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# Fear of Crime Among Dentistry Students (The Case of Harran University)

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**Abstract**

Crime, a social phenomenon, has coexisted with human history, manifesting in various forms across different societies and historical periods, leading to social disorder. Fear of crime is an emotional response of dread or anxiety toward crime or symbols associated with crime.

The aim of this study was to examine the prevalence of fear of crime during patient care, internship practices and environmental interactions among students residing in Şanlıurfa and studying at the Harran University Faculty of Dentistry. This study investigates the prevalence of crime-related fear among dentistry students during patient care, internships, and environmental interactions.

The quantitative research method was adopted in this study. In this context, a survey form was created to obtain field data by scanning the relevant literature. A web-based survey was administered to 250 dental students at Harran University, Turkey. The 26-item survey collected demographic data and prior crime experiences. The data were analyzed quantitatively and Chi-square and Multiple response tests were used to determine the level of statistical significance (p<0.05). In this context, among 250 participants (62.50% response rate), it was found that female students were frequently victimized by crime during their duties at the faculty with a significant difference (p=0.001). The fear of crime and victimization among female students was found to be significantly high (p<0.05) and this situation negatively affects their professional and social lives.

**Keywords**      Crime · Types of Crime · Fear of Crime · Effects of Fear of Crime · Dentistry Students

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# Introduction

Criminal behavior is a phenomenon that develops with the changes in the sociocultural structures of societies in the historical process. In the historical process, all societies have produced forms of crime specific to their socioeconomic conditions. The processes of urbanization, population mobility and social disintegration accelerated by the Industrial Revolution have transformed not only the form of crime but also the perception of crime in society. This transformation has enabled crime to be considered not only as an individual deviation but also as a reflection of structural inequalities and social control mechanisms (Carrabine et al., 2009).

The concept of fear of crime has become an important research topic in the social sciences literature, not only in terms of actual crimes, but also in terms of individuals' perceptions and understandings of the possibility of encountering crime. Scientific studies on crime in the modern world, especially since the 1970s, show that fear of crime is more prevalent in dense urban areas and is felt at a higher level among socioeconomically vulnerable groups such as the poor, the elderly and women (Erskine, 1974). This situation shows that crime should be evaluated not only in terms of its material consequences, but also in terms of its psychosocial effects that shape the daily life practices of individuals, depending on the increasingly individualized lifestyle in modern societies.

Some studies on crime among university students in Turkey reveal that the fear of crime felt by students is an important factor that negatively affects their campus life and their social interactions among themselves and with other people. For example, according to the findings obtained from the questionnaire applied to a total of 554 students (374 female and 180 male) between the ages of 18-25 studying in different faculties and departments of different universities in Istanbul in 2005, it was determined that students' perception of the risk of being a victim of crime was high and this perception negatively affected their daily lives (Özaşçılar & Ziyalar, 2009: 13). Similarly, in another study conducted in 2018 among students studying at different educational levels and in different associate, undergraduate and graduate programs at Selçuk University Alaeddin Keykubad Campus, according to the findings of the research conducted with a total of 225 students (146 female and 79 male) aged 18-26+; 64.4% of female students and 45.6% of male students stated that they were worried about crime on campus (Çelik & Mirza 2020: 9-11).

In a study conducted at Necmettin Erbakan University in 2017 on the anxiety-fear levels of dentistry faculty students, it was revealed that the anxiety and fears encountered by students during the education process are not only limited to professional skills, but are also inevitably affected by environmental factors. According to the results of the study, it was determined that dental anxiety and fear levels of dentistry students varied according to class level and first-year students experienced higher levels of anxiety (Menziletoğlu, et al. 2018: 27). These findings suggest that the environmental and social factors that students encounter during the education process may increase their general anxiety and fear of crime levels by combining with psychosocial stressors such as fear of crime in addition to their occupational anxiety.

The crime surge has amplified the fear among non-offenders. University students, often navigating unfamiliar environments away from home, are particularly vulnerable to the psychological and behavioral impacts of crime. Fear of crime among students can significantly influence their daily routines, mental health, and overall campus experience. This fear is not unfounded; data from the U.S. The National Crime Survey (1965–1993) revealed a direct correlation between rising crime rates and heightened fear of crime, especially among non-offenders (Warr, 1995). In response, individuals—including students—may resort to self-imposed restrictions, often described as a form of "house arrest," where outdoor or social activities are limited due to perceived safety concerns (Braungart et al., 1980).

The broader historical context further informs students' perceptions. Since the 19th century, national crime records have shown a steady rise in crime, with notable surges following World War II and especially after the 1970s. During these periods, property crimes became particularly prevalent (Carrabine et al., 2009). These types of crimes—especially theft and vandalism—are frequently experienced or witnessed by university students, either directly or through peers, contributing to a heightened sense of vulnerability on and around campuses.

Importantly, while some may perceive crime as an outcome of an individual's moral failure or free will, criminological perspectives suggest a more nuanced understanding. Italian criminologist Cesare Lombroso argued that crime cannot be attributed to a single cause; rather, it emerges from a complex interplay of social, psychological, and environmental factors. As he stated, "This multiplicity is often the rule in human phenomena, and these phenomena can almost never be attributed to a single cause unrelated to the others" (Lombroso, 1911). For university students, this complexity may manifest in how crime is both experienced and internalized—through personal incidents, peer networks, media narratives, and institutional responses.

Despite common assumptions, there has never been a "golden age" free from crime (Carrabine et al., 2009). However, in an era of rising recorded crime rates and intensified media coverage, university students are increasingly exposed to narratives that amplify fear, even when actual risks may be statistically moderate. Thus, addressing the fear of crime among students requires both structural safety measures and efforts to recalibrate perceptions based on a realistic understanding of crime trends and causes.

## I. Fear Of Crime and The Effect of Fear of Crime on People in Daily Life

Fear of crime is broadly understood as an emotional and psychological reaction to perceived threats of criminal victimization, often disproportionate to actual risk. It manifests through anxiety, caution, and behavioral adaptations even in the absence of direct victimization. Ferraro (1995) defined fear of crime as an emotional response of dread or anxiety toward crime or symbols associated with crime, reinforcing that it is rooted more in perception than in objective threat. Garofalo (1981) similarly emphasized this fear as a sense of danger associated with crime-related stimuli. Several theoretical frameworks help explain this phenomenon. The vulnerability hypothesis suggests that those who perceive themselves as physically or socially vulnerable—such as the elderly, women, or those with disabilities—are more likely to experience fear (Killias, 1990; Farrall, & Lee, 2008). The incivilities thesis argues that visible signs of social disorder, such as graffiti, loitering, and public intoxication, increase fear because they signal weakened informal social controls (Skogan, 1990). In contrast, social cohesion and collective efficacy theories (Sampson, Raudenbush, & Earls, 1997) posit that when communities are more socially cohesive and residents are willing to intervene for the common good, the fear of crime tends to decrease. Recent studies also link media consumption to heightened fear, particularly among individuals exposed to sensationalized or crime-heavy news coverage (Surette, 2010; Chadee & Ditton, 2005).

Importantly, the fear of crime is not evenly distributed across societies. The European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights in 2021 a report by the found that nearly 30% of Europeans avoid certain places in their neighborhoods due to fear of crime, with women and migrants disproportionately affected (FRA, 2021). In urban settings, fear often influences how people use public spaces, restricts mobility, and undermines the quality of life (Ceccato & Nalla, 2020). In the United Kingdom, the Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW, 2023) indicated that although overall crime rates have decreased in recent years, public fear of crime has not followed the same trajectory—particularly in lower-income or high-density areas. This discrepancy highlights the complex social dynamics that influence fear independently of actual victimization (Hale, 1996;

Jackson & Bradford, 2010). Policymakers are increasingly aware that reducing crime alone may not alleviate fear; instead, strategies must also address environmental design, community trust, and public perceptions of safety (Carrabine et al., 2009; Innes & Jones, 2006).

Italian scientist Ferraro provided a compelling definition of fear of crime as an emotional response of dread or anxiety toward crime or symbols associated with crime (Ferraro, 1995: 23). Essentially, it is an emotional reaction marked by a sense of danger and anxiety (Garofalo, 1981). Different social groups and individuals vary not only in their vulnerability to crime but also in their fear levels. Fear of crime, as distinguished by Hale in 1992, is a distinct issue from actual crime occurrence and victimization, leading to policies aimed at reducing this fear (Carrabine, et al., 2009).

The fear of becoming a victim of crime is profoundly unsettling. Many individuals are haunted by the ever-present possibility of an unexpected encounter with a criminal, be it on the street or within their own homes, potentially leading to robbery, assault, or in the case of women, even rape. However, it is not just this personal dread that has captivated the interest of social scientists in the 'fear of crime' concept from the 1960s, or the reason it is considered a significant societal issue. The fear of crime can lead to impacts far beyond causing individuals to feel anxious. These potential consequences and their far-reaching implications have piqued the interest of social scientists, provided sensational headlines for the media, and offered potent talking points for politicians (Box vd., 1988). The determining factors contributing to fear of crime include the following: (i) the sense of vulnerability, (ii) environmental signals and circumstances, (iii) personal awareness of crime and victimization, (iv) faith in the policing and criminal justice systems, (v) assessments of personal risk, and (vi) the severity of different types of offenses.

While research on fear of crime involves participants in how safe they are from crime or how likely they are to be victims of crime, the scope of these questions asks people to estimate their risk of being victimized, not how afraid they are of being victimized (Lagrange & Ferraro, 1989).

Fear of crime significantly affects the elderly's quality of life and mobility, potentially limiting their activities, jeopardizing social interactions, and intensifying feelings of isolation and dissatisfaction. A study suggests that older adults' increased vulnerability to crime can restrict their behavior, leading to a form of "self-imposed house arrest" (Braungart vd., 1980).

One of the most important factors affecting fear of crime is gender. One of the first studies on the subject was conducted by Braungart, Braungart and Hoyer (1980). The data obtained from the results of the questionnaire applied in the study consistently show that women generally report higher levels of fear of crime compared to men. Subsequent similar studies on the subject have also broadly supported the findings of this study. For example, Warr (1984) put forward the "shadow of sexual assault" hypothesis, suggesting that women's fear of crime increases due to the underlying fear of sexual victimization, which in turn strengthens their perception-anxiety of general risk exposure in social life.

Recent studies on the inequality of fear of crime due to gender differences continue to confirm the findings of Braungart, Braungart and Hoyer (1980) on gender differences in fear of crime. Jackson and Stafford (2009) found that women tend to perceive themselves as more vulnerable to crime. In their daily lives, women cannot go out after dark as comfortably as they do during the daytime; in this context, it has been determined that they do not go out with higher levels of avoidance behaviors because they do not feel safe. Similarly, Sutton and Farrall (2005) argue that women's fears are not only rooted in actual rates of victimization, but are influenced by broader cultural narratives and media portrayals that frame women as inherently more vulnerable. Hale (1996) conducted a comprehensive review of European studies and concluded that across cultural contexts, women consistently report higher levels of fear despite being victims of violent crime less often than men.

Technological advances in data collection have also strengthened this model. Solymosi, Bowers, and Fujiyama (2015) used smartphone-based surveys to capture real-time fear of crime in urban areas and found that women reported significantly higher levels of fear, particularly in poorly lit or isolated public spaces. These gender differences were further contextualized by Farrall and Lee (2008), who argued that fear of crime needs to be understood through a structural lens that takes into account social inequalities, gender norms and institutional practices that perpetuate feelings of insecurity among women.

A review of the main studies on fear of crime conducted in the 1980s briefly showed that gender is a key variable in fear of crime. Current research continues to show that women's fears are shaped by a complex interaction of psychological, social and environmental factors, reinforcing the need for gender-sensitive crime prevention strategies.

Subsequent research suggests that fear is influenced by two main components: the individual's estimate of the risk of personal victimization and his or her judgment of the likely severity of the consequences that would follow such an event (Hale, 1996).

For nearly 50 years, research on fear of crime has been of great interest and continues to be of interest. Scholars have tried to understand why certain individuals experience more fear. One consistent finding across these studies is that women generally exhibit a greater fear of crime compared to men. While there are exceptions to this pattern, a significant number of studies confirm higher levels of fear of crime among women (Ferraro, 1996). More recent research has continued to support this gender disparity, suggesting that women's fear is not merely a reflection of actual victimization rates, but is influenced by broader social and psychological factors in relation to social change.

In a study conducted by Jackson and Gray (2010), it was revealed that women were more likely to predict the emotional consequences of victimization, which contributed to higher levels of fear. The study also emphasized that fear of crime is closely linked to perceptions of control and vulnerability; in these dimensions, women often reported feeling disadvantaged. Similarly, Reid and Konrad (2004) investigated gendered fear in urban settings and concluded that the spatial context, such as poorly lit areas and perceptions of neighborhood disorder, played an important role in shaping women's fear responses.

In addition to studies since the 1980s, recent work on crime has drawn attention to intersectionality in understanding fear of crime. Anthias (2014) argued that race, class, and gender together shape perceptions of safety and that women from marginalized communities often experience the highest levels of fear due to their compounded vulnerabilities. Solymosi, Bowers and Fujiyama's (2015) study using mobile technology to measure fear in real time confirmed that women consistently report higher levels of fear in different urban environments, especially at night or in unfamiliar environments.

Importantly, researchers such as Farrall and Lee (2008) stress that the gendered fear of crime must be contextualized within broader societal narratives and institutional practices that perpetuate the image of women as perpetual victims. They argue for a shift from focusing solely on individual fear to examining the structural conditions that produce and reinforce gendered insecurity.

Being a victim of a crime alone is not enough to explain anyone's fear of crime. Since any family member or friend in the social environment of the individual is a victim of crime, it is very meaningful that the fear of crime increases, as it makes one a secondary victim (Ferraro, 1996).

According to Garofalo (1979), five primary factors influence individuals' fear of crime. These elements highlight how personal experience, social influences, and structural conditions shape perceptions of crime and safety:

1. Actual Risk: This refers to the objective probability of becoming a victim of crime based on measurable factors such as crime rates, neighborhood conditions, or demographic characteristics. However, sociological research has shown that the fear of crime often does not align with actual risk—many individuals fear crime even in low-crime areas, revealing the importance of perception over reality.

2. Experience of Victimization: Personal or vicarious experiences with crime (e.g., being a victim or knowing someone that was) can heighten fear. From a sociological perspective, victimization contributes to a sense of vulnerability, especially when it reinforces pre-existing social fears related to age, gender, or class.

3. Role Socialization: This refers to the process by which individuals learn gender, age, and class roles that influence how they perceive and respond to crime. For instance, women are often socialized to see themselves as more vulnerable, leading to higher fear levels. Sociology emphasizes how such roles are constructed and maintained through norms and expectations.

4. Media Influence: Media agencies often tend to exaggerate and sensationalize violent crime in their news presentations for the sake of high readership and interactivity, which contributes to distorting public perceptions of danger. From a sociological perspective, the media plays a key role in shaping social reality, often reinforcing moral panics and reinforcing stereotypes about criminals and crime-prone areas.

5. Perceived Protection: This involves individuals' beliefs about their ability to prevent or escape crime; it includes trust in the police, neighborhood cohesion or access to safety measures. Sociologically, this factor is linked to broader social inequalities - people in marginalized communities often perceive less protection in public life, leading to more fear in their daily lives.

## A. Consequences of Fear of Crime

Hale (1996) reached six important conclusions based on his studies on fear of crime. These six categories of negative effects of fear of crime on people's lives are: behavioral, psychological, physical, social, political and economic. The research findings are supported and further expanded by subsequent empirical research that emphasizes the complex ways in which fear of crime affects people.

### 1. Behavioral Consequences

Fear of crime negatively affects people's daily lives. This leads individuals to change their daily routines and behaviors to minimize the perceived risk. These behaviors include avoiding certain places, reducing time spent in public spaces, or investing in personal safety. For example, Warr (2000) found that women and the elderly in vulnerable groups are more likely to change their behavior due to fear. The most prominent examples of this are behavioral changes such as avoiding walking alone at night or staying away from certain neighborhoods. Similarly, Jackson and Gray (2010) state that individuals often exhibit "defensive behaviors" such as avoidance and withdrawal, resulting in restricted interpersonal social interaction and reducing the overall well-being of the fearful individual.

### 2. Psychological Consequences

Fear of crime can lead to negative psychological consequences for the victimized individual, such as chronic anxiety, depression and reduced sense of personal security. Ferraro and LaGrange (1987) found that perceived victimization risk is closely linked to psychological distress, particularly anxiety. In addition, Stafford, Chandola, and Marmot (2007) showed that fear has measurable effects on mental health by finding that the stress levels of individuals who live in areas with high crime rates or who think that crime is prevalent constantly increase in their daily lives and their life satisfaction decreases.

### 3. Physical Consequences

Studies on the negative effects of fear of crime on physical health are still limited. This is often seen in the form of stress pathways or reduced participation in outdoor physical activities. Ross and Mirowsky (2001) argued that chronic fear can lead to increased stress responses, which may contribute to the development/ progression of physical disorders such as high blood pressure or sleep disorders. A systematic review by Lorenc et al. (2012) confirmed the association between fear of crime and negative health outcomes, especially in vulnerable populations such as the elderly.

### 4. Social Consequences

Fear of crime can undermine social cohesion in everyday life, reduce trust between neighbors, and negatively affect voluntary civic engagement. Skogan (1986) found that fear weakens social capital, making people less willing to engage with others or participate in neighborhood activities. Innes (2004) discussed the role of "signal crimes" - events that create disproportionate fear and erode social trust, regardless of their actual prevalence - on the individual and society.

### 5. Political Consequences

The public's fear of crime can significantly influence their political attitudes and policy preferences, often leading to support for punitive measures. Beckett (1997) argues that fear-based narratives in the media and politics have been effective in mobilizing public support for harsh crime policies in the US and have contributed to mass incarceration. Similarly, Welch, Fenwick and Roberts (1995) found that high levels of fear are positively associated with support for capital punishment and other harsh punishments.

### 6. Economic Consequences

Fear of crime has important effects on human-social life. In social life, it also has important economic effects that affect people's investment preferences, consumer behavior and real estate markets. In a study by Linden and Rock (2001), it was revealed that real estate values decrease and business investments decrease in neighborhoods perceived as unsafe. Foster, Giles-Corti, and Knuiman (2010) found that residents avoid local shops and public spaces due to the fear of crime, thus negatively affecting small businesses and neighborhood economies. Research on fear of crime shows that fear of crime has negative social effects ranging from social fragmentation to behavioral changes and perceptions of the criminal justice system.

Fear of crime, while often considered a subjective feeling, has objective and widespread implications across behavioral, psychological, physical, social, political, and economic domains. The studies reviewed reinforce Hale's (1996) framework and underscore the importance of addressing not just actual crime but also the perception and fear of crime within communities.

Crime has a negative impact on people's daily lives, even if it is less violent in terms of the victimization it creates and its time is old. National and international institutions and NGOs are making great efforts to reduce crime as much as possible in the world. The spread of crime day by day increases the fear of crime among innocent people and causes people to be constantly on alert. For this reason, the fear of crime affects people's lives and their relationships with each other as much as the crime itself.

Fear of crime can significantly reduce individuals' quality of life; however, a study of which neighborhood-level factors lead to feelings of vulnerability in New Zealand evaluated the impact of recorded crime on the fears of individuals in the country. The study identified neighborhood-level factors related to the fear of crime in Christchurch, focusing specifically on whether or not recorded crime in neighbors and immediate surroundings influences fear. In Christchurch, fear of crime was found to be highest in the more affluent, ethnically homogeneous and residentially stable neighborhoods, while the crime levels recorded in these neighborhoods were reported to be relatively lower (Breetzke & Pearson, 2015).

## B. Methodology

This study investigates the fear of crime among dentistry students, particularly those residing and studying in Şanlıurfa—a region uniquely positioned near the Syrian border and major migration routes. This geographical context presents specific socio-political and environmental stressors that influence students' perceptions and experiences of crime. The research emphasizes that while fear of crime often emerges from concerns related to clinical practice and legal liabilities (Byun & Ha, 2023; Price et al., 2020), it is also significantly shaped by students' broader physical and social environments.

Dentistry students may encounter fear stemming from both the possibility of being victims of crime in their daily lives and facing accusations during patient care. The stress from these fears may negatively impact their academic performance, occupational motivation, and overall psychological well-being. As future healthcare professionals, their competence and satisfaction are closely tied to a safe and supportive environment.

The literature highlights that the fear of crime is affected by factors such as gender, prior victimization, and local crime rates. Studies like those by Byun and Ha (2023) and Price et al. (2020) have addressed increasing security awareness among dental students and the effects of professional stressors related to crime. However, there remains a significant gap in research focusing on border regions, making this study a valuable contribution to understanding the complex interaction between the environment, professional development, and crime-related fears in dentistry students.

The quantitative research method was adopted in this study. In this context, a survey form was created to obtain field data by scanning the relevant literature. Examples of applied research questions were examined by reading through the literature on fear of crime (Truman, 2007; Çetin, 2010; Gökulu, 2011; Gülver, 2022). A total of 26 questions—21 of which fell under the primary heading—were created using the data gleaned from the pertinent literature.

Ethics committee approval was obtained from the relevant institution for the research with the approval dated 24.04.2023 and numbered HRU/23.07.25. Data were collected between May 01 and June 30, 2023.

**Population and Sample of the Study**

The population of this study consisted of 400 students studying at the Harran University Faculty of Dentistry in the academic year 2022-2023. Students at all grade levels from the 1st to the 5th grade of the faculty were included in the study.

**Data Collection Process**

A structured and semi-structured questionnaire form was used as the data collection tool. The questionnaire form was prepared online via the Google Forms platform so that the participants could access it quickly and easily. Along with the link to the questionnaire, the ethical information text about the study was sent to the students via WhatsApp application to their class groups. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study; it was clearly stated that the data obtained would be evaluated anonymously, personal information would be kept confidential and participation in the study was completely voluntary. Accordingly, only students who voluntarily participated were included in the study.

**Sample Size**

The sample of the study was determined to represent the population and to meet the statistical significance level. Using the Google Sample Size Calculator, a sample size of 250 out of 400 students constituting the population was reached with a 95% confidence level and minimizing the risk of type II error. This sample was found to be sufficient to ensure the statistical validity of the study.

# II. Results

The sociodemographic characteristics of the 250 dentistry students included in this study are shown in Table 1. According to these data, 145 (58%) of 250 students are female and 105 (42%) are male. Of the 250 dentistry students participating in the research, 35 were in the 1st grade, 75 were in the 2nd grade, 50 were in the 3rd grade, 57 were in the 4th grade, and 33 were in the 5th grade. According to the participants, it is seen that 58% of their families belong to the middle-income group. Only 1 of 250 participants is married.

246 of the participants, 246 were born in Turkey, two were born in Germany, one in Syria and one in the USA. The age range of the participants varies between 18-26+.

**Table 1**
*Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Participants*

|  |  | Frequency | Percentage | Valid Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Female | 145 | 58,0 | 58,0 | 58,0 |
|  | Male | 105 | 42,0 | 42,0 | 100,0 |
| Age | 18 | 5 | 2,0 | 2,0 | 2,0 |
|  | 19 | 5 | 2,0 | 2,0 | 4,0 |
|  | 20 | 42 | 16,8 | 16,8 | 20,8 |
|  | 21 | 53 | 21,2 | 21,2 | 42,0 |
|  | 22 | 67 | 26,8 | 26,8 | 68,8 |
|  | 23 | 43 | 17,2 | 17,2 | 86,0 |
|  | 24 | 22 | 8,8 | 8,8 | 94,8 |
|  | 25 | 5 | 2,0 | 2,0 | 96,8 |
|  | 26+ | 8 | 3,2 | 3,2 | 100,0 |
| Country of birth | Turkey | 246 | 98,4 | 98,4 | 98,4 |
|  | Syria | 1 | ,4 | ,4 | 98,8 |
|  | Germany | 2 | ,8 | ,8 | 99,6 |
|  | USA | 1 | ,4 | ,4 | 100,0 |
| Class | Class 1 | 35 | 14,0 | 14,0 | 14,0 |
|  | Class 2 | 75 | 30,0 | 30,0 | 44,0 |
|  | Class 3 | 50 | 20,0 | 20,0 | 64,0 |
|  | Class 4 | 57 | 22,8 | 22,8 | 86,8 |
|  | Class 5 | 33 | 13,2 | 13,2 | 100,0 |
| Marital status | Single | 249 | 99,6 | 99,6 | 99,6 |
|  | Married | 1 | ,4 | ,4 | 100,0 |
| Social status | Lower income | 99 | 39,6 | 39,6 | 39,6 |
|  | Middle income | 145 | 58,0 | 58,0 | 97,6 |
|  | Upper income | 3 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 98,8 |
|  | Below middle income | 3 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 100,0 |
|  | Total | 250 | 100 | 100 |  |

As can be seen in Table 2, the majority (80.6%) of the participants who stated the district they live in (N:170), live in the neighborhoods located in the Haliliye district. The rate of those who feel "very safe" in Haliliye is 1/5 (15.9%). In the districts located in the city center of Şanlıurfa, 25.3% of the residents felt "very

safe" among the dental faculty students. It is seen that the majority of students living in the city center do not feel "very safe" in city life. A positive correlation was found between the town of residence and feeling safe (Pearson Chi-Square:0.037).

**Table 2**
*The State of The Participants Feeling Safe When They Are Alone During the Day in the Central Districts of Sanlıurfa Metropolitan Municipality*

| | | | District where the participants live in Sanlıurfa | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Eyyubiye | Haliliye | Karakopru | |
| The extent to which the participants feel safe when they are alone during the day in the neighborhood where they reside | Very safe | Count | 1 | 27 | 15 | 43 |
| | | % of Total | 0,6% | 15,9% | 8,8% | 25,3% |
| | A little bit safe | Count | 0 | 61 | 13 | 74 |
| | | % of Total | 0,0% | 35,9% | 7,6% | 43,5% |
| | Undecided | Count | 0 | 32 | 1 | 33 |
| | | % of Total | 0,0% | 18,8% | 0,6% | 19,4% |
| | A little insecure | Count | 0 | 13 | 2 | 15 |
| | | % of Total | 0,0% | 7,6% | 1,2% | 8,8% |
| | Very insecure | Count | 0 | 4 | 1 | 5 |
| | | % of Total | 0,0% | 2,4% | 0,6% | 2,9% |
| Total | | Count | 1 | 137 | 32 | 170 |
| | | % of Total | 0,6% | 80,6% | 18,8% | 100,0% |

As seen in Table 3, almost half of the dental students (42.4%) live with their families in the center of Urfa (Mode 4). The rate of those living in dormitories on campus is 33.2%. The rate of those who prefer to live in apartments/apart flats located outside the campus is 18%.

**Table 3**
*Where The Participants Accommodated*

| | Frequency | Percentage | Valid Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **In on-campus dormitories** | 83 | 33,2 | 33,2 | 33,2 |
| **Off-campus detached house** | 9 | 3,6 | 3,6 | 36,8 |
| **Off-campus apartment-apartment flat** | 45 | 18 | 18 | 54,8 |
| **People living with their families** | 106 | 42,4 | 42,4 | 97,2 |
| **live in an earthquake tent** | 2 | ,8 | ,8 | 98 |
| **Next to his/her friend** | 2 | ,8 | ,8 | 98,8 |
| **Off-campus dormitory** | 3 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 100 |
| **Total** | 250 | 100 | 100 | |

Among the participants (N=250), the rate of those who indicated the district where they live was 68%. Nearly all the participants (80.60%) live in Haliliye. Almost half of those living in Haliliye (43.8%) stay in dormitories on the campus. Since the Harran University campus is located in the Haliliye district, most dentistry students live in Haliliye (80.60%). Karakopru is the second district where dentistry students live (18.8%). A significant relationship was found between the district where the participants lived and the place of accommodation (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.000).

**Table 4**

*Locations Where the Participants Accommodated in the Central Districts of Sanlıurfa Metropolitan Municipality*

| | | | On-campus dormitories | Off-campus detached house | Off-campus apartment-apartment flat | live with their family | live in an earthquake tent | Next to his/her friend | Off-campus dormitories | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participants' district of residence in Sanlıurfa | Eyyubiye | Count | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | | % within Participants' district of residence in Sanlıurfa | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,100% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,100% |
| | | % of Total | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,60% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,00% | 0,60% |
| | Haliliye | Count | 60 | 6 | 35 | 32 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 137 |
| | | % within Participants' district of residence in Sanlıurfa | 43,80% | 4,40% | 25,50% | 23,40% | 0,70% | 0,00% | 2,20% | 100,00% |
| | | % of Total | 35,30% | 3,50% | 20,60% | 18,80% | 0,60% | 0,00% | 1,80% | 80,60% |
| | Karakopru | Count | 0 | 0 | 6 | 24 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 32 |
| | | % within Participants' district of residence in Sanlıurfa | 0,00% | 0,00% | 18,80% | 75,00% | 0,00% | 6,20% | 0,00% | 100,00% |
| | | % of Total | 0 | 0 | 0,035 | 0,141 | 0 | 0,012 | 0 | 0,188 |
| Total | | Count | 60 | 6 | 41 | 57 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 170 |
| | | % within Participants' district of residence in Sanlıurfa | 35,30% | 3,50% | 24,10% | 33,50% | 0,60% | 1,20% | 1,80% | 100,00% |
| | | % of Total | 35,30% | 3,50% | 24,10% | 33,50% | 0,60% | 1,20% | 1,80% | 100,00% |

More than half of the participants (52.8%) think that crime is increasing every day (Mode: 4). The rate of those who stated that crime increases very much every day in the social structure is 36%. According to most participants in Table 5, crime is increasing every day in the social structure (88.8%). In this context, crime is one of the most serious problems that negatively affect social life.

**Table 5**

*Participants' Level of Agreement with The Statement "Crime Is Increasing Day by Day in The Society"*

| | Frequency | Percentage | Valid Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Not increasing at all | 1 | 0,4 | 0,4 | 0,4 |
| Not increasing | 2 | 0,8 | 0,8 | 1,2 |
| Undecided | 25 | 10 | 10 | 11,2 |

| | Frequency | Percentage | Valid Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Increasing** | 132 | 52,8 | 52,8 | 64 |
| **Increasing a lot** | 90 | 36 | 36 | 100 |
| **Total** | 250 | 100 | 100 | |

A positive correlation was observed between the types of crime that are increasing day by day in society according to the gender of the participants (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.001) (Table 6).

According to the gender of the participants, the types of crimes that have increased the most in the society are sexual crimes in the first place for women, violent crimes in the second place and fraud in the third place. Traffic offenses, on the other hand, increased at the same rate for both male and female respondents. For men, fraud is the most common type of crime, followed by corruption in second place and sexual harassment on social media in third place.

**Table 6**

*Types of Crime Increasing in Society According to the Gender of Participants*

| | | Gender of the participants | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | **Female** | **Male** | **Total** |
| | | Count | Count | Count |
| **The types of crimes that are increasing in society** | **Cybercrime** | 71 | 58 | 129 |
| | **Murder** | 94 | 61 | 155 |
| | **Sex offenses** | 111 | 68 | 179 |
| | **Battered** | 82 | 51 | 133 |
| | **Fraud** | 107 | 76 | 183 |
| | **Prostitution** | 49 | 51 | 100 |
| | **Extortion** | 53 | 50 | 103 |
| | **Insult** | 86 | 61 | 147 |
| | **Theft** | 90 | 62 | 152 |
| | **Human trafficking** | 46 | 40 | 86 |
| | **Gun attack** | 53 | 50 | 103 |
| | **Harassed on social media** | 99 | 69 | 168 |
| | **Violence** | 110 | 62 | 172 |
| | **Threat** | 75 | 49 | 124 |
| | **Terrorism** | 43 | 36 | 79 |
| | **Traffic offenses** | 54 | 54 | 108 |
| | **Drugs** | 67 | 58 | **125** |
| | **Corruption** | 84 | 74 | 158 |

The majority of female respondents were victims of crime or had a victim of crime among their friends (90.3%). Among men, this rate is 72.4%. When Table 7 is analyzed, there is a positive correlation between gender and whether the participant himself/herself or his/her friend is a victim of a crime (Pearson Chi-Square: 0,000).

**Table 7**

*According To the Gender of The Participant, The Situation of Being a Victim of Crime of Himself/ Herself or Friends*

| | | | Status of the participant or his/her friends as victims of the crime | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Yes | No | |
| Gender of the participants | Female | Count | 131 | 14 | 145 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 90,3% | 9,7% | 100,0% |
| | | % within the status of the participant or their friends as victims of the crime | 63,3% | 32,6% | 58,0% |
| | | % of Total | 52,4% | 5,6% | 58,0% |
| | Male | Count | 76 | 29 | 105 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 72,4% | 27,6% | 100,0% |
| | | % within the status of the participant or their friends as victims of the crime | 36,7% | 67,4% | 42,0% |
| | | % of Total | 30,4% | 11,6% | 42,0% |
| Total | | Count | 207 | 43 | 250 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 82,8% | 17,2% | 100,0% |
| | | % within the status of the participant or their friends as victims of the crime | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 82,8% | 17,2% | 100,0% |

The type of crime that causes the most victimization for both genders is "being insulted/threatened by a patient/patient's relative at the faculty/hospital". The second is "being

Harassed on social media". There is a difference between female dental and male dentistry students in the third most victimized crime type. While the type of the third most crime in which females were victimized by themselves or their friends was "being followed by a stranger", the type of crime in which males were victimized was "being physically attacked by a stranger". As can be seen in Table 8, there is a significant relationship between the gender of the participants and the type of crime in which they or their friends were victimized (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.043).

**Table 8**

*Types Of Crimes in Which the Participants Were Victims Themselves or Their Friends According to Their Gender*

| | | Gender of the participants | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Female | Male | Total |
| | | Count | Count | Count |
| Types of crime victimized | My money/money stolen | 12 | 8 | 20 |
| | Someone entered your/our home when you were not home | 9 | 4 | 13 |
| | Someone entered your house/our house while you were at home | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| | Being harassed by a stranger | 16 | 4 | 20 |

| | | Gender of the participants | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | **Female** | **Male** | **Total** |
| | | Count | Count | Count |
| | **Being harassed by an acquaintance** | 8 | 0 | 8 |
| | **Being physically attacked by a stranger** | 4 | 10 | 14 |
| | **Being physically attacked by an acquaintance** | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| | **Being attacked with a gun** | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | **The theft of our car** | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | **Being robbed in the street** | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| | **Being harassed on social media** | 21 | 12 | 33 |
| | **Being followed by a stranger** | 19 | 7 | 26 |
| | **Being followed by an acquaintance** | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| | **Being insulted/threatened by the patient/ patient's relatives at the faculty/hospital** | 34 | 18 | 52 |
| | **Being beaten by a patient/ patient's relative at the faculty/hospital** | 0 | 0 | 0 |

In terms of the gender of the participants and the extent of the harm experienced by themselves or their friends after being victimized by crime, the rate of harm caused by crime was 51.7% for female dentistry students and 39% for male dentistry students. The effect of the crime that caused victimization on the victim was more damaging for female dentistry students than for male dentistry students (31%). Female dentistry students have been harmed more as victims of crime. As seen in Table 9, there is a significant relationship between gender and the dimensions of harm experienced after victimization (Pearson Chi-Square: 0,000).

**Table 9**

*According To the Gender of The Participants, The Extent of the Harm Suffered by Themselves or Their Friends After Being Victimized by Crime*

| | | | The extent of the harm experienced by the participants or their friends after being victimized by crime | | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | **Didn't hurt at all** | **Did some damage** | **Neither hurt nor harmed** | **Caused damage** | **Did a lot of damage** | **No victims of crime, either themselves or their friends** | |
| Gender of the participants | Female | Count | 1 | 7 | 3 | 75 | 45 | 14 | 145 |
| | | % within the gender of the participants | 0,7% | 4,8% | 2,1% | 51,7% | 31,0% | 9,7% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 0,4% | 2,8% | 1,2% | 30,0% | 18,0% | 5,6% | 58,0% |
| | Male | Count | 1 | 12 | 7 | 41 | 13 | 31 | 105 |
| | | % within the gender of the | 1,0% | 11,4% | 6,7% | 39,0% | 12,4% | 29,5% | 100,0% |

| | | The extent of the harm experienced by the participants or their friends after being victimized by crime | | | | | | Total |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | Didn't hurt at all | Did some damage | Neither hurt nor harmed | Caused damage | Did a lot of damage | No victims of crime, either themselves or their friends | |
| | partici-pants | | | | | | | |
| | % of Total | 0,4% | 4,8% | 2,8% | 16,4% | 5,2% | 12,4% | 42,0% |
| Total | Count | 2 | 19 | 10 | 116 | 58 | 45 | 250 |
| | % within the gen-der of the partici-pants | 0,8% | 7,6% | 4,0% | 46,4% | 23,2% | 18,0% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 0,8% | 7,6% | 4,0% | 46,4% | 23,2% | 18,0% | 100,0% |

The three most important types of crimes that the participants living in the central districts of Sanlıurfa Metropolitan Municipality were exposed to and caused victimization can be listed as being insulted or threatened by the patient / patient relatives in the faculty / hospital" (42 person), being followed by a stranger (20 person), and being harassed on social media (20 person). The first three types of crimes in Haliliye district are "being insulted or threatened by the patient / patient relatives in the faculty/ hospital", the second is being harassed on social media, and the third is being stalked by a stranger. The Haliliye district is the place where the dentistry students live the most since it is where the campus is located. Therefore, it is the district with the highest number of crime victimizations. Eyyubiye, on the other hand, is where both the fewest students live and the least crime victimization (See Table 4). As seen in Table 10, there is a significant relationship between the central districts of Sanlıurfa Metropolitan Municipality where the participants live and the types of crime victimization (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.010).

Karasu's (2018) study on the fear of crime reveals that the fear of crime among locals has increased with the arrival of Syrian migrants in the city. Distrust of foreigners has come to the fore among the locals.

**Table 10**

*The Type of Crime That the Participants Were Victimized by Themselves or Their Friends in the Central Districts Of Sanliurfa Where They Accommodate*

| | | The district where the participants accommodate in Sanlıurfa | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | Eyyubiye | Haliliye | Karakopru | Total |
| | | Count | Count | Count | Count |
| Crimes that victim-ized the partici-pants or a friend | My money/money stolen | 0 | 9 | 4 | 13 |
| | Someone entered your/our home when you were not home | 0 | 8 | 0 | 8 |
| | Someone entered your house/our house while you were at home | 0 | 6 | 0 | 6 |

| | The district where the participants accommodate in Sanlıurfa | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Eyyubiye | Haliliye | Karakopru | Total |
| | Count | Count | Count | Count |
| Being sexual harassed by a stranger | 1 | 8 | 5 | 14 |
| Being sexual harassed by an acquaintance | 1 | 6 | 0 | 7 |
| Being physically assaulted by a stranger | 0 | 9 | 1 | 10 |
| Being physically assaulted by an acquaintance | 0 | 6 | 1 | 7 |
| Being attacked with a gun | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| The theft of our car | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Being robbed in the street | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Being harassed on social media | 0 | 16 | 4 | 20 |
| Being followed by a stranger | 0 | 15 | 5 | 20 |
| Being followed by an acquaintance | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| Being insulted/ threatened by the patient/ patient's relatives at the faculty/hospital | 0 | 37 | 5 | 42 |
| Being beaten by a patient/ patient's relative at the faculty/hospital | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Among the participants, the rate of those who agree with the view that dentists are frequently exposed to crime while performing their professional duties and those who strongly agree with the view that dentists' occupational motivation decreases due to these crimes is 89.1%. The majority of the participants (74.00%) stated that dentists' occupational motivation decreased after being exposed to crime. Among the participants, 76.8% of those who partially agreed with the view that dentists are often exposed to crime while performing their professional duties agreed with the view that their occupational motivation decreases after these crimes. In this case, most participants stated that their occupational motivation decreased after the crime that dentists were exposed to while performing their duties (74.1%). As seen in Table 11, dentists are frequently exposed to crime by patients or their relatives while performing their duties. This situation reduces the occupational motivation of dentists (Pearson Chi-Square: 0,000).

**Table 11**

*The Type of Crime That the Participants Were Victimized by Themselves or Their Friends in the Central Districts Of Sanliurfa Where They Accommodate*

| According to the participants, dentists are frequently exposed to crime while performing their duties * According to the participants, exposure of dentists to crime by patients/patient relatives reduces their occupational motivation | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | According to the participants, exposure of dentists to crime by patients/patient relatives reduces their occupational motivation | | | | | Total |
| | | Completely disagree | Disagree | Undecided | Partially agree | Completely agree | |
| Completely disagree | Count | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 5 |
| | % within According to respondents, dentists are frequently subjected to crime while performing their duties | 40,0% | 0,0% | 0,0% | 20,0% | 40,0% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 0,8% | 0,0% | 0,0% | 0,4% | 0,8% | 2,0% |
| Disagree | Count | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 13 |
| | % within According to respondents, dentists are frequently subjected to crime while performing their duties | 7,7% | 15,4% | 15,4% | 30,8% | 30,8% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 0,4% | 0,8% | 0,8% | 1,6% | 1,6% | 5,2% |
| Undecided | Count | 0 | 1 | 9 | 9 | 42 | 61 |
| | % within According to respondents, dentists are frequently subjected to crime while performing their duties | 0,0% | 1,6% | 14,8% | 14,8% | 68,9% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 0,0% | 0,4% | 3,6% | 3,6% | 16,8% | 24,4% |
| Partially agree | Count | 2 | 1 | 0 | 26 | 96 | 125 |
| | % within According to respondents, dentists are frequently subjected to crime while performing their duties | 1,6% | 0,8% | 0,0% | 20,8% | 76,8% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 0,8% | 0,4% | 0,0% | 10,4% | 38,4% | 50,0% |
| Completely agree | Count | 1 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 41 | 46 |

*(Left vertical axis label: According to respondents, dentists are frequently subjected to crime while performing their duties)*

| According to the participants, dentists are frequently exposed to crime while performing their duties * According to the participants, exposure of dentists to crime by patients/patient relatives reduces their occupational motivation | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | According to the participants, exposure of dentists to crime by patients/ patient relatives reduces their occupational motivation | | | | | Total |
| | % within According to respondents, dentists are frequently subjected to crime while performing their duties | 2,2% | 2,2% | 0,0% | 6,5% | 89,1% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 0,4% | 0,4% | 0,0% | 1,2% | 16,4% | 18,4% |
| Total | Count | 6 | 5 | 11 | 43 | 185 | 250 |
| | % within According to respondents, dentists are frequently subjected to crime while performing their duties | 2,4% | 2,0% | 4,4% | 17,2% | 74,0% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 2,4% | 2,0% | 4,4% | 17,2% | 74,0% | 100,0% |

While the majority of the female participants stated that they were very uncomfortable with the situation of physicians (medical-dental) being victims of a crime while practicing their profession (81.4%), more than half of the male participants stated that they were very uncomfortable (63.8%). Almost all of the participants were uncomfortable with physicians being victims of a crime while practicing their profession (95.6%). As can be seen in Table 12, there is a significant relationship between gender and physicians being victims of a crime while practicing their profession (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.004).

**Table 12**
*According To the Gender of The Participants, The Discomfort Felt by Physicians in Our Country despite Being the Victim of a Crime While Performing Their Duties*

| | | | According to the gender of the participants, the discomfort felt by physicians in our country despite being the victim of a crime while performing their duties | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Doesn't bother at all | Does not bother | Undecided | Disturbing | Very disturbing | |
| Gender of the participants | Female | Count | 0 | 0 | 1 | 26 | 118 | 145 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 0,0% | 0,0% | 0,7% | 17,9% | 81,4% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 0,0% | 0,0% | 0,4% | 10,4% | 47,2% | 58,0% |
| | Male | Count | 1 | 2 | 7 | 28 | 67 | 105 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 1,0% | 1,9% | 6,7% | 26,7% | 63,8% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 0,4% | 0,8% | 2,8% | 11,2% | 26,8% | 42,0% |
| Total | | Count | 1 | 2 | 8 | 54 | 185 | 250 |

| | | Doesn't bother at all | Does not bother | Undecided | Disturbing | Very disturbing | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | According to the gender of the participants, the discomfort felt by physicians in our country despite being the victim of a crime while performing their duties | | | | | Total |
| | % within the gender of participants | 0,4% | 0,8% | 3,2% | 21,6% | 74,0% | 100,0% |
| | % of Total | 0,4% | 0,8% | 3,2% | 21,6% | 74,0% | 100,0% |

According to the gender of the participants, the first three types of crimes that the female dentistry students fear to be a victim of are; firstly, being insulted/threatened by a patient/patient relative at the faculty/hospital (94 people), second, being harassed/raped by a stranger (90 people), and third, being followed by a stranger (77 people). The top three types of crimes that male dentistry students are afraid of being a victim of are; firstly, being insulted/threatened by a patient/relative at the faculty/hospital (55 people), second, being beaten by a patient/relative at the faculty/hospital (49 people), and third, having their money stolen (42 people). As seen in Table 13, there was a significant relationship between the gender of the participants and the type of crime they feared to be victimized (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.043).

**Table 13**

*Types of Crimes in which Participants Are Afraid of Being Victimized According to Their Gender*

| | | | Gender of the participants | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Female | Male | |
| Types of crimes that participants are afraid of being victimized according to their gender | Theft of his/her money | Count | 68 | 42 | 110 |
| | | % of Total | **5,3%** | 3,3% | 8,6% |
| | Someone broke into their home when they were not at home | Count | **68** | 38 | 106 |
| | | % of Total | 5,3% | 3,0% | 8,3% |
| | Someone broke into his/her house when he/she was at home | Count | 50 | 25 | 75 |
| | | % of Total | 3,9% | 2,0% | 5,9%; |
| | Being harassed/ raped by a stranger | Count | 90 | 17 | 107 |
| | | % of Total | 7,1% | 1,3% | 8,4% |
| | Being harassed/raped/assaulted by an acquaintance | Count | 37 | 14 | 51 |
| | | % of Total | 2,9% | 1,1% | 4,0% |
| | Being physically attacked by a stranger | Count | 68 | 32 | 100 |
| | | % of Total | 5,3% | 2,5% | 7,8% |
| | Being physically attacked by an acquaintance | Count | 37 | 16 | 53 |
| | | % of Total | 2,9% | 1,3% | 4,2% |
| | Being attacked with a gun | Count | 28 | 32 | 60 |
| | | % of Total | 2,2% | 2,5% | 4,7% |
| | Theft of his/her car | Count | 23 | 17 | 40 |
| | | % of Total | 1,8% | 1,3% | 3,1% |
| | Being robbed on the street | Count | 46 | 26 | 72 |
| | | % of Total | 3,6% | 2,0% | 5,6% |
| | | Count | 66 | 25 | 91 |

| | | | Gender of the participants | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Female | Male | |
| | Being harassed on social media | % of Total | 5,2% | 2,0% | 7,1% |
| | Being followed by a stranger | Count | 77 | 25 | 102 |
| | | % of Total | 6,0% | 2,0% | 8,0% |
| | Being followed by an acquaintance | Count | 28 | 12 | 40 |
| | | % of Total | 2,2% | 0,9% | 3,1% |
| | Being insulted/threatened by a patient/patient relative at the faculty/hospital | Count | 94; | 55 | 149 |
| | | % of Total | 7,4% | 4,3% | 11,7% |
| | Being beaten by a patient/patient relative at the faculty/hospital | Count | 70 | 49 | 119 |
| | | % of Total | 5,5% | 3,8% | 9,3% |
| Total | | Count | 850 | 425 | 1275 |
| | | % of Total | 66,7% | 33,3% | 100,0% |

Among female respondents, 37.2% never went out alone after 22.00 at night. The rate of those who go out alone a few times a year is 39.6%. Among female dentistry students living in Sanlıurfa districts, going out alone after 22.00 at night increases the fear of crime. Among male dentistry students, the rate of those who do not go out alone after 22.00 at night is low. According to gender, the fear of crime is higher among female students. As seen in Table 14, there is a significant relationship between the gender of the participants and going out alone at night (Pearson Chi-Square: 0,000).

The field study conducted by Karasu (2017) also reveals that the fear of crime in Şanlıurfa shows spatial density; the level of fear increases in deserted areas at night. It can be seen that the results of both studies are similar.

**Table 14**
*Going Out on the Streets Alone After 10:00 p.m. According To the Gender of the Respondents*

| | | | Participants going out alone after 22 at night | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Never go out | Go out a few times a year | Go out a few times a month | Go out a few times a week | Go out every day | |
| Gender of the participants | Female | Count | 54 | 57 | 25 | 9 | 0 | 145 |
| | | % within gender of participants | 37,2% | 39,3% | 17,2% | 6,2% | 0,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 21,6% | 22,8% | 10,0% | 3,6% | 0,0% | 58,0% |
| | Male | Count | 2 | 7 | 26 | 53 | 17 | 105 |
| | | % within gender of participants | 1,9% | 6,7% | 24,8% | 50,5% | 16,2% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 0,8% | 2,8% | 10,4% | 21,2% | 6,8% | 42,0% |
| Total | | Count | 56 | 64 | 51 | 62 | 17 | 250 |
| | | % within gender of participants | 22,4% | 25,6% | 20,4% | 24,8% | 6,8% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 22,4% | 25,6% | 20,4% | 24,8% | 6,8% | 100,0% |

According to gender, it is seen that more than half of the female participants never go to entertainment venues alone in Sanlıurfa (62.8%). The rate of those who go a few times a year is 24.8%. Among male respondents, the rate of those who never go to entertainment venues alone is 33.3%, while the rate of those who go a few times a year is 19%. The rate of going to entertainment venues alone was higher among male participants than among female participants. As seen in Table 15, there is a significant relationship between the gender of the participants and the rate of going to entertainment venues alone (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.000).

**Table 15**

*Participants' Going to Entertainment Venues Alone According to Their Gender*

| | | | Participants' going to entertainment venues alone according to their gender | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Never go | A few times a year | Once a month | Several times a week | Every day | |
| **Gender of the participants** | **Female** | Count | 91 | 36 | 10 | 8 | 0 | 145 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 62,8% | 24,8% | 6,9% | 5,5% | 0,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 36,4% | 14,4% | 4,0% | 3,2% | 0,0% | 58,0% |
| | **Male** | Count | 35 | 20 | 28 | 21 | 1 | 105 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 33,3% | 19,0% | 26,7% | 20,0% | 1,0% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 14,0% | 8,0% | 11,2% | 8,4% | 0,4% | 42,0% |
| **Total** | | Count | 126 | 56 | 38 | 29 | 1 | 250 |
| | | % within the gender of participants | 50,4% | 22,4% | 15,2% | 11,6% | 0,4% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 50,4% | 22,4% | 15,2% | 11,6% | 0,4% | 100,0% |

The majority of the participants were victims or friends of victims of a crime (82.8%). Since this situation increases the fear of being a victim of a crime, it is seen that the fear of being a victim of crime increases at night, especially after 22.00, among the people living in the center of Sanlıurfa. While ¼ of the crime victims or friends of crime victims never go out after 22.00 at night, ¼ of them stated that they go out a few times a year. The rate of those who go out a few times a month is approximately 1/5. As seen in Table 16, being a victim of crime or a friend of a victim increases the fear of crime among dental faculty students. Since the fact that the majority of students are primary or secondary victims increases their fear of crime by increasing the likelihood of being victimized again, students restrict their social lives by not going out at night as much as possible as a protective measure to avoid crime (51.2%). Among the students who are not primary or secondary victims, it is seen that they also avoid going out after 22.00 at night. As seen in Table 16, there is a significant correlation between being a victim of a crime and not going out after 22.00 at night (Pearson Chi-Square: 0.000).

**Table 16**

*The Relationship Between the Participant or His/ Her Friends Being Victims of a Crime and Going Out Alone After 22.00 At Night*

| | | | Participants going out alone at night after 22.00 p.m. | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Never go out | Go out a few times a year | Go out a few times a month | Go out a few times a week | Go out every day | |
| Status of the participant or his/her friends as victims of the crime | Yes | Count | 53 | 53 | 40 | 53 | 8 | 207 |
| | | % within The status of the participant or his/her friends as victims of the crime | 25,6% | 25,6% | 19,3% | 25,6% | 3,9% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 21,2% | 21,2% | 16,0% | 21,2% | 3,2% | 82,8% |
| | No | Count | 3 | 11 | 11 | 9 | 9 | 43 |
| | | % within The status of the participant or his/her friends as victims of the crime | 7,0% | 25,6% | 25,6% | 20,9% | 20,9% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 1,2% | 4,4% | 4,4% | **3,6%** | 3,6% | 17,2% |
| Total | | Count | 56 | 64 | 51 | 62 | 17 | 250 |
| | | % within The status of the participant or his/her friends as victims of the crime | 22,4% | 25,6% | 20,4% | 24,8% | 6,8% | 100,0% |
| | | % of Total | 22,4% | 25,6% | 20,4% | 24,8% | 6,8% | 100,0% |

The findings of two separate studies on crime conducted by Mithat Arman Karasu in Şanlıurfa reveal that individuals who are victims of crime have a higher level of fear of crime (Karasu, 2017, 2018). In this study, "Among those who are victims of crime, 25.6% never go out after 10:00… this shows that direct or indirect victimization affects daily life negatively (51.2%)" reached similar results. Crime experience or witnessed events are the main determinants of fear; this link has been strongly demonstrated in the studies.

## Discussion And Conclusion

Two separate studies have been conducted on the fear of crime in Şanlıurfa. When the findings of these three separate studies are considered comparatively, this study evaluates the fear of crime experienced by individuals within the framework of socio-spatial, gender-based and migration-based dynamics. Karasu's 2017 study "Fear of Crime in Urban Space: The Case of Şanlıurfa" in 2017 and "Fear of Crime, Migration and Syrian Asylum Seekers" in 2018 offer a macro-level analysis by associating fear of crime with structural factors such as urbanization processes, social disintegration and migration.

This study provides empirical evidence on the fear of crime experienced by dentistry students at Harran University, demonstrating how this fear is shaped by gender, prior victimization, and environmental context. The results notably align with the existing literature, reinforcing the consistency of gender disparities in the fear of crime. As documented in foundational studies by Warr (1984) and Ferraro (1996), women consistently report higher levels of fear than men. This trend was clearly observed among the female participants in this

study, who not only indicated greater fear but also reported higher exposure to both direct and indirect victimization. These findings are supported by the work of Solymosi, Bowers, and Fujiyama (2015), who emphasized the spatial and situational contexts in which women feel most vulnerable, especially at night or in poorly lit environments.

Furthermore, the study confirms the impact of occupationally related crime. The most reported fears and victimizations among students involved being insulted or threatened by patients or their relatives in the clinical setting. This reflects concerns raised by Price et al. (2020) regarding crime in healthcare environments and its impact on practitioners' psychological well-being and professional motivation. The association between crime exposure and reduced occupational motivation among dentistry students observed in this study echoes Hale's (1996) categorization of crime fear consequences, particularly in the psychological and professional domains.

In line with Garofalo's (1979) argument that victimization—either direct or vicarious—raises individuals' perceived risk, this research found a strong correlation between having been a victim or knowing a victim and adopting avoidance behaviors. Many students, particularly women, reported restricting their nighttime movements, a behavioral adaptation also described by Jackson and Gray (2010) as "defensive behavior."

Environmental factors also had a significant negative impact on students' fear of crime. Students residing in Haliliye district, where the university campus is located, reported the highest levels of both exposure to crime and fear. This supports the findings of Breetzke and Pearson (2015), who emphasized that perceptions of crime are deeply affected by neighborhood-level factors, regardless of objective crime rates.

The findings of this study confirm that fear of crime is a complex sociopsychological phenomenon influenced by demographic, environmental and experiential variables. The results also support the conclusions of Carrabine et al. (2009) and Ceccato and Nalla (2020) that reducing fear requires not only reducing crime rates but also addressing public perceptions, community trust and social cohesion.

In conclusion, while the generalizability of the findings of this study is partially limited by the focus on a specific city in Turkey, its university and its faculty, the patterns observed reflect broader national and international trends. The data underscore the need for targeted strategies to reduce fear of crime, particularly for vulnerable groups such as female students. Future research, as suggested by Hale (1996) and Carrabine et al. (2009), should utilize qualitative methods such as life histories and ethnographic studies to further explore the personal and contextual dimensions of fear. Addressing both the objective and subjective dimensions of crime and safety together will be essential for improving students' educational and social environments.

This study on the fear of crime among Harran University Faculty of Dentistry students reveals how fear of crime affects the social lives and professional motivation of individuals in the field of health services and how fear of crime shapes the social structure in daily life. Fear of crime is a multidimensional phenomenon that directly affects not only the physical mobility of individuals, but also their psychological and professional well-being. Therefore, policies to reduce the fear of crime should not be limited to security measures, but should also be addressed with an interdisciplinary approach in areas such as gender sensitivity, spatial planning and social integration.

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