Violent Extremism Beliefs in University Students Belonging to Various Ethnic Groups: Role of Perceived Marginalization and Negative Affectivity

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Islamabad, Pakistan

2021

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A Research Report submitted in partial fulfillment of the
Degree of Master of Science
In Psychology

Dr. Muhammad Ajmal's

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY

Center of Excellence

QUAID-I-AZAM UNIVERSITY

Islamabad-Pakistan

2021

Certificate

It is certified that M.Sc. Research Report on **"Violent Extremism Beliefs in University Students Belonging to Various Ethnic Groups: Role of Perceived Marginalization and Negative Affectivity"** prepared by Mr. Faizan Riaz has been approved for submission to the National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad.

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Acknowledgments

So, I want to thank GOD almighty and my parents to make me who I am and to make me do this research work, particularly I would also like to pay my gratitude to my Ammi for her constant support. I don't know where I would have been without you. Of course, I could not have done this study without the guidance and supervision of Dr. Sobia Masood. I am so much in debt to you. Thanks for putting up with me. I think I am very lucky to have you as my supervisor.

I would also like to thank all of those who helped me in any way during this study. I would like to pay my gratitude to all my friends and Sir Usman for their help. I would like to thank my brothers for being with me in thick and thin during this time of research and of course for guiding me here and there when I needed.

I like to thank everyone who in any way helped me complete this research work. Last but not the least, I feel myself honored as a part of National Institute of Psychology, Centre of Excellence as I have been awarded with a great deal of knowledge here.

Faizan Riaz

Abstract

The current research aimed to examine the violent extremism beliefs in university students belonging to various ethnic groups and the role of perceived marginalization and negative affectivity. For this purpose, Violent Extremism Scale (Haleem, 2020), Negative Affect Schedule (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) and Perceived Societal Marginalization (Bollwerk, Schlipphak, & Back, 2021) were used on a sample of 326 university students (168 women & 158 men) with an age ranging from 17 to 32 years (M = 23.37, SD = 3.02). The results showed that violent extremism had positive relationship with negative affectivity and perceived marginalization. Negative affectivity was also positively correlated with perceived marginalization. Men exhibited higher scores on violent extremism as compared to women. Findings revealed that participants from minority group exhibited higher levels of violent extremism, negative affectivity and perceived marginalization as compared to other groups. Individual's education positively whereas mother's education negatively predicted violent extremism. Findings showed that married respondents exhibited higher scores on violent extremism as compared to unmarried. Students from public sector universities reported more perceived marginalization as compared to the students at private sector universities.

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1

Introduction

The history of violent extremism could be traced back at least as far as Aristotle's Ethics, written around 350 B.C. Aristotle viewed extremists as psychological deviants and social misfits He noted that extremists have this tendency to identify with one extreme of the behavior rather than another. The term violent extremism has used synonymously for authoritarianism, conservatism, radicalism and dogmatism because of the similarities between them (Borum, 2011).

Violent Extremism is not a stand-alone characteristic. An extremist's behavior is part of a spectrum beginning with interest, keenness, obsession through to fanaticism and extremity. Violent Extremism is a trait; it makes a person behaves similarly in a variety of situations. Many factors play an important role in flourishing this trait of extremism with effects continuing into adulthood. Extreme feelings of a person can lead to extremist acts or extremist behavior. Violent extremism is a term used to describe the actions or ideologies of individuals or groups outside the perceived political center of a society; or otherwise claimed to violate common standards of ethics and reciprocity (Comer & Philip, 2007).

Violent Extremists are the individuals who hold beliefs that would lie on the extreme edges of the bell curve (Dalgaard-Neilsen, 2010). Earliest study found the people tend to join terrorist organizations has higher tendencies of extremism are around 16 to 28 years of age range, 80 percent are males, 15 percent are females and the proportion is rising and 66 percent are college graduates, some are university graduates, some from wealthy backgrounds and rest of them comes from poor backgrounds, with less education, mostly the percentage is of illiterate (Decker & David, 2011).

The youth and the adolescents are a critical population, not only because they represent the future, but also because they are in a phase where personal and social identity is being constructed and where are more receptive to societal trends (Freilich & LaFree, 2015). The life span of adolescence is the period approximately between ages 12 and roughly 20 years and post adolescence from 20 to 25 or 30. Parents are the major influence in their children' behavior. Studies reveal a correlation between

parenting style and violence, delinquency antisocial behavior, alcohol and substance abuse, depression, anxiety and self-perception (Freilich & LaFree, 2015).

Pakistan's population is one of the world's fastest growing with 60% of the population being under the age of 30. Pakistan's youth have been exposed to the long-term repercussions of violent extremism as a result of the global war on terror. The global world order has shifted due to a new surge of violent extremism. The international war against terror has had a severe impact on Pakistan. Pakistan's loss extends beyond its economic and political upheaval; it has permeated country's social fabric (Fayyaz, 2020). Although violent extremism has encapsulated all ethnic groups in a very worrisome manner however the present goal is to particularly investigate violent extremism beliefs among Pakistani adolescents from various ethnic groups and backgrounds.

Because violent extremism is such a serious problem in society, social scientists must examine the predictors of extremism in order to combat it. Research on extremism and violent extremism in Pakistan has primarily focused on risk factors related to ideology, religion, law enforcement, armed conflict, sectarianism, poor governance, political instability, provincial grievances, economic disparity, and illiteracy; however, psychological factors have received little attention (Abdullah & Saeed, 2016).

Relative deprivation and the consequent negative emotionality has for long time been used to explain why individuals around the world engage in activities leading to violent political and social protests (Strengmann-Kuhn, 2002). Relative discrimination and marginalization can trigger sort of collective action even for those sections of the society who are not personally and directly affected by the discrimination and injustices but somehow feel themselves to be victims of it (Tiraboschi & Maass, 1998).

The current study focuses on marginalization and negative affectivity as a predictor of violent extremism in university students belonging to various ethnic groups. This research study will be able to fill in some of the gaps in the existing literature about violent extremism beliefs among university students.

Violent Extremism

The concept of violent extremism involves a wide spectrum of forms, and how we define it has an impact on how we perceive and react to it. Terrorism and violent extremism are terms that are commonly interchanged. Violent Extremism can be defined as to "Encourage, condone, defend, or promote the conduct of a violent act in order to attain goals that are political, ideological, religious, social, or economic" (LaFree & Ackerman. 2009).

"Violent extremism," according to Nivette, Eisner, and Ribeaud (2017), encompasses a wide spectrum of violent acts as well as beliefs that are thought to justify these behaviors. Violent extremist beliefs can also be defined as beliefs that encourage, excuse, and condone violent acts to fulfill political, intellectual, religious, social, and economic aims. (Nivette, Eisner, & Ribeaud, 2017). Violent extremism can affect any culture, religious community, or worldview. In 2017, the Global Extremism Monitor recorded 27,092 incidences of violent extremism.

Predictors of Violent Extremism

The causes and processes that contribute to violent extremism are being researched by social scientists. For violent extremism, there is no single vision or path. Various risk factors for violent extremism have been found in the empirical research, including political, psychological and social aspects (Bhui, Warfa, & Jones, 2014).

The most common explanation for violent extremist ideas is that poverty, prejudice, and marginalization cause grievances, leading to people advocating violence as a solution (Bhui et al., 2014). Over the past several centuries, countries with highly youthful age structures, those in which at least 60% of the workforce is under the age of thirty, have suffered far more war outbreaks than those with a more evenly distributed demographic across different age groups (McGilloway, Ghosh, & Bhui, 2015). As a result, teenagers are more vulnerable than other age groups to violent extremism. Young people between the ages of 15 and 25 have been recognized as a risk factor for violent extremism by other academics (Bhui et al., 2014). In a study conducted in Ghaza, it was discovered that 45 percent of 1000 teenagers aged 9 to 16 were in support of using violence to achieve their goals.

Direct trauma occurs when a person witnesses or is forced to work with a tense incident such as a fatal car collision. People who have experienced vicarious trauma, on the other hand, are exposed to persons who have experienced trauma discussing the details of what they went through, frequently in graphic, gut-wrenching detail (Pedersen, 2002). Over time, repeated exposure to difficult content can have a substantial impact on an individual's functioning and overall mental health, and it's vital to develop a sense of specific warning signals and techniques to mitigate these negative effects, or criminal and violent behavior may occur. (Newell & MacNeil, 2010).

Victimization refers to the act of being victimized or being a victim. Victimization can lead to violent extreme views and acts in a character. Peer victimization throughout youth is linked to a higher chance of acquiring depression as an adult. It also plays a crucial role in laying the groundwork for a person to be okay with responding violently (Piazza, 2012).

Right-wing authoritarianism (RWA) is one of the potential psychological drivers of violent extremism (1988) which is an individual difference factor that explains social attitudes such as oneness, value conservative patterns, ethnocentricity, and religious rules and values, which prioritizes authoritarian submission, authority, and obedience, fosters authoritarian violence, and frequently develops hostile beliefs and attitudes toward members of out-groups and non-adherents (Altemeyer, 1998).

Similarly, social dominance orientation is another trait-like attribute that could be a prelude to violent extremism. Social dominance orientation is a basic attitude toward relations among intergroup that demonstrates a proclivity for dominance of in-group and the extent to which one considers his or her side should be greater than members of out-group (Pratto, Sedanius, & Levin, 2006). It has been found as a significant factor leading to increased level of prejudice (Zahid, 2017).

According to radicalization studies, people who have fewer social connections and are socially isolated are more prone to involve in violent extremism (Losel, King, Bender, & Jugl, 2018). Additionally, loneliness was found to predict pro-violence views and desire to involve in violent activities, as well as justification for employing violence (Vergani, Iqbal, Ilbahar, & Barton, 2020). It's likely that subjective experiences of loneliness contribute to the attraction of radical groups that promise a sense of

belonging in exchange for members' encouragement, violence's justification and use (Doosje, Moghaddam, Kruglanski, De-Wolf, Mann, & Feddes, 2016).

Young people who have feelings of loneliness, alienated, bifurcated from an in-group, separated, and alienated from society are more vulnerable to violent extremism, to put it another way. They are prone to seeking refuge in a number of extreme ideologies and groups that purport to give their followers significance (Kruglanski, Gelfand, Bélanger, Sheveland, Hetiarachchi, & Gunaratna, 2014) and those who adhere to their ideological narratives.

Prevalence of Violent Extremism in Pakistan

Terrorism and violent extremism are the most sensitive concerns facing Pakistan's national security, and they must be addressed and dealt with appropriately through policy formulation and implementation. These concerns have an impact on both foreign and domestic relations, resulting in discontent and terrorism in the country. Because these concerns reflect a challenging and different kind of danger to national security, a comprehensive intelligence-sharing and exchange of proven best practices is required for their proper handling (Malik, 2008).

Pakistan is at crossroads due to sufferings from this violent extremism, which has seriously threatened its socio-political peace. Only peace can bring harmony in society, whereas violence, fear and destruction lead to insecurity, stress and weakening of different institutions. Many states like Iraq, Pakistan, Syria and many in Middle East and few in Europe are experiencing the worst times in this regard. Pakistan is at the forefront of war against terrorism and its society is experiencing its devastating results in the shape of daily terrorist attacks, unrest, violence and bloodshed. Hence, this extremism leading to terrorism is the biggest threat to Pakistan’s socio-economic and political development (Sabir, 2007).

By all metrics, the level of terrorist violence in Pakistan is staggering, and constitutes a dire threat to Pakistani stability and security. Over the past decade alone, acts of and responses to terrorism have killed more than 26,000 civilians and security forces personnel and 30,000 terrorists. While the casualty rate has begun to recede in 2014, Pakistan still had the fourth highest number of terrorist attacks (1,760) of any country (Aziz, 2015).

In one recent survey, for example, researcher asked 500 security officials who worked in high, medium, and low security zones in Pakistan to rank 65 terrorism risk factors according to their importance (Sayyid, 2011). They found that the most highly rated factors were dishonest leadership, unjust and unfair accountability system, and corruption. These were directly related to poor governance. Factors such as sectarianism and criminality were considered second tier, while improper protection of minority rights and negative civilian attitudes towards the government and security forces were not considered critical.

In another study, a researcher from Forman Christian College in Lahore tested several hypotheses by drawing on publicly available datasets, including the Global Terrorism Database. His analysis supported the 'relative deprivation' theory, finding no detectible association between income levels and terrorism, but a strong positive association between inequality, marginalization, injustices and terrorist attacks. It was also suggested that the pedagogy and curriculum found in Pakistani public schools may actually be a more effective radicalization tool than madrasa education (Bhatia & Ghanem, 2017).

Research on Violent Extremism in Pakistan

A study was conducted to investigate the difference between adolescents and post adolescents on extremism (Altaf, 2002). The group of individuals that scored high on extremism perceived their parents as more authoritarian compared with the group that scored low on extremism scale. Students at higher level of education were less extremists than the students at lower levels of education. Results also suggested that the children of highly educated parents had less tendencies of extremism and vice versa. Students of madaris had more tendencies of extremism than the students of any other institution.

In a study Khan (2008) found out that students of English and Urdu medium schools were less extremists as compared to the schools of Deni schools. Results also indicated that the children of highly educated fathers had less tendencies of extremism and more the level of personal growth and vice versa, whereas there was not a significant difference found of mother's educational level on extremism tendencies and personal growth level among their children. There was no gender difference found on extremism among adolescents.

In another study Rahman (2015) found that married individuals had higher tendencies of overall extremism as compared to unmarried individuals. Likewise, the individuals with less working hours showed higher tendencies of extremism than with more working hours.

One of the research projects was aimed to investigate the violent extremism beliefs (Dastgir, 2019). It was found out that men scored higher on violent extremism than women. Students of natural sciences showed more violent extremism beliefs than the students of social sciences. The students from joint family system reported more violent extremism beliefs than those belong to nuclear family system. It was also noted that with age, violent extremism beliefs were increasing in university students. Family income was positively significantly correlated with violent extremism beliefs.

Key Drivers of Violent Extremism in Pakistan

It is critical to comprehend the main drivers of violent extremism that lead to conflicts. Violent extremism obstructs development in a variety of ways, therefore there is a link between violent extremism and socioeconomic and developmental issues such as poverty, weak rule of law, bad governance, sociopolitical exclusion, Economic underdevelopment, economic inequality, democratic disillusionment, a lack of economic opportunity, a lack of trust, and coordination issues are only a few of the primary drivers of extremism (Botha, 2014). Not only with the socioeconomic issues, but violent extremism also has a very strong connectivity with the psychological vulnerabilities as well.

Socioeconomic Factors

Economic deprivation that has lasted decades has resulted in extreme poverty, this has produced a strong sense of neglect and given extremists a good opportunity to condemn the state and leadership. The marginalized community believes the government has failed to provide anything to them and has treated them unfairly (Rattner & Yagil, 2004.).

Due to the geostrategic and security circumstances in Pakistan in the late 1970s, Pakistan was forced to assist Afghan Jihad, which led in a surge of jihadis and radicals in the nation, with their support reaching its peak. They infiltrated Pakistani society at the grassroots level and gathered people from all over the world in the country. The

Kashmir crisis, as well as anti-Hindu extreme ideology, provided them more clout and support inside the state apparatus and among the general public. This, in turn, leads to sectarian bloodshed (Zahid, 2015).

Weak social cohesion, particularly in tribal areas, Balochistan, and KPK, provides fertile ground for radicals and extremist organizations to gain full support from residents who feel denied of fundamental human requirements. In those places, no meaningful work has been done to strengthen the social cohesiveness mechanism. Military actions in the area have resulted in IDPs, which aid extremists in persuading those people to support them by pledging their homes, employment, and food. When tribal elders and society disperse, extremists have an easier time infiltrating and spreading their ideologies (Noor, 2009).

Psychological Vulnerabilities

Vulnerability is the state of openness to attack, harm or damage. For understanding pathways of violent extremism, vulnerabilities may be viewed as "factors that point to some people having a greater openness to increased engagement than others" (Horgan, 2008). Those vulnerability factors create and interact with psychological propensities that can affect a person's motivation, attributional style, volition, and attitudes in ways that make that person more vulnerable than others to engaging with terrorist groups, causes, and activities (Brand & Anastasio, 2006).

Psychological vulnerabilities, for example, might shape people's attitudes toward a particular class of victims/targets, volitional control over their impulses and behaviors, or their appraisals of threats and grievances. Propensity notwithstanding, as with most human behaviors, situational and contextual factors profoundly affect whether and how psychological characteristics or propensities manifest themselves (Sherman, Nave, & Funder, 2013). To understand any connection between abnormal psychology and terrorism, focusing on these individual psychological processes may be more promising and useful than looking for unique personality traits or diagnoses.

Three specific psychological vulnerabilities have been commonly observed among violent extremists: (1) a need for personal meaning and identity; (2) a need for belonging; and (3) perceived injustice/humiliation (Becker, 2020). These vulnerabilities (or "need" states) often create an opening that can increase a person's

receptivity to imposed ideas, influence, and sometimes even to seeking alternative worldviews (Sherman et al., 2013).

Theoretical Background

According to strain theories, certain strains or stresses increase the likelihood of violence. These pressures might cause negative feelings like dissatisfaction and wrath (Agnew, Piquero, & Cullen, 2009). People are under pressure to act as a result of these feelings, and one choice is to use violence. Crime can be used to relieve negative emotions, seek revenge against the source of the stress or related targets, and minimize or flee stress (Agnew et al., 2009). For example, those who have been unemployed for a long period might fall into theft or drugs selling to get finances, seek revenge against the individual who dropped them, or use illicit drugs to feel good.

General Strain Theory

In general, theories related to adversities describe hostile behaviors as symptoms of maladaptive reaction against adversity (Agnew, 2001). The revised GST of Agnew (2001) had an aim to supplement prior versions of the theory by explaining and improving the types of abusive relationships that produce implications, describing the socio-psychological structures that underlies the relation between hostility and suffering, and probing the factors using which the strain can be discarded (Agnew, Brezina, Wright, & Cullen, 2002).

Agnew described different types of sufferings that emerge from bad interpersonal connections (Agnew et al., 2002). First, strain can occur when people are stopped from reaching their goals, which can involve unjust or inequitable relationships or interactions (Agnew et al., 2002). When stimuli that are considered valuable are absent, as love partner, parent, job, the second type emerges. Third, unpleasant instances such as child abuse, victim adversity and unfavorable interactions with peers, adults, authorities, and employers can cause tension. Negative emotions such as rage and frustration might result from exposure to these stressors, necessitating immediate response (Agnew et al., 2002). Crime is a sort of response of correction that aims to do bad or exact retribution on the strains.

GST gives a structure for thinking about how stress affects supplement the origins of violent extremism. It identifies strains that are most related to extremist

violence, as well as the conditional variables that are there to enhance or discard the impacts of strain (Agnew, 2010). As a result, Agnew (2010) critiques the widespread use of a broad definition of strain in extremism and violence research. Such methods ignore the differences in incentives for violent extremism versus basic deviance and hostility. He claims that violence is generally acted upon in the cause of a religious, social or philosophy. To support violence on behalf of a group or idea, one must go through a period of strains of collective nature (Agnew, 2010). The kind of strain that are collective in nature are most suitable to enable the ideologies are large, unlawful, and stronger political, social, or religious groups (Agnew, 2010).

Recent research has identified a variety of stresses as significant sources of extremism beliefs and hostile behaviors, feelings of suffering, vicarious or direct war trauma and relative deprivation (Freilich & LaFree, 2015). Political violence exposure, for instance warfare is one significant cause of strain that is abundant in quantity (Botchkovar, Tittle, & Antonaccio, 2009). Long-term exposure to political violence can be stressful, resulting in rage and anxiety attacks (Baron, 2004). Studies on the effect of the conflict between Palestine and Israel on extremism backing reveal that both direct and indirect conflict exposure increases negative emotions and sentiments of being threatened by the other or out-group (Broidy, 2001). Hirsch-Hoefler discovered that Palestinians and Israelis who were more at stake to political violence have more chances to experience psychological discomfort, consider a threat to their members of group, and be less aligned to peaceful ways of overcoming political dispute.

Negative emotions and activities of remedial can be felt without direct exposure to collective tension (Agnew et al., 2002). According to Agnew et al. (2002), vicarious stressors can induce anxiety, leading to people wanting to repel any harm to people they think about with care, to get revenge from those they believe should be held accountable for the hostility and further assuage their derogatory feelings. Strains are more prone to lead towards negative type of strategies for coping up when they are large in numbers and are considered hostile, when they badly affect your close people around you, when some individual experienced it directly or witnessed it directly and when that leading to remain unresolved and very possibly to affect the individual in a negative manner. The link between physical victimization, vicarious strain, and criminal behavior identified widely (Baron, 2004).

Immigrant adolescents might be more prone to various strains, for instance indirect suffering to the physical violence, because they could feel homeless culturally at a very significant stage in their formation of identity and would find groups that provide a clear sense of identity and value them (Lyons-Padilla, Gelfand, Mirahmadi, Farooq, & Van Egmond, 2015). Dalgaard-Nielson (2010) found that search of identity and the deficit of trust in society make things more prone to radical ideologies and extremist beliefs in a data based on violent radicalization among the European Muslims (Doosje et al., 2016).

A substantial number of studies has shown that identifying oneself as the focus of negative prejudice has poor health consequences (Broidy & Agnew, 2009). If one has a compromised social identity (e.g., racism or sexism) or that someone is being subjected to unfair treatment because of this, is linked to poor psychological health and increased risky health behaviors.

Perceived Marginalization

Individuals and groups are marginalized when they are unable to fully participate in society's social, economic, and political life. Perceived marginalization is a personal experience that can occur even if objective criteria for marginalization (such as socioeconomic position) are not met (Lewis, Cogburn, & Williams, 2015).

Individual marginalization entails a person's exclusion from meaningful social participation. Individual marginalization can be seen in the factor of excluding single mothers from the assistance system before the welfare reforms of the early twentieth century (Belle & Doucet, 2003). The modern welfare system is based on the concept of right to the necessities of being a productive member of society, both as a social function and as a kind of remuneration for socially useful labor performed (Abramowitz, 2005).

People with impairments are being kept out of the workforce is an example of individual marginalization. Employers' perspectives on hiring people with disabilities compromise productivity, increase absenteeism, and increase workplace accidents. Despite legislation in most Western countries aimed at preventing it, as well as the academic achievements, talents, and training of many handicapped individuals, marginalization of people with disabilities persists today (Foster, 2009).

One of the most difficult sensations to overcome is the emotional misery of being shunned by someone or a group in a status of power. Inferiority typically accompanies anger and bewilderment. When it appears that the attacker had no malice in sending the demeaning message, especially when patronizing, the internal battle is amplified. Micro aggressions abound in society, most of which go unreported yet leave a lasting impression on the victim (Gee, Walsemann, & Brondolo, 2012).

Marginalization and Violent Extremism

Marginalization and discrimination have long been recognized as factors that can act as a driver towards violent extremism, as is illustrated by the 'troubles' in Northern Ireland between the 1960s and 1980s especially (Bonner, 2015). Typically, as Silke identified in this context, before an individual was prepared to partake in violent activities, he/she first had to belong to a section of society which perceived itself as being marginalized. He further suggested that if such a marginalized group was discriminated against, "there will always be those within such communities who will be receptive to radical ideologies" (Dixon, 2009). Critically, marginalization may result in an individual losing his vested interest in the maintenance of that society, thereby resulting in such marginalization acting as a driver towards violent extremism.

The extent to which such factors may (or may not) act as drivers towards extremist violence can vary markedly. This is illustrated by the seemingly two principal camps of ISIL recruits. One comprises those who have experienced profound negative personal experiences, such as witnessing warfare, experiencing dislocation or life in squalid living conditions. The other seems to be composed of foreign terrorist fighters (Gries, Krieger, & Meirrieks, 2011) who are typically recruited through the outreach of friends, through family or "fellow travelers in search of a meaningful path in life" (Ikejiaku, 2009). Interestingly, social scientists have observed that most foreign volunteers and supporters recruited by violent extremist groups fall into the mid-range of 'the normal distribution' in terms of being motivated by psychological attributes like empathy, compassion, idealism, and wanting mostly to help rather than hurt other people (Ikejiaku, 2009).

Forty-eight percent of respondents joined in less than a month from first contact with the organization in question, and 80 percent in less than a year. This speed of recruitment shows the depth of the vulnerability faced. Emotions of 'hope/excitement'

and 'being part of something bigger' were high among those who joined, indicating the 'pull' of opportunity for radical change and rebellion against the *status quo* of circumstances that is presented by violent extremism. (Rose & Nestorovska, 2005).

Marginalization, alienation and discrimination are considered as primary drivers of violent extremism. Though diversity in and of itself does not make countries more (or less) vulnerable to violent extremism, when one group has exclusive control of political and economic sectors at the expense of other groups, this may result in increased intercommunal tensions, gender inequality, marginalization, alienation and discrimination. This may take different forms, such as restricted access to public services, job opportunities, obstructions to regional development and freedom of religion, which may further fuel resentment on top of any existing frustrations attributable to other drivers such as socio-economic inequalities and deprivations (Sandler & Enders, 2004).

Alternatively, growing diversity in an increasingly interconnected world can in and of itself arouse feelings of fear and anger, e.g., where benefits that were previously bestowed to a particular group or community are now distributed among larger groups which may be accompanied by a reduction of benefits compared to what was available previously (e.g., due to the ongoing migrant crisis). When some people feel that diversity threatens their interests or safety it can lead to intercommunal tensions resulting in the rejection rather than embracing of diversity. This is considered by some to be an at least partial explanation for the rise of far right-wing nationalist groups in Europe in response to the ongoing migrant crisis (Steinmayr, 2017).

Closely related to this can be a general sense of disenfranchisement from the societies that these people live in; sentiments that can be further heightened through factors such as little or no political inclusion, limitations on freedom of expression and shrinking civic space. Underdeveloped and inexperienced civil societies, such as those in 'transitioning States' (e.g., out of conflict or more authoritarian regimes), are often unable to adequately channel people's frustrations into constructive communication in response to such frustrations. Even in countries with a strong civil society, feelings of alienation by particular groups may lead individuals to reject available open platforms ('safe spaces') to express their feelings and views in favor of alternative venues with 'like-minded' (frustrated) people, or else to live in isolation (Tan & Nasu, 2016). The

accompanying perceptions of disempowerment and disenfranchisement, especially when they develop over extended time periods, can draw some towards violent extremism (Tan & Nasu, 2016).

Violent extremist groups are masters at exploiting increasing global economic inequalities together with the sense of injustice stemming from the current socio-economic and political system. They offer ideological alternatives to the narrative of free markets, democracy and multicultural diversity, namely ones that offer empowerment, order and security, with violence as a tool for imposing this view on wider society (Gries et al., 2011). All this said, however, no 'hard' or fixed conclusions may be drawn regarding the effect of disenfranchisement on recruitment by these groups. For instance, as cases of violent extremism committed in Myanmar and India reveal, these are often carried out by the majoritarian communities which do not generally suffer from such sentiments of disenfranchisement (Gries et al., 2011).

Theoretical background

As discussed above explaining violent extremism, GST also in a unique way explains violence and delinquency (Agnew, 2010). GST is the only major crime and delinquency theory that emphasizes the role of negative emotions in the origins of hostility. Negative emotions such as fury, frustration, depression, and despair can arise when someone are under a lot of strain or stress. People are said to be under pressure to take corrective action as a result of these unpleasant emotions, with crime or delinquency being one alternative (Agnew, 2010).

According to Deprivation Theory, people who are deprived of commodities, such as money, justice, position, or privilege, join social movements in the hopes of redressing their grievances (Crosby, 1984). That's a good place to start when considering why people join social movements. However, deprivation theory, which holds that people join social movements on their assessments of what they believe they should have in comparison to what others have, is even more essential. Absolute deprivation, on the one hand, refers to people's actual poor circumstances; relative deprivation, on the other hand, relates to what other people believe they should have in relation to what others have, or even to their own history or envisioned future. Improved

circumstances drive human desires for even better conditions, which can lead to revolutions (Crosby, 1984).

Relative deprivation theory

If a person is disadvantaged in some way, whether material or immaterial, he or she is deemed deprived. A person is regarded comparably deprived if he or she feels resentment or sadness as a result of discrimination in comparison to people who are in a better position (Crosby, 1984). In a nutshell, relative deprivation is the perceived disparity between one's own condition and that of others. Although the word "quality of life" is not used officially, the concept of "relative deprivation" is explained in terms of quality of life from the start. The idea that feeling disadvantaged is tied to a reference group is a common assumption in this field of study. When you compare yourself to others, you will have this sense (Crosby, 1984).

Research has elaborated on Merton's beliefs and the theory of relative deprivation by underlining the paradox of social existence (Buunk, Collins, Taylor, VanYperen, & Dakof, 1999). People who do not see a means to improve their situation will be pleased with what they have. They will, however, be dissatisfied with their situation if they believe there is a way to improve it by comparing themselves to individuals who appear to be in a better position. On the one hand, comparing oneself to others might make a person feel bereft of their own identity. On the other hand, when a person compares oneself to his or her peer group or other reference groups, he or she may feel collectively impoverished (Buunk et al., 1999).

The term "objective deprivation" (sometimes known as "absolute deprivation") refers to a material disadvantage that may be measured using a variety of social or economic indices (Crosby, 1984). The importance of income, education, and professional prospects in preserving socioeconomic standing is highlighted from this perspective. The poor people are described as those individuals, families, and communities whose resources (cultural, material, and social) are so limited that they are unable to participate in the member state's minimum acceptable way of life. (Crosby, 1984).

As previously stated, relative deprivation can occur when a person compares himself or herself to others and understands that he or she is disadvantaged. Subjective deprivation is accompanied by feelings of dissatisfaction and disappointment (Liu & Alloy, 2010). According to this interpretation, a subjectively perceived disparity between one's own condition and that of others can lead to unhappiness in a group or individual due to social, political, or economic factors. In this regard, subjective deprivation is more crucial in influencing one's perceived quality of life, because only a sense of deficiency causes dissatisfaction. (Major, Quinton, & McCoy, 2002).

Both types of deprivation have diverse social consequences. First, a lack of proper socioeconomic status protection leads to a socially precarious position. Second, stigmatization is a term that refers to a lack of adequate social status protection. Third, social isolation occurs when contacts or communication opportunities are lost. Critics, on the other hand, argue that relative deprivation theory falls short of explaining why deprived people do not take steps to change their situation or participate in social movements. People, on the one hand, are said to act in order to prevent confrontation. People, on the other hand, are aware that similar situations might occur with or without social effort, and that social action does not ensure improved living conditions. (Matheson & Anisman, 2012).

Outcomes of Perceived Marginalization

A considerable amount of research has documented adverse mental implications associated with perceiving oneself as the target of negative bias (Pascoe & Richman, 2009). In particular, perceiving that one possesses a marginalized social identity (e.g., perceiving racism or sexism) or that one is being treated unfairly because of it is associated with worse psychological health outcomes, as well as greater engagement in risky health behaviors.

As some evidence of this, research indicates that perceived discrimination is linked to worse mental health implications (Pearlin, Schieman, Fazio, & Meersman, 2005). Of importance, the longitudinal nature of some of these studies (Pearlin et al., 2005) has revealed that while perceived discrimination predicts worse long-term mental health, poor mental health does not predict long-term perceptions of discrimination.

It has long been theorized that the reason minority group members tend to suffer these worse physical and psychological health outcomes is because the experience of discrimination is stressful (Ray & Preston, 2015). These “minority stress” theories and models suggest that when an individual perceives that one of their social identities is stigmatized (e.g., their race, gender, or sexual orientation), it creates feelings of distress that can undermine their mental health. (Remedios, Chasteen, & Paek, 2012).

In addition to the negative health effects of perceived discrimination that stem from increased stress, there is at least one other mechanism through which such bias may threaten health. Specifically, perceptions of disapproval may harm health indirectly by increasing the likelihood that individuals engage in risky acts. Individuals who perceive that they are the targets of bias often turn to high-risk behaviors as a means of coping with or “escaping” from stress (Salvatore & Shelton, 2007), or because of a lowered ability to resist such activities due to depleted self-control resources (and experiencing stigma decreases ability to engage in self-control (Schmitt, Branscombe, Postmes, & Garcia, 2014). Based upon these findings, it seems reasonable to predict more broadly that perceptions of disapproval (from society or from close others) would operate in a similar manner (e.g., they might also increase the need to escape stress or lower self-control) and would thus increase engagement in riskier behaviors as well.

Negative Affectivity

The term "negative affect" was once used to describe the entire range of negative emotions such as anxiety, anger, depression, sadness, guilt. Negative affectivity is a long-term, inherent tendency to experience distress or negative emotions for no apparent reason (Clark, Watson, & Mineka, 1994). Anger, disdain, disgust, guilt, fear, and anxiousness are all examples of negative affectivity, which is a broad measure of subjective distress and unpleasant engagement that encompasses a wide range of disagreeable mood states (Watson, Clark, & Carey, 1988).

Negative affectivity is a personality trait that entails having negative feelings and having a low self-esteem. Low negative affectivity is marked by regular feelings of peace and serenity, as well as feelings of confidence, activity, and tremendous excitement (Blumberg, & Izard, 1986).

Negative emotional reaction varies by person. The main personality element of anxiety/neuroticism, which is included within the Big Five personality traits as emotional stability, closely corresponds to trait negative affectivity (Bouman & Luteijn, 1986). The Big Five personality qualities include openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Neuroticism can cause extreme mood swings, frequent melancholy, worry, and irritability, and it can forecast the development and commencement of all "typical" mental diseases (Bouman & Luteijn, 1986). According to research, negative affectivity is associated to a number of variables, including self-reported stress and (poor) coping capacities, health concerns, and the frequency of unpleasant events. Weight gain and mental health issues are common side effects (Breier, Charney, & Heninger, 1985).

People with a high level of negative affectivity have a pessimistic attitude about themselves and the world around them. Life satisfaction is highly linked to negative affectivity. Individuals with high degrees of negative affect have greater degrees of anguish, worry, and dissatisfaction on average, and they focus on the bad parts of oneself, the world, the future, and other people, as well as more terrible life occurrences, are all evoked (Clark & Watson, 1988). Because of the connections between these affective qualities and life satisfaction, some researchers regard both positive and negative affect as indications of the broader construct of subjective well-being (Costa & McCrae, 1980).

Theoretical background

Affectivity is defined as a proclivity to feel a certain mood (happy or sad) or to react to things in a certain way or with certain emotions (Zurawski & Smith, 1987). Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity are the two primary forms of affectivity found by research (NA). These are fixed, dispositional features in people that show their proclivity for experiencing pleasant or negative emotional experiences (Watson & Clark, 1984). Individuals with a high PA feel eager, active, and alert, whereas those with a low PA feel listless, languid, and indifferent. Individuals with a low PA are less likely to report pleasant emotions; they are merely less likely to express negative emotions. Individuals with a high NA score are more anxious, fearful, apprehensive, and angry than those with a low NA score. This person is prone to becoming tense and

apprehensive. Low NA people, on the other hand, are usually quiet, placid, and content (Roth, Gurney, Garside, & Ken, 1972).

Although, there has been some dispute (Roth et al., 1972), most researchers believe that PA and NA are two distinct, independent dimensions rather than opposed points on a continuum (Roth et al., 1972). As a result, it's feasible that a person will do well on both PA and NA. This personality type is more affectivity and experiences mood swings in an answer to external circumstances (high affect). Others, however, think that PA and NA are two sides of the same coin (affectivity), which refers to the quantity of enjoyment a person experiences throughout time (Dobson, 1985). The psychiatric literature is divided on whether PA and NA are unipolar or bipolar. Watson and Clark's (1998) mood structure with two factors, on the other hand, has gotten a lot of support in the psychological field. PA and NA have been found to be somewhat independent, persistent, connected to diverse behaviors, and partially inherited in both cross-sectional and longitudinal investigations (Watson et al., 1988).

The Predisposition to have Negative Emotional Experiences

Negative affectivity has been identified as a mood dispositional component. It reveals huge disparities in negative emotionality and self-concept among people: Individuals with a high NA are distressed and upset, and have a poor self-perception, whereas those with a low NA are reasonably content, secure, and satisfied with themselves (Deluty, Deluty, & Carver, 1986). It is instructive to compare our model with previous viewpoints in order to further characterize the idea.

First, people with high NA have a core component that others have labelled "trait anxiety": subjective emotions of anxiousness, tension, and worry." (Spielberger, Auerbach, Wadsworth, Dunn, & Taulbee, 1973). But this is an oversimplification of the construct: NA denotes a broader negative state. Anger, scorn, revulsion, shame, self-dissatisfaction, a sensation of rejection, and, to some extent, sorrow is among the emotional emotions mentioned. NA, on the other hand, is unrelated to a person's good emotional experiences; a high NA level does not always signify a lack of enjoyment, excitement, or zeal. Fear appears to be a distinguishing personality trait.

Second, many supporters of a trait anxiety explanation of the NA argue that it is predominantly reactive in nature. (Spence, Farber, & Taylor, 1954). According to this, nervous people with high trait anxiety respond more intensely to stressful circumstances; they are no more worried than people with low NA in no stress (Vassend & Skrondal, 1999). According to Spielberger et al. (1973), people with high-trait anxiety are particularly vulnerable to interpersonal threats to their self-esteem.

However, we perceive NA as a personality feature that presents itself even when no stress is present. Although an individual's mood can change dramatically, partially as a result of specific external factors, people with a high NA will exhibit more negative effect across time and in all situations (Derogatis, Klerman, & Lipman, 1972). We're not claiming that people with high NA have a high level of negative effect all the time. Rather, such persons are more prone to endure severe pain in any given situation.

Even in relaxed, baseline situations, NA will be strongly linked to levels of negative affect in the state, as opposed to the reactive perspective of trait anxiety (Watson, & Pennebaker, 1984). Evidence presented in research implies that as shown by the likelihood, volume, and duration of their emotions, high-NA persons are highly sensitive to little failures, frustrations, and irritants in everyday life (Foa & Foa, 1982). Thus, even if no visible stressor is present during a baseline assessment, recent incidents of this sort are likely to influence high-NA subjects. The important factor is that NA will be linked to subjective suffering even if there is no big, outwardly visible stressor, such as a fear of electric shock when giving a speech.

Third, rather than an objective state, our understanding of NA is based on conscious, subjective experience; in other words, it places a greater emphasis on how people feel about themselves and their surroundings than on how effectively they can handle themselves in the world. As a result, it differs from prior notions such as General Maladjustment (Jessor & Hammond, 1957) and Ego Resiliency (Block & Thomas, 1955) that appear to be more directly linked to overt behavioral signs. We want to underline, however, that the distinction is only a matter of emphasis. NA cannot be totally isolated from Maladjustment/Ego Resiliency, because self-esteem and mood are crucial components of adjustment, especially at higher levels.

Eventually, despite its many facets, such as negative mood and cognitions, poor self-esteem, Negative Affectivity is a coherent dimension. As a result, rather of using the more complicated term Neuroticism, we use the term NA (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968). That is, NA is not the only component that contributes to the formation of a neurosis, as the Eysenck acknowledge, and this could explain why they offer the alternative label Emotionality.

Outcomes of Negative Affectivity

Fear, anxiety, wrath, disdain, and disgust are all examples of negative affect, which is a generic element of subjective suffering that encompasses a wide spectrum of negative mood states. Sadness and loneliness, both of which are associated with depression, have significant loadings on this component. NA is a broad and ubiquitous inclination to experience negative emotions at the trait level, with implications for cognition, self-concept, and worldview (Watson & Clark, 1984). PA, on the other hand, is a metric that measures how enjoyable one's interaction with the environment is. Descriptors that portray lethargy and tiredness are better for low PA, whereas terms that show one's excitement, energy levels, interest, delight, and determination are best for high PA. On the low end of this component, it's worth noting that feelings of sadness and loneliness have rather high loadings (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). It conveys a general sense of well-being and competence, as well as effective interpersonal participation. PA is a matching proclivity for a pleasurable emotional experience.

The following pattern appears when these data are combined: Anxiety is largely a high NA state with no link to PA, whereas depression is a mix of high NA and low PA. Watson and Tellegen (1985) put Anxiety, depression, NA, and PA data were used to put this theory to the test. The model's predictions were mainly correct. As expected, the NA and PA scales each defined a factor. The anxiety and depression scales both had significant loadings on both variables, however the anxiety scale had a larger loading on the NA component, whilst the depression scale was a significantly better indication of poor PA. Blumberg and Izard (1986) used self-report mood ratings to predict depression and anxiety scores in a similar study. Only the positive emotion scales (Joy and Interest) helped predict depression, while several negative emotion ratings (most notably Sadness and Fear) helped predict both measures. As a result, the

mood data imply that PA might be a key element in distinguishing anxiety with depression (Watson & Tellegen, 1985).

These investigations, on the other hand, were done with healthy people and did not use trait assessments. Clinical samples were used in two trials, which yielded positive results. First, Gotlib (1984) on a group of 108 male outpatients, researchers gathered diagnostic information as well as doctors' anxiety and depression assessments. She discovered that anxiety markings and diagnoses were significantly related to NA but not to PA, whereas depression ratings and diagnoses were significantly relevant to low PA but not to NA. Second, Bouman and Luteijn (1986) divided patients into three groups: major depressives, dysthymics, and nondepressives. Two variables, NA and PA, were retrieved and interpreted after scores on a range of mood and personality evaluations were subtracted away. As predicted by the model, major depressives had lower PA scores than dysphoric patients, who were, in response, lower on PA than group of nondepressed. The further factors make any conclusions concerning anxiety and depression impossible.

Ethnic Minority

An ethnic minority is a group of people who are different from the dominant group, usually the country's majority population, in terms of race, color, nationality, religion, or cultural background. An ethnic minority's distinct identity can be shown in a variety of ways, from distinguishing rituals, lifestyles, language or accent, attire, and food preferences to certain attitudes, moral values, and economic or political opinions held by members of the community (Bonner, 2015).

The minority is often acknowledged, but it is not always accepted by the wider society in which its members reside. The nature of the ethnic minority's interaction with the broader society will tend to influence whether the minority group will progress toward assimilation or self-segregation in the larger community. In some circumstances, ethnic minorities have simply been ignored by the majority, as was the case with African Americans in the American South in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century (Bonner, 2015).

Ethnic Minorities in Pakistan

Sindhis (14.1%), Pashtuns or Pashhtuns (15.42%), Mohajirs (7.57%), and Baluchis (7.57%) are ethnic minorities in Pakistan (Abdullah, & Saeed, 2016).

Although the official position on the presence of religious, linguistic, and ethnic minorities is disputed, Pakistan's minorities can essentially be divided into two categories: ethnic and linguistic minorities and religious minorities. The term "minority" appears multiple times in the Islamic Republic of Pakistan's 1973 Constitution, yet there is no definition for it. Successive federal governments have claimed that all minorities in Pakistan are religious, and that no ethnic or linguistic minorities or indigenous peoples exist (Abdullah, & Saeed, 2016).

Pakistani perspective

Pakistan has one of the world's fastest-growing populations, with youth accounting for 60% of the population (Ahmed, 2012). According to Sindh's Counter Terrorism Department, 64 of the 500 activists detained in the province had a master's degree and 70 have a bachelor's degree (Alavi, 2006). It is very important to identify factors responsible for Pakistan's educated youth inclination toward extremism, and this is a critical issue to address.

According to empirical research, education has been found in Pakistan as a means of preventing violent extremist ideas (Geeraerts, 2012). According to popular belief, the less educated a person is, the more likely he or she is to engage in violent extremism. In most cases, it's correct, however there are occasional occasions where eligible persons are mistakenly labelled as members of a vicious extremist group or organization (Geeraerts, 2012).

Since the start of the "War on Terror" in 2001, and Pakistan's alliance with the United States in that war, a plethora of scientific literature on the causes of extremism and violence in Pakistan has centered on madrassas (Islamic seminaries) as one of the major sources of violent extremism in Pakistan and beyond (Ahmed, Yousaf, & Zeb, 2018). Due to the concentration of madrassa research, combatting violent extremism (CVE) projects focusing on madrassa reforms have sprung up, largely funded by foreign donors. Many madrassa education programmes have received foreign

sponsorship, including those run by the International Centre for Religion and Diplomacy and the United States Institute of Peace (Ahmed et al., 2018). On the other hand, such efforts have largely neglected the origins of violent extremism in modern educational institutions such as universities (VE).

There have been a number of recent examples in Pakistan that reveal not only violent tendencies in universities, but also violent extremism outside of colleges and universities. The 2017 assassination of a student, at a university in Charsadda, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP), in which one of the most well-known occurrences was when an irate mob, predominantly university students but also some non-academic university staff members, incited the students. Khan was accused of posting blasphemous content to Facebook (Ahmed et al., 2018). Another graduate of Karachi's elite Institute of Business Administration, who was discovered in the targeted killings of minorities and security officials while running an Al-Qaeda sleeper cell with others, is an example of violent extremism in Pakistan that extends beyond university campuses (Orsini, 2013).

Officials in Pakistan are considering concentrating their efforts to prevent and counter violent extremism (P/CVE) to include higher education institutions due to the severity of the escalating threat of VE among university students and alumni. The Pakistani National Counter Terrorism Authority and the Higher Education Commission, for example, have agreed to launch several initiatives, including a university-level PVE education course (Siddiqa, 2011).

Rationale of the Study

Violent extremism has been identified as a serious concern for Pakistan and social scientists are focusing on determining the predictors of extremism in educated youth. Although, it is considered that education can be used to combat violent extremism (Mirahmadi, Ziad, Farooq, & Lamb, 2016), a number of incidents have documented educated people as perpetrators of violent extremist activities. Empirical research supports this, and it has also been discovered that some educational institutions promote extremist ideologies (Mirahmad et al., 2016). As a result, there is a strong desire to work on this domain.

Over the past several centuries, countries with highly youthful age structures, those in which at least 60% of the workforce is under the age of thirty, have been considerably more likely to see war outbreaks than those with a more evenly distributed demographic across different age groups. As a result, teenagers are more vulnerable to violent extremism than other age groups. Other researchers have identified the age group of 16 to 25 years as a risk factor for violent extremism (Bhui, Dinos, & Jones, 2012). With a population of 39.9 million youths aged 16 to 25, there is a need for a research study that focuses on Pakistani youth in relation to violent extremism, which is what the current study attempts to investigate (Bhui et al., 2012).

Social scientists are attempting to determine the causes and mechanisms that contribute to violent extremism. Violent extremism does not have a unique profile or route. However, it is well documented that socioeconomic, psychological, and institutional elements all contribute to violent extremism (Davies, 2009). As a result, there is a pressing need to delve deeper into these topics. The current research might be considered as playing a role in this vast and vast topic.

Youth are affected by violent extremism in a variety of ways, including 1) direct touch, being in a city targeted by terrorists, or losing a loved one in a terrorist attack; 2) indirect contact, being available in a city or a particular site where a terrorist attack is taking place, or losing a loved one in a terrorist strike; and 3) Fear for one's own, friends', and family's safety due to constant exposure to an atmosphere of threat and insecurity; 4) media-based exposure to violent extremism (Donovan, Smyth, Paige, & O'Leary, 2006). All of these experiences expose children to the danger of developing psychopathology. Depression, anxiety, mood disorders, and, most significantly, posttraumatic disorder should all be taken into account (PTSD). Following exposure to a traumatic experience, political violence, or war/conflict, PTSD is the most common mental clinical diagnosis (Donovan et al., 2006).

Pakistani extremism and violent extremism research has mostly focused on ideological, religious, and law enforcement risk factors, as well as armed conflict, sectarianism, poor governance, political instability, provincial grievances, economic disparities, and analphabetism (Mirahmadi et al., 2016). Surprisingly, there isn't much research on psychological variables. This research project might be viewed as an attempt to concentrate on both psychological and social variables.

Violent fights on university campuses are becoming more common, as is the recruitment of university students into violent extremism. In Pakistan, there is very little literature on university students becoming radicalized (Ahmed et al, 2018). There is little study on how marginalization causes negative affectivity and violent extremism. Violent extremism has a long-term negative impact on Pakistani youth's mental health (Aziz, 2015). The study will be useful in determining violent extremist beliefs among university students from various ethnic backgrounds.

This study can help to overcome the disparities in current literature about violent extremist attitudes among university students. It also seeks to figure out its relationship with perceived marginalization and negative affectivity, as well as their interaction with one another, which has yet to be discovered and is an area where further research is needed.

METHOD

Chapter 2

Method

Objectives

1. To investigate violent extremism beliefs among university students of distinct ethnic groups.
2. To study the relationship among perceived marginalization, negative affectivity and violent extremism beliefs among university students from distinct ethnic groups.
3. To examine the differences based on socio-demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, education, SES, time spent in their own area etc.) on the study variables.

Hypotheses

1. Perceived marginalization and negative affectivity will positively predict violent extremism in university students.
2. Perceived marginalization will positively predict negative affectivity.
3. Male participants will score high on violent extremism, negative affectivity and perceived marginalization as compared to the female participants.
4. Participants from minority ethnic group will score high on violent extremism, negative affectivity and perceived marginalization as compared to majority ethnic group.

Operational Definitions

Violent Extremism. "Encouraging, tolerating, justifying, or supporting the commission of a violent act to achieve political, ideological, religious, social, or economic goals" is what violent extremism is defined as (LaFree & Ackerman. 2009). The opinions and acts of persons who advocate or employ ideologically driven violence to attain extreme, ideological, religious, or political ideals are referred to as violent extremism. This was assessed using the Violent Extremism Scale in the current study (Haleem, 2020). Higher scores indicated a higher level of belief in violent extremism.

Perceived Marginalization. Marginalization is a situation and a process that inhibits individuals and groups from fully participating in society's social, economic, and political life (Stonequist, 2015). Perceived Marginalization is a subjective phenomenon that can occur without regard to objective criteria for marginalization, for instance socioeconomic position (Chakravarty & Chakraborty, 2018). In this study, the perceived societal marginalization scale (Bollwerk, Schlipphak, & Back, 2021) was used to assess this. High scores indicate a greater degree of marginalization.

Negative Affectivity. The term "negative affect" was once used to describe the entire range of negative emotions such as anxiety, anger, depression, sadness, guilt (Van-Harten et al., 2018). Negative affectivity is a long-term, inherent tendency to experience distress or negative emotions for no apparent reason (Clark et al., 1994). Anger, disdain, disgust, guilt, fear, and anxiousness are all examples of negative affectivity, which is a broad measure of subjective distress and unpleasant engagement that encompasses a wide range of disagreeable mood states (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). This was examined in the current study using a Negative Affect subscale from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule – Short Form (PANAS-SF) (Watson et al., 1988).

Ethnic Minority. In terms of race, color, nationality, religion, or cultural background, an ethnic minority is a group of people who are distinct from the dominant group, which is usually the country's majority population (Bonner, 2015). In the present study, Sindhis, Pashtun, Muhajir, Baloch, Gilgiti, Kashmiri, and Saraiki students were considered as ethnic minority while Punjabi students were considered ethnic majority.

Instruments

The details of study instruments used in current study are as follows:

Violent Extremism Scale. Violent Extremism Scale (Haleem, 2020) attempts to examine the opinions of those who support or utilize ideologically motivated violence to attain radical, ideological, religious, or political goals. There are 24 items in total consisting of two subscales in which Violent Ideology Defense compromised of 14 items (2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 22, 24) and Violent Ideology Promotion is the second sub-scale consisting of 10 items (1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 13, 16, 18, 20, 23) respectively. Items are scored on a five-point Likert scale with response categories ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*. High scores on the Violent

Ideology Defense indicates a strong need to justify the use of violence in one's ideology and basic defense. High scores on Violent Ideology Promotion indicates the use of justified violence to promote one's ideology. There are no negative awarded items in this scale.

Perceived Societal Marginalization. Individual differences in people's subjective perceptions of the insignificance and lack of recognition of their own social groups in the domains of economy, culture, and politics are assessed using the Perceived Societal Marginalization Scale (Bollwerk et al., 2021). The scale consists of 15 items with response categories ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 6 = *Strongly Agree*. The scale does not have any subscales or reverse coding. Authors reported high internal consistency of scale on previous samples.

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). The PANAS scale, developed by Watson et al. (1998), has proven to be a reliable measure of affectivity, and it was employed in this investigation to assess just negative affectivity. The PANAS-SF is a self-report questionnaire with two 10-item scores to assess happy and negative affect. For the present study, only the Negative Affect subscale was used. Response categories ranged from 1 = *Not At All* to 5 = *Very Much*. High internal consistency has been reported by previous authors (Van-Harmelen et al., 2016).

Demographic Sheet

A detailed demographic sheet was designed to ask about age, gender, education, university type (public/private), family system, parental education, province /ethnicity, and SES.

Sample

Sample of the study consisted of 326 university students (158 men, 168 women) with age ranging from 18 years to 35 years of age (M = 23.37, $S.D$ = 3.02). Online responses were taken from students of various universities of Pakistan. Table 1 shows the frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation of the demographic variables.

Table 1

Demographic Details of the Variables of Main Study (N = 326)

Variables	Categories	Frequency	%	*M*	*SD*
Age				23.37	3.02
Gender	Men	158	48.5		
	Women	168	51.5		
Marital status					
	Married	93	28.5		
	Unmarried	233	71.5		
Currently studying in					
	BS (Hons.)	125	38.3		
	MSc	98	30.1		
	MPhil	78	23.9		
	PhD	25	7.7		
Type of university					
	Public	230	70.6		
	Private	96	29.4		
Father's education					
	Primary	61	18.7		
	Matric	43	13.2		
	FA/FSc	23	7.1		
	BA/BSc	100	30.7		

	MA/MSc	99	30.4
Mother's education			
	Primary	98	30.1
	Matric	72	22.1
	FA/FSc	29	8.9
	BA/BSc	87	26.7
	MA/MSc	40	12.3
Family system			
	Joint	149	45.7
	Nuclear	177	54.3
Ethnic groups			
	Punjabi	50	15.3
	Sindhi	36	11.0
	Baloch	37	11.3
	Pashtun	41	12.6
	Gilgiti	51	15.6
	Kashmiri	33	10.1
	Muhajir	36	11.0
	Saraiki	42	12.9
Socio economic status			
	Upper class	23	7.1
	Middle class	240	73.6

	Lower middle class	63	19.3
Have you faced any trauma in past six months?			
	Yes	207	63.5
	No	119	36.5

Table 1 indicates the distribution of the sample on the basis of age, gender, marital status, and currently studying, university type, family system, socio-economic status, and ethnic groups. The sample for study consists of students with an age range from 18-35 years. Most of the participants are currently from bachelor programs, are unmarried and are from public sector universities. Majority of the sample belong to nuclear family system and middle class. Majority of participants' parents are from nuclear family system.

Procedure

Due to the prevailing pandemic, data was collected online through Google Forms. The procedure was followed as students of different public and private universities were approached with the intent of broadening the targeted sample. The potential participants were briefed about the research and requested for their participation in the study. Each participant was made aware of the voluntary nature of their participation, the anonymity and confidentiality of their information, their right to withdrawal their participation at any point. Around 326 responses were received by the researcher. After the data collection, the data was entered in SPSS for performing analysis and the results calculated were tabulated.

RESULTS

Chapter 3

Results

The present study was conducted to study the role of perceived marginalization and negativity affectivity for violent extremism beliefs in university student belonging to different ethnic groups. Appropriate statistical procedures were used to analyze the data through SPSS. The internal consistency of the scale was determined through Cronbach alpha coefficients. Correlation was used to determine the relationship among study variables. Regression analysis was used to see the predictors of violent extremism beliefs in university students. Independent sample *t-test* was used to explore difference along gender, family system, and university types. ANOVA analysis was used to explore differences along socioeconomic status, parental status, ethnics groups and study discipline.

Reliability and Descriptive Statistics on Measures

Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were computed for all scales used in the present study. Various statistical analysis were applied to check the general trend of data including mean, standard deviation, actual and potential range of scores, values of Skewness and Kurtosis etc.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Scales in Main Study (N = 326)

Variables	*k*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	Range		Skewness	Kurtosis
					Actual	potential		
VES	24	.86	69.71	11.59	50-110	24-120	.22	-.96
VID	14	.83	40.63	7.03	28-60	14-70	.09	-1.11
VIP	10	.73	29.09	5.57	19-63	10-50	.68	2.72
NAS	10	.77	128.25	43.74	10-47	10-60	.01	-.60
PSM	15	.88	47.27	13.71	16-81	15-90	-.20	-.74

Note. k = number of items; *α* = Alpha Reliability; VES = Violent Extremism Scale; VID = Violent Ideology Defense; VIP = Violent Ideology Promotion; NAS = Negative Affectivity; PSM = Perceived Societal Marginalization.

Table 2 shows psychometric properties for the scales used in present study. The Cronbach's α value for all measures show satisfactory to high internal consistency of the scales. Results are showing that in main study all the scales are showing the values

of Skewness and kurtosis in acceptable range. Values of SD range from low to high which reveals that responses are scattered from mean of each variable.

Relationship Among Study Variables

To study the relationship among study variables including violent extremism beliefs, negative affectivity and perceived marginalization, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed. Findings are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Correlations Among Study Variables (N = 326)

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1	**VES**	-				
2	VID	.93**	-			
3	VIP	.90**	.69**	-		
4	**NAS**	.31**	.33**	.23**	-	
5	**PSM**	.32**	.37**	.22**	.38**	-

** $p < .01$.

Table 3 reveals that violent extremism along with both subscales have significant positive correlation with negative affectivity and societal marginalization. Negative affectivity has significant positive correlation with societal marginalization.

Predicting Violent Extremism From Study Variables

Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for predicting attitudes towards violent extremism from study after controlling the role of demographic variables. Results have been provided in Table 4.

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Violent Extremism from Study and Demographic Variables

Predictors	R^2	ΔR^2	*B*	*F*	95 % CI	
					LL	*UL*
Model 1	.09	.07				
Constant				6.33***	73.42	90.33
Gender			-.14**		-5.90	-.96
Education			.13*		.23	3.0
Socioeconomic Status			-.11*		-4.50	-.10
Mother's education			-.11*		-1.7	-.02
Marital Status			-.08		-5.1	.10
Model 2	.21	.19				
Constant				13.82***	54.80	72.94
Gender			-.09		-4.4	.20
Education			.11*		.03	2.6
Socioeconomic Status			-.17**		-5.50	-1.41
Mother's education			-.12*		-1.80	-.20
Marital Status			-.07		-4.80	.84
PSM			.29***		.15	.33
NAS			.18**		.10	.43

Note. PSM = Perceived Societal Marginalization, NAS = Negative Affectivity Scale.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 4 illustrates hierarchical regression analysis predicting beliefs towards violent extremism from study and demographic variables. In model 1, respondents' education was a positive predictor while socioeconomic status and mothers' education appeared to be negative predictor of violent extremism beliefs causing an overall 9%

of variance in the regression model. In model 2, perceived marginalization, negative affectivity, and respondents' education appeared to be positive predictor while socioeconomic status and mothers' education appeared to be negative predictor for violent extremism beliefs causing an overall 21% of variance in the regression model.

Analyses on Study Variables along Demographic Variables

Differences in certain demographic variables of interest including gender, family system, marital system and university type are studied in relation to corresponding changes in the main research variables that includes violent extremism, negative affectivity, perceived marginalization and its impacts. Pearson Product Moment Correlation is calculated in SPSS-22 to analyze the relationship between age, education, family income, father's education, mother's education and socio-economic status with the study variables. Table 5 shows the results.

Table 5
Correlations of Demographic Variables with Study Variables (N = 326)

Variables	Age	Education	Family Income	Father's Education	Mother's Education	SES
VES	.09	.18**	-.11*	-.08	-.14*	-.11*
VID	.08	.16**	-.06	-.07	-.12*	-.06
VIP	.09	.17**	-.15**	-.08	-.13*	-.15**
NAS	.14**	.17**	.12*	-.02	-.08	.12*
PSM	-.05	-.03	.13*	.04	.06	.13*

Note. VES = Violent Extremism Scale; VID = Violent Ideology Defense; VIP = Violent Ideology Promotion; NAS = Negative Affectivity; PSM = Perceived Societal Marginalization.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 5 shows the relationship between the demographic variables with the study variables. The results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship of violent extremism with education and significant negative relationship with mother's education. It implies that with more education violent extremism beliefs increases and as the mother's education increases the less would be the violent extremism beliefs.

Results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship of negative affectivity with age, education, family income and socio-economic status. It implies that as the age of an individual increases the more would be the negative affectivity.

Also, the higher the socio-economic status of an individual the higher would be the negative affectivity.

Findings also indicate that perceived marginalization is also positively correlated with family income and socio-economic status. As the family income and socio-economic status of an individual increases, the perceived marginalization would also increase.

Mean differences along gender were calculated by using independent sample *t*-test. Differences between men and women are reported by mean and standard deviation. The results are given in the Table 6.

Table 6

Mean Differences Across Study Variables along Gender (N = 326)

Variables	Men (n = 158)		Women (n = 168)				95% CI		Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*T*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	
VES	71.60	11.22	67.10	11.70	2.86	.004	1.13	6.13	0.39
VID	41.76	6.71	39.56	7.18	2.86	.004	.69	3.72	0.31
VIP	29.82	5.83	28.39	5.23	2.33	.02	.22	2.63	0.25
NAS	29.74	7.50	27.15	7.79	3.06	.000	0.92	4.26	0.33
PSM	48.88	13.57	45.76	13.70	2.06	.04	0.14	6.09	0.23

Note. VES = Violent Extremism Scale; VID = Violent Ideology Defense; VIP = Violent Ideology Promotion; NAS = Negative Affectivity; PSM = Perceived Societal Marginalization.

Table 6 reveals significant mean differences on violent extremism across gender. Findings shows that men exhibit higher scores on violent extremism, negative affectivity, and perceived marginalization as compared to women. The values of Cohen's *d* indicates small effect size.

Mean differences along family system are calculated by using independent sample *t*-test. Differences between joint and nuclear family systems are reported by mean and standard deviation. The results are given in the Table 7.

Table 7

Mean Differences Across Study Variables along Family System (N = 326)

Variables	Joint (n = 149)		Nuclear (n = 177)				95%CI		Cohen's d
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	
VES	70.60	11.80	68.10	11.44	1.26	.21	-.92	4.12	
VID	40.80	6.86	40.48	7.18	0.41	.68	-1.21	1.86	
VIP	29.79	5.98	28.49	5.13	2.11	.04	.72	2.52	0.23
NAS	28.97	7.88	27.93	7.62	1.20	.23	-0.66	2.73	
PSM	46.47	13.61	47.95	13.79	-0.97	.33	-4.48	1.52	

Note. VES = Violent Extremism Scale; VID = Violent Ideology Defense; VIP = Violent Ideology Promotion; NAS = Negative Affectivity; PSM = Perceived Societal Marginalization.

Table 7 reveals that participants belonging to joint family system are scoring high on Violent Ideology Promotion as compared to participants from nuclear family system. There are nonsignificant mean differences on other study variables across family system.

Mean differences along marital status are calculated by using independent sample *t*-test. Differences between married and unmarried are reported by mean and standard deviation. The results are given in the Table 8.

Table 8

Mean Differences Across Study Variables along Marital Status (N = 326)

Variables	Married (n = 93)		Unmarried (n = 233)				95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	
VES	73.12	12.21	68.37	11.10	3.40	.001	2.01	7.51	0.40
VID	42.35	7.00	39.93	6.93	2.83	.005	.73	4.09	0.34
VIP	30.76	6.22	28.41	5.14	3.50	.001	1.02	3.66	0.41
NAS	29.12	9.03	28.12	7.17	0.95	.30	-1.07	3.06	
PSM	47.11	16.28	47.34	12.57	-1.23	.89	-3.94	33.48	

Note. VES = Violent Extremism Scale; VID = Violent Ideology Defense; VIP = Violent Ideology Promotion; NAS = Negative Affectivity; PSM = Perceived Societal Marginalization.

Table 8 reveals significant mean differences on violent extremism across marital status. Findings showed that married respondents exhibit higher scores on

violent extremism as compared to unmarried. The value of Cohen's *d* indicates small effect size. There are nonsignificant differences between married and unmarried participants on other study variables.

Mean differences along marital status are calculated by using independent sample *t*-test. Differences between public and private universities are reported by mean and standard deviation. The results are given in the Table 9.

Table 9

Mean Differences Across Study Variables along University Type (N = 326)

Variables	Public (*n* = 230)		Private (*n* = 96)				95% CI		Cohen's
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*	*d*
VES	69.10	10.76	69.10	13.44	.61	.54	-1.91	3.64	
VID	40.86	6.61	40.07	7.94	.92	.35	-.89	2.46	
VIP	29.10	5.16	29.03	6.46	.11	.90	-1.25	1.41	
NAS	28.73	7.55	27.61	8.12	1.19	.23	-.73	2.97	
PSM	48.70	12.07	43.84	16.58	2.60	.01	1.16	8.56	0.36

Note. VES = Violent Extremism Scale; VID = Violent Ideology Defense; VIP = Violent Ideology Promotion; NAS = Negative Affectivity; PSM = Perceived Societal Marginalization.

Table 9 reveals significant mean differences on perceived marginalization across both groups of students. Findings shows that university students from public sector universities report more perceived marginalization as compared to the students of private sector universities. The value of Cohen's d shows small effect size. Differences between both groups of students along other study variables are nonsignificant.

DISCUSSION

Chapter 4

Discussion

The study was aimed to determine the relationship between violent extremism with negative affectivity and perceived marginalization among university students belonging to various ethnic groups. Violent fights on university campuses are becoming more common, as is the recruitment of university students into violent extremism. In Pakistan, there is very little literature on university students becoming radicalized (Ahearn, Bhui, & Jones, 2020). Limited research available on how perceived marginalization leads to negative affectivity, and violent extremism. Violent extremism tends to have a deep-rooted impact on the mental health of youth in Pakistan (Irfan, 2017). The present study aimed to bridge the gap as much as possible. The research will be beneficial for assessing violent extremism beliefs among university students of distinct ethnic groups. In addition, the role of various demographic variables, such as age, gender, family income, individual education, family system, father's education, mother's education, ethnicity, and socio-economic status, was investigated in connection to the research variables.

Data of the present study was collected online using Google Forms. The researcher received approximately 326 responses. After the data was collected, it was entered into SPSS for analysis, and the calculated findings were tabulated.

In descriptive statistics (see Table 2), mean, score range, standard deviation Skewness and kurtosis, as well as prospective scale scores, were computed and tabulated. Ranges of the score computed in the table gave the estimate of correctness of items filled by the sample. Cronbach’s reliability for each scale was computed by using the SPSS software. The reliabilities of all the scales used were appeared between the ranges of .77 to .88 that was good. The values of Skewness and kurtosis also revealed the normality of the data of all of the scale.

In order to meet the study's goals, which included determining the link between study variables (violent extremism, negative affectivity & perceived marginalization), bivariate correlation was computed (see Table 3). Correlation between the study variables is regarded of much importance as it also provides basis for the predictions.

Hypothesis 1 of the study stated that perceived marginalization and negative affectivity will positively predict violent extremism beliefs among university students. The results of the correlation analysis did provide support to this hypothesis. It was found out that there was significant positive relationship between violent extremism and perceived marginalization among university students belonging to various ethnic groups. Hierarchal regression analysis showed support for prediction. The most prevalent explanation for having violent extremism beliefs is that poverty, discrimination, and marginalization lead to grievances, which in turn makes people in favor of violence as a solution (Bhui, Warfa, & Jones, 2014). So, it can be said that the present research is also advocating and giving proof of this explanation (see Table 3). It has been established in different research that young individuals who feel lonely, isolated, excluded from an in-group, detached and estranged from society can be particularly susceptible to violent extremism. They are prone to seek solace in various radical ideologies and groups which promise to restore purpose to their followers (Kruglanski, Gelfand, Bélanger, Sheveland, Hetiarachchi, & Gunaratna, 2014). This showed that negative affectivity enhances the chances of violent extremism tendencies among young individuals (see Table 3). The results were according to the hypothesis that was proposed based on previous literature.

Hypothesis 2 of this study stated that perceived marginalization will positively predict negative affectivity. It has been found in previous works that poverty, discrimination, and marginalization lead to grievances and negative affectivity (Jensen, Seate, & James, 2018). It implies that the more an individual faces discrimination and marginalization the more it would lead that individual towards negative affectivity. The results have validated the hypothesis based upon previous literature (see Table 3). This showed that perceived marginalization enhances the chances of negative affectivity.

Hypothesis 3 assumed that male participants will score higher on violent extremism, perceived marginalization and negative affectivity than their female counterparts. The results shows that males are having high mean score on violent extremism than females (Coker et al., 2002). This shows that men are more inclined towards violent extremism as compared to women (Dastgir, 2019). So, it can be seen that the results of the present research is in accordance with the hypothesis and with the previous research findings (see Table 6). As far as negative affectivity is concerned past research have concluded that females are more prone to negative affectivity as

compared to males (Babin, Griffin, Borges, & Boles, 2013). However, our present research findings contradict this conclusion and adds a very useful finding that males could also be more prone to negative affectivity under some circumstances (see Table 6). As men are having more aggressive or violent tendencies as found in the above findings, so it is very much likely that men do suffer from negative emotions in response to such hostile circumstances. In case of perceived marginalization previous research have shown that men do face more social or political marginalization as compared to women, who also have perceived marginalization but in other gender role related circumstances (Garcia, Lester, Cloninger, Cloninger, Zeigler-Hill, & Shackelford, 2017). So, the present findings are in accordance with the prior researches.

Hypothesis 4 assumed that participants from minority ethnic group will score high on violent extremism, negative affectivity and perceived marginalization as compared to majority ethnic group. Present findings are clearly validating the hypothesis (see Table 3). According to a recent study, people from minority ethnic groups who are experiencing sentiments of marginalization, injustice, discrimination, and violations of human rights are more likely to engage in violent extremism (LaFree & Ackerman, 2009). Individuals or groups who feel alone, separated from an ingroup, detached, and estranged from society are more prone to negative attitudes and feelings, according to research (Kruglanski et al., 2014). Minorities in Pakistan have not only been pushed to the edges of society, but they are also routinely persecuted (Bhutto, Khoso, & Jhatial, 2017). So, it shows that people from smaller or minority ethnic group do face hardships and torments and they do respond to that by having feelings of hatred, adverse emotions, feelings of marginalization and retaliation towards dominant out-groups.

Present study also analyzed the correlation of age, education, family income, father's education, mother's education and socio-economic status with all study variables. Findings revealed that there is a significant positive relationship of violent extremism with the individual's education (see Table 5). Here, the present findings are in contradiction to the most of the previous research studies that suggest that most of the people who are involved in violent extremism are uneducated and illiterate (Stephens, Sieckelinck, & Boutellier, 2019). There are, however, a few examples of educated young from Pakistan's HEIs (Higher Education Institutions) being involved in violent extremism (Ahmed & Jafri, 2020). According to a study involving university

students in Kenya, educated youth develop complaints against corrupt ruling officials (Botha, 2014). So, it is established that there are chances of increase of violent extremism beliefs in educated individuals as well depending upon the circumstances. Findings also revealed that there is a significant negative relationship of violent extremism with the mother's education (see Table 5). Studies have also shown that by educating women, she can bring change leading the process of preventing violent extremism (PVE) at different levels (Qadeem, 2018). Women are already widely engaged in both counter-extremism and de-radicalization in schemes from Northern Ireland, to Indonesia, to Yemen and by educating more and more women these counter measures can be multiplied (Carter, 2013). It shows that the how important it is for a woman to be educated because women can bring change in society with much bigger impact in any role, be it a teacher or a mother. So, our present findings are validating the previous research works.

Results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship of negative affectivity with age (see Table 5). Previous research has shown the effects of negative affectivity appear to weaken over time (Rink, 2009). It implies that our present findings are in contradiction with the previous literature because our findings primarily suggest that people who have gone through hostility and discrimination might manifest negative affectivity as the age increases as well because those feelings of hatred have strengthened over time as we know that negative affectivity is considered as a stable and inherited disposition (Clark at al., 1994). Results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship of negative affectivity with individual's education (see Table 5) as previous research study has also suggests that Lack of chances, unemployment, culturally related syndromes, and day-to-day challenges There is a sense of frustration and mental disengagement among the youth in Pakistan, as the jobless rate has remained unchanged at 5.9% since 2015 (Aly, Taylor, & Karnovsky, 2014). It shows that as the educational qualification of an individual increases the level of negative affectivity also rises as per with the rising unemployment in the country. Present study highlights that negative affectivity is positively correlated with family income and socio-economic status (see Table 5). Results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship of negative affectivity with family income and socio-economic status. Previous research have shown that the family income is negatively correlated with the family status because as the status grows the impact of negative

emotions eases off (MacLeod, 2016). An Other Study has also concluded that socio-economic status is negatively correlated with the negative affectivity (Adler, Epel, Castellazzo, & Ickovics, 2000). It means that our present findings are changing the dimensions of the previous researches and it shows that it is not really necessary for someone to not deal with negative affectivity being from higher family status and social status. There could be unwanted circumstances that can put someone to elongated phases of negative emotionality.

Results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship of perceived marginalization with family income and socio-economic status (see Table 5). Previous works have clearly suggested that as the family income and socio-economic status of an individual improves his or her feelings of marginalization would go away and vice versa (Routsila, 2018). Other studies have shown that subjective deprivation is more important in impacting one's perceived quality of life than objective deprivation, because only a perception of deficiency creates discontent (Ghosh, Chan, Manuel, & Dilimulati, 2017). However, our findings are negating these works in a unique way and creating a new dimension all-around because there might be possible that people from minority ethnic groups being from upper socio-economic background are still discriminated socially and politically by dominant group based upon their ethnicity and they feel marginalize, therefore. In this way our research finding has supplemented the already existing research in a unique manner.

Present study also highlights the mean differences along marital status. Findings showed that married respondents exhibit higher scores on violent extremism as compared to unmarried (see Table 8). However, it has been established by previous work that married individuals have less tendencies of violent extremism as compared to unmarried individuals and single, unemployed individuals are more prone to the violent extremism (Kiendrebeogo & Ianchovichina, 2016). So, our findings are in contradiction to the previous research in some way but at the same time uncovering a new dimension as well. Generally, people from minority ethnic groups, they face outright discrimination from the very start of their lives and those persecuted feelings linger on and create a retaliatory behavior afterwards. So, in that manner there is a greater possibility of manifesting violent extremism behavior by the married individuals of that minority group for safeguarding their rights as a community.

Findings shows that university students from public sector universities report more perceived marginalization as compared to the students at private sector universities (see Table 9). Research have shown that individuals from lower socio-economic status faces outright discrimination in their institutions and workplaces based upon their economic conditions (Adler et al., 2000). It happens everywhere in this capitalist world; people particularly young ones are often ridiculed based upon their parent's economic background. Our findings have complemented to this narrative that how people are judged upon their economic conditions rather than intellectual capacity.

Implications of the Present Research

The importance of the study is enlisted below:

1. This study is beneficial to learn about the predictors of violent extremism beliefs in university students.
2. The study is beneficial for understanding how various demographic factors are associated with and contributing towards violent extremism beliefs among university students belonging to various ethnic groups.
3. The present study contributes towards highlighting the need to focus perceived marginalization and related negative affectivity while planning intervention programs for preventing violent extremism in educated youth.

Limitations and Suggestions

It is not humanly possible to conduct research without flaws and loops. The gaps of a study maintain the need for exploring further the phenomenon by regarding the limitations of the past research. Some suggestions and limitations are given which can be helpful for further research in this domain.

1. In comparison to physical, participants are less likely to stay fully engaged for a survey lasting more than 8-10 minutes in online data collection. This might have affected the reporting of the participants.
2. The sample technique was convenient sampling, and the sample was accessed only from universities in Rawalpindi and Islamabad which may have affected the generalizability of findings.
3. As the data was gathered mainly from self-reports, there is a greater chance of socially desirable responses especially on the measures of violent extremism beliefs and perceived marginalization.

4. In the present study, cross-sectional and correlational research design was used. There is also a need to do longitudinal research for in-depth study.

Conclusion

The present study had goal of studying the relationship of Violent Extremism with negative affectivity and perceived marginalization. For this purpose, cross-sectional and correlation research design was used, and the results revealed that there was positive relationship of violent extremism with negative affectivity and perceived marginalization. Negative affectivity and perceived marginalization also have positive relationship with each other. Present study also analyzed the correlation between gender, education, ethnicity, family income, parent's education and SES with all study variables which indicated significant results.

Results show that men exhibit higher on violent extremism as compared to females. Findings reveal that participants from minority group exhibit higher levels of violent extremism, negative affectivity and perceived marginalization as compared to other groups. Individual's education positively whereas mother's education negatively predicts violent extremism. Findings showed that married respondents exhibit higher scores on violent extremism as compared to unmarried and students from public sector universities report more perceived marginalization as compared to the students at private sector universities.

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APPENDICES

Appendix - A

Informed Consent

I am Faizan Riaz, student of MSc. at National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad. I am conducting research to explore your views about under what circumstances, use of force and violence becomes justified to achieve ideological goals and bring positive change in society.

Participation in this research project is voluntary. I request you to participate in my research and share honestly about your views with us. I understand that sharing your personal experiences and opinions with anyone is very hard, but your participation will help us a lot in understanding the phenomenon in a better way. If you find some questions that you really do not want to answer, you can leave but sharing true and honest information is important for us so that we could know the real experiences and thoughts of our youth.

If you decide to participate in this research, you will be given a questionnaire booklet on which you can share your experiences and opinions. This will take only 10 to 15 minutes of your precious time. I assure you that I will not ask your name, or any other identity and information provided by you will remain confidential and only be used for research purposes. You have all the right to discontinue participation at any point without giving any explanation. If some statement is not clear to you, you can ask me, and I will explain about it. If you want to get further information about the research, you can contact my supervisor Dr. Sobia Masood (Email: s.masood@nip.edu.pk). Thank you for your time in reading this information sheet.

Regards,

Faizan Riaz
National Institute of Psychology
Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad

After reading the Information Sheet, I am voluntarily participating in this research

Yes ------

No-------

Appendix - B

Demographic Information Form

Age: _____

Gender: Male: _____ Female: _____

Marital Status: _____

Currently you are a student of: BS (Hons.) ____ MSc. ____ MPhil. _____ PhD ____

Name of University: _____

University Type: Private _____ Public/Government _____

Family System: Joint _____ Nuclear _____

Parental status: Alive and living together _____

Alive but separated _____

One of the parents is deceased _____

Both are deceased _____

Family Income: _____(Approximate Amount per month)

Father's education: _____

Mother's education: _____

Number of siblings: _____

Ethnicity: _____

Socioeconomic status: Lower middle_____ Middle class _____ Upper class _____

Have you faced any unpleasant situation or incident in last six months that has put you in extreme stress? Yes _____ No _____

Appendix - C

Negative Affect Schedule

This scale consists of several words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then list the number from the scale below next to each word. Indicate to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, now OR indicate the extent you have felt this way over the past week (circle the instructions you followed when taking this measure).

S. no.	Items	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
During present moment OR over the past week, how did you feel:						
1	Distressed					
2	Upset					
3	Guilty					
4	Scared					
5	Hostile					
6	Irritable					
7	Ashamed					
8	Nervous					
9	Jittery					
10	Afraid					

Appendix - D

Violent Extremism Scale

نیچے دیئے گئے بیانات آپ کے مذہبی، نظریاتی، نسلی اور سیاسی گروپ یا ذاتی خیالات، سوچ اور رویے کی عکاسی کرتے ہیں- یاد رہے کہ کوئی بھی بیان صحیح یا غلط نہیں ہے- آپ نے یہ بتانا ہوگا کے آپ کس حد تک ان بیانات سے متفق یا غیر متفق ہیں- برائے مہربانی دیے گئے پیمانے پر اپنی رائے کا اظہار اس بیان سے کریں جو آپ کے رویے کی سب سے بہترین عکاسی کرتا ہے- یاد رہے کہ ان بیانات میں گروہ سے مراد کوئی بھی ایسا مذہبی، نظریاتی، نسلی یا سیاسی گروہ ہے جسے آپ اپنی شناخت کا سب سے اہم حصہ سمجھتے ہیں-

	بیانات	بالکل غیر متفق	غیر متفق	پتہ نہیں	متفق	بالکل متفق
1	لوگوں کو اپنا نقطہ نظر (ذاتی، مذہبی، سیاسی، کوئی اور) سمجھانے کے لیے ان پر دباؤ ڈالنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں-					
2	اگر کوئی میرے گروہ کے خلاف پروپیگنڈا کرے تو میں اس کی مار پیٹ کرنے والوں کا ساتھ دوں گا-					
3	اپنے مذہبی عقائد کے فروغ کے لیے دوسرے مذاہب/فرقوں کے خلاف اشتعال انگیز بیان دینے میں کوئی حرج نہیں-					
4	اپنے گروہ کے لوگوں کو ظلم و ستم سے بچانے کے لیے اگر تشدد کا بھی سہارا لینا تو اس میں کوئی حرج نہیں-					
5	اپنے نظریے (ذاتی، مذہبی، سیاسی، کوئی اور) کے فروغ کے لیے دوسروں پر دباؤ ڈالنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں-					
6	حکومتی ادارے (پولیس یا سیکیورٹی فورسز) اگر میرے ساتھ ناانصافی کریں تو میں ان پر ہتھیار اٹھانے کی حمایت کروں گا/گی-					
7	لوگوں کو اپنا نقطہ نظر سمجھانے کے لیے طاقت کا استعمال کرنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں-					
8	کسی کی طرف سے آپ کو حد سے زیادہ دباؤ کا سامنا کرنے پہ اس کے خلاف ہتھیار اٹھانے میں کوئی حرج نہیں-					

9	اگر میرے گروہ کو (مذہبی، نظریاتی، سیاسی، نسلی) حکومتی ادارے (پولیس یا سیکیورٹی فورسز) سے خطرہ ہو تو میں ان پر ہتھیار اٹھانے کی حمایت کروں گا/گی۔					
10	لوگوں کو اپنے نقطہ نظر سمجھانے کے لیے اگر تشدد کا سہارا بھی لینا پڑے تو اس میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
11	میں کسی ایسی تنظیم کا ساتھ دوں گا/گی جو میرے گروہ (مذہبی، نظریاتی، سیاسی، نسلی) کے بنیادی حقوق کے لیے لڑے، چاہے وہ تنظیم قوانین ہی کیوں نہ توڑے۔					
12	اپنی معاشرتی، مذہبی روایات اور اقدار کی حفاظت کے لیے اگر تشدد کا بھی سہارا لینا پڑے تو اس میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
13	اپنے سیاسی مطالبات منوانے کے لیے احتجاج توڑ پھوڑ کرنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
14	اپنے حقوق اور سلامتی کے حصول کے لیے اگر تشدد کا بھی سہارا لینا پڑے تو میں اس کی حمایت کروں گا/گی۔					
15	اگر کوئی میرے مذہبی عقائد کے خلاف پروپیگنڈا کرے تو میں اس کے خلاف احتجاج توڑ پھوڑ کی حمایت کروں گا/گی۔					
16	اپنے سیاسی بیانیے کے فروغ کے لیے دوسروں کے خلاف اشتعال انگیز بیان دینے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
17	میں اپنے گروہ (مذہبی، نظریاتی، سیاسی، نسلی) پر ہونے والے ظلم و ستم کے خلاف احتجاج میں حصہ لوں گا/گی، بھلے وہ احتجاج پر تشدد ہی کیوں نہ ہو۔					
18	نظریاتی مقاصد کے حصول/فروغ کے لیے احتجاج توڑ پھوڑ کرنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
19	مذہب کی توہین کرنے پر کسی کو جان سے مارنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
20	اپنے سیاسی نظریات کے فروغ کے لیے دوسروں کے بنیادی حقوق کا استحصال کرنے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
21	بری حکومت سے نجات کا واحد حل پر تشدد احتجاج ہوتا ہے۔					

22	اگر کوئی ہمارے مذہب کے خلاف پروپیگنڈا کرے تو ان کے خلاف ہتھیار اٹھانا ہی واحد حل ہے۔					
23	اپنے سیاسی نظریے کے فروغ کے لیے تشدد کا سہارا لینے میں کوئی حرج نہیں۔					
24	اگر کوئی میرے مذہب کی توہین کرے تو میں اسے جان سے مارنے کی حمایت کروں گا /گی۔					

Appendix - E

Perceived Societal Marginalization Scale

Individuals belonging to a specific ethnic group may experience some form of societal marginalization. Please read the following statements carefully and keeping in mind your experiences, please tick (√) the box on the scale that you feel is the most appropriate according.

S.no.	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Due to my affiliation with _____ ethnic group, I feel:						
1	The work of people like me is not valued enough by society.					
2	The cultural interests of people like me are given too little consideration in society.					
3	Most politicians do not care what people like me think.					
4	People like me do not get enough recognition for their work.					
5	The values of people like me are becoming less and less important in society.					
6	The problems of people like me are unimportant to most politicians.					
7	No matter how hard we work, people like me are not appreciated.					
8	No matter how hard we work, people like me are not appreciated.					
9	The concerns of people like me are not noticed by politicians.					
10	The work of people like me is not recognized enough in society.					
11	The customs, traditions and manners of people like me are less and less appreciated.					
12	The problems of people like me are not heard by most politicians.					

13	The job situation of people like me receives too little attention in society.					
14	People like me are no longer allowed to express their opinions freely in public.					
15	Politics pays too little attention to the interests of people like me.					

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Faizan Riaz
Dear Michael Bollwerk, Hope this email finds you

Michael Bollwerk <mbollwer@uni-muenster.de>
to me

Dear Faizan Riaz,

Thank you for your request. Of course, you are free
Bollwerk et al., in press

Regarding the instruction, this is a translated versio

In the following, you will see statements relating to s
people in our society who are in a similar situation t
There are no right or wrong answers.
How strongly do you agree with the following statem
*Your response can range from 1 (**"completely disa***

I wish you much success with your studies.

Kind regards,

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Faizan Riaz <faizanriaz747@gmail.com>
to maryamhaleem

Dear Maryam Haleem,

Hope this email finds you well. I am a student
Pakistan. My research title is "Violent Extremi
and Negative Affectivity". I am working under
research is Violent Extremism. For this, I want
consider all the ethical protocols. I would be g

I will be grateful for your prompt response and
helpful as well. If you have any query, you can

Regards
FAIZAN RIAZ

Maryam Haleem
to me

You have my permission to use violent extrem