal of Sociology*, 41(1), 7-27.
- Meško, G., Fallshore, M., Muratbegović, E. & Fields, C. B. (2008). Fear of crime in two post-socialist capital cities - Ljubljana, Slovenia and Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 36(6), 546-553.
- Meško, G., Fallshore, M., Rep, M. & Huisman, A. (2007). Police efforts in the reduction of fear of crime in local communities: Big expectations and questionable effects. Sociologija. Mintisirveiksmas, (2), 70-91.
- Meško, G., & Farrall, S. (1999). The Social psychology of the fear of crime: A comparison of Slovenian, Scottish and Dutch local crime surveys. *Hrvatska revija za rehabilitacijska istraživanja*, 35(2), 141-149.
- Meško, G., Hirtenlehner, H. & Vošnjak, L. (2009). Izkušnje s kriminaliteto in občutek ogroženosti v Linzu in Ljubljani – preskuskognitivne teorije strahu pred viktimizacijo. Revijazakriminalistiko in kriminologijo, 61(4), 292-308.
- Meško, G., Hirtenlehner, H., Bačanović, O., Djurić, S., Kovčo Vukadin, I. & Muratbegović, E. (2009). The connective links between victimization and fear testing a theory of psychological incapacitation in the capital cities of the former Yugoslav Republics. In G. Meško, & B. Tominc (Eds.), Criminology and crime policy between human rights and effective crime control: Book of abstracts (pp. 168). Cambridge: The European Society of Criminology.
- Meško, G., Kovčo Vukadin, I., & Muratbegović, E. (2008). Social-demographic and social-psychological perspectives of fear of crime in Slovenia, Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. In H. Kury (Ed.), Fear of crime punitivity: New developments in theory and research (pp. 173-196). Bochum: Universitäts verlag Brockmeyer.
- Putnam, R.D. (2001). Social Capital: Measurement and Consequences. *Canadian Journal of Policy Research*, 2001(2), 41-51.
- Sampson, R.J. & Groves, W. B. (1989). Community structure and crime: Testing social-disorganisation theory. American Journal of Sociology, 94(4), 774-802.

- Sampson, R. J. & Raudenbush, S. W. (1999). Systematic social observation of public spaces: A new look at disorder in urban neighbourhoods. *American Journal of Sociology*, 105(3), 603-651.
- Sampson, R. J. & Raudenbush, S. W. (2004). Seeing disorder: Neighbour-hood stigma and the social construction of broken windows. Social Psychology Quarterly, 67(4), 319-342.
- Sampson, R.J., Raudenbush, S. & Earls, F. (1997). Neighbourhoods and violent crime: A multilevel study of collective efficacy. Science, (277), 918-924.
- Shaw, M., Tunstall, H. & Dorling, D. (2005). Increasing inequalities in risk of murder in Britain: Trends in the demographic and spatial distribution of murder, 1981-2000. *Health & Place*, 11(1), 45-54.
- Statistical office of Kosovo (2009).Kosovo in Figures 2008. Quarterly Bulletin, 22-27. Retrieved from: http://www.kryeministriks.net/repository/docs/ANNUAL GOVERNMENT REPORT 2008.pdf
- United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo. (2004). The Law against Discrimination, Law No. 2004/32, declared by UNMIK Regulation No. 2004/32 on Declaration of Law Against Discrimination (August 20, 2004). Retrieved from: http://www.osce.org/kosovo/25854.
- United Nations Security Council.(1999). Resolution 1244 (1999), adopted by the Security Council at its 4011th meeting, on 10 June 1999. Retrieved from: http://www.nato.int/kosovo/docu/u990610a.htm.
- Weatherburn, D. (1992). Economic adversity and crime. Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice, (40). Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.
- Wilson, J. Q. & Kelling, G. (1982). Broken windows: The police and neighbourhood safety. Atlantic Monthly, (249), 29-38.
- World Bank. (2007). Kosovo poverty assessment. Volume I: Accelerating inclusive growth to reduce widespread poverty. Report No. 39737-XK.
 Retrived from: http://www.skmbalcani.cooperazione.esteri.it/utlskmbalcani/IT/Documenti/Pdf/KosovoPAvol1.pdf