

# Relationship between Poverty, Socio-Political Factors and Global Terrorism

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**Abstract:** The study examined the relationship between poverty, socio-political factors and global terrorism. Social injustice, poverty, political exclusion, and religion served as the independent or predictor variables of the study. While global terrorism served as the dependent variable. The population of the study consisted of all the places where terrorist acts are being unleashed. Cross-sectional/survey design was used for the study. Data were sourced by using secondary sources. The study reviewed extant literature to generate data for the investigations. Data analyses were done with statistical tool of regression analysis (ordinary least square estimation) through the help of SPSS 25.0. The study found that there are nine countries most impacted by terrorism according to the 2022 GTI, and how they have been ranked on the index since 2011. The countries are Afghanistan 1<sup>st</sup>, Iraq 2<sup>nd</sup>, Somalia 3<sup>rd</sup>, Burkina Faso 4<sup>th</sup>, Syria 5<sup>th</sup>, Nigeria 6<sup>th</sup>, Mali 7<sup>th</sup>, Niger 8<sup>th</sup> and Pakistan 9<sup>th</sup>. The study also found that despite a one per cent decrease in the number of deaths from terrorism overall, the nine countries most impacted by terrorism remained largely unchanged. Afghanistan and Iraq maintained their positions as the two countries most impacted by terrorism, for the third consecutive year. There were some movements in the rankings with Burkina Faso overtaking Syria and Nigeria to be the fourth most impacted country, Pakistan moved from eighth most impacted to ninth and Nigeria dropped two places to sixth most impacted country. The study observed that terrorism has become a global phenomenon with fierce destructive tendencies claiming lives and properties. Conclusively, it is obvious and evident based on the findings of the study that: There is significant relationship between social injustice and global terrorism; there is negative, but significant relationship between poverty and global terrorism; there is significant relationship between political exclusion and global terrorism, and there is no significant relationship between religion and global terrorism. The study therefore recommends the adoption of impartial characterization in handling democratization and government businesses of various nations. With that in motion equity and social justice must always be maintained in sharing dividends of democracy. Also, jobs should be created for the youths to reduce luring them to participate in terrorist acts. It is important to understand, however, that reducing poverty will have a relatively modest positive impact on countering terrorism. Governments should look at the factors that promote socio-economic development and societal resilience, taking the view that the way to build and sustain peaceful societies requires a revision in attitudes, institutions, and structures. Positive peace identifies developmental factors that lead to resilient societies, kinetic approach is not the way to stop terrorism in the world.

**Keywords:** Poverty, Socio-Political Factors, Social Injustice, Political Exclusion, Religion, Global Terrorism

## I. INTRODUCTION

Terrorism can be described as a phenomenon of intimidating people and/or governments under the effect of a series of acts or threats of violence and forcing them to act or not to act in a certain direction for political, religious, or social factors. When the targets, institutions, or victims of a terrorist incident in one country are citizens of another country, terrorism takes on a transnational character (Sandler, 2015). Moreover, terrorism can be broadly understood as movements directed towards eliminating political rivals in order to spread dread. According to estimates by Bardwell and Iqbal (2020), terrorism has cost the world economy 855 billion American dollars for the period from 2000 to 2018.

A review undertaken by Aslam et al. (2020) demonstrates that the COVID-19 pandemic escalated the vulnerability of governments all around the world to various terrorist acts. Particularly, Ackerman and Peterson (2020) opine that the coronavirus-driven diminution in the quality-of-life fuelled people's anti-government attitudes and increase their susceptibility to radicalizing narratives with subsequent involvement in violent extremism.

According to OECD, (2020), a total of 4993 terror incidents have occurred in sub-Saharan Africa between the period 1971 and 2008. However, in recent times, the growth of terror incidents and deaths resulting from terrorism has been overwhelming in the entirety of Africa. Coccia (2018) reflected on the economic losses, terrorism could have on countries. Such losses result in a reduced growth rate of the economy, and a drastic fall in capital inflows, resulting in lower living standards and a consequent rise in poverty. This could also possibly lead to vicious circle emanation, that is, terrorism leading to higher poverty levels and poverty in turn creating more terrorism incidents. According to UNESCO (2019), in North Africa, at least one in four children in the region live below the poverty line. This means that these children may be easy prey for terrorist organizations to recruit and radicalize in a bid to carry out their terrorist activities. Krzyżak (2017), supports this disposition where young people are easy recruits for terrorists.

The number of countries experiencing at least one death from terrorism in the past year was 44, a slight increase compared with the 43 countries in 2020. Another 105 countries had no deaths or attacks from terrorism in 2021. This is the highest number of countries since 2007 (Global Terrorism Index GTI, 2022).

The situation in the Sahel is rapidly deteriorating, with eight attempted coups in Burkina Faso, Mali, Guinea and Chad in the last eighteen months. The underlying drivers are complex and systemic, including poor water utilisation, lack of food, malnutrition, strong population growth, and weak governments, with most of the terrorist activity occurring along borders where government control is weakest. Adding to the complexity, many criminal organisations increasingly represent themselves as Islamic insurgents (Global Terrorism Index GTI, 2022).

Politically motivated terrorism has now overtaken religiously motivated terrorism, with the latter declining by 82 per cent in 2021. In the last five years, there have been five times more politically motivated terrorist attacks than religiously motivated attacks. There are now noticeable similarities between farleft and far-right extremist ideologies, with both targeting government and political figures. Since 2007, 17 per cent of terrorist attacks by these groups have targeted this category (Global Terrorism Index GTI, 2022). Additionally, while the motivation can be inferred, most attacks attributed to left or right ideologies are perpetrated by individuals or groups with no formal affiliation to a recognised organisation, with many of the underlying motivational factors being similar.

However, studies around the world have continued to insinuate that poverty, religion, political exclusion, marginalization and social injustice may be significant factors causing terrorism. This assertion has been supported by Akinrinde (2020). The author posits that poverty may result in terrorism and it is necessary for a change in mindset with regard to the view that poverty causes terrorism. Akinrinde (2020). further asserts the need to reshape counter-terrorism policies away from poverty. Studies by Abadie (2004) contrast this notion where there exists no relation between poverty and terrorism. In fact, a study by Schumpe et al. (2020) revealed that members of terrorist organizations like the Hezbollah are wealthier than the average citizens in Lebanon. Horgan (2008) also revealed that many Al-Qaida members come from a financially solid background. However, the case may be different in Africa due to the devastating level of poverty in the region. For instance, in Somalia, Horgan, (2014) observed that youths join terror organizations due to monetary benefits for a better life. In terms of the proportion of the population living on less than \$US 1.90 per day, it is revealed that Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo are the poorest countries in Africa on average based on.

In the West, the number of attacks has fallen substantially over the last three years, with successive falls each year. Fifty-nine attacks and ten deaths were recorded in 2021, a decrease of 68 and 70 percent respectively since the peak in 2018. In Europe, Islamist extremists carried out three attacks in 2021. Attacks in the US also dropped to the lowest level since 2015, with only seven attacks recorded in 2021. None were attributed to any known terrorist group. Fatalities in the US increased slightly, from two to three between 2020 and 2021 (Global Terrorism Index GTI, 2022).

The factors that are most closely statistically associated with terrorism vary depending on the socio-economic development of a country. Political terror and acceptance of basic rights are common globally. For OECD countries there are two statistical clusters. They are measures associated with social equity and acceptance of violence within a society. The latter being associated with political terror, access to weapons and militarisation. For less economically developed countries the statistical clusters are weak institutions and societal fractionalisation. The two strongest correlations for this group were Political Terror Scale and Group Grievances (Schumpe et al., 2020).

Terrorism can be domestic or transnational and rooted in ethnic, religious, economic, or political factors. Extreme poverty corresponds to a situation where the individual's basic needs of food, clothing, and shelter are not met (Schumpe et al., 2020). More generally, poverty refers to failure to achieve these living standards along with education, health, and other necessities. Poverty is strongly and negatively associated with income. Both terrorism and poverty are related through social, economic, and political elements, making their association complex. Despite the intrinsic difficulty in appraising the relationships between poverty, socio-political factors and terrorism, their connections are intriguing, there is a sort of consensus among scholars that there are underlying relationships between poverty, social injustice, marginalization, politics of exclusion and terrorism (Newman, 2006; Korotayev et al., 2019, Anyanwu & Anyanwu 2017). In the light of the above, this study seeks to examine the relationships between poverty, socio-political factors and global terrorism. Accordingly, the following research questions have been investigated in this study: i. To what extent does social injustice relate with global terrorism? ii. To what extent does poverty cause global terrorism? iii. To what extent does political exclusion lead to global terrorism? iv. To what extent does religion relate with global terrorism?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of the relevant literature in this study has been done under three subheadings, namely, Theoretical framework, conceptual review and empirical review:

### *Theoretical Framework*

The theories underpinning this work are theory of social exclusion and theory of social capital:

### *Theory of Social Exclusion*

According to Amartya (2004) social exclusion, does not mean a limited material resources, but also inability to enjoy social relationship normally, limited cultural and educational capital, insufficient basic services and denial of power. The idea of social exclusion tries to sum up the intricacies of trimming or denying citizens in society of power participation. It means denying citizens from participating in normal activity or normal relationship, resources, rights, goods and services that are available to the larger society in the form of economic, social, cultural or political areas. This can well influence the

standard of life of citizens and the working together of everyone leading to terrorist acts of the excluded group.

Thus far, the empirical research shows a consistent pattern of exclusion promoting extreme responding that ranges across a spectrum from a violent willingness to fight-and-die, to approval for extreme political actions, and even terrorism. This was found across different operationalizations of exclusion and ideology. A recent review has found only 0.6% of articles investigating terrorism uses experimental designs (Schuurman, 2020). It should be noted, however, that the findings reviewed here are survey-based and mostly rely on participants samples, which allow for controlled settings and meaningful sample sizes and might not be somewhat distant from real-world phenomena. Real cases of radicalization are likely to be more complex. One may wonder what kinds of social exclusion are experienced most prevalently among terrorists. Preliminary studies indicate a highly diverse pattern, with instances of both individual-level ostracism and rejection as well as group marginalization taking place (Pfundmair et al., 2022). Previous research indicates that these different kinds of social exclusion induce different responses. Whereas ostracism leads to promotion-focused responses, including reengagement in social contacts and thoughts about actions one should have taken, rejection rather induces a prevention focus, including withdrawal from social contact and thoughts about actions one should not have taken (Molden et al., 2009). Thus, it might be ostracism rather than rejection that especially motivates individuals to be included in terrorist groups and take radical action. Group marginalization, in turn, might drive these radical developments even further. This is because group marginalization not only threatens fundamental needs but promotes identification with the marginalized group in which hostile attitudes and behaviors may be more likely (Betts & Hinsz, 2013).

Another important question is what exact role social exclusion might play in the radicalization process. A recent case study (e.g., Pfundmair et al., 2022) showed that instances of social exclusion accumulated more in the beginning of the radicalization process rather than in advanced stages. This indicates that exclusion might provide a cognitive opening to radicals. Notably, however, in most cases, radicalization is a product of mutual interrelationships. That is, a number of different factors push and pull people into becoming radicalized (Horgan, 2014). Thus, it appears unlikely that it is social exclusion alone that is driving terrorist radicalization. Instead, it most likely interacts with other factors. For example, feeling left out might promote the radicalizing effect of other grievances like unemployment or poverty, or set the stage for radical networks (Hafez & Mullins, 2015).

### *Theory of Social Capital*

Social capitals are those in-built resources in social relationships which make collective action easy. Here, social capital resources simply mean trust, norms, and networks of association representing any group which gathers always for a common purpose. Schumpe et al. (2020) argue that social

capital is the totality of resources, actual, that flows to an individual or group by possessing a strong network of institutionalized relationships. Coleman (1998) believes that individual habits are shaped, redirected, constrained by the social context, norms, trust, durable networks and social groups. One systematic way of looking at terrorism is by using the social capital theory. At a societal level, this is primarily associated with the work of Sede and Ohemeng (2015), but other literature in this area deals very closely with networks, notably that of Horgan (2014) on structural holes. The relationship between social capital and terrorism has been explored in social theory by Coleman (1998) and Betts and Hinsz (2013), and in an international policy context by OECD, exploring the interaction between human and social capital (OECD, 2020). Social capital as a concept is often defined specifically in terms of networks, stressing the norm-laden nature of relationships within and between them. A common differentiation of types of social capital is into three basic forms (Ogbeide, Nwamaka & Agu, 2015) bonding social capital, which refers to relations within or between relatively homogenous groups; bridging social capital, which refers to relationships within or between relatively homogenous groups; and linking social capital, which refers to relationships between people or groups at different hierarchical levels.

These are not mutually exclusive, that is, a terrorism can be high on both bonding and bridging forms. Analyses that explore the interaction between these different types of social capital can be very fruitful for determining the dynamics of knowledge creation and use (Schumpe et al. 2020). Thus, networks that are strong on bonding but weak on bridging may be powerful creators of terrorism within quite well-defined frameworks, such as an established research group with high levels of commonality in the members' approach to research and understanding of the field. In short, there is no single ideal combination of these different forms of social capital in the construction of terrorism.

One crucial function of social capital is its deployment of trust. Some level of trust is implicit in almost any concept of terrorism (though maybe less so for networks, where the interdependence is weaker). This function of critical validation is especially important in the face of the tidal waves of information and misinformation that slosh around the electronic world. The validation is not only a matter of truth determination, but also of selection, utility, and application. One of the strengths of the open-source movement is its ability to promote the accumulation of knowledge by providing a normative and legal framework within which people can share ideas, in the expectation that such sharing will result in improvements to the asset without it being appropriated for individual gain at the expense of a common good.

### *Conceptual Review*

In this section such key concepts as poverty, social factors, social injustice, religion, and political exclusion.



### *Concept of Poverty*

Poverty is about not having enough money to meet basic needs including food, clothing and shelter. However, poverty is more, much more than just not having enough money. The World Bank describes poverty in this way: poverty is hunger (Milanovic, 2016).

Poverty is a state or condition in which a person or community lacks the financial resources and essentials for a minimum standard of living. Poverty means that the income level from employment is so low that basic human needs can't be met. Poverty-stricken people and families might go without proper housing, clean water, healthy food, and medical attention (OECD and the World Forum, 2020).

- Poverty is a state or condition in which a person or community lacks the financial resources and essentials for a minimum standard of living.
- Poverty-stricken people and families might go without proper housing, clean water, healthy food, and medical attention.
- Poverty is both an individual concern as well as a broader social problem.
- The U.S. poverty income threshold for a family of four is \$26,500 per year.
- Welfare programs are used by governments to help alleviate poverty (Sachs, 2005).

Poverty refers to a lack of wealth or income such that individuals and households do not have the means to subsist or acquire the basic necessities for a flourishing life. This means being so poor as to struggle to obtain food, clothing, shelter, and medicines (Anyanwu & Anyanwu, 2017).

Poverty is both an individual concern as well as a broader social problem. On the individual or household level, not being able to make ends meet can lead to a range of physical and mental issues. At the societal level, high poverty rates can be a damper on economic growth and be associated with problems like crime, unemployment, urban decay, lack of education, and poor health. As such, governments often instate social welfare programs to help lift families out of poverty (Sachs, 2005).

Fundamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation (World Poverty Clock Report, 2020).

Relative poverty views poverty as socially defined and dependent on social context. It is argued that the needs considered fundamental is not an objective measure and could change with the custom of society (Sachs, 2005). For

example, a person who cannot afford housing better than a small tent in an open field would be said to live in relative poverty if almost everyone else in that area lives in modern brick homes, but not if everyone else also lives in small tents in open fields (for example, in a nomadic tribe).

Absolute poverty, often synonymous with 'extreme poverty' or 'abject poverty', refers to a set standard which is consistent over time and between countries. This set standard usually refers to "a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services (Rose & Ortiz-Ospina, 2019). Having an income below the poverty line, which is defined as an income needed to purchase basic needs, is also referred to as primary poverty (Cinar, 2017).

Usually, relative poverty is measured as the percentage of the population with income less than some fixed proportion of median income. This is a calculation of the percentage of people whose family household income falls below the Poverty Line. The main poverty line used in the OECD and the European Union is based on "economic distance", a level of income set at 60% of the median household income (OECD and the World Forum, 2020).

### *Concept of Terrorism*

Terrorism is the use of force or violence against persons or property in violation of the criminal laws of the United States for purposes of intimidation, coercion, or ransom (Schumpe *et al.*, 2020). Terrorists often use threats to: Create fear among the public. Department of Defense Dictionary of Military Terms defines terrorism as: The calculated use of unlawful violence or threat of unlawful violence to inculcate fear; intended to coerce or to intimidate governments or societies in the pursuit of goals that are generally political, religious, or ideological (Kambela, 2019). The UN General Assembly Resolution 49/60 (adopted on December 9, 1994), titled "Measures to Eliminate International Terrorism," contains a provision describing terrorism: Criminal acts intended or calculated to provoke a state of terror in the general public, a group of persons or particular persons for political purposes are in any circumstance unjustifiable, whatever the considerations of a political, philosophical, ideological, racial, ethnic, religious or any other nature that may be invoked to justify them (Hafez & Mullins, 2015).

The UN Member States still have no agreed-upon definition of terrorism, and this fact has been a major obstacle to meaningful international countermeasures. Terminology consensus would be necessary for a single comprehensive convention on terrorism, which some countries favor in place of the present 12 piecemeal conventions and protocols. Cynics have often commented that one state's "terrorist" is another state's "freedom fighter". The Arab Convention for the Suppression of Terrorism was adopted by the Council of Arab Ministers of the Interior and the Council of Arab Ministers of Justice in Cairo, Egypt in 1998 (Goodwin, 2006). Terrorism

was defined in the convention as: Any act or threat of violence, whatever its motives or purposes, that occurs in the advancement of an individual or collective criminal agenda and seeking to sow panic among people, causing fear by harming them, or placing their lives, liberty or security in danger, or seeking to cause damage to the environment or to public or private installations or property or to occupying or seizing them, or seeking to jeopardize national resources (Jager, 2018).

UN Security Council Resolution 1566 (2004) gives a definition: criminal acts, including against civilians, committed with the intent to cause death or serious bodily injury, or taking of hostages, with the purpose to provoke a state of terror in the general public or in a group of persons or particular persons, intimidate a population or compel a government or an international organization to do or to abstain from doing any act. A UN panel, on March 17, 2005,

described terrorism as any act "intended to cause death or serious bodily harm to civilians or non-combatants with the purpose of intimidating a population or compelling a government or an international organization to do or abstain from doing any act." European Union the European Union defines terrorism for legal/official purposes in Art.1 of the Framework Decision on Combating Terrorism (Ross, 2012). This provides that terrorist offences are certain criminal offences set out in a list comprised largely of serious offences against persons and property which: given their nature or context, may seriously damage a country or an international organization where committed with the aim of: seriously intimidating a population; or unduly compelling a government or international organization to perform or abstain from performing any act; or seriously destabilizing or destroying the fundamental political, constitutional, economic or social structures of a country or an international organization .

**Table 1A: Definition of Terrorism by Country in OECD Countries**

	Status of definition of terrorism	Intention of terrorist act	Identification of those behind the act	Means used	Targets/effects
Australia	Contained in s 5 Terrorism Insurance Act 2003 Act of terrorism has to be certified by the Commonwealth Treasurer, after consultation with the Commonwealth Attorney-General.	Action done or threat made, with the intention of advancing a political, religious or ideological cause, with the intention of coercing or influencing by intimidation the government of Australia or the Australian States or Territories, or a foreign country, or intimidating the public.	Not specified	An act (or threat of an act), that is not advocacy, protest, dissent or industrial action, that causes specified damage.	An action that causes serious harm to a person, serious damage to property, causes death or endangers life or creates a serious health or safety risk, or seriously interferes with, or disrupts or destroys an electronic system.
Austria	Industry definition	To influence the government or put the public or any section of the public in fear.	Terrorist organisations or individuals NB: Standard policy conditions for property and loss insurance excludes inter alia damages incurred as a consequence of acts of violence committed by (political or) terrorist organisation (not defined). Such damage can only be covered through a special agreement.	Act or threat of violence	Human life, tangible or intangible property or infrastructure
France	Article L421-1 of the Criminal Code (no distinction between the notions of "attack" and "terrorist act")	Seriously and intentionally disrupt law and order.	Individual or joint undertaking	Intimidation or terror List of offences: 1. Deliberate attempts on people's lives, deliberate attacks on people's wellbeing, abduction and false imprisonment, as well as the hijacking of aircraft, ships and any other means of transport; 2. Theft, extortion, destruction and damage, as well as computer-related crime; 3. Offences relating to combat groups and movements that have been disbanded; 4. The manufacture or possession of arms, lethal weapons and explosives, as defined in Article 3 of the Act of 19 June 1871 repealing the Act of 4 September 1870 on the manufacture of weapons of war; The production, sale, import or export of explosive substances, as defined in Article 6 of Act No. 70-575 of 3 July 1970, amending the regulations applying to explosive powders and substances.	

<b>Germany</b>	Definition of terrorism	Acts committed for political, religious, ethnic or ideological purposes suitable to create fear in the population or any section of the population and thus to influence a government or public body.	Persons or groups of persons		The insurer shall indemnify, if this has been specially agreed, in respect of insured property which is destroyed, damaged or lost due to: a) fire, explosion, b) impact or crash of aircraft or c) aerial bodies and vehicles, also craft, of all kinds, their parts or their cargo, d) Other malicious damage, insofar as the mentioned perils are caused by an act of terrorism committed in the Federal Republic of Germany.
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**Table 1B: Definition of Terrorism by Country in OECD Countries**

	Status of definition of terrorism	Intention of terrorist act	Identification of those behind the act	Means used	Targets/effects
<b>Netherlands</b>	Definition used for the operation of the Terrorism Risk Reinsurance Company	Attacks or series of attacks likely to have been planned or carried out with a view to serve certain political and/or religious and/or ideological purposes.	Whether or not in any organizational context	Any violent act and/or conduct – committed outside the scope of one of the six forms of acts of war as referred to in Article 64(2) of the Insurance Business Supervision Act [1993 wettoericht verzekeringsbedrijf] – in the form of an attack or a series of attacks connected together in time and intention, as a result whereof injury and/or impairment of health, whether resulting in death or not, and/or loss of or damage to property arises or any economic interest is otherwise impaired.	Acts against persons and property of any nature.
<b>Spain</b>	Definition of the risks covered by the Consortium (no prior government statement is needed in order to compensate for damage under this heading)	Every act committed with the object of destabilizing the established political order or generating fear and insecurity in the social environment in which they are perpetrated	Not specified	Act of violence	People and goods
<b>Spain</b>	Specific case of state terrorism Criminal Code definition of terrorism (Section 2, Art. 571)	Disrupt the Constitution or seriously undermine law and order	Members of armed factions or people working for or in co-operation with armed factions, organizations or groups whose aim is to disrupt the Constitution or seriously undermine law and order	Acts of destruction or fires started deliberately	Not specified
<b>Switzerland</b>		In pursuit of political, religious, ethnic, ideological or similar purpose which may result in putting the public or any section of the public in fear or influencing any government or governmental organization		Act or threat of violence. The definition shall not include civil unrest (act of violence against persons or property committed in the course of unlawful assembly, riot or civil commotion or associated looting)	

United Kingdom	Reinsurance (Acts of Terrorism) Act 1993 (for Pool Re) arrangements in Great Britain – other arrangements apply in Northern Ireland). The issue of a certificate by the UK Treasury (or, if refused, by a decision of a Tribunal) is required for an act to be recognized as a “terrorist act” for the purpose of the scheme, under the Reinsurance (Acts of Terrorism) Act 1993.	Acts of persons acting on behalf of, or in connection with, any organization which carries out activities directed towards the overthrowing or influencing, by force or violence, of her Majesty’s government in the United Kingdom or any other government de jure or de facto.	Act of violence	Commercial property and consequent business interruption costs arising from an act of terrorism	
United States	Terrorism Risk Insurance Act of 2002 – Public Law 107-297 An act of terrorism is an act certified by the Secretary of the Treasury in concurrence with the Secretary of State and the Attorney General of the United States.	Part of an effort to coerce the civilian population of the United States, or to influence policy or affect the conduct of the US by coercion	It must be committed as part of an effort to coerce U.S. civilians or to influence either policy or conduct of the U.S. Government through coercion	Violent act or dangerous act	Endanger human life, property or infrastructure that results in damages within the United States, or outside the US in the case of an attack of an air carrier or vessel, or premises of a US mission

*Social Factors*

Some other possible variables may be related to social issues. Levels of education have been mentioned in a few different studies, but there has not been much evidence to validate it as an important variable. However, it is still a good indicator of a social issue within a country and is therefore worth testing in my study. The Human Development Index includes per capita income, life expectancy, and education into account in regard to terrorism, and found that there is a correlation between terrorism and human development (Sandler, 2015).

*Religion*

Religion is another social aspect that needs to be considered. Modern terrorism has seen an enormous increase in religious extremism, the scale of violence has intensified, and the global reach has expanded (Krzyzak, 2017). Religious terrorism can be defined as political violence that is motivated by an absolute belief that an other-worldly power has sanctioned, or sometimes commanded, terrorist violence for the greater glory of the faith (Newman, E. (2006). People who partake in religious terrorism believe that any acts they commit will be forgiven and perhaps rewarded in the afterlife. Extremism is not limited to just one religion. There are many different forms of religious terrorism, but the most common is Islamic extremism (Krieger & Meierrieks, 2019). Overall, there has been a dramatic increase recently in religious terrorism, making it one of the main contributors to terrorism globally. Therefore, the dominant religion of a country seems worthwhile to examine in order to see if religion plays a role in the number of terrorist attacks. Although there does not seem to be too much variety or abundance of research available, there were some very positive variables that can offer some great theories. After going through all of this, the study still believes that government repression will be the best indicator of the presence of terrorism within a society.

*Social injustice*

One of the ironies of the early twenty-first century is that ideological struggles between and within nations have intensified a decade after the end of the Cold War (United Nations General Assembly, 1985). Today, proponents of diametrically opposed visions of society, secular and religious, march under the banner of social justice. As desirable social and political goals are depicted in starkly different forms, labels like ‘good’ and ‘evil’ become interchangeable and the meaning of social justice becomes obscured (OECD, 2020). As it has been for millennia, the concept of social justice is now used as a rationale for maintaining the status quo, promoting farreaching social reforms and justifying revolutionary action. If liberals and conservatives, religious fundamentalists and radical secularists all regard their causes as socially just, how can we develop a common meaning of the term? Notwithstanding the conceptual and interpretational relativity, we can take social Injustice, in this study, to mean a situation when some unfair practices are being carried in the society (Okafor & Piesse, 2018). Whatever unjustness is happening is usually against the law and it might not be something that is considered a moral practice. Areas in which the government policy often gives rise to social inequality and injustice therefore include voting laws (i.e., redistricting and voter ID), education laws (i.e., public school segregation and integration), labour laws (i.e., worker’s rights, occupational health and safety), tax law, wealth and resource distributions etc. In the Republic, Plato (1974, trans.) expanded the meaning of justice by equating it with human well-being (Özdemir, Eser & Erol, 2018). Pfundmair et al. (2022) linked the concept of individual and social justice by asserting that justice was derived from the harmony between reason, spirit and appetite present in all persons. Within this formulation, if a society lacked such harmony, justice could not be achieved. Aristotle further developed this concept of justice in the UNESCO. (2019), where he introduced a view of justice that anticipates modern debates about issues of resource allocation. Aristotle regarded



justice, as fulfilled through law, as the principle that ensures social order through the regulation of the allocation and distribution of benefits.

#### *Political Factors*

An alternative theory says that political factors like government repression leads to terrorism. Examples of variables used to measure government repression are political rights and civil liberties (Benmelech, E., Berrebi & Klor, 2012). Unstable, and according to some, undemocratic societies form weak governments causing the people to suffer. Human rights abuses would also fall into this category since this is a direct result of government action and would then be considered a form of repression (Newman 2006). Human rights violations, including dispossession and humiliation, result in people having severe grievances against the government (Newman 2006). Certain studies show that terrorism has a strong link with social injustice at the hands of the government rather than poverty. When the government is unable to provide basic standard of living, citizens become displeased, and this is when terrorist organizations are able to recruit. It is up to the government to provide the resources necessary for the people to survive. This includes hospitals, medical care, jobs and schooling. Many believe it is the job of the government to provide political freedom to their citizens. Studies have found that political freedom does relate to terrorism, but in a way most would not expect. Countries that are in the middle of the spectrum are the ones most likely to have incidents of terrorism (Abadie 2004). Free countries and the countries with authoritarian regimes are not the nations with the most terrorism issues. It is the transition period from authoritarian regimes to democratic ones that experience more incidents (Abadie 2004). When tested, it shows those who are in the middle have the most attacks (Abadie 2004). Nations going through transition periods are not able to give citizens complete freedom, and this causes other areas to lack as well. Most would like to think the authoritarian nations have the most incidents, but studies have suggested it is indeed the middle we should be the most concerned with. Repression can also emerge in more violent forms. A United Nations General Assembly resolution in 1985 found that one of the underlying causes of terrorism was racism and massive human rights violations (United Nations General Assembly 1985). When a state has very low respect for human rights, the citizens are more likely to have grievances with those in charge. In order to right the wrongs of the government, citizens may turn to terrorism. Terrorist organizations can provide members of their groups with the resources necessary to fight against political wrongdoings. Government repression in many of its forms has been shown that it contributes to the presence of terrorism (Benmelech & Klor, 2020).

#### *Political Exclusion*

Exclusion from the political system is a strong motivator for armed conflict. Political exclusion is defined as the share of the excluded population [from representation in or influence over the political executive] in the total population that is

ethno-politically relevant (Wimmer, Cederman & Min 2009). Betts and Hinsz (2013) followed the Weberian tradition of defining ethnicity that is referred to as a subjectively experienced sense of commonality based on a belief in common ancestry and shared culture. Accordingly, the definition includes ethnolinguistic, ethnosomatic (or “racial”), and ethnoreligious groups (Betts & Hinsz, 2013). Ethnic categories become politically relevant as soon as there is a minimal degree of political mobilization or intentional political discrimination along ethnic lines. Because politically relevant categories and access to political power may change over time, the compilers asked coders to divide the 1946 to 2005 period and to provide separate codes for each subperiod. This was also necessary when the list of politically relevant categories changed from one year to the next.

Next, the compilers categorized all politically relevant ethnic groups according to the degree of access to executive-level power by those who claimed to represent them. The utilizes the abridged version in order to better familiarize readers with the political exclusion information. Some members of any other group, some shared power with members of other groups, and some were excluded altogether from decision-making authority. Within each of these three categories, coders differentiated between further subtypes, including absolute power, power sharing regimes, and political exclusion from central power. Since the focus of our study is the last category, the coding procedures on the first two categories are not explained here. When political leaders who claim to represent a particular ethnic category are excluded from participation in central government, the compilers distinguish between those with local autonomy and those who are powerless or discriminated against. Enders and Hoover’s (2012) classifications of autonomy and discrimination are defined as follows: (1) Regional autonomy: Elite members of the group have no central power but have some influence at the subnational level (i.e., the provincial or district level, depending on the vertical organization of the state). Georgians under Soviet rule are an example. (2) Powerless: Elite representatives hold no political power at the national or regional levels without being explicitly discriminated against. (3) Discriminated: Group members are subjected to active, intentional, and targeted discrimination with the intent of excluding them from both regional and national power. Amartya (2004) argues that there is also a micro-foundational argument to be made linking the political exclusion of ethnic minorities to the increased probability that members from the excluded community will engage in terrorism. Terrorism is frequently defined as a form of political violence perpetrated against civilians.

The works by Agnew (2010) and Goodwin (2006) indicate that members of terrorist movements hailing from segments of society experiencing repression by the government frequently opt to target other civilians who they perceive as ‘complicit’ with or as benefitting from government policies, particularly if complicit citizens are viewed as significantly more powerful ‘others. This framework is used to anticipate that radicalized



individuals excluded from political life due to their ethnic background are, therefore, more likely to see the use of terrorist attacks against ‘complicit’ citizens – members of the ethnic majority – as legitimate behavior.

The study agrees that the presence of natural resource wealth substantially increases these motives. By extending the work of Ross (2012), this study argues that when ethnic group settlement areas contain natural resource wealth in the form of oil deposits, group leaders are likely to demand a share of the resulting revenues. This prompts two potential courses of action, that is, the central government and the ethnic community can negotiate revenue-sharing agreements, or the ethnic group can use violence to push for independence or autonomy to secure control of the oil wealth. Negotiation of a revenue-sharing agreement should provide each side some fraction of the income that results from oil production while avoiding the high costs of armed conflict. As Ross (2012) explains, oil revenue-sharing agreements face commitment problems, because the central government has more complete information about the amount of revenue earned from oil, representatives of the ethnic group fear it will use its control over this information to avoid sharing the agreed amount of revenues.

#### *Empirical Review*

Terrorist activities and poverty cannot be seen as mutually exclusive. Both indices tend to propel each other. Although terrorism can lead to the destruction of economic activities which spurs poverty, poverty can also increase terrorism through the act of desperation and hopelessness among the population. However, in this study, we focus on the latter while accounting for the issue of simultaneity/reverse causality. A study conducted by Enders and Hoover (2012) on the relationship between terrorism and poverty used a data set that decomposes the number of global terrorisms into domestic and transnational incidents and employed split sample logistics modeling technique which allow for the nonlinearities in the data and distinguish between the two types of terrorism events. The result first showed that poverty has a very distinct effect on each of the forms of terrorism. Second, poverty has a very strong influence on domestic terrorism and a small, but significant effect on transnational terrorism.

Okafor and Piesse (2018) empirically investigated the determinants of terrorism: Evidence from fragile states of Nigeria and revealed that poverty has a negative relationship with terrorism, whereas unemployment, literacy rate, population density, and inflation rate have a positive relationship with terrorism incidence in Nigeria. Korotayev, Vaskin and Tsirel, (2019) examined the economic growth, education and terrorism: A re-analysis revealed that neither poverty nor education has a direct, causal impact on terrorism. Ogbeide, Nwamaka and Agu (2015) studied poverty and inequality in Nigeria and found that poverty increases terrorist group participation only for individuals with high education. However, Bardwell and Iqbal (2020) examined the economic

impact of terrorism from 2000 to 2018. Employing multiple regression analysis, they found that poverty, malnutrition, unemployment, inequality, inflation, and poor economic growth do not significantly influence terrorism. However, it is revealed from the study that population, increased state repression, ethno-religious diversity, and the structure of political parties are significant factors that propel terrorism. Sharma (2014) examined the statistical analysis of relationship between GDP (gross domestic product), GTI (global terrorism index) and GINI (GINI coefficient). GTI (Global Terrorism Index) and GINI (GINI Coefficient). The study applied unit root testing, cointegration, robust least square regression, Granger causality, and the impulse response function. Empirical results reveal that there is no significant relationship between terrorism and poverty, whereas a positive relationship exists between terrorism and economic growth.

Abadie (2004) employing data from the Global Terrorism Index revealed that terrorist risk is not significantly higher for poorer countries once the effects of other country-specific characteristics such as political freedom are considered. Coccia (2018) investigated a theory of general causes of terrorism: high population growth, income inequality and relative deprivation and found that economic sanctions have relation to an increase in domestic terrorism with the postulation that when sanctions impair the economic functioning of the target country, feelings of bitterness and despair are intensified among the poor who may lash out by turning to domestic terrorism. Employing data for 152 countries over three decades, evidence shows that economic sanctions are positively associated with domestic terrorism. The study also introduced a two-step analysis to clarify the role of poverty in the association of economic sanctions and domestic terrorism where sanctions are first considered a cause of poverty and then predicted poverty is employed to predict the occurrence of terrorism. Results still confirm the positive relationship between economic sanctions and domestic terrorism.

Özdemir, Eser and Erol (2018) examined global terrorism and poverty relationship with the application of country-level data for the year 2017, the results show that income is positively and significantly related to the probability of terror attacks. They observed that this could come about because of migration and economic grievance arising from employing competition in the labor market. Based on the above empirical expositions the study hypothesized the following: Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant relationship between social injustice and global terrorism; Ho<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant relationship between poverty and global terrorism; Ho<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant relationship between political exclusion and global terrorism; Ho<sub>4</sub>: There is no significant relationship between religion and global terrorism.

### III. METHODOLOGY

Cross-sectional/survey design was used for the study. Data were sourced by using secondary sources. The study reviewed

extant literature to generate data for the investigations. The study sourced statistical data from Global Terrorism Index, International Terrorism: Attributes of Terrorist Events reflecting the intensity of terrorism across the globe. Reported regression coefficients within the interval  $\pm 0.50$  were used as

effect size estimates. Data analyses were done with regression analysis through the help of SPSS 25.0.

#### IV. RESULTS

The results of the study are detailed below:

Table 2: Nine countries most impacted by terrorism, ranked by GTI score

Country	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
Afghanistan	3	3	3	4	3	3	2	2	1	1	1
Iraq	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
Somalia	5	7	7	7	8	5	3	3	3	3	3
Burkina Faso	113	113	111	108	52	30	21	15	7	6	4
Syria	20	4	4	5	6	7	7	8	6	5	5
Nigeria	8	5	5	3	2	2	4	4	4	4	6
Mali	41	23	19	21	16	13	10	9	8	7	7
Niger	49	57	44	34	20	19	18	19	14	12	8
Pakistan	2	2	2	2	4	4	5	5	5	8	9

Source: Start GTD, IEP Calculations Global Terrorism Index 2022

Table 2 highlights the nine countries most impacted by terrorism according to the 2022 GTI, and how they have ranked on the index since 2011. Despite a one per cent decrease in the number of deaths from terrorism overall, the nine countries most impacted by terrorism remained largely unchanged. Afghanistan and Iraq maintained their positions as the two countries most impacted by terrorism, for the third consecutive year. There was some movement within the rankings with Burkina Faso overtaking Syria and Nigeria to be the fourth most impacted country, Pakistan moved from eighth most impacted to ninth and Nigeria dropped two places to sixth most impacted country. This is Somalia’s sixth consecutive appearance amongst the five most impacted countries. The countries with the largest deterioration in rank

since 2011 were all located in the Sahel region, including Burkina Faso, Mali and Niger. Highlighting the extent of their fall, all were ranked outside of the 20 countries most affected by terrorism in 2011. Nigeria, Syria and Somalia were the only countries amongst the ten most impacted by terrorism to record an improvement in score from 2020 to 2021.

#### Test of Hypotheses

The study used multiple regression to test all the four variables on which the four hypotheses of the study were based. Overall, three out of the four were statistically significant, and one was tested not significant. The table below shows the statistical testing of the hypotheses:

Table 3: Coefficients a Results of the Tested Hypotheses

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	59.174	41.172		1.437	.152
	Social injustice (GINI) (0=Justice, 100=injustice)	.775	.336	.130	2.308	.022
	Overall poverty rating(0=No poverty 14=High respect)	-2.831	1.243	-.156	-2.278	.023
	Political exclusion	25.033	8.021	.183	3.121	.002
	Religion	3.040	2.034	.099	1.495	.136

#### a. Dependent Variable: # of terror incidents in nations

Source: Survey Data, 2022, Global Terrorism Index, 2021, International Terrorism: Attributes of Terrorist Events, 2021 and Global Poverty Index, 2021, SPSS Output, 2022.

The first hypothesis said there is a positive and significant relationship between social injustice and global terrorism. GINI was used to measure injustice and it was found to have a significance of .022, meaning it is significant. The relationship was positive, which means that as social injustice increases, more global terrorism take place.

The second hypothesis says there is a negative relationship between poverty and global terrorism. The significance turned out to be 0.023, so it was indeed significant. There was a negative relationship, meaning that as poverty got lower, the number of global terrorisms increased.

The third hypothesis revealed that there is a positive relationship between political exclusion and global terrorism. The significance came out to be 0.002, which means it was significant and most significant number of all variables tested. However, it came out to be a positive relationship. This means that there were more global terrorist incidences taking place in political exclusion nations than there were in non-political exclusion nations. The results here contradict the predicted hypothesis.

The fourth and final hypothesis found out that there is no significant relationship between religion and global terrorism. The significance in the regression turned out to be .136, showing that it is not significant at all. However, this could be due to the fact that this variable is nominal rather than ordinal and therefore different, potentially skewing the results.

## V. DISCUSSION

The study found that there is a positive and significant relationship between social injustice and global terrorism, with the t-value of 2.308 and significance level of 0.022. This finding is in consonance with works of Benmelech et al. (2012) who found that in the context of the uneven economic development terror organizations can engage more educated and experienced people in their activities, in which case targets that are more considerable might be assaulted. Also, this finding agrees with the work of Akinrinde (2020) who found that social injustice, corruption and are precursors to terrorism in Nigeria. It is evident from this study that social injustice meted on a certain group can aggravate terrorist activities. Pfundmair et al. (2022) contends that *social exclusion in the life of terrorists*' presentation give rise to further terrorist events.

It was also, found that there is a negative but significant relationship between poverty and global terrorism with t-value of -2.278 and significance level at 0.023. This finding agrees Özdemiş, Eser and Erol (2018) because they found that poverty has a negative relationship with terrorism, whereas Enders and Hoover (2012) research found that poverty has a very distinct effect on each of the forms of terrorism. Also, Krueger and Maleckova (2003) in their study of the connection between poverty, low education, and terrorism, however, revealed that neither poverty nor education has a direct, causal impact on terrorism. However, Kavanagh (2011) found that poverty increases terrorist group participation only for individuals with high education.

The study found that there is a positive and significant relationship between political exclusion and global terrorism with the t-value of 3.121 and significance level 0.002. This means that there were more global terrorist incidences taking place in political exclusion nations than there were in non-political exclusion nations. Amartya (2004) argues that there is also a micro-foundational argument to be made linking the political exclusion of ethnic minorities to the increased probability that members from the excluded community will engage in terrorism. Terrorism is frequently defined as a form of political violence perpetrated against civilians. Also,

Weinberg and Eubank (1998) as they examined 'terrorism and democracy: what recent events disclose' found that there is significant relationship between political exclusion and terrorist acts globally.

The study revealed that that there is no significant relationship between religion and global terrorism with a t-value of 1.495 and significance level of 0.136. This finding is in consonance with Waraich (2010) who studied how religious minorities are suffering worst in Pakistan and found that there is significant relationship between religion and terrorism. Martin (2010) also, found that people who partake in religious terrorism believe that any acts they commit will be forgiven and perhaps rewarded in the afterlife. Extremism is not limited to just one religion. There are many different forms of religious terrorism, but the most common is Islamic extremism. (Martin 2010).

To date, both theoretical and empirical findings concerning the interrelatedness of poverty, political exclusion, social injustice, religion and terrorist risk are conflicting and perplexing as could be judged inter alia from a paper by Okafor and Piesse (2018). A growing subset of the literature argues that these variables may be regarded as a determinant for the quantity of terror. Particularly, Enders and Hoover (2012) scrutinized variables pertaining to domestic and transnational types of terrorism and established a distinct relationship between the number of domestic terrorist acts and income inequality level. Having analyzed data from 113 countries for the period from 1984 to 2012 by dint of negative binomial regression. On the other hand, some evidence indicate there is no firm statistical link between poverty and global terrorism in the long run (Nurunnabi & Sghaier 2018). For example, Benmelech and Klor (2020) advocate that many combatants recruited by the Islamic State in Iraq and Syria are from prosperous countries.

## VI. CONCLUSION

The current analysis detected a significant relationship between poverty, social injustice, political, exclusion, religion and the incidence of terrorism globally. This study employed two measures of terrorism to account for robustness and utilized the regression analysis for testing the relationships between the examined variables. Data analyses were done with statistical tool of regression analysis (ordinary least square estimation) through the help of SPSS 25.0. The study revealed that terrorism has become a global phenomenon with fierce destructive tendencies claiming lives and properties. The study concludes that: There is significant relationship between social injustice and global terrorism; there is negative, but significant relationship between poverty and global terrorism; there is significant relationship between political exclusion and global terrorism, and there is no significant relationship between religion and global terrorism.

## VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

The study examined the relationship between poverty, socio-political factors and global terrorism. Based on the findings

and conclusion of the study, the following recommendations have been made:

1. Governments should adopt impartial characterization in handling democratization and government businesses of various nations. With that in motion equity and social justice must always be maintained in sharing dividends of democracy.
2. Also, jobs should be created for the youths to reduce luring them to participate in terrorist acts. It is important to understand, however, that reducing poverty will have a relatively modest positive impact on countering terrorism.
3. Governments should look at the factors that promote socio-economic development and societal resilience, taking the view that the way to build and sustain peaceful societies requires a revision in attitudes, institutions, and structures. Positive peace identifies developmental factors that lead to resilient societies, kinetic approach is not the way to stop terrorism in the world.

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**47 Worst Terrorist Attacks in 2020**

Rank	Country	Date	State/Province	Organisation	Fatalities	Attack type
1	Afghanistan	26/8/21	Kabul	Islamic State - Khorasan Province (ISKP)	170	Explosives
2	Burkina Faso	5/6/21	Sahel	Unknown - Jihadists	160	Firearms
3	Afghanistan	22/7/21	Kandahar	Taliban	100	Firearms
4	Afghanistan	8/5/21	Kabul	Unknown - Jihadists	86	Explosives
5	Burkina Faso	18/8/21	Sahel	Jamaat Nusrat Al-Islam wal Muslimeen (JNIM)	80	Firearms
6	Niger	2/1/21	Tillabéri	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	70	Firearms
7	Burkina Faso	14/11/21	Sahel	Jamaat Nusrat Al-Islam wal Muslimeen (JNIM)	53	Firearms
8	Afghanistan	8/10/21	Kunduz	Islamic State - Khorasan Province (ISKP)	50	Explosives
9	Afghanistan	15/10/21	Kandahar	Islamic State - Khorasan Province (ISKP)	47	Explosives
10	Afghanistan	15/10/21	Kandahar	Islamic State - Khorasan Province (ISKP)	47	Explosives
11	Niger	21/3/21	Tahoua	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	46	Firearms
12	Niger	21/3/21	Tahoua	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	46	Firearms
13	Niger	21/3/21	Tahoua	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	45	Firearms
14	Burkina Faso	23/12/21	Nord	Jamaat Nusrat Al-Islam wal Muslimeen (JNIM)	41	Firearms
15	Niger	16/8/21	Tillabéri	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	37	Firearms
16	Iraq	19/7/21	Baghdad	Islamic State (IS)	35	Explosives
17	Mali	3/12/21	Mopti	Unknown - Jihadists	33	Firearms
18	Mali	15/3/21	Gao	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	33	Other/Unclear
19	Iraq	21/1/21	Baghdad	Islamic State (IS)	32	Explosives
20	Mali	6/10/21	Ségou	Unknown - Jihadists	30	Firearms
21	Niger	2/1/21	Tillabéri	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	30	Firearms
22	Nigeria	25/4/21	Borno	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	30	Firearms
23	Niger	16/11/21	Tahoua	Unknown - Jihadists	25	Firearms
24	Chad	4/8/21	Lac	Boko Haram	24	Firearms
25	Nigeria	15/3/21	Borno	Boko Haram	22	Other/Unclear

Source: Global Terrorism Index GTI (2022). Global terrorism index institute for economics and peace measuring the impact of terrorism. <https://www.gtiinstituteforeconomics&peace>

Rank	Country	Date	State/Province	Organisation	Fatalities	Attack type
26	Afghanistan	30/4/21	Logar	Taliban	21	Explosives
27	India	3/4/21	Chhattisgarh	Communist Party of India - Maoist	21	Grenade
28	Niger	28/7/21	Tillabéri	Unknown - Jihadists	21	Firearms
29	Mali	8/8/21	Gao	Unknown - Jihadists	20	Firearms
30	Nigeria	19/12/21	Borno	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	20	Firearms
31	Somalia	17/8/21	Mudug	Al-Shabaab	20	Firearms
32	Somalia	15/6/21	Banaadir	Al-Shabaab	20	Explosives
33	Somalia	14/4/21	Shabeellaha Dhexe	Unknown - Jihadists	20	Explosives
34	Somalia	5/3/21	Banaadir	Al-Shabaab	20	Explosives
35	Burkina Faso	4/8/21	Sahel	Unknown - Jihadists	19	Firearms
36	Mozambique	24/3/21	Cabo Delgado	Islamic State (IS)	19	Firearms
37	Niger	17/4/21	Tillabéri	Unknown - Jihadists	19	Firearms
38	Nigeria	13/3/21	Borno	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	19	Firearms
39	Burkina Faso	26/4/21	Sahel	Unknown - Jihadists	18	Firearms
40	Democratic Republic	15/2/21	Nord-Kivu	Islamic State (IS)	18	Firearms
41	Niger	31/7/21	Tillabéri	Unknown - Jihadists	18	Firearms
42	Nigeria	7/7/21	Adamawa	Boko Haram	18	Firearms
43	Nigeria	13/4/21	Borno	Islamic State in West Africa (ISWA)	18	Firearms
44	Mali	16/8/21	Mopti	Jamaat Nusrat Al-Islam wal Muslimeen	17	Firearms
45	Mali	8/8/21	Gao	Unknown - Jihadists	17	Firearms
46	Niger	20/8/21	Tillabéri	Unknown - Jihadists	17	Firearms
47	Somalia	9/1/21	Jubbada Hoose	Al-Shabaab	17	Explosives

Source: Global Terrorism Index GTI (2022). Global terrorism index institute for economics and peace measuring the impact of terrorism. [https://www.gtiinstituteforeconomics & peace](https://www.gtiinstituteforeconomics&peace)