

How ethnic and religious discrimination drive violent extremism

Allan Ngari and Denys Reva



The rights to equal protection and treatment before the law, without distinction as to religion or ethnicity are universally accepted human rights. States occasionally violate these rights while fighting terrorism and violent extremism. Such responses are counterproductive since they discriminate against communities and help recruitment into violent extremist groups. By discussing religion and ethnicity, this report addresses how democratic states need to guard against discriminatory practices that contribute to developing attitudes leading to violence and recruitment into violent extremist organisations.

Key points

- ▶ States should guard against discriminatory and abusive practices, by structuring the conduct of preventing violent extremism (PVE) efforts within boundaries of international law, best practices and democratic principles.
- ▶ Agencies with a mandate to formulate counter-terrorism and PVE policies should promote dialogue within religious and ethnic communities, and engage them in the process of formulating policy to ensure ownership and transparency. Including members from civil society could ensure an inclusive approach to PVE.
- ▶ Relevant agencies should place more emphasis on factors that tend to be more prevalent in the process of developing attitudes that may lead to violence, such as politics, policy and socio-economic factors rather than identity factors such as religion and ethnicity.
- ▶ Relevant criminal justice institutions should act quickly to curtail discrimination at the hands of law enforcement and security services. This would demonstrate that such actions are not condoned.
- ▶ States should work with civil society to disseminate their message against violence more effectively and support civil society to increase its capacity for PVE activities.

Introduction

International human rights law recognises as a fundamental and inalienable right the equal treatment before the law, regardless of distinction of any kind such as religion or any other status.¹ States are required to adopt laws or other measures to give effect to these rights.² Where these rights are violated, states are immediately required to act to provide an effective remedy.³ Consequently, when the rights of an individual or group are violated and the state does not act to address the violation, there are substantial grounds to bring legal action against the state.⁴

Religion and ethnicity have become factors embedded in the fabric of how people view violent extremism. They are directly affected when the law fails to protect the rights to freedom of religion and belonging to an ethnic group or distinguish them from acts of terrorism and violent extremism, or when states go beyond the boundaries of what is permissible by law to apprehend suspects or deal with convicted extremists.

A key reason why responses to terrorism have failed in their objectives is that the strategies states employ tend to damage and alienate the very communities that they are meant to help, mainly because of religious or ethnic discrimination.⁵ Governments remain overwhelmingly and erroneously oriented towards a view of security that is focused on the security of the state, and have yet to evidence significant shifts towards providing human security. The responses are caught up in this tension and often result in discriminatory practices against vulnerable people.⁶

Governments remain overwhelmingly and erroneously oriented towards a view of security that is focused on the security of the state

While not the focus of this report, for preventing violent extremism (PVE) initiatives to be successful, non-state actors such as civil society must be involved in their formulation and implementation. It is argued that preventative steps in addressing violent extremism should take a ‘whole of society’ approach: to work in partnership with civil society and local communities to ensure ownership, respect for human rights and adherence to national and international laws.⁷

In practice, one of the major issues related to PVE comes from an apparent conflict between the need to uphold democratic principles of pluralism, human rights and the rule of law on the one hand, and states’ preoccupation with national security on the other.⁸ National security agencies – primary actors in states’ counter-terrorism (CT) and PVE efforts – tend to prioritise security over strict observance of human rights, which often discriminates against vulnerable people.⁹ Discrimination occurs by association, when national security services take a blanket approach to CT, identifying a whole

group or community as a 'risk community' based on a shared identity with violent extremists.¹⁰ The states' conflation of religious and ethnic identities of individuals and groups in CT and PVE initiatives undermines the fabric of democracy and respect for the rule of law that these initiatives are based on.

In the context of a human rights framework, this report first examines ethnic and religious identities in the context of violent extremism and states' responses. It then discusses discriminatory state practices in addressing violent extremism and the consequences that these practices have on CT and PVE. The report highlights a select number of good practices from states and concludes with a set of recommendations to state and non-state actors on addressing ethnic and religious factors in the context of CT and PVE.

Use of terminology

Several terms used in this report are contested, without generally accepted definitions. For the purposes of this report, we use the definitions below.

Democracy describes a system of government formed by the whole population or all the eligible members of a state, typically through elected representatives.¹¹ The presupposition is that democracy entails respect for the rule of law.

Ethnic identity is the extent to which one identifies with (a) particular ethnic group(s). It refers to one's sense of belonging to an ethnic group and the part of one's thinking, perceptions, feelings and behaviour that is due to ethnic group membership.¹²

Human rights comprise a vast spectrum of civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights contained in a substantial international legal framework on human rights. This framework consists of a wide range of international treaties. An elaboration of these can be found in the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) *Digest of Jurisprudence of the UN and Regional Organisations on the Protection of Human Rights while Countering Terrorism*.¹³

Radicalisation describes the process by which individuals or groups develop or become susceptible to extremist ideologies.¹⁴ The term used here does not in any way

insinuate a linear process, but could include multiple ways in which radicalisation occurs.

Religious identity is a specific type of identity formation. It is the sense of group membership of a religion and the importance of this group membership as it pertains to one's self-conception.¹⁵

Rule of law describes a principle of governance in which all persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the State itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards. It requires, as well, measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fairness in the application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness and procedural and legal transparency.¹⁶

National security agencies tend to prioritise security over strict observance of human rights

Terrorism is used here to denote the use or threat of violence for the purpose of intimidation or coercion for political, religious or ideological ends.¹⁷

Violent extremism is used here to indicate 'a willingness to use or support the use of violence to further particular beliefs, including those of a political, social or ideological nature and may include acts of terrorism'.¹⁸

Ethnic and religious identities in the context of violent extremism

States' responses to violent extremism, particularly and solely focused on military and security operations, often involve targeting of certain groups of individuals, whether deliberately or inadvertently.¹⁹ Operations that are rooted in prejudice in terms of ethnicity, religion or similar factors generate feelings of discrimination in targeted communities, which may create a perception that states are deliberately targeting communities because of the members' religion or ethnicity.²⁰ This disparity in states' relations with ethnic or religious groups raises serious concerns over discrimination and equal treatment before the law.

Discriminatory practices in states' responses to violent extremism merit some attention. There are links between violent extremism and exclusion of groups based on their ethnic and/or religious identity. For example, a range of identities can be ascribed to al-Shabaab. Its members are Muslim and predominantly of Somali ethnicity. Kenya, which borders Somalia, has its own ethnic-Somali group, whose members have historically been marginalised, a situation that could drive some to join al-Shabaab.²¹ Following attacks on the Westgate Mall in Nairobi, Garissa University in the north-east and Kenyan towns close to the border with Somalia, several crackdowns have involved mass arrests and law enforcement officers' harassment of Kenyans of Somali ethnicity, on suspicion of their having links to al-Shabaab.²² The presumption that all or most members of ethnic and religious groups ascribe to extremists' ideological positions and violence is in flagrant breach of citizens' rights and exacerbates their lack of trust in their governments.²³ Consequently states' efforts to counter violent extremism based on these forms of exclusion have limited effectiveness.

Religion

In the post-9/11 era religion has come to be closely associated with terrorism, but this is an extremely contentious issue. With recent terrorist attacks in various cities in the West, there has been intense debate about connections between Islam and terrorism. Post-9/11 discourse largely associates terrorism with specific interpretations of Islam, although a distinction needs to be made between public perceptions on the issue and views that security specialists hold based on empirical studies. In this discourse, the use of mosques and other Islamic teaching institutions has been singled out as an avenue through which violent extremism is taught.²⁴ Indeed, one of the problems with the 'war on terror' discourse has been that it has largely ignored other forms of extremism by emphasising the link with Islam. The situation is made worse when those who claim responsibility for terrorist attacks profess to follow Islam,²⁵ all the more when these attacks are aimed against those who stand in the way of ideals relating to the establishment of an Islamic caliphate and other associated ideals.

Kenya has its own ethnic-Somali group, whose members have historically been marginalised – a situation that could drive some to join al-Shabaab



THERE ARE LINKS BETWEEN
VIOLENT EXTREMISM AND
EXCLUSION OF GROUPS
BASED ON THEIR ETHNIC
AND/OR RELIGIOUS IDENTITY

It is important to distinguish between those who identify as Muslims and those who use it to fulfil an extremist or violent agenda. Of the world's 1.6 billion Muslims, the majority practise their faith peacefully and abhor the violence by groups such as ISIS, Boko Haram and al-Shabaab.²⁶ This majority does not associate itself with violence, and social movements such as '#NotInMyName' – protesting against the use of Islam by violent extremist groups – are evidence of this.²⁷ Other religions are not, however, exempt from elements of extremism that might lead to violence.

For example, in the United States (US), Eric Rudolph, believed to be a follower of a white supremacist religious group, pleaded guilty to carrying out deadly bombings at the 1996 Atlanta Olympics and an abortion clinic in Birmingham, Alabama, in 1998. In a statement accompanying his guilty plea, he quoted from the Bible to support his use of violence. In this case, it was clear that his actions represented an extremist interpretation of Christianity.²⁸ During the conflict in northern Uganda between 1986 and 2006, the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) was responsible for committing atrocities against people living in that region. The LRA traces its ideology to a mix of Christian and traditional religious beliefs. The LRA followers believed that its former and current leaders, Alice Lakwena and Joseph Kony, had been inhabited by spirits who direct the movement to create a society that embraces Mosaic Law.²⁹

An important question to ask is whether religion with its various forms of interpretation, is the sole source of the extremism, or whether it is a tool used to organise around socio-economic, ideological or geopolitical concerns. A long history of actions and reactions creates these dynamics and it is sometimes difficult to track these in a linear fashion. Atran asks the question, what is 'the original spark that ignites people's passion and minds?'³⁰ According to Olivier Roy, 'An estimated 60 percent of those who espouse violent jihadism in Europe are second-generation Muslims who have lost their connection with their country of origin and have failed to integrate into Western societies'.³¹ Subscription to violent extremism and those who promote it in the name of religion reinforces their attitudes to violence. This suggests that factors in addition to religion might lead individuals to develop attitudes that lead to violence.

The same is true in developing countries. The 2003 war in Iraq, for example, saw an increase in the number of female suicide bombers in response to the death of loved ones caused by multinational or state forces in Iraq.³² In that case, although the women were Muslim, their primary motivation for joining extremist groups was the death of their family members. It is equally true that the process of developing attitudes to violence as part of an extremist group happens over a period of time, although one event, such as the killing of family members, could be a trigger for acts of terrorism.³³ There is nevertheless

trepidation that the majority of perpetrators of terrorist attacks make their arguments in extremist interpretations of Islam and as a result, Muslims have experienced discrimination, victimisation and other forms of abuse.³⁴

The state, as the custodian of the social contract between its citizens and the laws that govern them, has an important role in curtailing violent extremism that is justified on the basis of religion.³⁵ It ought to protect its citizens against violence rooted in extremist interpretations of religion. This should be done within the framework of the rule of law and based on approaches that promote, protect and respect human rights.³⁶ A solely securitised approach to CT and PVE, including monitoring religious spaces and merely seeking religious leaders' endorsement of PVE and CT strategies further undermines states' legitimacy and efforts to address extremist ideology and attendant violence.³⁷ While security responses have their place, states should consider additional approaches such as advocacy, outreach and education of affected communities, which address dynamics related to developing attitudes that lead to violence.

The state has an important role in curtailing violent extremism that is justified on the basis of religions

Islamic texts, their authenticity and how they are interpreted have become questions of utmost importance and increasing contention among Muslims globally.³⁸ These contentions, particularly in the Middle East, West Africa and the India-Pakistan region, have the capacity to undermine PVE and CT strategies where extremist groups take advantage of the same contentions to propagate their own messages. For states to effectively respond to violent extremism and acts of terror that have a religious character, more nuanced national and international approaches should therefore be adopted.³⁹

Ethnicity

The emergence of ethnic marginalisation, particularly in African states, is a colonial era and post-independence governance legacy.⁴⁰ By way of example, Ake speaks of Nigeria as having made 'modest contributions to human

rights and democracy' following the prospects of independence. She notes that:

attention shifted from uniting against colonialism to manoeuvres for getting a good share of the spoils of the nationalist struggle. In the course of [ethnic] rivalries, those ethnic groups which did not feel that they were strong competitors for power in the post-conflict era began to worry about marginalisation and discrimination.⁴¹

The Great Lakes region of Africa has suffered ethnic animosity as a part of colonial and post-independence governance legacies. Rwanda, a former Belgian colony has experienced mass crimes based on ethnic identity. The Belgian colonial authorities favoured the Tutsi ethnic community to the Hutu and Twa ethnic communities.⁴² It is argued that the Tutsi and Hutu identities were colonial constructs, as the Rwandan people speak one language, Kinyarwanda, and have similar cultural practices. At independence, administrative and state control were left to the Tutsi, which led to divisions between Hutus and Tutsis over control of state resources.⁴³ Tensions eventually culminated in a genocide in 1994. Archives of testimony from trials at the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda sitting in Arusha, Tanzania, point to the indoctrination, misinformation and incitement of the Hutu majority to violently rise up against Tutsis and moderate Hutus using radio, print media and television.⁴⁴ This form of extremism led to the deaths of an estimated 937 000 people over the 100 days from 7 April 1994.⁴⁵

Ethnic groups are faced with social ills such as unemployment, lack of access to medical and other services that the state ought to deliver to them

A number of states struggle with weak governance and practices that place entire ethnic groups on the periphery of state power and access to state resources. Consequently, ethnic groups are faced with social ills such as unemployment, lack of access to medical and other services that the state ought to deliver to them. The conditions and circumstances that led to such conditions can drive people to form or join violent extremist groups. In Somalia and Nigeria, for example, violent extremist groups such as al-Shabaab and Boko Haram have their roots in ethnically homogenous ideologies fighting to create a caliphate for themselves.

As the Warsaw Declaration of the Community of Democracies suggests, deepening democratic governance in states includes a rejection of ethnic and religious hatred, violence and other forms of extremism.⁴⁶

In Myanmar, in a bid to prevent the emergence of new territorial entities within the state, the government has employed ruthless military tactics against various ethnic communities, often targeting the civilian population in defiance of human rights and international law. A recent example is the resurgence of



RWANDA HAS EXPERIENCED MASS CRIMES BASED ON ETHNIC IDENTITY

military operations against the Rohingya people by the Myanmar military. An OHCHR report cited incidents of mass-rape, extrajudicial killings and ethnic cleansing.⁴⁷ The conflict has clear ethnic and religious undertones: the government of Myanmar (a primarily Buddhist country) refuses to recognise Rohingya people (a primarily Muslim ethnic group) as one of Myanmar's ethnic groups. In 1982, in response to ongoing counter-insurgency in the region, the government of Myanmar declared that all Rohingyas were illegal immigrants refusing to recognise them as citizens of the state.⁴⁸ The conflict re-emerged in 2012 under the guise of the 'war on terror'.⁴⁹ As a result of government operations, hundreds of thousands were displaced, and more than 100 000 people ended up in 'refugee camps', where they are poorly fed, ill-treated and their freedom of movement is severely restricted.⁵⁰ While a violent extremist group operates 'on behalf' of the Rohingya people and presents security concerns for the Myanmar government, such a blanket approach to this security issue is unlikely to solve the overall problem.

An ethnocentric approach to violent extremism will limit the visions of those who are responsible for developing PVE strategies. Associating a PVE programme with a particular religion, culture, ethnic group, nationality, or race could alienate the very members of the community whose cooperation is essential for the programme to succeed.

States' discriminatory practices in fighting against terrorism and violent extremism

The success and scale of the operations of violent extremist groups, especially those which operate transnationally, is dependent on the financial, physical and ideological support of sympathetic communities around their area of operation and beyond. To garner this support, violent extremist groups identify and prey on people with a shared identity – such as ethnicity, religion or ideology – and build their propaganda efforts on anti-establishment, anti-state and anti-mainstream messages and conspiracy theories, exploiting drivers of radicalisation and recruitment. These factors are not universal; they vary depending on the society in question and may be unique for each individual.⁵¹

The problem arises when states take abusive and discriminatory actions against a particular identity group in the name of countering terrorism and preventing violent extremism. Such actions inevitably bolster the message

of violent extremists' propaganda and are likely to be conducive to the spread of violent extremist ideology.

Discrimination through selective application of legal norms

Discrimination may take a procedural form, where different standards are applied to people based on their ethnicity or religion. For instance, a study of Muslims' interaction with the police in Australia illustrates stigmatisation they experienced.⁵² Concerns respondents brought up included feeling 'othered', vilified and treated with a degree of suspicion and distrust by the police. Respondents also noted that as part of community-based CT efforts police were usually more preoccupied with gathering intelligence on people, instead of working with them. Community members felt that the police had the power to do 'whatever they wanted' in the name of CT.⁵³ This experience was particularly stark for young Muslim men, who are perceived as the group that is most vulnerable to radicalisation and therefore put under the greatest scrutiny.⁵⁴

To garner support, violent extremist groups identify and prey on people with a shared identity

Similarly, the United Kingdom (UK)'s countering violent extremism (CVE) programme, Prevent, has garnered considerable criticism due to its impact on Muslims and on wider democratic principles. Under the Counter-Terrorism and Security Act 2015, it becomes a function of the state to identify 'terrorist-related activity', which includes a broad variety of non-violent activities. A number of students and professors in the UK were questioned and some even arrested for possession of 'radicalisation materials' – terrorist organisations' pamphlets, magazines and training manuals – that were used for academic purposes, and could be easily obtained from libraries and open sources online.⁵⁵ In one study, a number of female Muslim students indicated that they did not take part in public activism or could no longer publicly voice their opinions out of fear of being labelled 'terrorist' or being seen as 'risky'.⁵⁶

Beside the difference in police interactions, minority groups can also be subject to special counter-

terrorism laws that – although drafted for the purpose of prosecution and law enforcement – are often applied preventively against ‘risk groups’ and individuals deemed a ‘potential national threat’. In the US, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), Department of Justice and Federal Bureau of Prisons were criticised by civil society for disruptive counter-terrorism ‘sting operations’ carried out against suspected terrorists. The suspects in question were groomed and guided by undercover FBI agents, encouraged to commit violent acts and supplied with weapons, only to be apprehended for plotting a terrorist attack. While some suspects were in fact plotting terrorist attacks before coming in contact with the FBI, others were not and had no such intentions before.⁵⁷ An FBI agent described Rezwan Ferdaus, who was found guilty and sentenced to 17 years in prison for terrorism and possession of explosives charges, as having mental health problems.⁵⁸ In another case, commonly known as the Fort Dix Five case, the FBI used an informant to groom potential terrorists and instigate ‘extremist’ behaviour, then used the willingness of suspects to follow the informant’s requests as a proof of intent. The FBI supplied the informant with weapons to sell to the ‘co-conspirators’ and the suspects’ purchase of the weapons was then used as evidence during the trial.⁵⁹

While some suspects were in fact plotting terrorist attacks before coming in contact with the FBI, others were not and had no such intentions before

Inevitably, the ‘othering’ of Muslims by law enforcement and security agencies in the context of their potential involvement in terrorist organisations has had a negative effect on their overall perception within larger societies. This, in turn, contributes to greater societal pressure on them. A study by the Institut Montaigne in France found that Catholic Christians were almost 60% more likely than other members of society to receive an invitation to a follow-up job interview. The study also found that Muslim men who presented themselves as secular did not suffer from discrimination during a job interview.⁶⁰ Part of the problem, the report notes, relates to the negative public image that associates Islam with jihadism, extremism and terrorism.⁶¹

An interesting case can be made about the way Muslim immigrants react to ‘othering’ by isolating themselves, rejecting the national identity of their ‘host’ country, and building a new identity around ethnicity and religion. A study from the Netherlands argues that societal pressure after terrorist attacks in Madrid, London and other European cities has resulted in Muslims isolating themselves by forming closed neighbourhoods.⁶²

Such pressure from society and the government, according to head of the International Centre for the Study of Radicalisation at King’s College London Prof. Peter Neumann, could compel Muslims to reject a state’s identity, and redefine themselves in terms of their Muslim identity.⁶³ In Australia, a Muslim



COMMUNAL TRUST IN
GOVERNMENT AND LAW
ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES
IS THE CORNERSTONE OF
EFFECTIVE DISRUPTIVE
CT MEASURES

woman noted that the suspicion and attention that she received for wearing a hijab reinforced her decision to dress differently to emphasise her belonging to the Muslim community.⁶⁴ Another noted, 'I think in a way this is actually forcing people to think, that if they're going to target us, we might as well give them something to target [us for].'⁶⁵

Another negative impact concerns communal trust in government and law enforcement agencies – the cornerstone of effective disruptive CT measures. The study in Australia revealed that Muslims distrusted police officers because the police treated them with suspicion and because of surveillance of community members and mosques as part of CT efforts. Muslims declared their initial openness to cooperation, but voiced frustration and anger with the way security forces handled the initiative. This also resulted in members of the Muslim community reporting distrust of community leaders who voiced their readiness to cooperate with police on CT matters, breeding distrust and conflict within the community. Community members perceived the police as a force of oppression and an opposing side in the conflict, and any form of cooperation was seen as a reinforcement of the 'suspect' narrative.⁶⁶ Finally, the study indicated that community members felt 'under siege', reporting beliefs that the government had a covert agenda against Islam and Muslims in Australia.⁶⁷ A similar phenomenon has been observed in the US⁶⁸ and UK.⁶⁹

Communities tend to be ready to cooperate with police and other security agencies

On the one hand, states need to establish good relations and close cooperation with 'vulnerable communities' to effectively oppose the spread of terrorism and violent extremism. On the other, communities tend to be ready to cooperate with police and other security agencies, but dislike the sense of being a 'suspect community'. This deters community members from participating in CT efforts.⁷⁰ While matters of national security demand secrecy and intelligence, police and other security agencies need to address the concerns of communities in question, and

allow for open and transparent dialogue.⁷¹ Civil society can help bridge the gap. However, engagement and cooperation between law enforcement and civil society organisations need to be managed with caution. Political intervention and any attempt to control the agenda of civil society organisations could backfire, and undermine the credibility and trust of such organisations within the community.⁷²

Overall, it is evident that the 'othering' of Muslims is done at the same time as efforts by law enforcement to establish cooperation with them. This trend is damaging to any efforts directed against terrorism and violent extremism, as it may create a strong divide along identity lines between the minority groups and the government. It could also reinforce the propaganda message of violent extremist groups that states have a hidden agenda against Muslims and Islam. Furthermore, it might reduce the efficiency of preventive programmes. Together, these factors create conditions conducive to the spread of violent extremism.

Human rights and democratic freedoms-related discrimination

Although not always mandated by governments, extrajudicial activities of law enforcement and security agencies create a strong sense of injustice and hatred, and destroy social cohesion, trust in government and the rule of law. Furthermore, they strengthen the narrative of violent extremist organisations and create a powerful incentive for people to seek membership in, and extend their support for, these organisations. Evidence from Nigeria and Egypt illustrates this, indicating a strong link between abuse sustained at the hands of security services and recruitment into violent extremist organisations. In Egypt, a harsh security crackdown against members of Muslim Brotherhood allegedly played a significant role in the spread of violent extremist ideology and related violent extremist incidents.⁷³ Political pressure exerted on members of the organisation, who held strong and radical but ultimately non-violent views, may backfire, and significantly increase instability in the country and the region.⁷⁴

Similarly, a study conducted in Nigeria on push and pull factors for joining Boko Haram found that around 30% of respondents perceived the response of Nigerian security forces to have increased the number of Nigerians joining

Boko Haram. Furthermore, around 57% of respondents indicated revenge as a powerful factor for joining the extremist group, while around 18% more believed that revenge was one among many factors that affected recruitment.⁷⁵

The impact of violence and abuse on the spread of violent extremist ideologies is overall well documented. Over the years, al-Qaeda has used the torture and inhumane treatment of prisoners at Guantanamo Bay and Abu Ghraib in Iraq in their propaganda to 'expose[sic] the West for what it really is', and to show 'the world the American understanding of human rights.'⁷⁶ Furthermore, it is alleged that abuse and torture in US-run prisons in Iraq played a significant role in radicalising prisoners who would later create ISIS.⁷⁷

By employing ruthless and unlawful actions against suspected terrorists and innocent individuals, states risk worsening their security situation

Overall, sweeping discriminatory actions against members of a particular ethnic or religious group are often employed under the guise of fighting the 'evil' of terrorism and supporting national security, and are justified by the horrors of terrorist acts. However, by employing ruthless, harsh and unlawful actions and tactics against suspected terrorists and innocent individuals, states risk worsening their security situation, far from improving it. Current literature draws strong parallels between abuse and humiliation on the one hand, and a strong push-back by ethnic and religious groups against perpetrators of the abuse on the other. Such actions by states are damaging to the integrity of democratic governments, and their image as lawful and fair, and could undermine the credibility of the rule of law. The matter can be made worse as humiliation, torture and abuse at the hands of security services in the name of CT tend to feed into violent extremist groups' conspiracy propaganda narratives. They erode the trust of communities in undermining the prospect of a fair and lawful judgement, and creating a sense that the government is using counter-terrorism as a pretext for abuse and humiliation of members of a particular community. It is therefore an established fact that humiliation, abuse and violation of human and constitutional rights of people, based on their identity, is certain to create favourable dynamics for the spread of violent extremist ideology.



AL-QAEDA HAS USED THE TORTURE AND INHUMANE TREATMENT OF PRISONERS AT GUANTANAMO BAY AND ABU GHRAIB IN IRAQ IN THEIR PROPAGANDA

Selected good practices

Research suggests that the unjust treatment, discrimination and abuse of minority groups are higher in the hierarchy of factors that trigger violent extremist acts than economic factors, such as poverty or inequality in some contexts.⁷⁸ Many discriminatory practices stem from PVE and CT approaches that take wide-ranging measures against the whole 'risk community'. Blanket approaches create grievances between the community and law enforcement agencies, and decrease the effectiveness of community-driven PVE.

The emerging literature tends to suggest that many recent terrorism suspects, especially in the West, are often new converts to Islam. The factors that drive them towards participation in violent extremist organisations seem to have less to do with religion, and more to do with individual problems and frustrations.⁷⁹ In such instances, the perpetrators of terrorist acts had scant knowledge of Islam, and were likely to be ‘radical’ before converting to Islam.⁸⁰ These frustrations could also relate to societal pressure and ‘othering’, as highlighted in section 2. Similarly, research from Africa confirms that a variety of socio-economic and political drivers are responsible for engagement in violent extremism, with religion playing only a minor role.⁸¹ Therefore, religion or ethnicity alone are not adequate for effective risk assessment against radicalisation and recruitment, as they may overshadow other possible underlying factors, such as mental health problems,⁸² or a history of criminal, antisocial or violent behaviour.⁸³ Governments need to be wary of ethnic and religious biases while dealing with the issue of terrorism.⁸⁴

A variety of socio-economic and political drivers are responsible for engagement in violent extremism

Communities have an important role to play in the fight against terrorism and are often willing to support states’ efforts in this area. From the role elders and community leaders could play in addressing violent ideology,⁸⁵ to the role of strong families in limiting the success of propaganda of violent extremism organisations,⁸⁶ to the wider community reporting suspicious individuals to security services.⁸⁷ In this case, civil society should play an important role in connecting communities and the government as a neutral player. But governments need to balance their aspirations for national security, and preoccupation with secrecy, with the need to uphold the neutrality and legitimacy of civil society organisations to maintain the credibility of such organisations within the community. Denmark presents a case of a successful government-civil society partnership. The Denmark Aarhus model relies on close cooperation between the government and leaders of mosques, and civil society to create dialogue with vulnerable communities and address

conditions in society that could be conducive to the spread of violent extremism.⁸⁸

An important factor with regard to inclusivity and non-discrimination relates to the constitutional order and legal framework in place. Where discrimination at the hands of security services occurs, it is important to ensure speedy justice for the victims. Equality, non-discrimination, adherence to human rights and the rule of law all play a significant role in reducing societal tensions and firmly limiting and regulating societal interaction within the boundaries of the law. These also support state legitimacy and undermine recruitment narratives of violent extremist groups. Some democratic constitutions also have a bill of rights that aims to ensure inclusivity and limit racial, gender, ethnic and other identity-based discrimination. However, the application of legal frameworks might prove to be the biggest challenge, as an inclusive legal framework does not in itself guarantee adherence to these principles.

The Global Counterterrorism Forum’s Ankara Memorandum on Good Practices for a Multi-Sectoral Approach to CVE⁸⁹ offers a number of recommendations to states and civil society in their efforts on CVE. The document is instructive for states and reflects on the following practices by states on CVE clustered in five thematic areas: multi-agency approaches within the state; identifying the violent extremism problem; public-private partnerships; socio-economic approaches; and the role of law enforcement agencies.

Conclusion

This report has explored how factors relating to identity have influenced efforts to address terrorism and violent extremism, and has highlighted the significant dangers of strategies associated with discrimination focused on religious beliefs or ethnic identity. Evidence suggests that injustice, discrimination and abuse at the hands of law enforcement agencies can create a strong incentive for individuals to develop attitudes that may lead to violence, or to extend their support to violent extremist groups. Measures that violate human rights, albeit taken in the name of national security, are narrow-sighted and do not consider the long-term negative impact on conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism.

It is important to note that there is no evidence to suggest that holding a religious belief or being a member

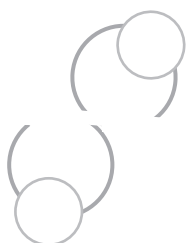
of a particular ethnic group puts one at risk of joining a violent extremist organisation. Furthermore, neither Islam nor any other religion should be equated with violent extremist organisations that base their hateful ideology on a deviant interpretation of religious texts. Therefore, perceiving a whole community as a risk group by merit of association creates an unnecessary tension within society, and is likely to hinder CT efforts – at least at community level. Moreover, abuse and discrimination at the hands of security agencies may prove counterproductive and contribute to the spread of violent ideologies among vulnerable people. Instead of adopting a blanket identity-driven approach to CT and preventing violent extremism, states should focus on and account for other factors that drive violent extremism, including socio-economic factors, absence of rule of law, injustice, and political grievances.

Abuse at the hands of security agencies may prove counterproductive and contribute to the spread of violent ideologies among vulnerable people

Evidence also suggests that vulnerable communities are often open to cooperation with the government to prevent violent extremism. Therefore, the states need to approach this issue in a careful manner, to maintain communities' trust. Steps to address religious extremism also need to be taken carefully, within the boundaries of the rule of law, to avoid targeting and othering members of religious groups. It is also advisable for governments to encourage moderate voices and support the advancement of human rights and the rule of law.

Recommendations

1. States should guard against discriminatory and abusive practices by structuring the conduct of PVE efforts within the boundaries of international law and best practices, democratic principles and human rights.
2. Agencies with a mandate to formulate CT and PVE policy should promote dialogue within religious and ethnic communities and engage them in the process of formulating policy to ensure ownership and transparency. These agencies should also include members of civil society to ensure a broad, inclusive approach to PVE.
3. Relevant agencies should place more emphasis on factors that tend to be more prevalent in the process of developing attitudes that may lead to violence, such as politics, policy and socio-economic factors rather than identity factors.
4. Relevant criminal justice institutions must act quickly to curtail discrimination at the hands of law enforcement and security services, and to punish perpetrators of discrimination and abuse to demonstrate that such actions are neither acceptable nor condoned. This should prevent



VULNERABLE COMMUNITIES
ARE OFTEN OPEN TO
COOPERATION WITH THE
GOVERNMENT TO PREVENT
VIOLENT EXTREMISM

further violations, promote adherence to human rights and strengthen the rule of law.

5. States must consider working with civil society to disseminate their message against violence more effectively and support civil society to increase their capacity for PVE activities.

Notes

The authors would like to thank Dr Hisham A Hellyer of the Rafik Hariri Centre for Middle East and the Atlantic Council, Ms Raeesah Cachalia, Independent Consultant on CVE and CT and Dr Rizwaan Sabir of Liverpool John Moores University for their useful comments in reviewing this report.

- 1 United Nations (UN) General Assembly, Universal Declaration of Human Rights (10 December 1948), 217 A (III), art.2, art.7; UN General Assembly, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) (16 December 1966), United Nations Treaties Series (UNTS), 999, 171, art.2(1).
- 2 UN General Assembly, ICCPR (16 December 1966), UNTS, 999, 171, art.2(2); the UN [Human Rights] Committee on Civil and Political Rights (CCPR) recognises that the right to freedom of belief, for example, is non-derogable. It is 'concerned at reports that, since recent terrorist attacks, persons have been the subject of attack and harassment on the basis of their religious beliefs and that religion has been utilised to incite to the commission of criminal acts... The State party should extend its criminal legislation to cover offences motivated by religious hatred and should take other steps to ensure that all persons are protected from discrimination on account of their religious beliefs', CCPR/CO/73/UK (2001), para.14.
- 3 UN General Assembly, ICCPR (16 December 1966), UNTS, 999, 171, art.2(3); UN Human Rights Committee General Comment no. 31, Nature of the General Legal Obligation Imposed on States Parties to the Covenant (CCPR/C/21/Rev.1/Add.13), para.8. On the right to an effective remedy see UN General Assembly, ICCPR (16 December 1966), UNTS, 999, 171, available at
- 4 *Velasquez-Rodriguez v. Honduras Inter-Am. Ct. H.R.*, 35, OAS/ser. L/V/III. 19, Doc. 13, app. VI (1988), where the Inter-American Court of Human Rights interpreted art.1 of the Inter-American Convention on Human Rights as determining when violations of substantive rights can give rise to state responsibility: 'Any impairment of those rights [recognised in the Convention], which can be attributed under the rules of international law to the action or omission of any public authority, constitutes an act imputable to the State, which assumes responsibility in the terms provided by the Convention itself.'
- 5 T Choudhury and H Fenwick, The impact of counter-terrorism measures on Muslim communities, *Project Report*, Equality and Human Rights Commission, Manchester, 2011.
- 6 B van Riezen and K Roex, Counter-Terrorism in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom: a *Comparative Literature Review Study*, 97–99, 2012, <https://dspace.library.uu.nl/bitstream/handle/1874/237594/52-190-1-PB.pdf?sequence=2>.
- 7 UN General Assembly, *Plan of Action to Prevent Violent Extremism*, A/70/674 (24 December 2015), 1, <https://undg.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/SG-Plan-of-Action-to-Prevent-Violent-Extremism-1.pdf>.
- 8 UN General Assembly, ICCPR (16 December 1966), UNTS, 999, 171, art.11(3) addresses the derogable nature of certain rights in the interests of national security and public safety.
- 9 B van Riezen and K Roex, Counter-Terrorism in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom: a *Comparative Literature Review Study*, 97–99, 2012, <https://dspace.library.uu.nl/bitstream/handle/1874/237594/52-190-1-PB.pdf?sequence=2>.
- 10 P Hillyard, *Suspect Community: Peoples' Experience of the Prevention of Terrorism Acts in Britain*, London: Pluto Press in association with NCCL/Liberty, 1993, 300. See also A Kundnani, 'Spooked': How Not to Prevent Violent Extremism, Institute of Race Relations, October 2009, <http://s3-eu-west-2.amazonaws.com/wpmedia.outlandish.com/irr/2017/04/26154810/spooked.pdf>.
- 11 Electronic Oxford Dictionary, Democracy, <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/us/democracy>.
- 12 J Phinney, Ethnic Identity, in A E Kazdin (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Psychology*, New York: Oxford University Press, 3, 2000, 254–259.
- 13 Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), *Digest of Jurisprudence of the UN and Regional Organisations on the Protection of Human Rights while Countering Terrorism*, www.ohchr.org/documents/publications/digestjurisprudenceen.pdf.
- 14 R Borum, Radicalization into Violent Extremism: A Review of Social Science Theories, *Journal of Strategic Security*, 4:4, Winter 2011, <http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1139&context=jss>.
- 15 P E King and C J Boyatzis, Exploring Adolescent Spiritual and Religious Development: Current and Future Theoretical and Empirical Perspectives, *Applied Developmental Science*, 8:1, 2004, 2–6.
- 16 UN Security Council, *Report of the Secretary-General: The Rule of Law and Transitional Justice in Conflict and Post-Conflict Societies*, S/2004/616 (23 August 2004), www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/2004/616.
- 17 C Peoples and N Vaughan-Williams, *Critical Security Studies: An Introduction*, 2nd ed., London: Routledge, 2015, 141.
- 18 JL Striegheer, *Violent-Extremism: An Examination of a Definitional Dilemma*, 2015, <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1046&context=asi>.
- 19 Amnesty International, *Cameroon's Secret Torture Chambers: Human rights violations and war crimes in the fight against Boko Haram*, 20 July 2017, www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr17/6536/2017/en/. According to the report, Cameroon's authorities and security forces often failed to respect the human rights of individuals thought to be a part of Boko Haram on the basis of their origin and association, committing human rights violations and crimes under international law on a significant scale, including with arbitrary arrests, incommunicado detention, enforced disappearances, torture and deaths in custody.
- 20 F Ragazzi, Suspect community or suspect category? The impact of counter-terrorism as policed multiculturalism, *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 42:5, 2016.
- 21 M Hassan, *Understanding drivers of violent extremism: the case of al-Shabaab and Somali Youth*, 23 August 2012, <https://ctc.usma.edu/posts/understanding-drivers-of-violent-extremism-the-case-of-al-shabab-and-somali-youth>.
- 22 'Operation Usalama Watch' by the Kenyan security forces was a crackdown on a predominantly Somali neighbourhood of Nairobi. Security forces locked down Eastleigh, a suburb in Nairobi and began indiscriminately rounding up thousands of people following terrorist attacks in the country. The operation initially focused on the Somali community, including refugees and asylum-seekers. See Human Rights Watch, *Kenya: Halt Crackdown on Somalis*, 11 April 2014, www.hrw.org/news/2014/04/11/kenya-halt-crackdown-somalis
- 23 G Denoeux and L Carter, *Guide to Drivers of Violent Extremism*, USAID, 2009, https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/Pnadt978.pdf.
- 24 US President Donald Trump has for example called for surveillance of mosques on the premise that they are avenues through which extremist

- messages are propagated. See M Haberman, Donald Trump Calls for Surveillance of 'Certain Mosques' and a Syrian Refugee Database, *The New York Times*, 21 Nov. 2015, A24, www.nytimes.com/2015/11/22/us/political/donald-trump-syrian-muslims-surveillance.html.
- 25 Two brothers, Tamerlan and Dzhokhar Tsarnaev, were responsible for the Boston Marathon bomb attack in April 2013. Although they were Muslims, they had other non-religious, personal problems that could have driven them to carry out the bombings: for example, Tamerlan experienced economic hardship, while Dzhokhar was a persistent marijuana user and on the verge of academic exclusion; see Sally Steenland, *3 Facts About Religion and Violent Extremism*, Center for American Progress, 1 May 2013, www.americanprogress.org/issues/religion/news/2013/05/01/61933/3-facts-about-religion-and-violent-extremism/.
 - 26 The Spectre of Multi-National Terrorism in the 21st Century, *Criterion Quarterly*, 27 May 2016, www.criterion-quarterly.com/the-spectre-of-multi-national-terrorism-in-the-21st-century; G Abdo and N Brown, *Religion, Identity, and Countering Violent Extremism*, Rafik Hariri Center, 2016.
 - 27 See #NotInMyName campaigns such as <http://isisnotinmyname.com>. This website tracks the number of Muslims who have joined the campaign globally. A total of 85,647 has been recorded as at the time of writing this Report.
 - 28 See Eric Rudolph press coverage www.nbcnews.com/id/7486021/ns/us_news-crime_and_courts/t/rudolph-pleads-guilty-series-bombings/#.WQLh1hh2CS.
 - 29 K Titeca, The spiritual order of the LRA, in T Allen and K Vlassenroot (eds.), *The Lord's Resistance Army: Myth and Reality*, London: Zed Books, 59–73.
 - 30 S Atran, Religion, Suicide, Terrorism, and the Moral Foundation of the World, in O Villaroya and FFI Argimon (eds.), *Social Brain Matters: Stances on the Neurobiology of Social Cognition*, Amsterdam: Rodopi, 2007, 101–117.
 - 31 D Lerner, It's Not Islam That Drives Young Europeans to Jihad, France's Top Terrorism Expert Explains, *Haaretz*, 4 June 2017, www.haaretz.com/world-news/europe/1.791954.
 - 32 M Al-Lami, *Studies of Radicalisation: State of the Field Report*, January 2009, https://static1.squarespace.com/static/566d81c8d82d5ed309b2e935/t/567ab488b204d58613bf92aa/1450882184032/Studies_of_Radicalisation_State_of_the_F.pdf, 2.
 - 33 J Horgan, From Profiles to Pathways and Roots to Routes: Perspectives from Psychology on Radicalization into Terrorism, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 618:1, 2008, 80–94.
 - 34 T Abbas, *Islamic Radicalism and Multicultural Politics: The British Experience*, London: Taylor and Francis, 157; see also Islamic Human Rights Commission *The Hidden Values of September 11: Prisoners of UK Law*, London, 2002, 4; and Open Society Institute *Muslims in the UK: Policies for Informed Citizens*, New York, 2004, 293.
 - 35 See the general obligation on states to ensure the equal treatment before the law without distinction of any kind and where a violation occurs, to provide effective remedies; UN General Assembly, ICCPR (16 December 1966), UNTS, 999, 171, art.2.
 - 36 C Frank, *Sustaining Safety: Renewing Rights-Based Commitments to Addressing Terrorism and Violent Extremism*, September 2017, ISS Report, Institute for Security Studies
 - 37 F Ragazzi, Suspect community or suspect category? The impact of counter-terrorism as policed multiculturalism, *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 42:5, 2016
 - 38 See G Abdo, and N Brown, *Religion, Identity, and Countering Violent Extremism*, Rafik Hariri Center 2016, 4; talk of unity of Muslims on their sacred text but this is inaccurate.
 - 39 Global Counterterrorism Forum, *Ankara Memorandum on Good Practices for a Multi-Sectoral Approach to Preventing Violent Extremism*, Practice 13, 2016, www.thegctf.org/Portals/1/Documents/Framework%20Documents/A/GCTF-Ankara-Memorandum-ENG.pdf.
 - 40 C Ake, What is the problem of ethnicity in Africa? *Transformation*, 22, 1993, 1–14, 7–8
 - 41 *Ibid.*, 7–8.
 - 42 J Chrétien, Colonial Trusteeship and Reconstructions of Traditions, *The Great Lakes of Africa: Two Thousand Years of History*, New York: Zone Books, 201–290.
 - 43 *Ibid.*, 149.
 - 44 See, for example, International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, *The Prosecutor v. Jean Paul Akayesu* Case No. ICTR-96-4-T.
 - 45 This is the number based on official statistics from the Rwandan government, Hironde Press Agency press release, 5 April 2004 *Nteziriyayo allegedly ordered the killing of Tutsis without mercy*, www.hirondellenews.com/ict-rwanda/333-appeals/butare-trial/19853-en-en-nteziriyayo-allegedly-ordered-the-killing-of-tutsis-without-mercy/89048904 and *Tutsis killed to avenge President Habyarimana's death*, <http://www.hirondellenews.com/ict-rwanda/368-trials-ended/government-i-trial/19855-en-en-tutsis-killed-to-avenge-president-habyarimanas-death89068906>; see LJ Van den Herik, *The Contributions of the Rwanda Tribunal to the Development of International Law*. Leiden: Martinus Nijhoff, 2005, 25; A Ngari, Dealing with the Legacy of Mass Atrocities in the Great Lakes, Klaus Bachmann (ed.), *The Legacy of Crimes and Crises: Transitional Justice, Domestic Change and the Role of the International Community*, Oxford, UK: Peter Lang, 2016, 49–70.
 - 46 Warsaw Declaration, p. 4. www.community-democracies.org/values/warsaw-declaration/
 - 47 United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, Interviews with Rohingyas fleeing from Myanmar since 9 October 2016, 3 February 2017, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Countries/MM/FlashReport3Feb2017.pdf.
 - 48 International Crisis Group, *Myanmar: The Politics of Rakhine State*, 22 October 2014, <https://d2071andvip0wj.cloudfront.net/myanmar-the-politics-of-rakhine-state.pdf>, 32.
 - 49 T Akbar, Myanmar and the 'War on Terror', 11 March 2016, *The Diplomat*, <http://thediplomat.com/2016/03/myanmar-and-the-war-on-terror/>.
 - 50 J Motlagh, These Aren't Refugee Camps, They're Concentration Camps, and People Are Dying in Them, *Time Magazine*, 17 June 2014, <http://time.com/2888864/rohingya-myanmar-burma-camps-sittwe/>.
 - 51 RAN Center for Excellence, *RAN Issue Paper: The Root Causes of Violent Extremism*, 4 January 2016, https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/sites/homeaffairs/files/what-we-do/networks/radicalisation_awareness_network/ran-papers/docs/issue_paper_root-causes_jan2016_en.pdf, 3.
 - 52 A Cherney and K Murphy, Being a 'Suspect Community' in a Post 9/11 World – The Impact of the War on Terror on Muslim Communities in Australia, *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 49:4, 488.
 - 53 *Ibid.*
 - 54 K Murphy, A Cherney and J Barkworth, *Avoiding community backlash in the fight against terrorism: Research report*, ABC, March 2015, www.abc.net.au/mediawatch/transcripts/1537_cherney.pdf, 20–22.
 - 55 R Sabir, *Preventing and Countering Violent Extremism through Civil, Political, and Human Rights*, OHCHR, April 2016, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/RuleOfLaw/PCVE/Rizwaan_Sabir.pdf, 8–10.
 - 56 K Brown and T Saeed, Radicalization and counter-radicalization at British universities: Muslim encounters and alternatives, *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 38:11, 2015, 1952–1968.

- 57 Human Rights Watch, *Illusion of Justice: Human Rights Abuses in US Terrorism Prosecutions*, July 2014, www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/usterrorism0714_ForUpload_1_0.pdf.
- 58 Human Rights Watch, *US: Terrorism Prosecutions Often an Illusion*, 21 July 2014, www.hrw.org/news/2014/07/21/us-terrorism-prosecutions-often-illusion.
- 59 *United States v. Duka*, 671 F.3d 329 (3rd Cir. 2011), <https://casetext.com/case/united-states-v-duka>.
- 60 M-A Valfort, *Religious Discrimination in Access to Employment: a Reality*, Institut Montaigne, October 2015, www.institutmontaigne.org/res/files/publications/discriminations-en.pdf.
- 61 *Ibid.*, 66.
- 62 A Elsayed and A de Grip, *Terrorism and the Integration of Muslim Immigrants*, LSE Centre for Economic Performance, April 2015, <http://cep.lse.ac.uk/seminarpapers/05-06-15-ELS.pdf>.
- 63 PBS, *For Muslims in UK, not feeling 'British' can lead some to extremism*, 26 January 2016, www.pbs.org/newshour/bb/muslims-uk-conflict-of-identity-isolation/.
- 64 A Cherney and K Murphy, Being a 'Suspect Community' in a Post 9/11 World – The Impact of the War on Terror on Muslim Communities in Australia, *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 49:4, 490.
- 65 K Murphy, A Cherney and J Barkworth, *Avoiding community backlash in the fight against terrorism: Research report*, ABC, March 2015, www.abc.net.au/mediawatch/transcripts/1537_cherney.pdf, 23.
- 66 A Cherney and K Murphy, Being a 'Suspect Community' in a Post 9/11 World – The Impact of the War on Terror on Muslim Communities in Australia, *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 49:4, 492.
- 67 *Ibid.*, 488–493.
- 68 S Aziz, Policing Terrorists in the Community, *Harvard National Security Journal*, 5:1, 2014.
- 69 G Mythen, S Walklate and F Khan, 'I'm a Muslim, but I'm not a Terrorist': Victimization, Risky Identities and the Performance of Safety, *The British Journal of Criminology*, 49:6, 2009, 736–754.
- 70 K Murphy, A Cherney and J Barkworth, *Avoiding community backlash in the fight against terrorism: Research report*, ABC, March 2015, www.abc.net.au/mediawatch/transcripts/1537_cherney.pdf, 20–22.
- 71 R Lambert and T Parson, Community-Based Counterterrorism Policing: Recommendations for Practitioners, *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism*, 39, 2016.
- 72 Dr B Van Ginkel, Engaging Civil Society in Countering Violent Extremism: Experiences with the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, *ICCT Research Paper*, International Centre for Counter-Terrorism – The Hague (ICCT), August 2012, www.icct.nl/download/file/ICCT-Van-Ginkel-Civil-Society-in-CVE-August-2012.pdf, 11.
- 73 B Rohan, In Egypt, disaffected youth increasingly drawn to extremism, *Seattle Times*, 4 August 2015, www.seattletimes.com/nation-world/egypt-disaffected-youth-increasingly-drawn-to-extremism/.
- 74 L Ardovini, Profiling the Muslim Brotherhood: Radicalization and Extremism, *Radicalisation Research*, 22 September 2015, www.radicalisationresearch.org/debate/ardovini-2015-muslim-brotherhood/.
- 75 A Botha, M Ewi, U Salifu and M Abdile, Understanding Nigerian citizens' perspectives on Boko Haram, ISS Monograph 196, 27 February 2017, <https://issafrica.s3.amazonaws.com/site/uploads/monograph196.pdf>.
- 76 T Postel, How Guantanamo Bay's Existence Helps Al-Qaeda Recruit More Terrorists: It holds cleared detainees, and it's become a rallying point in jihadist propaganda, *The Atlantic*, 12 April 2013, www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2013/04/how-guantanamo-bays-existence-helps-al-qaeda-recruit-more-terrorists/274956/.
- 77 Russia Today, *ISIS leader says US prisons in Iraq led to creation of terrorist organization*, 12 December 2014, www.rt.com/news/213843-isis-creation-prison-iraq/.
- 78 S Ghatak and A Gold, Development, discrimination, and domestic terrorism: Looking beyond a linear relationship, *Conflict Management and Peace Science*, 22:1, 2015, 17–18.
- 79 B Schuurman, P Grol and S Flower, Converts and Islamist Terrorism: An Introduction, *ICCT Policy Brief*, ICCT, June 2016, www.icct.nl/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/ICCT-Schuurman-Grol-Flower-Converts-June-2016.pdf.
- 80 D Lerner, It's Not Islam That Drives Young Europeans to Jihad, France's Top Terrorism Expert Explains, *Haaretz*, 4 June 2017, www.haaretz.com/world-news/europe/1.791954.
- 81 R Cachalia, U Salifu and I Ndung'u, The Dynamics of Youth Radicalisation in Africa: Reviewing the Current Evidence, *ISS Paper 296*, <https://issafrica.s3.amazonaws.com/site/uploads/paper296-1.pdf>; LA Théroux-Bénoni, Mali's Young 'Jihadists': Fuelled by Faith or Circumstance?, *ISS Policy Brief 89*, August 2016, <https://issafrica.s3.amazonaws.com/site/uploads/policybrief89-eng-v3.pdf>, 4.
- 82 PA James and D Pisiou, *Mental Illness and Terrorism*, National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (START), 6 July 2016, www.start.umd.edu/news/mental-illness-and-terrorism.
- 83 R Borum, Assessing Risk for Terrorism Involvement, *Journal of Threat Assessment and Management*, 2:2, 2015, 69.
- 84 UN General Assembly, Plan of Action to Prevent Violent Extremism, A/70/674, 24 December 2015, 7, www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/70/674.
- 85 *Ibid.*, 16.
- 86 United Nations Development Programme, *Preventing violent extremism through promoting inclusive development, tolerance and respect for diversity*, Global Meeting 14–16 March 2016, Oslo, Norway, 18, www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/democratic-governance/preventing-violent-extremism-through-promoting-inclusive-develop.html.
- 87 A Cherney and K Murphy, Police and Community Cooperation in Counterterrorism: Evidence and Insights from Australia, *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, 40, 2017, 1–2.
- 88 N Khader, *The Danish Model for Prevention of Radicalization and Extremism*, Hudson Institute, 14 August 2014, www.hudson.org/research/10555-the-danish-model-for-prevention-of-radicalization-and-extremism.
- 89 Global Counterterrorism Forum, *Ankara Memorandum on Good Practices for a Multi-Sectoral Approach to Preventing Violent Extremism*, www.thegctf.org/Portals/1/Documents/Framework%20Documents/A/GCTF-Ankara-Memorandum-ENG.pdf.

About the project

This report is part of a series of papers on democracy, security, and violent extremism prepared for the Community of Democracies' Democracy and Security Dialogue. The project seeks to foster greater collaboration among democratic governments, donors, civil society and academics to improve security outcomes and create a more conducive environment for the strengthening of democracy around the world. For more on the project and related materials, including the final report, visit www.brookings.edu/democracy-security-dialogue

About ISS Africa in the World Reports

Africa in the World Reports consider the implications and lessons from Africa for global policy. The ISS works on complex threats that have transnational and global impact, and require innovative solutions at the international and local level. These reports cover topics like terrorism, organised crime, the impact of migration, and long-term futures analysis of conflict, development and governance in Africa.

About the authors

Allan Ngari is a Senior Researcher in the Transnational Threats and International Crime Programme of the ISS.

Denys Reva is a Consultant in the Transnational Threats and International Crime Programme of the ISS.

About the ISS

The Institute for Security Studies (ISS) partners to build knowledge and skills that secure Africa's future. Our goal is to enhance human security as a means to achieve sustainable peace and prosperity. The ISS is an African non-profit organisation with offices in South Africa, Kenya, Ethiopia and Senegal. Our work covers transnational crimes, migration, peacekeeping, crime prevention and criminal justice, peacebuilding, and the analysis of conflict and governance.

The ISS uses its networks and influence to provide timely and credible analysis, practical training and technical assistance to governments and civil society. This promotes better policy and practice, because senior officials can make informed decisions about how to deal with Africa's human security challenges.

Acknowledgements

This report was made possible with the support of the Government of Norway. The ISS is also grateful for support from the other members of the ISS Partnership Forum: the Hanns Seidel Foundation and the governments of Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Japan, Netherlands, Sweden and the USA.

© 2017, Institute for Security Studies

Copyright in the volume as a whole is vested in the Institute for Security Studies and the authors, and no part may be reproduced in whole or in part without the express permission, in writing, of both the authors and the publishers.

The opinions expressed do not necessarily reflect those of the ISS, its trustees, members of the Advisory Council or donors. Authors contribute to ISS publications in their personal capacity.

Cover image: US Navy photo/Tyler Preston

