

2016

Precursors of Terrorism in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

Israel Kabashiki
Walden University

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Walden University

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Israel Kabashiki

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Abstract

Precursors of Terrorism in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

by

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MS, University of Phoenix, 2008

BS, University of Winnipeg, 1999

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

November 2016

Abstract

Since 1996, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) has been entangled in a cycle of violence. Extensive crimes that include summary executions, rapes, and the use of child soldiers are frequent in the eastern provinces of the DRC. Little is known, however, about the factors that have contributed to the emergence of these ongoing acts of terror. The study provides insights into the antecedent conditions of terrorism in this country. The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study is to examine the precursors of the conflict in the DRC. The study provides the opportunity to understand the degree and possible strength of the relationship between the criterion—terrorist incidents—and the following predictors: political instability and economic activities in the DRC. Aberle's relative deprivation theory provided structure for the study. Research questions focused on the correlation between terrorist incidents and the 2 predictors: political stability and economic growth. A quantitative correlational study design was employed, using longitudinal secondary data—91 cases—obtained from 2 organizations: (a) the World Bank and (b) the National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism. Data from these sources were analyzed using a panel data regression. Results indicated a significant, but negative, association between terrorist incidents and political stability. No significant correlation appeared between terrorist incidents and economic growth. The implications for social change include informing the Congolese government, the African Union's leaders, and the international community about the precursors to these terrorist acts, as well as the need to improve the socioeconomic conditions of civilian and restore the credibility of the governments.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my late father and role model, Pastor Nicodeme T. K. As an educator, our father's dream was to see all his children graduate from college. Today, I can envision his joy.

To my adoptive parents, Pauline T. and Paul A. Kadima, I want them to know that their unconditional love, prayers, and support have provided the catalyst for me to achieve my goals.

To my dear friends and sons, Israel Frank Kabashiki and Redeemed Paul Kabashiki, they are the reason I always strive to be the best I can be. They have the potential to reach new heights and accomplish more... They will always be "the two apples of my eyes". I love them with all my being.

Acknowledgments

First and foremost, give big thanks to my Lord and Savior, JESUS CHRIST, whose continued blessings and love provided me the much needed strength to persevere through this journey. Prior to embarking on this doctoral journey, I claimed: “I can do all things through him who gives me strength” (New International Version, Philippians 4:13).

I must acknowledge three wonderful scholars who were there for me when I most needed their support and guidance, through the good times and difficult times, on this doctoral journey. I acknowledge Dr. Matthew A. Jones my Committee Chair, who provided sage guidance and required a level of excellence resulting in the successful completion of my dissertation. I also acknowledge Dr. Michael B. Knight and Dr. George Klay Kieh whose expertise and encouragement were essential to the completion of this research study.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Terrorism is a buzzword that describes the current age. Today, news about violent acts carried out by people labeled as terrorists, counterterrorism, and terrorists' reprisal are frequent in the media. As terrorist acts weaken political and social order, they destabilize economic activities of the target country. Findings from previous studies have indicated a relationship between terrorism and economic performance (Blomberg & Hess, 2008; Collier & Hoeffler, 1998; Freytag, Krüger, Meierrieks, & Schneider, 2011; Gries & Krieger, 2011; Lai, 2007; Santos Bravo & Mendes Dias, 2006). Economic theories—such as rational choice and deprivation—have, therefore, been deemed appropriate to explain the precursors of terrorism and its effects on targeted nations (Sandler & Enders, 2004).

Concerning the factors that contribute to the emergence of terrorism, an economic theory holds that insufficient possibilities of economic activities usually give rise to more terrorist acts (Gries & Krieger, 2011). The same theory contends that, due to economic participation, more economic opportunities for individuals result in less violence (Blomberg & Hess, 2008; Gries & Krieger, 2011). Regarding the effects of terrorism, another economic theory asserts that terrorism hurts the economy (Blomberg, Hess, & Tan, 2011; Kumar & Liu, 2013; Larobina & Pate, 2009; Meierrieks & Gries, 2013).

However, limiting the causes and consequences of terrorism to economic conditions is a simplistic approach to addressing a complex matter such as terrorism. To better understand and address the causes and effects of terrorism, the limitations of linear

strategies derived from economic theories must be acknowledged. It is useful to be conscious of the nonlinearity aspect of causes and effects of terrorism.

First, causes and effects of terrorist acts are not always proportionate. A small terrorist act, for instance, can have enormous economic, political, and social effects on the targeted country and surrounding countries (Blomberg et al., 2011). In addition, there is a curvilinear effect of economic development on domestic terrorism (Boehmer & Daube, 2013). Furthermore, Enders and Hoover (2012) posited a nonlinear relationship between terrorism and poverty as other factors—such as demographic makeup and diverse levels of democratic freedom—affect terrorism.

The focus of this study was on the precursors of terrorism in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). The DRC is a vast country with enormous natural resources (The World Bank, 2014). It is located in central Africa. This country has a surface area of 2.3 million km²—spanning nearly two thirds of the European Union size (The World Bank, 2014). In the late 1970s, the DRC plunged into an economic and social anarchy, whose sequels are being experienced today by the majority of the Congolese population (The World Bank, 2014).

According to reports from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the DRC has the highest rate of poverty in the world (USAID, 2014). Reports from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) suggested that the DRC has a Multidimensional Poverty Index of 0.369 (UNDP, 2015), and this country ranks 186 on the Human Development Index—remaining among the lowest in Africa (The World Bank, 2014). The experts of the World Bank asserted that the DRC is

still a weak nation with massive reconstruction needs. Those needs include, among others, strengthening political institutions, improving the security of the population, peace building, and enhancing social and economic infrastructures.

In Chapter 1, I discuss the background of the problem, the statement of the problem, and the purpose statement. I also cover the significance of the study and the nature of the problem. I then present the theoretical framework, definitions of concepts, scope of the study, limitations, and delimitations of the study.

Background of the Study

The DRC is located in central Africa. Since 1996, this country has been caught in a cycle of violence. Many observers consider the Congolese conflict as the most brutal conflict since World War II (Rosen, 2013; Shah, 2014; World Without Genocide, 2013). Extensive war crimes, which include summary executions, rapes in daylight, and the use of child soldiers, are frequent in this country (Baaz & Stern, 2009; Human Rights Watch, 2014). In addition, civilians experience repeated demolition of personal property and public infrastructure in the eastern region of the DRC (World Without Genocide, 2013).

This long and brutal conflict has had adverse effects on the civilian population, as it has caused a significant number of fatalities either directly or indirectly. Many civilians have succumbed from nonviolent causes such as diseases that are preventable in typical situations (Shah, 2014). The DRC conflict has resulted in the loss of nearly 6 million lives (Rosen, 2013; World Without Genocide, 2013). In addition, nearly 2.9 million civilians have been displaced in the DRC due to violence (USAID, 2014).

As the lack of order in some region of a country results in undermined credibility of the government (Schear, 2009), the ongoing and brutal conflict witnessed in the DRC has the potential to result in weakening the institutions of the country. The DRC, with weak institutions, can become a threat to the security of the world (Patrick, 2006) because of the possibility of illegal uranium mining (GeoTimes, 2004). In 2004, the United Nations officials expressed fear that undocumented uranium ores could leave the DRC mine and be handed over to terrorist groups (GeoTimes, 2004).

The current study was conducted in the DRC. My intent was to investigate the antecedent conditions of terrorism in the eastern provinces of this country. I attempted to examine whether terrorism was due to political instability or insufficient economic activities.

Statement of the Problem

The ongoing and violent conflict in the eastern region of the DRC has resulted in social instability and political fragility (Human Rights Watch, 2014; World Without Genocide, 2013). For example, the DRC ranks fifth on the Fragile States Index (The Fund for Peace, 2015), affecting the economic development of this country (USAID, 2014). Despite its enormous natural resources, the socioeconomic status of the Congolese is relatively low. The DRC ranks 186 on the Human Development Index, remaining among the lowest in Africa (The World Bank, 2014). Moreover, nearly 6 million civilians have lost their lives from nonviolent causes such as illnesses that—in typical situations—can be prevented (Rosen, 2013; World Without Genocide, 2013). Furthermore, not only “war crimes, including summary executions, rapes, and forced recruitment of children”

(Human Rights Watch, 2014, para. 1), but also the destruction of personal property and public infrastructure (World Without Genocide, 2013), are frequent in this region.

Previous studies have identified economic deprivation (Boehmer & Daube, 2013); political and institutional factors (Piazza, 2013; Simpson, 2014; Wilson & Piazza, 2013); and personal, social, and cultural identities (Comas, Shrivastava, & Martin, 2014) among factors that breed terrorism. I did not find academic studies relating to the precursors of violence in the DRC in the literature that I reviewed. Therefore, by filling the gap in the literature on factors that fueled violence in the DRC, this study's findings could help the Congolese government, the African Union, and the United Nations to address this ongoing phenomenon more effectively.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the precursors of terrorist acts in the DRC. I used the relative deprivation theory (Blomberg, Hess, & Weerapana, 2004; Gries and Krieger, 2011; Sandler & Enders, 2004) to explain the precursors of terrorist acts in the DRC. I expected this study to provide the opportunity to understand the degree and possible strength of the relationship between the dependent variable, terrorist incidents, and the independent variables (a) political instability and (b) economic growth in the DRC.

The findings from this study could help determine possible relationships among these variables. The study results could provide the DRC government, the African Union's leaders, and the international community with data to better understand the causes of the terrorism in the eastern region of the DRC. These findings may also help

implement practical solutions to the country's pressing issues. Such understanding is essential to passing laws and implementing solutions that can end the conflict in DRC and similar conflicts elsewhere.

Significance of the Study

Scholarship

First, as may be true in any scholarly work, I expected the findings from this study to contribute to academic and scientific knowledge, because there is a significant gap in scholarly literature focused on terrorism in sub-Saharan Africa. Second, I did not find specific studies relating to the precursors of terrorism in the DRC in my literature review. Therefore, this research study will constitute a scholarly contribution to the body of knowledge on terrorism in the DRC. I also expected this study to fill the gap in academic literature focused on terrorism in the DRC and in the region.

Practical Contributions of the Study

The findings from the study are significant for three groups: the DRC government, the African Union, and the international community. The study's findings could help these three groups better understand the precursors of the terrorist acts in the eastern DRC and their effects on the country, as well as in the region, which includes neighboring countries.

Social Change

The implications for positive social change include the prevention of violence and human rights abuse. Human rights laws are moral and legal rules that provide individuals with protection from serious political, legal, and social abuses. Nickel (2013) asserted

that human rights “exist in morality and in law at the national and international levels” (para 1). Thus, the rights of Congolese citizens must be protected by national governments and the international community. Human rights laws assert that the domestic authorities such as the government of the DRC have an ethical and legal duty or obligation to ensure the necessary social conditions for human dignity (Traer, 2012).

Findings from this study could provide a better understanding of the precursors of this phenomenon in the context of the DRC or the whole region. Such an understanding could help mediators and peacemakers implement practical solutions capable of stopping violence in the region, improving the socioeconomic conditions of civilians, and restoring the credibility of the national and local governments. The study’s findings can also help prevent future terrorism in the DRC, as well as in other regions of Africa and allow economic development of this continent.

Nature of the Study

This quantitative study was an attempt to test the relationship between the dependent variable, terrorist incidents, and the independent variables: (a) political stability and (b) economic growth in the DRC. As the goal of this study was to predict scores and describe the relationships among these variables in the context of the DRC, I deemed a quantitative correlational design appropriate. The main characteristic of quantitative research is to explain or predict relationships or associations among variables (Creswell, 2012).

Correlation is a statistical technique that describes a relationship between two or more naturally occurring variables. In this study, I examined the correlation between one

dependent variable and six independent variables. I hypothesized and tested, using appropriate techniques, the relationships between the dependent variable with two predictor variables. Because I used longitudinal data in this quantitative correlational study, I considered a longitudinal analysis as suitable. I used linear regression analysis to examine the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and the set of independent variables. In addition, I endeavored to determine which predictor or independent variable had the strongest relationship with the criterion or dependent variable.

Research Questions

A major economic theory suggests that insufficient options of economic activities trigger violence or terrorist acts (Gries & Krieger, 2011). However, more economic possibilities for individuals result in a decreased rate of violence due to economic participation (Gries & Krieger, 2011). Previous studies have suggested adverse effects of terrorist acts not only on the economy of the target country but also on the global economy (Blomberg et al., 2011). Socioeconomic deprivation makes people living in failing states more vulnerable to the influence of internationally sponsored terrorist groups (Howard, 2010).

Previous studies have suggested that socioeconomic deprivation (Gries & Krieger, 2011) makes individuals living in failing states more vulnerable to the influence of internationally sponsored terrorist groups (Howard, 2010). Failed states are fertile grounds for breeding terrorists (Howard, 2010). Ineffective leadership due to political instability or fragility can incite terrorism (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011).

The first and second research questions provided a basis to investigate the strength of possible correlation between the dependent variable, terrorist incidents, and two independent variables: political stability and economic growth. The third question helped determine whether there is a difference among countries. The research questions were as follows:

RQ₁: How does political stability decrease terrorist incidents?

RQ₂: How does economic growth reduce terrorist incidents?

RQ₃: Is there a difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors?

Hypotheses

Hypotheses are propositions formulated for empirical testing (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). In this quantitative study, I used hypotheses to predict the outcome of relationships among the variables mentioned previously (Creswell, 2012). The hypotheses for the study reflect the quantitative design of the research. The null and alternative hypotheses were as follows:

H1₀: Political stability does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

H1₁: Political stability significantly predicts terrorist incidents.

H2₀: Economic growth does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

H2₁: Economic growth significantly predicts terrorist incidents.

H3₀: There is no significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

H3₁: There is a significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

The above hypotheses allowed me to examine the relationships among variables. The null hypotheses helped to make predictions of either the existence of a relationship between independent variables and the response variable, or the absence of difference between the relationships of the independent variables with a dependent variable respectively. In this correlational study, the statistical rejection of the null hypothesis suggested a connection between an independent variable and a dependent variable.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

The central concepts examined in the study were terrorism, terrorist rationality, leadership, stability, trust, and economic development, and, particularly, the relationships between terrorist acts, political system fragility, socioeconomic conditions, and economic activities. However, several theories in the literature provide justification for the emergence of terrorism, Aberle's relative deprivation theory provided structure for the study. Aberle viewed relative deprivation as "a negative discrepancy between legitimate expectation and actuality" (Lee, 1995, p. 20). There are "three specific conditions wherein such deprivation might occur (Lee, 1995, p. 20). Those conditions include: (a) one's past status versus one's present status; (b) one's current circumstance versus one's future circumstance; and (c) one's situation versus someone else's current situation (Lee, 1995; Quinn, 2008).

Thus, insufficient possibilities of economic activities (Gries & Krieger, 2011), and poor leadership due to political instability (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011), can incite

terrorism. Sufficient economic opportunities for people, however, decrease the likelihood of violence due to economic participation (Blomberg & Hess, 2008; Gries & Krieger, 2011). According to Blomberg et al. (2011), trust is an essential component that enhances economic performance. As terrorism diminishes confidence in the economy of the targeted country (Blomberg et al., 2011; Kumar & Liu, 2013), terrorism has an adverse effect on economic growth. Therefore, terrorism impedes the economic growth of the targeted country (Kumar & Liu, 2013). Meierrieks and Gries (2013) argued that terrorism is detrimental to the development of African nations that exhibit low degrees of political openness and high degrees of political instability.

Operational Definitions

Economic Deprivation

Economic deprivation is the lack of sufficient financial resources. Deprived individuals are not able to play roles in society. Such individuals cannot participate in social and economic activities. They are unable to take part in the accepted behavior expected of them by being human beings.

Two methods are used to measure economic deprivation. The first method consists of using income as an objective measure of deprivation (Pettigrew, 2015). With the income-based approach, people are considered as deprived when their income falls below a poverty line value (Borooah, 2007). The second method consists of defining an index and a list of products or objects (Borooah, 2007). The amount of goods a person possesses from the set list determines the value of the index (Borooah, 2007). When

using this approach, an individual whose index values is below a predefined threshold is considered deprived (Borooah, 2007).

Economic Activities

Economic activities refer to the activities of producing, buying, or selling products or services at all levels within a society. Economic activities of a country are assessed by using a country's gross domestic product (GDP).

Political Instability

Political instability refers to a propensity of a government collapse. It is also a likelihood of having frequent demonstrations, forms of violence, workers going on strike, and possibility of a coup d'état. It is a state of a society or country thrown into social chaos by civil unrest or conflicts between various groups that make up a community. It is characterized by confrontations between the diverse structures that make up a society.

Terrorist Acts

Terrorist acts refer to calculated threats of violence or use of violence against civilians to instill fear and advance political or religious agendas. Terrorist acts are perpetrated to achieve political, ideological or religious goals.

Domestic Terrorism

This concept is associated with acts of violence committed by citizens or permanent residents of a country against their people or property within their country without foreign influence. Citizens of a country commit terrorist acts to instill fear in a population or their government. This form of terrorism is used as a tactic designed to advance political, religious, or ideological objectives or causes.

Transnational Terrorism

This concept refers to a premeditated threat or actual use of force or violence to attain a political, religious, or ideological goal through fear, coercion, or intimidation. The ramifications of this form of terrorism go beyond national boundaries through the nationality or nationalities of the perpetrators and their victims.

Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, I assumed that data used reflect the reality as reliable sources provided them. I also assumed that the indicators provided by these secondary data represent the two variables of the study. These two assumptions imply that the predictions of the association between the response variable, terrorist acts, and the following explanatory variables, political stability and economic growth, can be inferred. These two assumptions and limitations must be acknowledged. However, they do not negate the value of the study.

Scope and Limitations

Ongoing conflicts among groups that make up a country weaken the institutions of the country. Failed states with weak institutions threaten the survival of their citizens, who resort to the use of political violence as a method to have access to tangible political and economic resources. Failed states are also fertile grounds for breeding domestic and transnational terrorists. Moreover, socioeconomic deprivation makes people living in failing states more vulnerable to the influence of internationally sponsored terrorist groups (Howard, 2010).

Not only do failed states threaten the survival of their citizens, who resort to the use of political violence as a means to have access to tangible political and economic resources, but they are also fertile grounds for breeding terrorists. For this reason, the international community faces a huge challenge with the ongoing conflict in the DRC. The DRC, with weak or nonexistent institutions, is unquestionably a serious threat to the security of the world (Patrick, 2006) because of the possibility of illegal uranium mining (GeoTimes, 2004). Terrorist groups could acquire Congolese uranium and develop an atomic bomb.

Conceivably, there may be some limitations to this study. The limitations could be as follows:

- The validity of the study depends on the validity of the secondary research data.
- The study is limited by the access to the secondary data.
- The secondary data could be the approximate data needed in the study.
- The study is limited by the insufficient information about the way secondary data were collected as such “information is important for determining potential sources of bias, errors, or problems with internal or external validity” (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 279)
- The study is limited by the amount of data used. Insufficient amount of data does not allow the researcher to make inferential decisions about the population under investigation.

Delimitations

The study is confined to using secondary data about the antecedent conditions of terrorist acts in the DRC. It endeavors to determine any relationship between variables with no intent of manipulating the variables. The study focuses on historical data to investigate the 2-decade conflict in the eastern region of the DRC.

Summary

Since 1998, those who dwell in the eastern provinces of the DRC have been caught in a bloody conflict. The effects of the Congolese conflict are multifaceted. For example, nearly 6 million have died. Furthermore, rapes in daylight, as well as demolition of private property and public infrastructure, are common in the region. Frequent atrocities and violations of human rights have affected civilians and the credibility of the local and national governments.

In Chapter 1, I explained that the research study was designed to determine whether terrorism acts are associated with political stability and economic growth in the DRC. I provided the information regarding the population and the sampling strategy. I also discussed the purpose and the significance of the study. I presented the research questions, hypotheses, and nature of the study.

In Chapter 2, I review the relevant literature on terrorism and its antecedent conditions. I also review literature to examine the association between terrorism and the independent variables of the study: political stability and economic growth. I then critically analyze and synthesize literature, as it relates to the conditions that contribute to the emergence of terrorism.

In Chapter 3, I provide a detailed description that includes the research design and the appropriateness of the design. In addition, Chapter 3 contains the research questions and the hypotheses. Furthermore, I describe the population, the sampling frame, and the geographic location. Moreover, I discuss the data collection procedures, data analysis, and the validity and reliability of the research study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The brutality of the ongoing conflict in the eastern provinces of the DRC has resulted in political instability and fragility (Human Rights Watch, 2014; The Fund For Peace, 2015; World Without Genocide, 2013). The conflict has resulted in the decline of socioeconomic status of Congolese citizens (The World Bank, 2014; USAID, 2014). Reports from these credible sources show the relevance of terrorist acts perpetrated in the eastern region of the DRC by Congolese militia and some armed forces from neighboring countries. Summary executions, rapes in daylight, forced recruitment of children, the destruction of personal property and public infrastructure are some examples of the terrorist acts in this region (Human Rights Watch, 2014, World Without Genocide, 2013). There is, however, limited academic research focusing on the antecedent conditions of the conflict in this region. I intended to address this gap in the literature and to investigate the antecedent conditions of terrorism in the DRC using the relative deprivation theory of Aberle.

Previous research on the deprivation theory has found support for the deprivation hypothesis in other countries. Results from those studies revealed that insufficient possibilities of economic activities and poor leadership due to political instability give rise to terrorism (Gries & Krieger, 2011; Krieger & Meierriek, 2011). Sufficient economic opportunities for citizens, however, decrease the likelihood of violence due to economic participation (Blomberg & Hess, 2008; Gries & Krieger, 2011). Other studies have however indicated opposite results. Instead of reducing the likelihood of violence,

the growth of GDP, for instance, gives rise to domestic terrorism due to regime transitions, internal conflict, and social anarchy (Kis-Katos, Liebert, & Schulze, 2011).

I begin this literature review with an exploration of the relative deprivation theory, beginning with its theoretical underpinnings. I then explore the economic deprivation argument of terrorism. I finally review and discuss literature on other antecedent conditions of terrorism as they relate to the relative deprivation theory.

Literature Strategy

I undertook the search for research literature about the topic, the key variables involved in the study, and the research design by using three sources. I used (a) the Walden University Library's online search capabilities and eBook functionalities; (b) World Bank's and nongovernmental organizations' (NGOs) websites and reports; and (c) books from traditional libraries in Canada and the United States. The literature search strategy that I used in the study allowed first a broad gathering of different resources. The approach became more precise as the research further clarified the issues relevant to the study.

I conducted two types of searches. The first type of search was performed with no specified timeframe limitation. As I wanted to develop an understanding of the current state of the research, my second search focused on literature that published within the last 5 years. The types of the literature that I discovered and used in the study included peer-reviewed journal articles, NGO reports, World Bank reports, United Nations reports, and scholarly books.

I used many search interfaces to retrieve peer-reviewed articles, scholarly texts, and periodicals. I used interfaces from the Walden University Online Library and the University of Phoenix Online Library. These two Online Libraries helped me access information regarding the antecedent conditions of terrorism.

Moreover, I used Google Scholar and Google Books through the Google's search engine to locate texts unavailable from the sources mentioned above. I also searched several Internet research databases using various combinations of search terms, including but not limited to relative deprivation, terrorism, terrorist act, terrorist incident, terrorism and economic growth, terrorism and economic deprivation, terrorism and political stability, and terrorism and social stability. The databases that I used for the purpose of the study included Academic Search Complete, ProQuest Central, PsychARTICLES, PsycInfo Database Record, and ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

Furthermore, I used scholarly articles that I discovered through the use of the methods mentioned above to retrieve more articles. I then used those articles to discover still other research studies and credible reports. I specifically searched the text of the articles and their bibliographies for other related research and reports. In addition, I referenced academic textbooks for information regarding statistical analysis techniques, methods, and processes such as sampling strategies, correlation, regression, and panel data regression analysis.

Theoretical Foundation

The relative deprivation theory was first introduced by Stouffer during his research study for *The American Soldier* in 1949 (Pettigrew, 2015). While relative

deprivation theory was “developed to understand the psychology of soldiers, it grew to be an established theory of social science scholarship” (Flynn, 2008, para. 9). Two concepts are central to the relative deprivation theory; they consist of (a) the understanding of the relationship between satisfaction and available comparisons, and (b) the concepts of subjective versus objective assessments of one’s status. Instead of being absolute, satisfaction is relative to the available comparisons (Pettigrew, 2015).

Relative deprivation belongs to a broad family of theories that use relative comparisons in both sociological social psychology and psychological social psychology (Pettigrew, 2015). Relative deprivation has been seen as a central variable to explain social movements and to describe the call for social change that inspires social movements (Morrison, 1971). Collective feelings of relative deprivation give rise to social movements (Morrison, 1971). Understanding the theory of relative deprivation is crucial for people who have an interest in the sociology of social movements.

After Stouffer had introduced relative deprivation, the idea was broadened by Merton (1957; Merton & Kitt 1950) within a reference group framework. Building on Merton’s framework, Davis (1959) formulated a mathematical model of relative deprivation. Runciman (1966) expanded the relative deprivation construct by identifying two types of relative deprivation: egoistic and group. This distinction means that people can feel that they are individually deprived. They can also be of the belief that the social group to which they belong to and identify with is deprived. Corning used the relative deprivation theory in her study titled: *Assessing Perceived Social Inequity: A Relative Deprivation Framework* (Corning, 2000).

According to Pettigrew (2015), the distinction between the two relative deprivations is a crucial point for relative deprivation theory and research. Relative deprivation became then a fundamental social science theory as social judgments are formed by two standards (Pettigrew, 2015). Both absolute standards and the norms set by social comparisons shape humans' view (Pettigrew, 2015). From Stouffer's usage of this theory, relative deprivation is a perception that one or one's in-group is disadvantaged in comparison with a related referent (Pettigrew, 2015). This perception prompts feelings of irritation, discontent, and entitlement (Pettigrew, 2015).

One who undergoes relative deprivation experiences three psychological processes in the following sequence (Smith, Pettigrew, Pippin, & Bialosiewicz, 2012). He or she first makes cognitive comparisons (Smith et al. 2012). Second, he or she makes the cognitive assessment that his or her in-group is disadvantaged (Smith et al., 2012). Lastly, as these disadvantages are viewed to be unfair, they incite anger and resentment (Smith et al., 2012). For relative deprivation to operate, one has to undergo all these three processes (Smith et al., 2012).

According to Aberle, relative deprivation is "a negative discrepancy between legitimate expectation and actuality" (Lee, 1995, p. 20). Aberle identified three conditions wherein deprivation occurs. Those conditions include the assessment of: (a) one's past situation versus his or her current situation; (b) one's current circumstance versus his or her future circumstance; and (c) one's own situation versus others' situations (Lee, 1995; Quinn, 2008).

Aberle's relative deprivation theory provides the theoretical framework for the study for three reasons. First, subjective and objective assessment of one's status can incite terrorism. Second, terrorism is viewed as a social movement (Comas et al., 2014). Third, such view emphasizes the more general context of factors contributing to the birth of terrorists and the development of their networks (Comas et al., 2014); it also provides researchers with a framework for studying terrorism using social movement theory.

Economic Precursors

Various studies suggest that in times of economic deprivation, people tend to turn to violent activities (Gries & Krieger, 2011). This view is reinforced by the study conducted by Freytag et al. (2011) showing that a country's socio-economic situation was strongly associated with terrorist activity. Findings from the same study revealed a statistically robust and negative correlation between good socio-economic conditions and terrorist activities (Freytag et al., 2011). These two findings provided evidence that terrorism is in part rooted in poor socioeconomic conditions (Freytag et al., 2011).

According to Boehmer and Daube (2013), socioeconomic changes, resulting from the transformative development level of a nation, can give rise to domestic terrorism. An association exists between the degree of the development of a state and domestic terrorism. Boehmer and Daube's discoveries indicated a curvilinear relationship between the two. States that have not exhibited an acceptable level of democracy and failing states—those that are unable to help their citizens attenuate the effects of socioeconomic mutations—are more vulnerable to domestic terrorism than those with high level of democratic governance (Boehmer & Daube, 2013).

Boehmer and Daube's (2013) view is also shared by Leistedt (2013) whose work found that socioeconomic conditions were among the factors that contributed to the birth of terrorism. Leistedt identified economic deprivation among societal factors that cause people to engage in terrorist activities. Caruso and Schneider (2011) opined that Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita is the suitable measure for assessing countries' socioeconomic conditions. If other conditions remain unchanged, a negative correlation coefficient between terrorism and GDP per capita will reinforce the economic deprivation argument (Caruso & Schneider, 2011). Some people use income as an objective measure of deprivation (Pettigrew, 2015). When money-based measures are used in this fashion, individuals are viewed as deprived if their income falls below a poverty line value (Borooah, 2007).

Deprivation analysis can be used to determine whether a person is poor. This approach requires that an index and a list of products or objects be defined (Borooah, 2007). For each person, the value of the index is determined by the quantity of goods the individual possesses from the set list (Borooah, 2007). When using this approach, an individual whose index values is below the threshold is considered 'deprived' (Borooah, 2007). However, it is crucial to note that macro-level measures of collective deprivation are not good indicators of perceived relative deprivation of individuals (Pettigrew, 2015).

A review of the literature suggests a reciprocal relationship between terrorism and economic deprivation. Trust is a crucial component that attracts investments and encourages capital formation which, in turn, improves economic performance (Blomberg et al., 2011). In their study, Blomberg et al. found that the effect of trust was positive and

statistically significant in explaining income. Findings from Gaibullov and Sandler's (2009) study suggested that every additional terrorism occurrence per million individuals led to a 1.5% decline in annual economic growth. In a follow-up research study focusing on Africa, Gaibullov and Sandler (2011) examined the effect of terrorism aggregated over the entire population. Under this framework, they discovered a negative but smaller relationship—of 0.1%—between the additional terrorist event and economic growth.

Because terrorism diminishes trust in the economy of the targeted country (Blomberg et al., 2011; Kumar & Liu, 2013), it has an adverse effect on economic growth (Kumar & Liu, 2013) resulting in economic deprivation. Meierrieks and Gries (2013) argued that terrorism is detrimental to the development of African nations that exhibit low degrees of political openness and high degrees of political instability. Poverty has been identified as one of the factors that breed terrorism (Nacos, 2012; Piazza, 2011). Krieger and Meierrieks (2011) support the deprivation argument and opine that poor structural economic conditions give rise to frustration, which in turn increases the likelihood of violence.

The economic deprivation theory alone cannot explain the making of terrorists as some individuals who engage in terrorism are not economically deprived. Caruso and Schneider's (2011) argument is that deprivation theory—as it relates to terrorism—is not always correct as some individuals who engage in terrorist acts are not poor. Findings from previous studies, for instance, have indicated a positive correlation between higher education and terrorism as well as between higher standard of living and terrorism (Caruso & Schneider, 2011).

The economic deprivation argument is not supported by Kis-Katos et al. (2011) who hold a different view. Kis-Katos et al. challenge those who have identified economic deprivation as a predictor of terrorism. They opined that an increase in GDP per capita in some countries can give rise to domestic terrorism—due to regime transitions, internal conflict, and social anarchy (Kis-Katos et al., 2011).

A study conducted by Blomberg, Fernholz, and Levin (2013) to investigate and compare the germinal causes of piracy and transnational terrorism did not reinforce the economic deprivation argument. Their study discoveries suggested that terrorism was largely uncorrelated with economic conditions (Blomberg, Fernholz, & Levin, 2013). However, findings from the same study suggested that piracy—which is another form of terrorism—was responsive to both economic inducements and military forces.

Political and Institutional Precursors

As mentioned in the previous section, the economic deprivation argument alone cannot justify the emergence of terrorism. In other words, terrorism is a complex phenomenon (Poland, 2011) whose precursors cannot be explained by economic theories alone. Literature reveals that political and institutional factors also cause terrorism. Those factors include regime type (Qvortrup, 2012), political instability (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011), and public leadership style (Atzili, 2010). They also include leadership vacuum (Howard, 2010), domestic political institutions (Findley & Young, 2011), and the maturity of the state or the longevity of the regime (Piazza, 2013).

Zimmermann (2011) argues that new global political terrorism is a response to everyday issues. Matters that trigger political terrorism are frequent in failed states.

Failed states are those that are not able to guarantee social justice or meet socioeconomic demands of their citizens (Kis-Katos et al., 2011). Kis-Katos et al. believe that the existence of failed states is among the factors that can foment or foster terrorism. The problem with failed states is that they threaten the survival of their citizens—who end up seeking other means to acquire real political and economic resources (Howard, 2010). Those means include among others corruption (Simpson, 2014) and the use of political violence (Howard, 2010).

Not only Simpson (2014) views domestic terrorism as a particular type of political violence; he also points out a link between corruption and political violence. He opines that the connection between the two is reactive due to ineffectiveness and weakness of political institutions (Simpson, 2014). The inefficiency and weakness of political institutions—whether terrorism causes them or not—have a negative impact on the economic activities and social order (Simpson, 2014), which have been identified among factors contributing to the emergence of terrorism (Gries & Krieger, 2011; Krieger & Meierriek, 2011).

Political and economic deprivation makes citizens of failed states more vulnerable to the influence of internationally-sponsored terrorist groups supporting the argument that failed, or weak states are breeding grounds for terrorists (Howard, 2010). Kis-Katos et al. (2011) argued that failed and weak states provide terrorists with a haven in the ungoverned territory. This argument was previously advanced by Atzili (2010) who suggested a relationship between state weakness and the emergence of transnational violent non-state organizations. The vacuum of power that characterizes failed states

makes them more likely to become havens for transnational terrorist groups due to poor leadership and the absence of enforcement capabilities (Atzili, 2010). The same argument was also reinforced by Campos and Gassebner (2013) who suggested a relationship between domestic political instability and international terrorism.

The absence of a strong state paves the way for terrorist groups to gain access to the country and fill the vacuum of power (Atzili, 2010). The absence of power provides terrorist organizations with enormous opportunities, such as facile recruitment within marginalized subgroups of the population and in ungoverned regions (Kis-Katos et al., 2011). The vacuum of power provides militant groups with opportunities to implement a surrogate state that appeals to the population and transnational terrorist groups (Atzili, 2010). Sub-Saharan Africa is a case in point. Failed states located in this region are now playing a crucial role in facilitating internationally-sponsored terrorist networks, including their operations (Howard, 2010).

Piazza (2011) conducted a study to examine the association between poverty and terrorism. His findings suggested a new factor—the discrimination of minority groups of a population—as a robust and substantive antecedent of domestic terrorism in relation to the general level of the country economic development (Piazza, 2011). In addition, the discoveries of Piazza suggested a higher prevalence of domestic terrorism in countries that exhibit group economic discrimination than in those without minority groups or where minorities do not experience discrimination.

A subsequent study was conducted by Piazza (2012) to determine which among the three aspects of minority discriminations—political, socio-economic, or cultural—

were significant predictors of terrorism. Findings from the study revealed that socioeconomic discrimination against minorities was the only highly and consistently significant predictor of terrorism (Piazza, 2012). To some extent, discoveries from this new study (Piazza, 2012) reinforce the socioeconomic deprivation argument.

Bezemer and Jong-A-Pin's (2013) conducted a study to examine whether globalization processes and democratization—combined—have a positive relationship with the occurrence of violence in emerging or developing economies. Findings from their study suggested that the presence of market-dominant minorities was a major explanatory factor of the adverse effect of democracy in some regions of the world, like in Sub-Saharan Africa (Bezemer & Jong-A-Pin, 2013). The study indicated that democracy amplified ethnic conflict in Sub-Saharan African states with market-dominant minorities; whereas democracy decreased ethnic conflict in countries without market-dominant minorities (Bezemer & Jong-A-Pin, 2013).

Leistedt (2013) is of the view that besides economic deprivation, perceived social injustice can fuel terrorism. This view is shared by Wilson and Piazza (2013) who argued that the feeling of being politically or economically marginalized and excluded from the decision-making process was among the factors that could trigger domestic terrorism. As political systems drive leadership style of those who govern, Wilson and Piazza identified leadership as an explanation for terrorist activities. Thus, a public leadership style that is characterized by the exclusion of minorities or that fosters social polarization between socially and culturally distant strata, for instance, can incite terrorism (Jalata, 2011) because of the perceived social injustice and inequality.

Findings from a study conducted in Western Europe by Qvortrup (2012) revealed a higher prevalence of domestic terrorism in countries that exhibited majoritarian political systems than in countries with a consensus political system. Discoveries from the same study suggested a statistically significant negative correlation between the level of domestic terrorism and consensus institutions (Qvortrup, 2012). Results from Qvortrup's (2012) study support Kis-Katos et al.'s (2011) argument that there are more terrorists in states with dictatorial regimes than in those with democratic governance.

Kis-Katos et al.'s (2011) argument is, however, at variance with the result of previous empirical research studies that had indicated that countries with democratic systems experienced more terrorism than those with autocratic regimes (Blomberg & Rosendorff, 2009; Braithwaite & Li, 2007; Dreher & Fischer, 2010). Bezemer and Jong-A-Pin (2013) explain that the observed discrepancies are due to multiplex institutional differences. Those differences cannot be explained by the borderline that exists between autocratic and democratic systems (Bezemer & Jong-A-Pin, 2013).

Institutional differences argument is consistent with Wilson and Piazza's (2013) findings. Wilson and Piazza investigated the differences between democracies and autocracies regarding the occurrence of terrorist incidents, connecting institutions with strategies of coercion and cooptation. Results from their study revealed differences in the likelihood of terrorism in different regime types: single-party authoritarian regimes, military autocracies, and democracies (Wilson & Piazza, 2013). Their discoveries indicated that single-party authoritarian regimes consistently encounter less rate of domestic and international terrorist incidence than democracies and military autocracies

(Wilson & Piazza, 2013). The different frequencies of terrorist acts are due to institutional differences regarding responses to opposition or complaints (Wilson & Piazza, 2013).

Political institutions determine whether leaders should resort to coercion or cooptation in the hope of reducing the threat of terrorist activity regimes (Wilson & Piazza, 2013). In their explanation of the difference in the probability of terrorism among regime types, Wilson and Piazza argued that party-based autocratic regimes have a more extensive range of oppression and cooptation strategies they can use to address complaints and opposition than do other regimes. Thus, Wilson and Piazza's explanation for terrorism put an emphasis on the complex interaction of political institutions.

Wilson and Piazza (2013) posited a composite relationship between state capacity and terrorism as they recognized the role of leadership in the emergence and management of terrorism. Wilson and Piazza are of the view that depending on their regime types; leaders can use several strategies to maintain control over their citizens, manage opposition, suppress or overcome criticism, and preserve regime authority. This view is consistent of that of Findley and Young (2011) who argued that domestic political institutions can incite some groups that pursue policy change to resort to political violence or terrorist acts. Findley and Young's argument is shared by Zimmermann (2011) who viewed political terrorism—carried out by domestic or international groups—as a response to local or everyday problems.

Discoveries from a study conducted by Piazza (2013) provided insights into the impacts of political institutions on terrorism by reexamining the association between

terrorism, regime type, and regime age. The study findings revealed that while young democracies were more vulnerable to terrorism than older democracies, discoveries from the same study indicated that dictatorships—regardless of their age—experienced fewer terrorism than other regimes (Piazza, 2013). To some extent, Piazza’s discoveries support those of Wilson and Piazza (2013) that indicated fewer prevalence of domestic and international terrorism in single-party authoritarian regimes than democracies. However, these discoveries are not consistent with Kis-Katos et al.’s (2011) argument about greater emergence of terrorists in states with dictatorial regimes than in those with democratic governance.

Rationality Precursors

The rational choice theory is used to explain the antecedent conditions of terrorism (Nalbandov, 2013). Terrorism is thus viewed as a rational enterprise undertaken by individuals who, for some reasons, cannot create or establish an armed rebellion to achieve their objectives (Plumber & Neumayer, 2014). Plumber and Neumayer asserted that those who lead terrorist groups are usually rational individuals who act in a strategic manner to achieve their goal—which consists of attaining political influence in the political landscape of their home countries. As rational individuals driven by the logic of expected consequences, terrorists are aware of the options available to them; they choose the best options based on their calculation of expected utility (Nalbandov, 2013). Thus, individuals who engage in terrorism are instrumentally rational and politically motivated (Plumber & Neumayer, 2014; van Uma, 2011).

Although international terrorism emerges in underdeveloped or poor countries (Atzili, 2010; Krieger & Meierrieks, 2011; Piazza, 2011), the majority of the victims are located in developed states (Blomberg & Hess, 2008, Blomberg & Hess, 2011). Faced with deprivation, inequality, and the absence of alternatives, individuals dwelling in underdeveloped societies are vulnerable to terrorist recruiters (Schneider & Hofer, 2008). The obsession of terrorist recruiters is to undercut global developments by attacking developed countries (Schneider & Hofer, 2008).

As terrorists possess believable and sufficient information about the options available to them, the logic of expected consequences guides their actions (Nalbandov, 2013). In decision making, the rational approach assumes that the post-action utility is higher than the pre-action one (Nalbandov, 2013). The utility-maximizing level of terrorism refers to the degree at which the marginal costs and the marginal benefits are equal (Krieger & Meierrieks, 2011). It is, however, possible that rational actors happen to choose irrational options provided that they maximize their expected utility (Nalbandov, 2013).

Simon (1955), as cited in van Uma (2011), challenged the instrumental rationality of individuals because their decisions are mainly limited to the information available to them. Bounded rationality is an analytical alternative to instrumental rationality (Schwartz, 2014). Instead of assuming maximization, bounded rationality assumes a utility function (Schwartz, 2014). Bounded rational actors are therefore those who keep searching for alternatives until an option, perceived to be satisfactory, is found (Lo,

2014). Simon (1955), as cited in Lo (2014), has termed this type of behavior *satisficing*. Lo opines that although satisficing behavior is not necessarily optimal, it is satisfactory.

Terrorists are also considered as instrumentally rational actors whose motivation is different from achieving political goals (van Uma, 2011). Those goals can be economic. From this perspective, terrorists are either criminally rational or economically rational (van Uma, 2011). *Criminally rational* terrorism results in self-enrichment. It is a crime as it is the use of terrorist means to make money instead of striving for political goals (van Uma, 2011).

Economically rational terrorism refers to a situation where terrorists cause widespread economic disruption to achieve concessions from a targeted government (van Uma, 2011). As those who engage in terrorism are rational individuals (van Uma, 2011), their acts aim at causing significant harm (O'Connor, 2014). Not only their acts are intended to instill fear in the population, but also to send a strong message to political leaders by impacting economic activities of the targeted country (Nalbandov, 2013).

This strategy or tactic, according to Nyaruwata, Mhizha, and Mandebvu (2013), as cited in Bassil (2014), has been effective in African countries exhibiting unstable political systems. African countries whose economy depends on the tourism industry are more susceptible to the effects of political violence (Neumayer, 2004). Saha and Yap (2014) found that terrorism and political instability can together have a negative impact on the tourism industry. Saha and Yap argued that the extent of the impacts of terrorist incidents on tourism demand depends on the degree of political instability. This view is similar to that of Korstanje and Clayton (2012) who argue that the effects of terrorism on

tourism are slim for countries that exhibit political stability and those that have resilience to terrorist attacks.

Blomberg, Fernholz, and Levin (2013) argue that the effects of terrorism on economic activities span several national borders due to the increasing interconnectedness enabled by globalization. Because of the increased globalization, terrorism's effects are felt and intensified across the borders of the targeted country ruining the political stability of neighboring countries (Blomberg et al., 2013). Nalbandov (2013) argues that although the rational choice theory helps explain terrorism, the new version of terrorism represents a considerable deviation from rationality.

Spatial Contagion Precursors

It is intuitive to think that terrorism occurrences in one country might destabilize the political power and economic activities in other countries, creating thus fertile grounds for terrorism in those countries. This is because terrorism in one country can have spillover effects on neighboring countries (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011). The effects of terrorist acts from one country can spill over in neighboring countries and across the region creating favorable conditions for terrorism to emerge due to the decline of socioeconomic status of those living in those countries and political instability (Howard, 2010; Krieger & Meierriek, 2011).

Braithwaite and Li (2007) opine that countries located in regions where terrorism abounds are more likely to experience terrorism. Although some countries located in the terrorism hot spots region do not experience terrorism (Braithwaite & Li, 2007), terrorist

incidents can be triggered to some extent by the fact of being located in terrorism hot spots.

Thus, domestic terrorism should not be addressed as an isolated phenomenon (Enders, Sandler, & Gaibullov, 2011). Enders, Sandler, and Gaibullov (2011) studied domestic terrorism and transnational terrorism and found a large and persistent cross-correlation over time between the two. The study finding suggested that domestic terrorism had a spillover effect, meaning that it can become transnational terrorism (Enders, Sandler, & Gaibullov, 2011). However, the same study did not indicate significant effects of transnational terrorism on domestic terrorism (Enders, Sandler, & Gaibullov, 2011).

Terrorist attacks are spatially dependent; and this is referred to as contagion (Neumayer & Plümper, 2011). Civilizational rallying effects make international terrorism contagious (Neumayer & Plümper, 2011). Findings from a study conducted by Krieger and Meierriek (2011) reinforced spatial contagion or the spillover effect. The more distant two countries are from each other, the less likelihood of terrorism spillover (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011).

Natural Resources Precursors

Apart from economic, political, rationality, and spatial contagion arguments, natural resources can also create conditions for terrorism to emerge. Resource-rich countries, especially developing countries, have a reputation of performing poorly in many areas (Mainguy, 2011). This poor performance is referred to as *resource curse*

hypothesis, which threatens to prevent the resource-rich countries from making good use of their natural resources (Mainguy, 2011).

In his discussion on intellectual roots of the resource-curse, Ross (2013) identified three detrimental effects of crude oil. Those effects include persistence of authoritarian regimes, an increase of corruption, and the association with the inception of violent conflict in underdeveloped countries under certain conditions (Ross, 2013). Findings from Ross' study suggested that oil—not other mineral resources—was associated with the persistence of authoritarianism and harmful outcomes, such as corruption and the emergence of internal conflicts. These findings are similar to Ahmadov's (2014) conclusion indicating an indirect negative effect of oil on democracy.

About the association between natural resources and the inception of conflict, Bazzi and Blattman (2013) and Cotet and Tsui (2013) are of the opinion that the possibility for natural resource wealth to trigger, lengthen, or escalate a conflict depends on its location within the boundaries of a country. They also argue that not only the unconditional association between oil wealth and conflict has always been questioned; it does not appear to be strong (Bazzi & Blattman, 2013; Cotet & Tsui, 2013). While the association between (a) oil wealth and authoritarianism, and (b) oil wealth and corruption, is believed to be linear, natural resource wealth and the inception of violent conflict have a curvilinear relationship (Ross, 2013).

Ross (2013) is of the view that the increase of natural resource wealth first increases the likelihood of conflict, and then decreases as the government becomes financially more capable of investing in security and buying off dissidents. This view is

shared by Bazzi and Blattman (2013) who claim that the increase of national revenues helps improve the capacity to combat insurgency and reduce dissidents' incentives to continue fighting in existing conflicts. Bazzi and Blattman view a correlation between higher national incomes and political stability.

Bazzi and Blattman's (2013) view is not consistent with the view held by Kis-Katos et al. (2011) that a growth of GDP per capita in some countries has the potential to result in domestic terrorism and social anarchy. Discoveries from a study conducted by Blomberg, Broussard, and Hess (2011) revealed increased terrorist-oriented fragility in the sub-Saharan countries that are predominantly fuel producers and exporters. Evidence revealed that resource-rich countries located in the Sub-Saharan Africa have not been able to implement effective counterterrorist policies or improve counterinsurgency capacity (Blomberg et al., 2011).

International and Globalization Precursors

Globalization is often measured in terms of international flows of finance, trade, investment, and people (Pangestu, 2012). Jalata (2011) argues that terrorism has increased with the intensification of globalization. Globalization results in economic and political integration. With regard to economic integration, globalization seems to be a precursor of terrorism. Previous studies (Blomberg & Hess, 2008) had suggested an association between higher degrees of trade openness with an increased likelihood of terrorist attacks. Blomberg and Hess' findings are, however, at variance with those from Drakos and Gofas' (2006) study that had identified low economic openness as one of the precursors of terrorism.

Blomberg and Hess' (2008) findings were not supported by discoveries from Freytag et al.'s (2011) study that suggested a negative correlation between trade openness—combined with higher levels of investment and consumption—and terrorist activities in statistically robust ways (Freytag et al., 2011). The study findings also revealed that, instead of being viewed as a threat, economic globalization was rather considered as an opportunity for economic gains. By generating trade gains, economic integration indirectly reduces the inclination to resort to violence (Freytag et al., 2011).

Discoveries from Freytag et al.'s (2011) study are not unanimously endorsed. For instance, Margalit's (2012) opined that greater economic interactions with the outside world beget greater level of anxiety about the cultural and social transformation that come with economic adaptations. Margalit's opinion is supported by Lutz and Lutz (2014) who argue that the economic dimension of globalization can produce stresses for local societies and economies. The level of internal inequality increases as societies strive to meet the requirements of the global economy (Lutz & Lutz, 2014).

Supposedly, globalization processes are of great importance for developing and transition economies (Gurgul & Lach, 2014; Rao & Vadlamannati, 2011). Pangestu (2012) is of the view that globalization and the economic integration it entails have generated impressive benefits, especially in the emerging economies of Asia. Those benefits include among others the spread of technology, growth and development, higher level of prosperity, and decreasing rates of poverty (Pangestu, 2012). However, significant disparities exist in the way those benefits are spread within a country or between countries (Pangestu, 2012). In addition, the financial vulnerabilities and

instability, economic disparities, costs associated with the actual deterioration of the environment, and dispersion of issues are among the manifestations of globalization (Pangestu, 2012).

Gurgul and Lach (2014) conducted a study to examine the role of diverse facets of globalization in the economic growth of countries located in Central and Eastern Europe. The study discoveries did not indicate a significant effect of the political dimension of the globalization on the growth in the GDP of those new members of the European Union (EU) in the first two decades of transition. The study findings revealed however that globalization processes had growth-stimulating impact in economic and social dimensions (Gurgul & Lach, 2014). Such findings would suggest less violence due to people participation in the economic activities (Gries & Krieger, 2011).

Asteriou, Dimelis, and Moudatsou (2014) conducted a study to examine possible relationships between globalization and inequality in the EU landscape. Findings from their study revealed, however, that financial globalization factors, for the most part foreign direct investments, explained the intensification of inequality in the region (Asteriou et al., 2014). These discoveries reinforced those from Ezcurra and Rodríguez-Pose's (2013) study that suggested that globalization had a crucial impact on inequality worldwide and across various regions within countries.

Bezemer and Jong-A-Pin (2013) are of the opinion that, in some regions of the world, globalization combined with democratization begets resentment leading to violence. To some extent, terrorism is a response to unfair global socioeconomic conditions. This view is shared by Krieger and Meierriek (2011) who argue that

international factors—relating to economic and political globalization—can contribute to the onset of domestic and transnational terrorism.

With respect to political integration, the political dimension of globalization has been associated with political issues in many countries (Lutz & Lutz, 2014). However, not all types of political integration incite terrorism. Previous studies have revealed that peaceful political integration has the potential to discourage terrorist activities (Blomberg & Hess, 2008; Campos & Gassebner, 2009). By contrast, confrontation and crises, such as international disputes, fuel international terrorism (Drakos & Gofas, 2006; Piazza, 2008).

Findings from Zimmermann's (2011) study did not indicate a positive relationship between globalization and terrorism. Results from Lutz and Lutz' (2014) study suggested that countries with greater political interactions with the outside world were less likely to have experienced terrorism. In addition, Lutz and Lutz explained religious terrorism as a response to globalization. They opined that religious organizations have resorted to violence as a way of resisting globalization because of its negative impact on traditional religious values in societies.

Rao and Vadlamannati (2011) studied the long-run growth effects of globalization in the relatively poor African nations and discovered that those effects were significantly positive. Those findings reinforced the more optimistic views of the impacts of globalization (Rao & Vadlamannati, 2011). As the social dimension of globalization entails a progressive integration of economies and societies, it results in the increase of international mobility of individuals who are politically and economically deprived as

well as the mobility of terrorists (Ezcurra & Rodríguez-Pose, 2013). Such mobility of people ends up destabilizing political, economic, and social conditions of host countries increasing thus the likelihood of violence or terrorism in failed states.

The demographic make-up of a population can amplify the combustible effect of globalization on violence. Significant cultural and religious differences among a population groups can incite the development of non-state terrorism (Jalata, 2011). Bezemer and Jong-A-Pin (2013) examined whether democratization and globalization could give rise to ethnic conflicts in countries where powerful or governing minorities are present. For countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Bezemer and Jong-A-Pin's discoveries indicated that democracy had a positive impact on ethnic violence in market-dominant minorities' countries. The effect was found to be stronger in countries exhibiting higher level of globalization (Bezemer & Jong-A-Pin, 2013). In the absence of market-dominant minorities however, democracy was found to reduce the likelihood of ethnic conflict in Sub-Saharan Africa (Bezemer & Jong-A-Pin, 2013).

By contrast, in non-African countries without market-dominant minorities, Bezemer and Jong-A-Pin's (2013) study found a positive association between democracy, violence, and globalization. The effect of democracy on violence tends to amplify with higher degrees of globalization (Bezemer & Jong-A-Pin, 2013). In non-African states with market-dominant minorities, the level of globalization was not found to matter to democracy's effect on the probability of violence (Bezemer & Jong-A-Pin, 2013).

Personal, Cultural, and Social Precursors

Personal, cultural, social, and societal factors can also breed terrorism. Terrorism is viewed by Comas et al. (2014) as a social movement. Not only such view underlines the more comprehensive context of factors leading to the making of terrorists and development of their networks (Comas et al., 2014), it also provides a framework for studying terrorism using social movement theory.

For instance, Simpson (2014) used social movement theory to investigate the relationship between corruption and terrorism for 106 countries over the period ranging from 1990 through 2010. The study discoveries suggested a statistically significant negative association between corruption and variations in the level of terrorist incidents (Simpson, 2014). Simpson's study identified corrupt practices and terrorism as shared approaches or methods used in an extra-legal opportunity structure. Restricting the avenue of corruption increases the rate of terrorist incidents (Simpson, 2014).

Dunkel, Schwartz, and Waterman (2009) have identified personal, social, and cultural identities as the precursors of terrorism. According to Dunkel et al., a relationship exists between these three identity dimensions and terrorism. They also opine that there is an interaction among these three identities that determines the odds of one engaging in terrorism (Dunkel et al., 2009).

Leistedt (2013) included a psychopathological dimension in the discussion on the factors that contribute to the development of terrorism by explaining the precursors of this phenomenon at three levels. Those levels are as follows: individual, groups, and society (Leistedt, 2013). According to Leistedt, personal experiences and traits are among

the main reasons for engaging in terrorism. In addition, the feeling of belonging to a terrorist organization appeals to some individuals (Leistedt, 2013).

Kruglanski et al. (2013) have identified ‘love of self’ as a factor that can trigger violence and terrorism. They argue that “love of self is an individualistic concern with self-preservation, comfort, safety, and the survival of self and loved ones” (Kruglanski et al., 2013, p. 559). Kruglanski et al. are of the belief that self-love explains a motivational force that awakens the quest for significance. Whenever a group clashes with threatening detractors, its beliefs, or principles may recommend violence and terrorism against the foe as a way of gaining significance that satisfies self-love concerns (Kruglanski et al., 2013).

Religion-Based Precursors

According to Dunkel et al. (2009), terrorism represents the convergence of three identities—cultural, social, and personal. Dunkel et al. assert that cultural identity is strongly rooted in collectivism and fundamentalist attachment to cultural or religious principles. Krieger and Meierrieks (2011) opine that religious identity can be associated with the emergence of terrorism.

Religious terrorism can be a response to social or economic injustice and inequity. Lutz and Lutz (2014) opine that faith-based organizations have reacted negatively to the challenges that come with globalization. Religious terrorism is a response to negative effects of globalization (Lutz & Lutz, 2014). As globalization by its very nature can undermine traditional religious values in societies (Lutz & Lutz, 2014), it can trigger violent resistance or religious terrorism.

Martin (2015) opines that grassroots extremist support for religious violence is mostly frequent among populations experiencing repressions when demanding for reform. Today, terrorism perpetrated in the name of religion has become the prevailing model for political violence (Martin, 2015). Although nationalism and ideology are powerful catalysts for extremist behavior, religious extremism has become a crucial worry for the international community because of its fast widespread, the increased frequency and scope of related violence, and its global reach (Martin, 2015).

Nalbandov (2013) is of the view that the religion-based rationality should be given special consideration because religion is a crucial motivator for the actions and behavior of human beings. Not only value-systems differ between believers and non-believers, but they also vary among religions and even among believers of the same faith (Nalbandov, 2013). Because of that, atrocities and acts of violence have been committed in the past, and they are being committed today by individuals in the name of religions regardless of their faith (Cole, 2013).

Krieger and Meierrieks (2011) view religion as a determinant of terrorism. This view is supported by Jalata (2011) who asserted that religious and ideological extremism has amplified the frequency of terrorism from state actors and non-state actors. Martin (2015) reinforced this view by opining that sectarian ideologies are challenging the ancient ideologies that used to breed violence across the globe: class warfare, anti-colonialism or anti-imperialism, and secular nationalism. Krause (2015) suggests that present-time religious terrorism is more prevalent within Islam—than in other religions—with the majority sect targeting other Muslims and non-Muslims. The capital punishment

for apostasy and honor killing seem to make Islam the most violent religion (Krause, 2015).

Armstrong (2014) looks at what is referred to as religious violence from a different perspective. Using the example of Muslim terrorism, Armstrong is of the opinion that this form of violence is more personal and political rather than religious. Armstrong's argument is that all sorts of violence witnessed today or in the past cannot be found in religion per se; they are instead rooted in the violence ingrained not only in human nature, also in the nature of the state. Zimmermann (2011) is of the view that new global political terrorism carried out by religious groups is a response to local circumstances. This view is supported by Martin (2015) who argues that religious violence is a reaction of ordinary people to a repressive or unresponsive state.

Omer (2012) argues that equating some religions to terrorism can contribute to the making of terrorists. Moreover, the perception that terrorism is being used by the government to bypass the law and form a two-tiered legal system can fuel terrorism (Omer, 2012) as those who are being profiled on the basis of their religion feel discriminated against or marginalized. In addition, when individuals feel being forced to relinquish their civic rights can trigger terrorism. Such sentiment can turn good and competent citizens into terrorists or freedom fighters (Omer, 2012).

Summary and Conclusion

There is a need to research the antecedent situations of terrorist acts that have been going on in the eastern provinces of the DRC for two decades now. The outcomes of this conflict have a bearing on civilians' well-being as well as on the development of

this country. Understanding the precursors of this brutal conflict is essential to implementing effective policies and practical solutions to end the conflict in the country and prevent similar conflicts in the region.

From the review of the literature, it becomes evident that economic deprivation argument alone cannot justify the emergence of terrorism. Several factors contribute to the breeding of terrorism. Socioeconomic factors—like economic deprivation and socioeconomic discrimination—play a significant role in the making of terrorists. Political and institutional factors—such as political instability, regime types, the age of the system, and perceived political deprivation—are associated with terrorism. In addition, personal, cultural, and religious entities have been identified among the precursors of terrorism. Literature suggests a reciprocal relationship among some of those factors. All those factors were examined through the lens of the relative deprivation theory.

I intended to fill the current gap in the literature by investigating the precursors of terrorist acts in the eastern region of the DRC. I attempted to do this by evaluating whether a correlation exists between terrorist incidents and the following variables: political stability and economic growth. I obtained secondary panel data from two reputable organizations: (a) the World Bank (The World Bank, 2016a; The World Bank, 2016b) and (b) the National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (START) (START, 2013). The data that I used in the study are publicly available on these two organizations' websites.

In Chapter 3, I provide a detailed description including (a) the research design, (b) the appropriateness of the design, (c) the research questions, (d) the hypotheses, (e) the population, (f) the sampling frame, (g) the geographic location, (h) data collection procedures, (i) data analysis, and (j) the validity and reliability pertaining to this quantitative correlational research study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Research Methods

Previous studies have indicated an association between (a) terrorist incidents and (b) political system fragility and economic activities. Insufficient possibilities of economic activities (Gries & Krieger, 2011) and poor leadership due to political instability or vulnerability (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011) can incite terrorism. Sufficient economic opportunities for individuals, however, decrease the likelihood of violence due to economic participation (Blomberg & Hess, 2008; Gries & Krieger, 2011).

Using a quantitative methodology, I attempted to examine the relationship between the dependent variable, terrorist incidents, and the independent variables (a) political stability and (b) economic growth in the DRC. I deemed a quantitative correlation design appropriate because the goal of this study was to predict scores and describe the relationships or interactions among these variables in the context of the DRC. The main characteristic of quantitative research is to describe or predict relationships or associations among variables (Creswell, 2012).

Correlation is a statistical technique that describes a relationship between two or more naturally occurring variables. I examined the correlation between one dependent variable and six independent variables in the study. The relationships between the dependent variable with two predictor variables were hypothesized and tested with appropriate techniques.

I used linear regression analysis in this quantitative correlational study to investigate the relationship between the criterion, terrorist incidents, and six predictors.

The linear regression analysis helped evaluate the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables.

Design Appropriateness

My primary goal was to explain and predict associations among the variables mentioned previously. I deemed a descriptive, nonexperimental, correlational quantitative research design appropriate to respond to the research questions. This design provided an opportunity to predict scores and explain the extent of relationships (Creswell, 2012) among the seven variables. I used longitudinal data publicly available on the websites of the World Bank (The World Bank, 2016a; The World Bank, 2016b) and the START in the Global Terrorism Database (GTD) (START, 2013).

Correlational designs provide investigators with an opportunity to predict scores and describe relationships among variables (Creswell, 2012). I used correlation statistical tests in this study to describe and evaluate the degree of relationship or association between the six predictors and the criterion. Where an association emerged between variables, I made an attempt to determine its strength and direction. As “Correlation does not necessarily imply causality” (Bennett, Briggs, & Triola, 2009, p.303), there was no manipulation of data in the study.

Research Questions

Previous studies have suggested that socioeconomic deprivation (Gries & Krieger, 2011) makes individuals dwelling in failing states more vulnerable to the influence of internationally sponsored terrorist organizations (Howard, 2010). Failed states are fertile

grounds for breeding terrorists (Howard, 2010). Ineffective leadership due to political instability or fragility can incite terrorism (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011).

The first and second research questions provided a basis to investigate the strength of possible correlation between the dependent variable, terrorist incidents, and two independent variables: political stability and economic growth. The third question helped determine whether there is a difference among countries.

RQ₁: How does political stability decrease terrorist incidents?

RQ₂: How does economic growth reduce terrorist incidents?

RQ₃: Is there a difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors?

Hypotheses

Hypotheses are propositions developed for empirical testing (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). In this quantitative study, I used hypotheses to make a prediction about the outcome of relationships among the variables mentioned previously (Creswell, 2012). The hypotheses for the study reflected the quantitative correlational design of the research. The null and alternative hypotheses are as follows:

*H*₁₀: Political stability does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

*H*₁₁: Political stability significantly predicts terrorist incidents.

*H*₂₀: Economic growth does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

*H*₂₁: Economic growth significantly predicts terrorist incidents.

*H*₃₀: There is no significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

H3₁: There is a significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

The hypotheses mentioned previously allowed me to make predictions associated with variables. The null hypotheses helped to make predictions of either the existence of a relationship between predictor variables and the criterion, or the absence of relationship between a group of predictors and a criterion respectively. In this correlational study, the statistical rejection of the null hypothesis suggested a relationship between the predictor variable and the response variable.

Threats to Validity

Internal Validity

The nature of this study could present internal threats to validity. Internal validity refers to the verification within a research study that validates the effectiveness of a research design at ensuring that the conclusions drawn about cause-and-effect and other associations within the data are correct (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Thus, internal validity is a crucial aspect of social research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Potential threats to internal validity were therefore an area of concern in the present study.

The primary threat to internal validity for this study could be the risk of bias due to the selection of secondary data. The potential inclusion for the inadvertent introduction of bias in a research study could place the integrity of the results into question (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010) and was thus a crucial consideration in the study. By using secondary data in this study, I expected to minimize or avoid bias in data responses and measurement errors.

External Validity

If not addressed in an efficient manner, internal threats limit the generalizability of the study—external validity. External validity refers to “the extent to which the conclusions drawn can be generalized to other contexts” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010, p. 99). External validity is the ability of the study’s outcomes to apply to other contexts (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

Because I used secondary data in this study, the main threat to external validity relates to the risk of the conclusions formed from the selected secondary panel data, and not knowing the way those data were collected. It is critical that both types of threat be clearly communicated to those who will use findings from the study (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, pp. 96-103). Potential consumers of the research discoveries include scholarly practitioners, policymakers, and social change agents who will use findings from the study.

Ethical Procedures

It is critical to ensure that the expected benefits of the research study outweigh any potential risks, particularly risks to human participants. Because I used secondary data in this study, there was no risk to human participants. Therefore, there are no foreseeable risks to any person.

Research data remain the property of those who collected and made them publicly available. Data were not altered for any reason. In addition, as I have roots in the DRC, there was a risk of having a preconceived perception of the topic being investigated. Such personal biases have the potential to affect the interpretation of the study’s findings and

recommendations. Not only I made an effort to distance myself from the study, but I also strived to stick to the study discoveries and avoid manipulating results.

Secondary Research Data

“Among the most prevalent methods for obtaining data in the social sciences are those known as unobtrusive measures” (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 287). Those techniques of gathering research data offer several benefits such as minimizing researcher’s bias as there is no interaction between the researcher and the participants. In this study, instead of using primary data, I used an unobtrusive measure. All secondary data on the DRC and six neighboring countries—utilized in the study—are collected or compiled by two reputable organizations.

Three main factors justified the use of secondary data in the study. First, from the conceptual-substantive viewpoint, secondary data are more appropriate than primary data for this research problem (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). To investigate the correlation between independent variables and the dependent variable in the study, I needed to use longitudinal data. Second, if reliable and accurate, the use of secondary data allows for replication that increases the credibility of research findings (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The quality of research data has a bearing on the credibility, believability, or validity of results. Third, secondary data are not as expensive to obtain as are primary data (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

To better answer the research questions, I used longitudinal secondary data obtained from two reliable sources: (a) the World Bank and (b) the START,

headquartered at the University of Maryland. The data used in this study are publicly available on these two organizations' official websites.

The World Bank website provided me with longitudinal data—independent variables—on the economic and political indicators of the DRC and the six neighboring countries (The World Bank, 2016a; The World Bank, 2016b). I used real GDP for the economic indicator. In addition, the World Bank website provided me with Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI). The World Bank website provides WGI for the six dimensions of governance (The World Bank, 2016b). For this study, I used the following five dimensions of the governance: (a) political stability and absence of violence, (b) control of corruption, (c) government effectiveness, (d) regulatory quality, and (e) voice and accountability.

For the dependent variable, I used the indicator—terrorist incidents—provided by the START in the GTD. START “is a university-based research and education center comprised of an international network of scholars committed to the scientific study of the causes and human consequences of terrorism in the United States and around the world” (START, 2013, para. 1). The GTD contains data on over 140,000 terrorist incidents across the globe (START, 2013).

Geographic Location and Population

In this study, I used the secondary data on the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and six neighboring countries: Angola, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania, and Zambia. The DRC is a vast country with enormous natural resources (The World Bank,

2014). The DRC is located in central Africa; nine countries border this country. Since 1996, the DRC has been entangled in a cycle of violence.

Sampling Strategy

A sample, as it relates to research studies, is a segment of the target population that the researcher intends to study in the hope of generalizing about the target population (Creswell, 2012). For this study, I used data spanning thirteen years—from 2002 through 2014. For each year, I investigated the relationship between the criterion, terrorist incidents, and the following predictors: (a) political stability, (b) economic growth, (c) control of corruption, (d) government effectiveness, (e) regulatory quality, and (f) voice and accountability.

Sample Size

As “[P]ower is the likelihood of recognizing when a true difference exists” (Sheperis, n.d., p. 1), it is closely related to Type II error. The more power that investigators have in the research study, the less chance there is that they “would fail to reject the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis should in fact be rejected” (Sheperis, n.d., p. 1). A correct sample size would reduce the probability of making a Type II error.

One of the crucial steps in this research study was to estimate the correct sample size. There is a relationship between power and sample size. The higher the statistical power increases, the larger the sample size. Determining the right size of the sample for this study requires determining the accuracy needed when deciding to reject or accept the null hypothesis.

I collected secondary data on the DRC and six neighboring countries. Data collected for the study spanned thirteen years. For each year, there were seven observations relating to the seven variables used in the study. I used the sample size of 91 observations. For either one predictor or seven predictors, G*Power estimated a sample size of 89, with an effect size of 0.15.

Operationalization of Variables

In research, operationalization is a process by which an investigator defines concepts by describing how they are measured (Hagan, 2010). Through the operationalization process, researchers find a measurable, quantifiable, and rational index for all predictor and criterion variables. Hagan (2010) defines a variable as a concept that has been operationalized. In this section, I operationalized of all seven variables used in the present study.

Terrorist Incidents

The criterion, terrorist incidents, is a count of terrorist events occurring in both the same geographic and temporal place. Those events are recorded in the GTD (START, 2013). For each country which was part of this study, I counted all terrorist acts that occurred during each year.

Political Stability

The definition of the independent variable, political stability, into a measurable factor, is provided in the WGI dataset. The WGI dataset summarizes the opinions provided by a vast number of enterprise, citizen and expert survey respondents in developing and industrial countries on the quality of governance (The World Bank,

2014). For this variable, I used the estimate of governance performance indicator. The indicator ranges from -2.5 to 2.5, where -2.5 means weak, and 2.5 means strong.

Economic Growth

As I mentioned earlier, the macroeconomic indicator used for this variable, economic growth, was the real GDP. The World Bank provides this indicator on its website (The World Bank, 2014). For each country under investigation, I used the growth of the *real GDP* during the thirteen years examined in the study.

Control of Corruption

The definition of the independent variable, control of corruption, into measurable factor is provided in the WGI dataset. The WGI dataset summarizes the views provided by a vast number of enterprise, citizen and expert survey respondents in developing and industrial countries on the quality of governance (The World Bank, 2014). For this variable, I used the estimate of governance performance indicator. The indicator ranges from -2.5 to 2.5, where -2.5 means weak, and 2.5 means strong.

Government Effectiveness

The definition of the independent variable, government effectiveness, into measurable factor, is provided in the WGI dataset. The WGI dataset summarizes the opinions provided by a vast number of enterprise, citizen and expert survey respondents in developing and industrial countries on the quality of governance (The World Bank, 2014). For this variable, I used the estimate of governance performance indicator. The indicator ranges from -2.5 to 2.5, where -2.5 means weak, and 2.5 means strong.

Regulatory Quality

The definition of the independent variable, regulatory quality, into measurable factor, is provided in the WGI dataset. The WGI dataset summarizes the opinions provided by a vast number of enterprise, citizen and expert survey respondents in developing and industrial countries on the quality of governance (The World Bank, 2014). For this variable, I used the estimate of governance performance indicator. The indicator ranges from -2.5 to 2.5, where -2.5 means weak, and 2.5 means strong.

Research Data Analysis

Overview

This study was an attempt to examine whether a correlation existed between the dependent variable—terrorist incidents—and the explanatory variables: political stability and economic growth. Because the study required the analysis of longitudinal data, I used a linear regression analysis to assess the degree and extent of the correlation. I conducted a linear regression analysis to make prediction among variables.

I ran a linear regression analysis to answer the research questions of the study. I examined the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. Linear regression analysis allowed me to answer the regression question. The fundamental concepts of regression and correlation are similar. Their difference lies in the kinds of research questions for which they are suitable (Orris, 2007). Generally, correlation analysis is conducted first; and the regression analysis is then carried out in the event of a relatively strong linear correlation between variables (Orris, 2007).

I used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 23 (SPSS 23) to perform two statistical analyses needed in the study: descriptive and inferential. The descriptive statistics was appropriate for frequency distribution, central tendency, univariate analysis, correlation analysis, and linear regression analysis. I used inferential statistics to test the three hypotheses of the study (Neuman, 2006).

The final step in data analysis, as described by Creswell (2012), consisted of presenting the descriptive results in a report. I used tables to present the results of the detailed descriptive statistical analyses. For inferential statistics, I used scatter plots to display the correlation between terrorist incidents and the independent variables of the study: political stability and economic growth.

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic statistics. The secondary data used in the study are presented in narrative and graphic format. I used descriptive statistics to summarize data at a glance with a percentage frequency. I used figures and tables to display these statistics.

Frequency distribution and graphing. Neuman (2006) defines frequency distribution as a “table that shows the distribution of cases into the categories of one variable, that is, the number or percent of cases in each category” (p. 347). I used frequency distributions to show the count of cases detected at each score value or within each interval of score values in a group of the scores.

Central tendency. In this study, I used SPSS 23 to calculate the following central tendency measures: mean and standard deviation.

Univariate analysis. Mean, median, and mode are central tendency measures used to summarize the information relating to one variable into a single numerical value (Neuman, 2006). I computed mean and standard deviation for each variable.

Inferential Statistics

Hypothesis testing. Hypotheses are propositions developed for empirical testing (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). In this quantitative study, hypotheses testing allowed me to make predictions about the outcomes of associations among variables (Creswell, 2012). I used inferential statistics in the study to answer research questions.

Decision error. As the decision to either reject or accept the hypothesis is based on an educated guess, two types of error may occur. The first type of error is the decision to reject the null hypothesis when it is indeed true. The second type of error consists of the acceptance of null hypothesis when it is indeed false.

A good statistical test “of a hypothesis ought to reject a null hypothesis when it is false” (Aaker, Kumar, & Day, 2007, p. 458). The power of a statistical test of a null hypothesis refers to the likelihood that the test will lead to the statistical rejection of the null hypothesis when it is indeed false (Aaker et al., 2007). Although the power of a statistical test cannot be calculated with precision, the probability gets bigger as the significant level represented by α , grows, and as the sample size increases (Aaker et al. 2007).

I made efforts to reduce decision errors in this study. First, I counted on the reliability of the research data. Second, hypothesis tests were performed at a significant level of 0.05 rather than 0.10. “A 95 percent confidence level is often used because it is a

reasonable compromise between confidence and precision” (Doane & Seward, 2009, p. 316). Third, I used a greater sample size, 91 cases instead of 89 cases previously proposed.

Summary

In this chapter, I provided the research design and the appropriateness of the research design. One of the main characteristics of quantitative research is to explain or predict associations among variables (Creswell, 2012). I used a quantitative correlational design in the study as it is the most appropriate choice for exploring and explaining relationships among variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to investigate the relationship between a dependent variable, terrorist incidents, and the independent variables: political stability and economic growth in the DRC.

I provided the detailed discussion on the population and the source of research data. In this chapter, I described the concepts of internal and external validity. I discussed the identification and appropriateness of data analysis.

In Chapter 4, I present the research findings and data analysis of the relationship between the dependent with the independent variables. I provide the results of data collection. I outline the process used for reviewing and analyzing the data.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine whether a correlation existed between (a) terrorist incidents and (b) political stability and economic growth in the DRC. I conducted the investigation using descriptive and linear inferential data analyses using SPSS 23. In Chapter 3, I provided the details regarding the appropriateness of the research design, and the source of data used in the study, as well as the validity and reliability of research data.

I conducted this quantitative study to answer the following research questions:

RQ₁: How does political stability decrease terrorist incidents?

RQ₂: How does economic growth reduce terrorist incidents?

RQ₃: Is there a difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors?

Hypotheses are propositions developed for empirical testing (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). In this quantitative study, I used hypotheses to make a prediction about the outcome of the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2012). This study's hypotheses reflected the quantitative correlational design of the research. The null and alternative hypotheses are as follows:

Hypotheses

H_{10} : Political stability does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

H_{11} : Political stability significantly predicts terrorist incidents.

H_{20} : Economic growth does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

H2₁: Economic growth significantly predicts terrorist incidents.

H3₀: There is no significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

H3₁: There is a significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

In Chapter 4, I provide a complete analysis of the present research study, describing data collection, data treatment, findings, including descriptive and inferential statistics, and a summary.

Data Collection

I used secondary data in the present study. Those data are available to the public. However, I did not access those data until IRB approval was received on March 23, 2016. Following IRB approval #03-23-16-0474515, I collected research data and I entered them into SPSS 23 from March 23, 2015, through March 30, 2016. As errors made during the capture of data into a computer system have the potential to threaten measures validity and generate false results (Neuman, 2006), I paid careful attention during data recording into SPSS 23.

I collected data on the DRC and six neighboring countries, shown in Appendix A, from two reputable organizations. Those organizations include the World Bank and the START. All research data about the DRC and the six neighboring countries are public and available on these two organizations' websites. The original files collected from the websites contained 133 cases. After data cleaning, the file used in the study included 91 discrete cases.

Data Cleaning

The production of WGI started in 1996. WGI were first published once every two years. WGI about the year 1997, the year 1999, and the year 2001 were thus missing in the files obtained. From 2002, WGI have been published yearly. The data used in the present study comprise WGI, real GDP, and terrorist incidents for the period starting in 2002 through 2014. After cleaning, the data file used in the study includes 91 discrete cases, which are greater than 89 cases previously proposed.

Data Treatment

The data used in the study were longitudinal. Although the research data were panel data, I used a model that some might consider *naive* because it did not account for the effect of time. However, diagnostics did not raise any concerns about the correlation of observational errors. Not accounting for the effect of time is a possible limitation of this study.

As multiple linear analysis used in the study required observed response, terrorist incidents, and contemporaneous values of the predictors, efforts were made to use valid cases. I removed cases that had missing data from the file. Valid cases used in the study span 13 years.

Statistical Results

Overview

The intended statistical analysis testing described in the proposal was a linear multiple regression analysis using longitudinal data. In the study, I used two kinds of statistics in the data analysis of this study. First, I used descriptive statistics to explain

basic patterns in research data (Neuman, 2006). Second, I used inferential statistics to test hypotheses (Neuman, 2006). The final step in this data analysis was to present the results in a report. I used text and tables to display the results of the detailed descriptive and inferential statistical analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

I used descriptive statistics to summarize research data at a glance with a percentage frequency. The sample used for this study consisted of 91 longitudinal cases on seven sub-Saharan countries, as shown in Table 1. The sample comprises thirteen cases on the DRC. There are also thirteen cases on each of the six neighboring countries used in the study.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Mean	SD	95 % CI		Sample size
			LL	UL	
Terrorist incidents	6.15	13.954	3.25	9.06	91
Political stability	-0.8845	0.85327	-1.0622	-0.7068	91
Real GDP	6.970	3.4854	6.244	7.696	91
Control of corruption	-0.8271	0.51765	-0.9349	-0.7193	91
Government effectiveness	-0.8537	0.51543	-0.9611	-0.7464	91
Regulatory quality	-0.7368	0.49215	-0.8393	-0.6343	91
Voice and accountability	-0.8845	0.85327	-0.9417	0-.7412	91

Note. SD = standard deviation, CI = confidence interval, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, GDP = gross domestic product.

Table 2 provides a frequency of the countries represented in the analysis.

Table 2

Cases by Country

Countries	<i>N</i>	%
The Democratic Republic of the Congo	13	14.286
Angola	13	14.286
Burundi	13	14.286
Rwanda	13	14.286
Uganda	13	14.286
Tanzania	13	14.286
Zambia	13	14.286

Note. N = count of cases.

Assumptions

Some assumptions needed to be satisfied prior to using a multiple regression in the study. I discussed linear regression assumptions in this section. Those assumptions included: (a) multicollinearity, (b) serial correlation, (c) normality of the error distribution, (d) linearity of the relationship between dependent and predictor variables, (e) homoscedasticity of the errors, and (f) homogeneity of variances.

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity is a situation in which two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression model have a strong correlation. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is the most widely-used diagnostic for multicollinearity. As shown in Table 3, all VIFs were less than 10. Therefore, multicollinearity was not violated.

Table 3

Variance Inflation Factor Results

Variable	VIF
Political stability	2.532
Real GDP	1.093
Control of corruption	2.929
Government effectiveness	5.305
Regulatory quality	5.372
Voice and accountability	2.586

Note. VIF = variance inflation factor, GDP = gross domestic product.

Serial correlation. Serial correlation, also referred to as autocorrelation, is a relationship that exists between a given variable and itself over different time intervals. As the use of longitudinal data required to check for serial correlation, I used the Durbin-Watson for this purpose. A Durbin-Watson value between 1.5 and 2.5 means the absence of meaningful autocorrelation. The model used in the study had Durbin-Watson of 1.87, which indicates no serial correlation.

Normality. “The dependent and independent variables in a regression model do not need to be normally distributed by themselves—only the prediction errors need to be normally distributed” (Nau, 2016, para. 27). However, testing the normality of residuals in a simple or multiple regression is not required if the sample is large. With a sample of ninety-one cases used in this study, satisfying normality assumptions was not a requirement.

Linearity and additivity. Fitting a linear model to data which are not linearly and additively related will likely to cause erroneous predictions when extrapolations are made beyond the range of the sample used. The Test for Linearity in SPSS 23 was used to check linearity for each variable. Linearity results, shown in Table 4, indicated that both predictor variables of interest and two control predictors had significance values greater than .05. A significance of the deviation from linearity greater than .05 suggests a linear relationship between the predictor and the criterion. Table 4 results indicated linearity between the criterion—terrorist incidents—and the following predictors: (a) political stability, (b) real GDP, (c) government effectiveness, and (d) voice and accountability.

Two control predictors did, however, deviate from linearity as their significance was less than .05. Those predictors were control of corruption and regulatory quality. I sought to determine whether those two variables had any effect on the model. I removed them from the model and fitted the model. I compared the two models and saw no effect as there was no change in coefficients significance. As the two control variables deviation from linearity had no effect on the model, I concluded that the linearity assumption was not violated in this study.

Table 4

Deviation from Linearity Results

Variable	Sig
Political stability	1.000
Real GDP	.998
Control of corruption	.009
Government effectiveness	.996
Regulatory quality	.000
Voice and accountability	1.000

Note. Sig = Significance of the deviation from linearity, GDP = gross domestic product.

Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity is the property of having equal statistical variances. Violations of homoscedasticity make it difficult to measure the actual standard deviation of the forecast errors. Such situations usually result in confidence intervals that are either too wide or too narrow. The problem is that the variance of errors that is increasing over time tends to make confidence intervals for out-of-sample predictions to be unrealistically narrow.

I checked the homoscedasticity assumption. There was no consistent relationship between Regression Standardized Residual and Regression Standardized Predicted Value, as shown in Figure 1. Figure 1, however, indicated a very mild heteroscedasticity. As McKean and Sheather (2012) argued that a mild heteroscedasticity had no effect on the robustness of test procedures, I chose to proceed with the linear regression analysis.

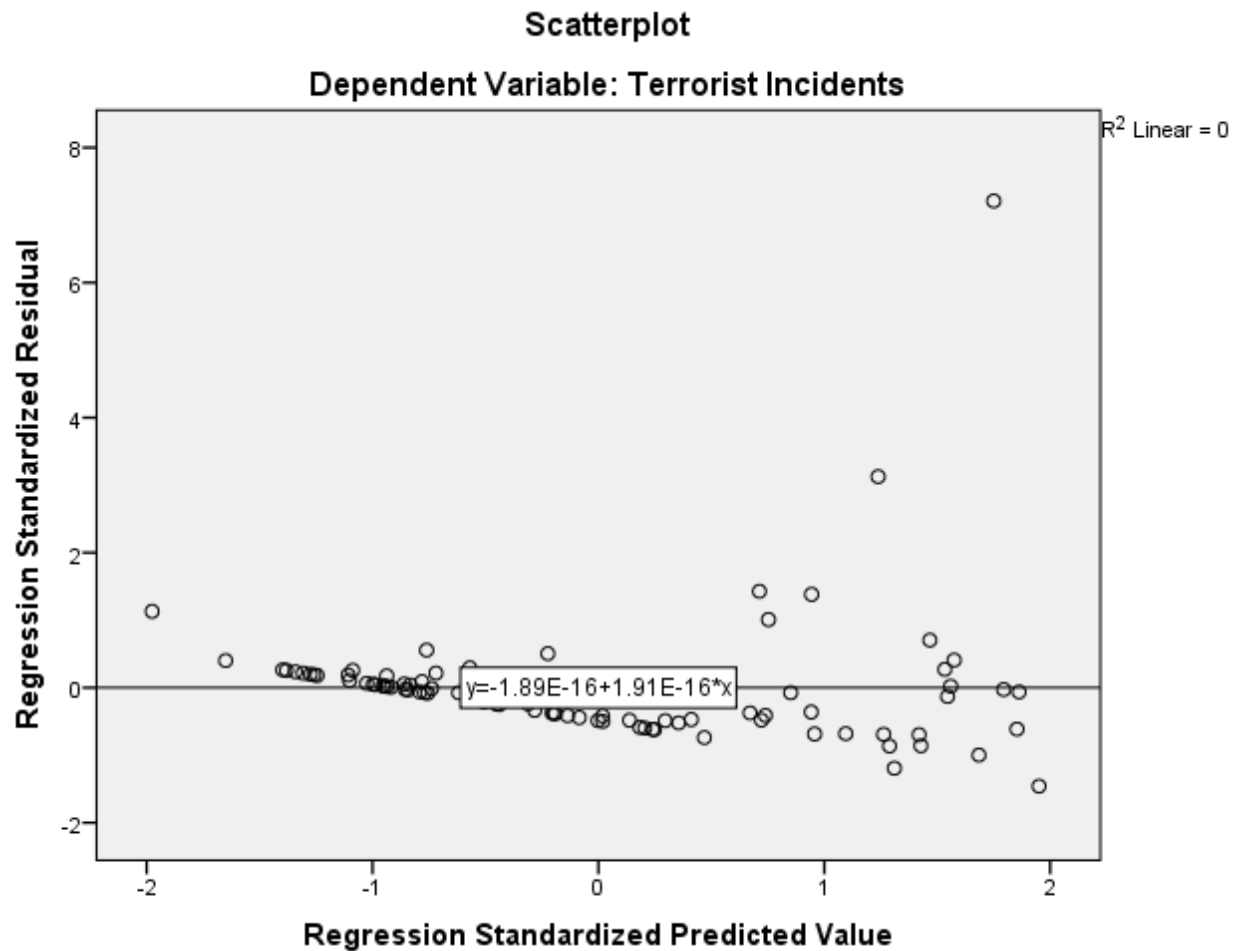


Figure 1. Plot of observed versus predicted values.

Homogeneity of variance. The homogeneity assumption of variance is that the difference within each of the groups under investigation is equal. This assumption is relevant in one-way ANOVA. In this study, the Levene's Test was used to test this assumption. I used the Levene's test to assess whether the countries under investigation had equal variances. For the assumption of equality of variances to be satisfied, this test should not be significant. As the analysis of data revealed that the test was significant, the

assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated. However, *Welch* and *Brown-Forsythe* tests run further down allowed me to proceed with the analysis.

Data Analysis

Overview. The purpose of using inferential statistics was to test null hypotheses to address research questions. The first research question was to determine how political stability decreases terrorist incidents. The second research question was to discover how economic growth reduces terrorist incidents. As the third research question was to determine whether a significant difference in terrorist acts incidence existed between the DRC and the six neighboring countries. One-way ANOVA—the result of the post hoc *Games-Howell*—was used to answer the question.

In the present section, I first analyzed data to determine whether a correlation existed between the dependent variable and the six independent variables. The independent variables include (a) political stability, (b) control of corruption, (c) government effectiveness, (d) regulatory quality, (e) voice and accountability, and (f) real GDP. Second, I performed a multiple linear regression analysis to make predictions. Third, I ran a one-way ANOVA to determine whether there was a difference among countries. In other words, I conducted a one-way ANOVA to determine how much country was responsible for what was observed in terrorist acts incidence. Based on the results of these analyses, I was able to draw a conclusion regarding null hypotheses.

Correlation. A correlation analysis or correlation coefficient is used to assess the strength of the association between two or more variables (Bennett, Briggs, & Triola, 2009). The correlation coefficient—denoted by r —ranges from negative 1 and positive 1.

The stronger the positive linear relationship between the two variables under study, the closer r , is to its maximum value of +1. The stronger the negative linear association between the two variables, the closer r , is to its minimum value of -1. A value of equal to zero suggests the absence of a linear relationship between the two variables. It should be noted that since the correlation coefficient measures only the strength of the linear relationship between the two variables, those variables may have a correlation coefficient of approximately zero but still have a strong relationship.

I calculated a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to determine the relationship between terrorist incidents and political stability. Data analysis indicated a negative correlation between the two variables, $r =$ was $-.473$, $n = 91$, $p = .000$. A scatterplot summarizes the results (Figure 2). In summary, there was a moderate, negative correlation between terrorist incidents and political stability. Increases in political stability were correlated with decreases in terrorist incidents.

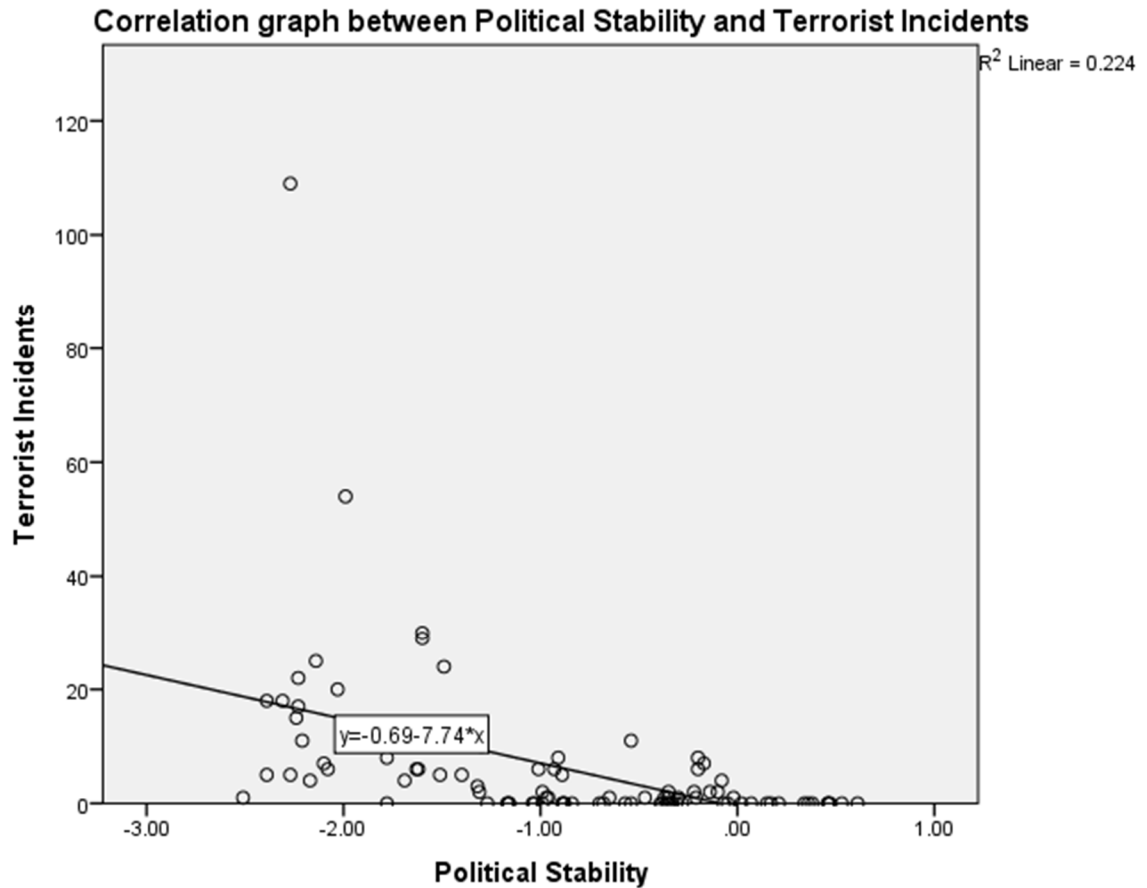


Figure 2. Correlation graph between political stability and terrorist incidents.

I also computed a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to evaluate the relationship between terrorist incidents and real GDP. There was no correlation between the two variables, r was $-.062$, $n = 91$, $p = .280$. A scatterplot summarizes the results (Figure 3). In short, there was no correlation between terrorist incidents and real GDP. Increases in real GDP were not correlated with change in terrorist incidents.

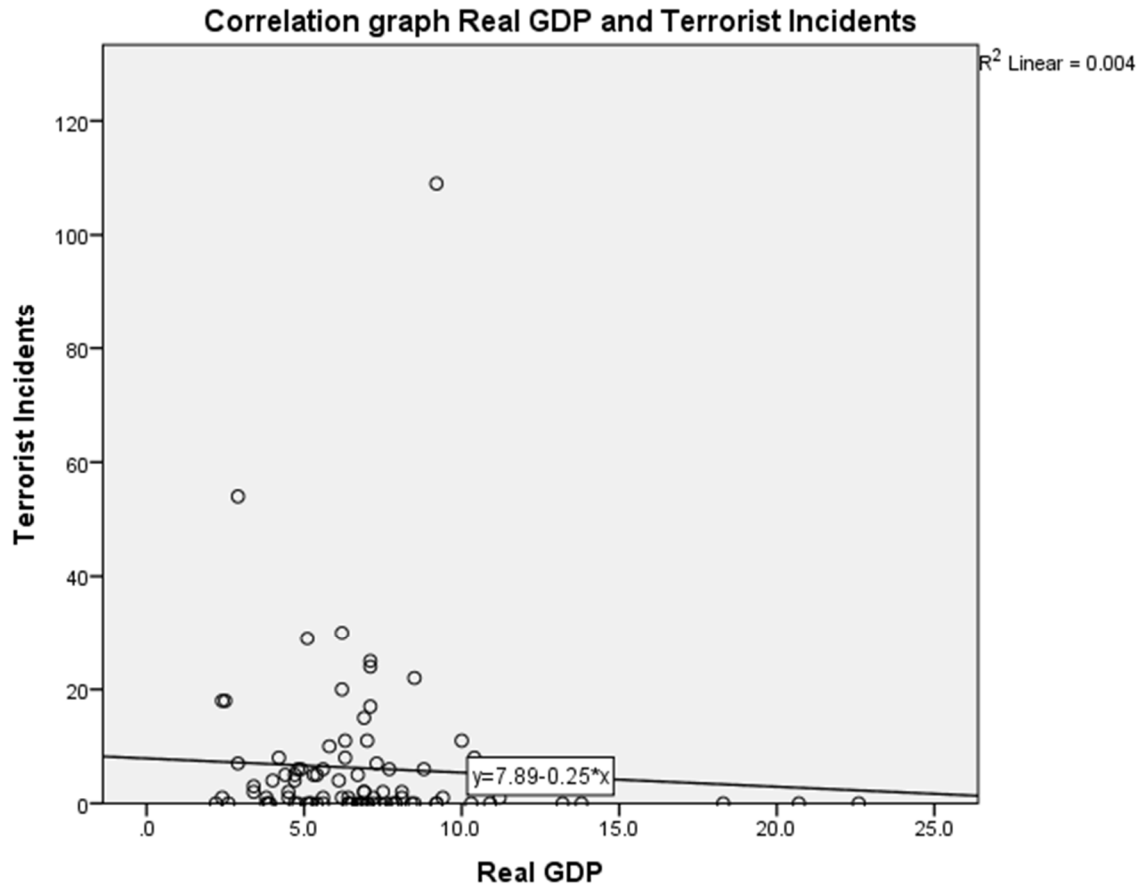


Figure 3. Correlation graph between real GDP and terrorist incidents.

Linear regression analysis. The fundamental ideas that underlie regression and correlation analysis are somewhat similar. The differences between the two lie in the kinds of research questions for which they are deemed suitable (Orris, 2007). Researchers first conduct correlation analysis. They then perform the regression analysis to further their insight into the relationship between two variables and make predictions. Taking an observed value of a variable to estimate or predict corresponding values of another variable is referred to as *simple prediction* (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). A multiple regression helps predict the values of one dependent variable from the values of two or

more independent variables. In this study, I ran a multiple regression analysis as there were six predictors.

Creswell (2012) explained that “In correlational research, the r squared expresses the magnitude of the association between the two variables or sets and represents the effect size” (p. 348). Cohen (1988) proposed the following rules for explaining the effect size. An r squared (R^2) of .01 is considered as small, an R^2 of .09 is considered as medium, and R^2 of .25 is considered as large (Cohen, 1988).

Naïve model. The naïve model ignores country specific effects and time effects. Country is tested separately to account for variance it explains. Concerning time, diagnostics discussed further down did not indicate serial correlation. The effect of time is, however, a limitation of this study.

This analysis comprises two models: Model 1 and Model 2. In Table 5, I first provide data relating to Model 1 in Step 1. I then provide data relating to Model 2 in Step 2.

Step 1. Model 1 includes the following predictors of interest: political stability and real GDP. As shown in Table 5, Model 1 shows a multiple correlation coefficient (β) of -.47 between the two predictors of interest and the criterion: terrorist incidents. Model 1 suggests an R^2 of .224, which is the overall effect size. The effect size is deemed large. Model 1 explains .224 or 22.4% of the variance in terrorist incidents. It can be assumed that 77.6% of variance are explained by factors not included in the model.

The adjusted R^2 indicated how well the model generalizes. Ideally, both R^2 and adjusted R^2 should be the same or close to each other. In Model 1 of the present study, R^2

is greater than the adjusted R^2 . The difference between their values was .018 (.224 - .206), representing 1.8%. This difference means that if Model 1 were derived from the population, it would account for approximately 1.8% less variance in terrorist acts incidence than it did in this study.

Data in Table 5 indicate that political stability has a significant impact on Model 1 ability to predict terrorist incidents, $p = .000$. The significance of the t test on the regression coefficient is $p = .000$, suggesting that political stability significantly predicts terrorist incidents. The beta value is -.47, indicating a negative relationship between terrorist incidents and political stability. The interpretation is that the more politically stable a country becomes, terrorist incidents decrease.

As shown in Table 5, real GDP does not have a significant impact on Model 1 ability to predict terrorist incidents; $p = .907$. In addition, the beta value is extremely close to zero, .01. The results of the regression analysis mirrored those of the correlation analysis.

Step 2. Like Model 1, Model 2 ignores country specific effects and time effects. This model comprises six predictors. Those predictors include two predictors of interest: political stability and real GDP. The model also includes four control predictors: (a) control of corruption, (b) government effectiveness, (c) regulatory quality, and (d) voice and accountability. As shown in Table 5, the inclusion of the four control predictors in the model led to an increase of .013 in the coefficient of determination (R^2), ΔR^2 .013.

Model 2 shows an R^2 of .237, which is the overall effect size. The effect size is deemed large. The model explains .237 or 23.7% of the variance in terrorist incidents.

The interpretation is that 76.3% of the variance is explained by factors not included in this model.

Change in R^2 was not statistically significant $p = .492$, $p = .296$, $p = .482$, and $p = .763$. The four control variables did not add anything to the model as *political stability* remained the only significant predictor.

Data displayed in Table 5 indicate that political stability has a significant impact on Model 2 ability to predict terrorist incidents, $p = .001$. The significance of t test of the regression coefficient is $p = .001$, suggesting that political stability significantly predicts terrorist incidents. In addition, the beta value is $-.52$, indicating a negative relationship between terrorist incidents and political stability. Model 2 improves political stability ability to predict *terrorist incidents*. The interpretation is that the more politically stable a country becomes, terrorist incidents decrease, and vice versa.

As shown in Table 5, real GDP does not have a significant impact on Model 2 ability to predict terrorist incidents; $p = .810$. As with Model 1, the level of significance of this independent variable being close to 1 suggests that it has virtually no effect on the model. In addition, the beta value is extremely close to zero, $.02$. This predictor was not significant at $p < .05$. The results of the regression analysis mirrored those of the correlation analysis.

As shown in Table 5, Control of Corruption does not have a significant effect on Model 2 ability to predict terrorist incidents; $p = .492$. The significance of t test of the regression coefficient is $.492$ suggesting a lack of relationship. Although the beta value is

.11 showing some degree of relationship, the relationship is not significant at $p < .05$. The results of the regression analysis mirrored those of the correlation analysis.

Government Effectiveness does not have a significant impact on Model 2 ability to predict terrorist incidents; $p = .296$. The significance of t test of the regression coefficient is .296 suggesting that it has no effect on the model. Although the beta value is -.23 showing some degree of relationship, the relationship is not significant at $p < .05$. The results of the regression analysis mirrored those of the correlation analysis.

Regulatory quality does not have a significant impact on Model 2 ability to predict terrorist incidents; $p = .482$. The significance of t test of the regression coefficient is .482 suggesting that it has no effect on the model. Although the beta value is .16 showing some degree of relationship, the relationship is not significant at $p < .05$. The results of the regression analysis mirrored those of the correlation analysis.

The Voice and accountability dimension of the governance does not have a significant effect on Model 2 ability to predict terrorist incidents; $p = .763$. The significance of t test of the regression coefficient is .763 suggesting that it has no impact on the model. In addition, the beta value is extremely close to zero, .046. This predictor was not significant at $p < .05$. The results of the regression analysis mirrored those of the correlation analysis.

Table 5

Linear model of predictors of terrorist incidents. 95% confidence intervals reported in parentheses

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
Constant	-1.02 (-7.85, 5.79)	3.43		<i>P</i> = .766
Political Stability	-7.76 (-10.85, -4.67)	1.55	-.47	<i>P</i> = .000
Real GDP	.045 (-.71, .80)	.38	.01	<i>P</i> = .907
Model 2				
Constant	-.469 (-8.71, 7.77)	4.14		<i>P</i> = .910
Political Stability	-8.50 (-13.43, -3.57)	2.48	-.52	<i>P</i> = .001
Real GDP	.096 (-.70, .89)	.40	.02	<i>P</i> = .810
Control of Corruption	3.03 (-5.71, 11.78)	4.40	.11	<i>P</i> = .492
Government Effectiveness	-6.252 (-18.07, 5.57)	5.94	-.23	<i>P</i> = .296
Regulatory Quality	4.43 (-8.03, 16.88)	6.26	.16	<i>P</i> = .482
Voice and Accountability	1.34 (-7.49, 10.18)	4.44	.05	<i>p</i> = .763

Note. $R^2 = .224$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 .013$ for Step 2 ($p < .05$).

The results of ANOVA, as shown in Table 6, indicate that for Model 1, the F-ratio is 12.69 ($p < .001$). The first model was statistically significant at $p < .05$ level for both predictors ($F(2,88) = 12.690, p = .000$). Table 6 suggests that Model 2 was statistically significant for all six predictors ($F(6,84) = 4.35, p < .001$). The value of F has decreased from Model 1 to Model 2. The interpretation of these results is that Model 2 significantly improves the ability to predict terrorist acts incidence.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance

Model	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
1					
Regression	3922.73	2	1961.37	12.69	.000
Residual	13601.11	88	154.558		
Total	17523.85	90			
2					
Regression	4152.22	6	692.04	4.35	.001
Residual	13371.62	84	159.19		
Total	17523.846	90			

Note. N=1, Significance at the $p < 0.05$ level.

One-way ANOVA. One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) helps examine variability in scores when studying two or more groups (Aron, Aron, & Coups, 2009; Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011). One-way ANOVA is usually used to test for significant differences between means (Lund & Lund, 2013).

In the study, I used one-way ANOVA to separate any possible effect of the country by determining whether differences existed among countries. As shown in Table

7, at the $p < .05$ level, there was a statistically significant difference between countries as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(6,84) = 5.815, p = .000$).

Effect size is a crucial concept because it helps determine the strength of the conclusion about the difference between groups (Creswell, 2012). For the analysis of variances, the effect size, η^2 , is gauged using the proportion of the variance due to the variable under study (Creswell, 2012). The analysis of data suggested a partial eta squared of .293, shown in Table 7.

Cohen (1988) proposed the following rules for explaining the effect size when using ANOVA. An η^2 of 0.01 is considered as small; an η^2 of 0.059 is considered as medium, and an η^2 of 0.138 is considered as large (Cohen, 1988). With the partial eta squared of .293, it can be assumed that the effect size is very large. It also means that 29.3% of the variance in the terrorist incidents can be accounted for by the country.

Table 7

One-Way Analysis of Variance

Model	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Between Groups	5142.77	6	857.13	5.815	.000
Within Groups	12381.08	84	147.39		
Total	17523.85	90			

Note. Eta Squared = .293

Post Hoc Test. One-way ANOVA does not tell which mean scores of the groups are significantly bigger than others (Vogt, 2007). The results presented in Table 7 indicated that there was a significant overall difference in means. The overall one-way ANOVA result was significant, yielding significant differences among countries, $F(6,84)$

= 5.815, $p = .000$. However, results did not indicate where those differences occurred.

Post hoc analyses were needed given the statistically significant omnibus F test.

As the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, I ran two more robust tests of equality of means: *Welch* and *Brown-Forsythe* tests. The results of these two robust tests of equality of means were significant; $p = .000$ and $p = .002$ respectively, as shown in Table 8. The significance of these two tests allowed me to proceed with one-way ANOVA.

Table 8

Robust tests of equality of means

Test	Statistic	df1	df2	Sig
Welch	5.802	6	32.471	.000
Brown-Forsythe	5.815	6	17.455	.002

Note. df = degree of freedom

In my attempt to answer Research Question 3, I first ran the Turkey HSD test. The result of this test was significant suggesting a difference between the DRC and its neighboring countries. Because the homogeneity of variances assumption was violated in this study, I ran the *Games-Howell* post hoc test to adjust for unequal variances.

I conducted the *Games-Howell* post hoc test to find out whether the DRC was different from other nations under investigation. The output of the *Games-Howell* test, displayed in Table 9, shows that this test was not significant. At the $p < .05$ level, the results of the study suggested that there was not a significant difference between the DRC and the six neighboring countries.

Table 9

Countries mean differences

Country	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Rwanda	21.154	8.105	.204	-7.14	49.45
Uganda	15.538	8.499	.551	-13.32	44.39
Burundi	15.077	8.409	.572	-13.63	43.78
Tanzania	21.308	8.128	.200	-7.01	49.63
Angola	22.385	8.088	.161	-5.89	50.66
Zambia	23.000	8.074	.143	-5.26	51.26

Note: Mean: the difference in average of terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and each country during the period spanning between 2002 and 2014

Hypothesis Testing and Decision

Overview. Based on the results of the multiple linear regression in the naïve model and the results of the one-way ANOVA, I was able to answer the research questions. I used the regression coefficient (R) to determine the relationship between variables. I used the standardized coefficient (beta) to ascertain the direction of the relationship. As the coefficient of determination (R^2) showed the proportion of the variance in terrorist incidents that is predictable from the model, I used the R^2 computed in Step 1 and Step 2 of the naïve model to test Null Hypothesis 1 and Null Hypothesis 2.

The overall R^2 computed in Step 1 was .224 or 22.4%, indicating the proportion of the variance in terrorist incidents that is predictable from the naïve model in Step 1. The overall R^2 computed in Step 2 was .237 or 23.7%, indicating the proportion of the

variance in terrorist incidents that is predictable from the naïve model after the inclusion of control variables. I used the results of one-way ANOVA to test Null Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 1. The null hypothesis states: Political stability does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

I used the Beta, computed in the multiple linear analysis, to determine the relationship between political stability and terrorist incidents. In Step 1, the naïve model showed a beta of $-.475$ suggesting a negative correlation between political stability and terrorist incidents. This relationship was significant as the significance of t test was $.000$. The unstandardized beta was -7.763 . The interpretation is that for every one-unit increase in political stability, terrorist incidents will decrease by 7.763 units. The R^2 computed in the linear analysis was $.224$, suggesting that political stability predicted 22.4% of variances in terrorist acts incidents.

In Step 2, the naïve model showed a beta of $-.520$ indicating a negative relationship between political stability and terrorist incidents. This relationship was significant as the significance of t test was $.001$. The unstandardized Beta was -8.498 . The interpretation is that for every one-unit increase in political stability, terrorist incidents will decrease by 8.498 units. The R^2 computed in the linear analysis was $.237$, suggesting that political stability and the control independent variables predicted 23.7% of variances in terrorist acts incidents.

These results led to the conclusion: Political stability significantly predicts terrorist incidents.

Hypothesis 2. The null hypothesis states: Economic growth does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

I used the beta, computed in the multiple linear analysis, to determine the relationship between economic growth and terrorist incidents. In Step 1, the naïve model showed a beta of .011 which is close to zero suggesting a very weak relationship between the two. This relationship was not significant as the significance of t test was .907. The unstandardized beta was .045. The interpretation is that for every one-unit increase in economic growth, terrorist incidents will increase by .045 units. The R^2 computed in the linear analysis was .0004, suggesting real GDP had no effect on the model as 0% of variances in terrorist acts incidents were predicted by real GDP.

In Step 2, the naïve model showed a beta of .024 which is close to zero suggesting a very weak relationship between the two. This relationship was not significant as the significance of t test was .810. The unstandardized Beta was .096. The interpretation is that for every on-unit increase in economic growth, terrorist incidents will increase by .096 units. These results suggested that real GDP had no impact on the model as 0% of variances in terrorist acts incidents were predicted by real GDP.

These results led to the conclusion: Economic growth does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

Hypothesis 3. The null hypothesis states: There is no significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

The analysis of data suggested that country had an overall effect on terrorist incident. With the partial eta squared of .293, it can be assumed that the effect size is very

large. It also means that 29.3% of the variance in the terrorist acts incidence can be accounted for by the dummy variable country. However, at the $p < .05$ level, the results of the post hoc test, Games-Howell, suggested that there was not a significant difference between the DRC and the six neighboring countries.

These results led to the conclusion: There is no significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

Summary

This study was conducted to examine three main research questions about the antecedent conditions of terrorism in the DRC. First, the study was designed to examine the relationship between political instability and terrorist incidents. Second, the study helped examine the relationship between real GDP and terrorist incidents. Third, the study provided the opportunity to determine whether differences in terrorist acts occurrence existed between the DRC and the six neighboring countries.

The opportunity to investigate the degree, extent, and strength of the relationship between the criterion variable, terrorist incidents, and six predictor variables was realized in the study. I used a multiple linear regression analysis and one-way ANOVA in the study. I generated a linear naïve model with two steps. The first step included the two predictors of interest. The second step included both predictors of interest and four control predictors.

I used a naïve model to test Null Hypothesis 1 and Null Hypothesis 2. I used the regression coefficient to determine the relationship between variables. The standardized coefficient provided me with the information needed to ascertain the direction of the

relationship. As I used R^2 to interpret the proportion of the variance in terrorist incidents that was predictable from political stability and real GDP, I deemed this coefficient appropriate to test Null Hypothesis 1 and Null Hypothesis 2. Statistical support was found for Research Question 1. There was enough statistical support to reject the null hypothesis relating to Research Question 1. There was not enough statistical support to reject the null hypothesis relating to Research Question 2. The naïve model showed that political stability was the only significant predictor variable.

I used the results of the one-way ANOVA—and especially the results of the post hoc test, Games-Howell—to test Null Hypothesis 3. Discoveries did not suggest a significant difference between the DRC and the six neighboring countries in the emergence of terrorist incidents. There was not enough statistical support to reject the null hypothesis relating to Research Question 3. The study findings revealed that there was nothing unique about DRC compared to neighboring countries about terrorist acts incidence.

The final chapter provides a concise summary of the study purpose, methodology, key discoveries, and limitations. In the next section of the study, I suggest recommendations for further research. I present practical and scholarly applications of the research findings.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to investigate the precursors of terrorist acts in the DRC. I conducted this study to fill the gap in the literature on terrorism in the DRC. Although I proposed to use 89 longitudinal cases, I used a sample of 91 cases, which exceeded the previously proposed requirements for the confidence level of 95%.

I conducted descriptive statistics of data “to describe basic patterns in the data” (Neuman, 2006, p. 347). I used bivariate statistics to describe the relationship between the dependent variable, terrorist incidents, and six independent variables. Bivariate statistics provided Pearson coefficients used to assess the correlation between the criterion and predictor variables. Multiple linear regression analysis and one-way ANOVA provided information needed to test the null hypotheses and make an inferential decision.

The study provided the opportunity to understand the degree and strength of the relationships between the criterion, terrorist incidents, and the following predictors: (a) political stability, (b) control of corruption, (c) government effectiveness, (d) regulatory quality, (e) voice and accountability, and (f) real GDP in the DRC. The study discoveries furthered insights into the antecedent conditions of terrorism in this country.

The remainder of Chapter 5 covers a discussion of the results of data presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 contains five sections: (a) interpretation of the findings, (b) limitations of the study, (c) implications, (d) recommendations, and (d) conclusion. I

provide a discussion of hypotheses results in the interpretation of the findings section. In the limitations of the study section, I provide a description of the limitations to trustworthiness and generalizability, validity, and reliability that emerged from the execution of the study.

The recommendations section relates to the broader social significance of the present study and identifies areas for future research. The implications section deals with the broader significance and implications of the data analysis to three main groups: the DRC government, the international community, and the scientific community. I provide the takeaway message that captured the key essence of the study in the conclusion section.

Interpretation of the Findings

I tested three null hypotheses in this quantitative correlational study. I used the regression coefficient to determine the relationship between the criterion, terrorist incidents, and two predictors: political stability and economic growth. I used beta to determine the direction of the relationship. As I used the R^2 in Chapter 4 to interpret the proportion of the variance in terrorist incidents that was predictable from political stability and real GDP, I deemed this coefficient appropriate to test Null Hypothesis 1 and Null Hypothesis 2. There was enough statistical support to reject the null hypothesis relating to Research Question 1. There was not enough statistical support to reject the null hypothesis relating to Research Question 2. I used the results of the post hoc test, Games-Howell, to test Hypothesis 3. There was not enough statistical support to reject

the null hypothesis relating to Research Question 3. I discuss the study discoveries in the following subsections: Null Hypothesis 1, Null Hypothesis 2, and Null Hypothesis 3.

Null Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis 1 states: Political stability does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

A significant, but negative, correlation was observed between terrorist incidents and political stability. The analysis of data suggested two coefficients of determination of .224 and .237 for Step 1 and Step 2 respectively. These results led to the rejection of Null Hypothesis 1.

The statistical rejection of Null Hypothesis 1 is consistent with the view held by Atzili (2010), Findley and Young (2011), Howard (2010), Krieger and Meierriek (2011), Piazza (2013) about the potential of political and institutional systems instability to create fertile ground for terrorism. The rejection of Null Hypothesis 1 is also in accord with Kiskatos et al.'s (2011) opinion that the existence of failed states is among the factors that foment or foster terrorism. This finding supports the view held by Simpson (2014) who considers domestic terrorism as a reaction to corruption due to ineffectiveness and weakness of political institutions.

The study discoveries indicated that political stability explained 22.4% of the variance in terrorist incidents. This finding suggested that 77.6% of variance were explained by factors not included in the model. After the inclusion of control variables in the model, political stability explained 23.7% of the variance in terrorist incidents. This result suggested that 76.3% of variance were explained by factors not included in the

model. The interpretation is that political instability—political and institutional factors—alone could not explain the emergence of terrorism in the DRC. Other factors not included in the analysis, such as personal, cultural, social, and societal identities (Comas et al., 2014; Kruglanski et al., 2013; Simpson, 2014), play a role in the emergence of terrorism.

This finding provided support for the relative deprivation theory. Terrorism is a response to everyday issues that individuals face. The feeling of being politically deprived or marginalized can incite terrorism in the DRC. This argument is premised on relative deprivation being a central concept that provides a justification for social movements (Morrison, 1971). Collective feelings of political deprivation in the DRC has the potential to call for social change that inspires social movements. The way political authorities respond to such calls is crucial. A lack of effective response or a brutal response likely gives rise to social revolts that can escalate to political terrorism.

The statistical rejection of Null Hypothesis 1 was in accord with the relative deprivation theory. As terrorism results in affecting political and social stability, it plunges the target country into social anarchy and impedes economic growth. Such situations make countries, like the DRC, failed states as they can neither guarantee social justice nor meet basic socioeconomic demands of their populations. Failed states have a reputation for threatening the survival of their citizens who become vulnerable to terrorist networks' recruiters. Because people living in failed state are deprived, they tend to seek other solutions, like terrorism, to acquire real political and socioeconomic resources.

Null Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis 2 states: Economic growth does not significantly predict terrorist incidents.

The study results revealed the absence of a significant correlation between economic growth and terrorist acts incidence. The analysis of data suggested two coefficients of determination close to zero for both Step 1 and Step 2. The study discoveries indicated that economic growth—real GDP—explained 0% of the variance in terrorist incidents. This result led to the acceptance of the null hypothesis.

The statistical acceptance of Null Hypothesis 2 is not consistent with previous studies that suggested either a positive or negative relationship between economic growth and terrorism. As a case in point, the study finding did not support the view held by Bazzi and Blattman (2013) claiming that the increase in national revenues helps improve countries' capacity to combat insurgency and reduce dissidents' incentives to continue fighting in existing conflicts. This discovery is also at variance with the view held by Kumar and Liu (2013) that terrorism has a negative effect on economic growth. Kumar and Liu (2013) argued that there is a negative relationship between economic growth and terrorism because terrorism diminishes trust in the economy. The study finding is not consistent with the view held by Kis-Katos et al.'s (2011) that a growth of GDP per capita in some countries has the potential to result in domestic terrorism and social anarchy.

This discovery did not support the relative deprivation theory. Either sufficient or deficient economic activities did not seem to have a significance relationship with the

emergence of terrorism in the DRC. This finding implied that economic deprivation deriving from insufficient economic activities or economic marginalization cannot incite terrorism in the DRC. It is, however, evident that economic marginalization of some subgroups of a population can incite the use of violence. People who are economically deprived or economically marginalized use violence to express their grievances against national political and economic authorities or just to acquire necessary resources needed for their survival.

Because the socioeconomic status of the Congolese population is low (The World Bank, 2014; UNDP, 2015; USAID, 2014), Congolese citizens are deemed socially and economically deprived. The statistical acceptance of Null Hypothesis 2 suggested, however, two conclusions. The first conclusion is that Congolese citizens did not seem to have a collective feeling of being socially or economically deprived. The second conclusion is that the socioeconomic deprivation of Congolese citizens did not appear to have a significant effect on terrorist acts incidence in the DRC. These two conclusions did not provide support for the deprivation theory in the context of the DRC.

Null Hypothesis 3

Null Hypothesis 3 states: There is no significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and its neighbors.

The results of the one-way ANOVA suggested that country had an overall effect on terrorist incident, at the $p < .05$ level. Findings from the study indicated a partial eta squared of .293, indicating that the effect size was very large. This partial eta squared means that 29.3% of the variance in terrorist acts incidence was accounted for by the

dummy variable country. However, at the $p < .05$ level, the results of the post hoc test, Games-Howell, suggested that there was not a significant difference between the DRC and the six neighboring countries in terrorist acts incidence. This result led to the acceptance of the null hypothesis.

The acceptance of Null Hypothesis 3 reinforces the spatial contagion argument (Neumayer & Plümper, 2011). The interpretation is that terrorism occurrences in one of the countries examined in this study destabilizes the political power and economic activities in other countries, creating thus fertile grounds for terrorism in the region. This finding supports the argument that terrorism in one country can have spillover effects on neighboring countries (Krieger & Meierriek, 2011). The effects of terrorist acts from one of these countries can spill over in neighboring countries and across the region creating favorable conditions for terrorism to emerge. Those favorable conditions include, among others, the decline of socioeconomic status of people living in neighboring countries and the emergence of political instability in the region (Howard, 2010; Krieger & Meierriek, 2011).

Enormous natural resources of a country can be a magnet. Mainguy (2011) argued that resource-rich countries—especially developing countries—have a tendency to perform poorly in many areas. Governance is one of those areas. Immense natural resources of the DRC can incite terrorist attacks from neighboring countries. As such attacks threaten political and social stability and endanger economic development, they plunge the DRC into chaos and create fertile grounds for further terrorism to emerge and spread in the region.

Previous studies have suggested an association between natural resources and the inception of domestic terrorism (Bazzi & Blattman, 2013; Cotet & Tsui, 2013). Poor management of revenue from natural resources, for instance, can incite domestic terrorism. Ross (2013) viewed an association between (a) persistence of authoritarian regimes, (b) increase of corruption, and (c) inception of violent conflict in poor countries under certain conditions.

The acceptance of Null Hypothesis 3 provides, to some extent, support for the relative deprivation theory. The absence of a significant difference in terrorist acts incidence between the DRC and the six neighboring countries would suggest that citizens of all these countries experience the same degree of political deprivation. The understanding of the relationship between satisfaction and available comparisons, as well as the concepts of subjective versus objective assessments of one's status, are central to the relative deprivation theory. As satisfaction is relative to the available comparisons (Pettigrew, 2015), findings suggest that Congolese citizens do not have a collective feeling of being more politically deprived than residents of neighboring countries.

Limitations of the Study

Possibly, there may be some limitations to the study. The limitations of this study were primarily caused by the use of secondary data. The validity of the study depends on the validity of the secondary research data as the secondary data could be the approximate data needed in the study. The study was limited by the access to the secondary data. The study did not account for the effect of time. The study was limited by the amount of data used as the insufficient amount of data does not allow investigators to

make inferential decisions about the population under study. The study was limited by the inadequate information about the way secondary data were collected as such “information is important for determining potential sources of bias, errors, or problems with internal or external validity” (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 279).

Internal Validity

Internal validity is a critical aspect of social research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). As argued by Leedy and Ormrod (2010), internal validity was the verification within the present research study that validated the effectiveness of the research design at ensuring that the conclusions drawn regarding cause-and-effect and other relationships within the data were correct. The primary threat to internal validity for this study was the risk of bias due to the selection of secondary data.

In addition, the potential inclusion for the inadvertent introduction of bias in a research study could place the integrity of the results into question (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010) and was thus a crucial consideration in the study. By using secondary data in this study, bias in data responses and measurement errors was minimized. Potential threats to internal validity was an area of concern in the present study.

External Validity

If not addressed in an efficient manner, internal threats limit the generalizability of the study—external validity. External validity refers to “the extent to which the conclusions drawn can be generalized to other contexts” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010, p. 99). As explained by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008), external validity is the ability of the study’s discoveries to apply to other contexts.

As I used secondary data in this study, the greatest threat to external validity related to the risk of the conclusions formed from the selected secondary longitudinal data, and not knowing the way those data were collected or generated. It is critical that both types of threat be clearly communicated to individuals who will use findings from the study (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, pp. 96-103). Potential consumers of the research discoveries include scholarly practitioners, policymakers, social change agents, and political leaders.

Recommendations

Human rights laws are legal and moral rules that provide people with protection from severe abuses: political, legal, and social. Nickel (2013) argued that human rights “exist in morality and in law at the national and international levels” (para 1). Therefore, the DRC government and the international community, like the African Union, have a moral and legal obligation to provide Congolese citizens with protection from abuses perpetrated by terrorists.

The results from this study may be taken as connoting that political stability significantly predicts terrorist incidents and that economic growth does not significantly predict terrorist incidents. Findings did not indicate a significant difference in the proportion of the variance in terrorist incidents that was predictable from political stability in the DRC and the neighboring countries examined in the study. The following recommendations emerged from the study: (a) building a national capacity to address terrorism, (b) eradicating deprivation, and (c) building a Pan-African capacity to combat terrorism.

National Capacity Building

The work of Bazzi and Blattman (2013) suggested a correlation between higher national incomes and political stability. The DRC has enormous natural resources (The World Bank, 2014) which can attract terrorist acts from neighboring countries. As asserted by Ross (2013), the increase of natural resource wealth has the potential to increase conflict. The ongoing terrorist attacks on Congolese dwelling in the eastern region of the DRC are instigated by Congolese citizens and predators acting from neighboring countries.

Human rights laws assert that domestic authorities, like the government of the DRC, have a legal and ethical duty to guarantee the necessary social conditions for human dignity (Traer, 2012). However, the work of Blomberg, Broussard, and Hess (2011) suggested that resource-rich countries located in the Sub-Saharan region of Africa have not been able to implement effective counterterrorist policies or improve counterinsurgency capacity. To be able to protect Congolese citizens, the DRC government must first assess its current capacity to prevent terrorism and rebound should it occur. Second, the government of the DRC should understand the necessity to utilize the immense national revenues better to build effective counterterrorism capacity.

Protecting Congolese citizens from severe abuses perpetrated by terrorists requires having preemptive and remedial approaches. Preemptive actions call for policies that improve the socioeconomic status of Congolese citizens. Congolese citizens should be empowered through active participation in the democratic process. Good governance can help reduce the incidence of domestic terrorism in the DRC.

Regarding the remedial approach, there is a need for effective policies that aim at helping survivors and their communities to regain equilibrium in the aftermath of terrorist attacks. Counterterrorism policies should help perpetrators, when dealing with domestic terrorism, to refrain from making use of terrorist acts. There is also a necessity to have an effective national counterterrorism capacity ready to combat terrorism, using both soft power and hard power when dealing with terrorist attacks from neighboring countries.

Deprivation Eradication

The work of Leistedt (2013) found socioeconomic conditions to be among the factors that contribute to the emergence of terrorism. The same work identified economic deprivation among societal factors that incite people to engage in terrorist activities (Leistedt, 2013). Howard (2010) argued that political and economic deprivation makes citizens of failed states more vulnerable to the influence of internationally sponsored terrorist groups. The absence of a strong state paves the way for terrorist groups to gain access to the country and fill the vacuum of power in some regions (Atzili, 2010). Such situation provides terrorist organizations with enormous opportunities to recruit easily within marginalized subgroups of the population and in ungoverned areas of a country.

Whether terrorist incidents in the DRC are perpetrated by nationals or citizens of other countries, they have multifaceted negative effects on the population. Terrorism should, therefore, be prevented. The DRC leadership should understand that deprivation of any kind can either incite domestic terrorism or facilitate the infiltration of terrorist organizations into the country. Those who lead the DRC should be cognizant that people

who are politically, economically, or culturally deprived are vulnerable to international terrorist networks.

Addressing terrorism in the DRC requires that the Congolese government implement a series of effective policies. First, there is a need for policies that can improve the socioeconomic conditions of Congolese citizens. Second, the implementation of policies that eradicate all kinds of marginalization is crucial. Third, there is a necessity for policies that address minority discriminations—political, socio-economic, or cultural—as they are significant predictors of terrorism. If implemented in an efficient way, those three categories of policies have the potential to reduce the incidence of terrorism as they will allow a high degree of political, economic, and cultural integration of all strata of the Congolese population.

Pan-African Capacity Building

Previous studies have indicated that failed states located in the Sub-Saharan region of Africa are playing a critical role in facilitating the implementation of internationally sponsored terrorist networks, as well as their operations (Howard, 2010; Kis-Katos et al., 2011). The effects of terrorist acts from one country can spill over into neighboring countries. Those effects can spill out into the region creating favorable conditions for terrorism to emerge due to the political instability and the decline of socioeconomic status of people living in those countries (Howard, 2010; Krieger & Meierriek, 2011).

It is the responsibility of the international community to help prevent terrorism around the world. Not only the African Union, for instance, should be aware of the

antecedent conditions of terrorism, but it should also be cognizant of the spillover effect. Armed conflicts or terrorist incidents in one country will have negative effects in neighboring countries. The African Union should encourage and pressure countries located in the Sub-Saharan Africa, like the DRC, into implementing effective counterterrorist policies.

In addition, there is a necessity to have an effective Pan-African counterterrorism capacity ready to combat terrorism, using both soft power and hard power. This proposal entails endorsing global counterterrorism strategies and actively participating in the global war on terror. This recommendation calls for adopting a preemptive approach to enable national governments to ensure public safety as well as identify and deter terrorist plans. Prevention should always be the first line of defense against terrorism in Africa. It is, therefore, imperative to implement policies that require timely sharing of intelligence among African countries.

Implications

The significance of this study to leadership is that from the discoveries of this study, the leaders of the DRC and those of the African Union, as well as the international community, may be well served to understand the precursors of terrorism in the DRC. Four main implications of data analysis to the above groups emerged from the data results of the study.

Social Change and Congolese Citizens

The study revealed a significant correlation between political stability and the emergence of terrorism. The relationship between the two was negative. The study

findings suggested that the more stable a country becomes politically, the less likely the country experiences terrorism.

The overall model used in this study indicated that one-unit increase in political stability leads to terrorist incidents decrease by 8.498 units. Political stability alone explained 23.7% of the variance in terrorist acts incidence. This result means that other factors explain 76.3% of the variance.

The analysis of data from the research suggested that improving the political stability results in reduced terrorist incidents. The study discoveries indicated a strong, but negative, relationship between political stability and terrorist incidents. Implementing solutions that can increase political stability in the DRC and the six neighboring countries will reduce the likelihood of terrorist attacks in the DRC.

Trust is known to be an essential component that enhances economic growth. As terrorist incidents diminish confidence in the economy, it has a negative effect on economic growth of the target country. Thus, implementing solutions that reduce the emergence of terrorist attacks in the DRC will result in improving the well-being of the Congolese citizens.

Social Change and Policymaking

The analysis of data from the research suggested that improving the political stability led to more reduced terrorist incidents. The study discoveries provide policymakers with more information regarding the DRC and the six neighboring countries. The study findings suggest a nonsignificant difference between the DRC and the neighboring countries.

To further improve the well-being of the Congolese citizens, policymakers should not only implement policies that increase political stability. They should also strive to implement additional policies that can help reduce or prevent terrorism in the DRC. On top of the policies that increase political stability, policymakers should implement policies that address social and economic disparities in the DRC. There is also a necessity for policies that eradicate the marginalization of some subgroups of the Congolese population.

Moreover, it is crucial that policymakers implement policies that foster good governance in the DRC. Good governance has the potential to generate trust in the government and the conditions that make the governability of the vast territory of the DRC possible. In addition, there is a need for foreign relations policy that promotes peace and socioeconomic welfare in the whole region.

Practical Implications for Social Change

The ongoing terrorist incidents in the east of the DRC have demonstrated the need for coordinated intervention and global strategies. Nine countries surround the DRC. Due to the spatial contagion effect (Enders et al., 2011), terrorism in the DRC should not be addressed as an isolated phenomenon.

Findings from the study suggested that all six neighboring countries examined in the study experienced terrorism. The explanation is that terrorist attacks are spatially dependent. Neumayer and Plümper (2011) referred to this phenomenon as contagion. Countries, located in regions where terrorism abounds, are more likely to experience terrorism (Braithwaite & Li, 2007). The work of Enders et al., (2011) revealed that

domestic terrorism had a spillover effect. Domestic terrorism can result in transnational terrorism.

For this reason, coordinated efforts and global strategies are needed to build capacities to combat and prevent terrorism. Policymakers and lawmakers in the national, regional, continental, and global arenas should come together to implement effective policies and legislation that can prevent terrorism and destroy terrorist networks in Africa. Such coordination requires determination and effective leadership at all levels.

Research Implications

The study helped fill the gap in the literature on antecedent conditions of terrorism in the DRC. Findings indicated that political stability predict terrorist incidents in all seven countries examined in the study. The study results revealed, however, crucial information regarding terrorist acts incidence that necessitate further investigations.

The analysis of data suggested that country had an overall effect on terrorist incidents. But, there was not a statistical difference between DRC and the six neighboring countries. Further studies should be conducted with more observations for each country to detect significance. In the event that a significant difference in terrorist acts incidence emerges among countries, an attempt should be made to examine the causes of the difference.

Conclusion

Trust and stability are essential to the overall development of a country. News about terrorism and acts of terror are, therefore, detrimental to economic activities and mental health of the citizens. They weaken social order and political stability. Terrorism

is a multifaceted phenomenon whose causes and impacts are numerous. Due to the spatial contagion effect, the factors that contribute to the emergence of terrorism and the consequences of terrorism span several national borders. The ongoing terrorist acts in the DRC have had numerous effects on the lives of Congolese citizens and particularly on the lives of those dwelling in the eastern region of the DRC. The antecedent conditions of the terrorism in the DRC were, however, not known. The study helped investigate the relationship between (a) political stability and terrorist incidents, and (b) economic growth and terrorist incidents in the DRC.

The analysis of data indicated three discoveries. The first finding suggested that political stability significantly predicted terrorist incidents in the DRC and the six neighboring countries: Angola, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania, and Zambia. This result supported the relative deprivation theory.

The second result indicated that economic growth did not significantly predict terrorist acts in the DRC and the six neighboring countries examined in the study. This finding did not support the relative deprivation theory. As terrorism results in affecting political and social stability, it impedes economic growth. Deficient economic activities result in economic deprivation.

The third discovery indicated that country had an overall effect on terrorist acts incidence. However, the same result suggested that there was not a significant difference between the DRC and the six neighboring countries in terrorist acts incidence. To some extent, this finding provided support for the relative deprivation theory as Congolese

citizens do not have a collective feeling of being more politically deprived than residents of neighboring countries.

Three recommendations emerged from the study. They consist of building a national capacity to combat terrorism, eliminating all sorts of deprivation, and building an effective Pan-African capacity to prevent and fight against terrorism.

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Appendix A: Country Codebook

Country
1. Democratic Republic of the Congo
2. Rwanda
3. Uganda
4. Burundi
5. Tanzania
6. Angola
7. Zambia