

ENGINEERS OF JIHAD

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The
Curious
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between
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DIEGO GAMBETTA AND STEFFEN HERTOOG

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PREFACE

TO EVEN THE MOST CASUAL OBSERVER, KEY MOMENTS IN THE LAST TWO centuries demonstrate the disproportionate impact that the violent actions of a handful of extremists can have in shaping the course of events in the Western world. Not all extremists' acts have had momentous effects of course, but memorable cases come readily to mind. The attacks of September 11, 2001, for example, whose nefarious consequences have been and will remain with us for a long time, and the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand and his wife by a Serbian nationalist in Sarajevo in 1914, which unleashed World War I. The Spartacists whose revolutionary zeal contributed to the rise of the right in Germany in 1919 and the Baader-Meinhof Gang which, fifty years later, shook the stability of the young West German democracy. Or the anarchists who rocked the European monarchies at the turn of the twentieth century, and Sendero Luminoso in Peru and FARC in Colombia who held the countries hostage for decades. Bearing in mind all of these, the Islamist extremists, who have been the salient threat for the last two decades and who are the focus of this book, are but the latest in a long line.

Violent extremists may have abruptly changed the course of history, both nationally and internationally, but often not in the way they intended. The outcome of their actions depends more on the response of the establishment that is targeted than on the nature of the actions themselves. Who could have anticipated the reaction of the Bush administration to Al-Qaida's 9/11 attack, a disastrous war on Saddam Hussein's Iraq that had nothing to do with the attack, to say nothing of the mad carnage of World War I, which broke out following the assassination of the Austrian archduke?

To make their opponents feel threatened, extremists do not need to be well armed, well organized, or even very numerous. But their extreme risk-taking behavior makes the question of what kind of individuals become extremists all the more pressing. What kind of people embark on a violent, radical course when their chances of success are low and the fight they pick is so asymmetrical in terms of force? Only a few violent groups develop social roots, sowing the seeds of broader militant movements and larger insurgencies, and fewer succeed in gaining power. Most are ultimately crushed and disappear. So what makes some people form or join groups of violent extremists?

Answering this question has been difficult for social scientists for obvious reasons. Extremists are few in number, operate underground, and are hard to reach not least because they tend to die young. Whatever they communicate to the outside world is tainted by their strategic aims—they let us know only what they believe serves their purposes, and it is hard to separate truth from obfuscation. Trying to understand their motivation from afar through introspection does not help either, as the very fact that they are extremists makes them difficult to identify or empathize with.

The powers under attack, too, strive to impose their narrative on events, and demonizing extremists is an inevitable part of that process. The very use of the label "terrorist" is part of the ubiquitous tactic of belittling the enemy's ends while magnifying their means. State enforcement agencies and armies are wary of allowing independent scholars access to information that might undermine their official rhetoric. It is not even clear whether state

agencies, under pressure from the paranoia and political impatience that typically inform “counterterrorism” policies, can afford the time and mental energy to turn the wealth of information that they possess about extremists into a deep understanding of the phenomenon. It is striking that even at a safe historical distance from particular conflicts with extremists, no insightful reports from government agencies seem to surface. The truth could be the first victim of conflict not so much because it is censored, manipulated, or strategically kept from public view for reasons of “national security,” but because it is never reached in the first place. There continues to be a yawning gap between what violent extremists can do and what we, the public, really understand about them.

The difficulty of researching violent extremism has not deterred people from writing about the phenomenon, and the literature is as copious as it is inconclusive. While there are pearls of high-quality research, with which we shall engage in the book, much of it is based on speculation and armchair theorizing. When there is any evidence at all it is often anecdotal and distorted by selection biases or prejudices.

In this book we take a different and unusual approach. Our point of departure is the surprising fact: *engineers are overrepresented among violent Islamist extremists*. This puzzling correlation, the existence of which we establish beyond a reasonable doubt in the first chapter, offers a vantage point from which to understand the nature of Islamist extremism and the mechanisms behind its emergence.

Relying on education as our key variable has several advantages. The level of education and, for those who attended university, the discipline of the degree pursued are types of biographic information that are *not very difficult to obtain*; because they are considered irrelevant for governments’ counterterrorism operations, they are unlikely to be classified or strategically manipulated. Data on education are also, in this case, preferable to data on occupation, since *everyone* receives some education and does so *early in life*; in addition, education usually does not change or progress after an individual has gone through the education system, while occupation does. So these are types of information that we can potentially acquire about everyone, even extremists, many of whom are old enough to have gone to university but are too young to have had a significant career. Lastly, education level and types are fairly comparable across the educational systems of different countries.

But there is more to education level and type: their greatest advantage for our purposes is that they reflect actual *behavior* rather than (self-) reported attitudes, and, unlike other biographical data that are often available—such as gender, age, or place of birth—they are at least to some extent the result of the subjects’ *choice*. As such they carry a wealth of information that can help us uncover important socioeconomic circumstances as well as personal dispositions. The *discipline* of the degree attained in particular has the potential to contain information about personal characteristics. Individuals’ preexisting traits and motivations may determine how they choose among similarly demanding and rewarding but otherwise incommensurable areas of study, such as medicine, engineering, economics, or law. For those who can afford to select among equivalent courses, their choices are likely to be less constrained by social or economic factors and thus be a proxy of personal propensities.

These features of education made it both possible and worthwhile for us to put together data sets on the level and type of education of five categories of Islamist activists.

- (1) Three large and diffuse groups: militant individuals born and active in a variety of Muslim countries in peacetime; militants born or raised in Western countries; and nonviolent Islamists from across the Muslim world.
- (2) Two more specific groups: Islamist extremists in Iran before the revolution; and Islamist extremists from around the world who defected and abandoned the ways of violent politics.

We do not include in the main sample larger Islamist insurgent groups such as Boko Haram in Nigeria, the Shabab in Somalia, the Taliban in Afghanistan, and ISIS in Iraq and Syria. Even though they now represent a salient threat to Western interests, we believe that they are significantly different from the smaller clandestine groups. They operate in less asymmetric conflicts and engage in more traditional warfare; they have a territorial basis and strategy; and they build up a governance of sorts in the territories they hold, with rich interactions with local communities. What we know about them indicates that both their recruitment mechanisms and people's motivations for joining are likely to be very different.

While we focused on smaller groups rather than full-blown insurgencies, we pursued wide-ranging comparisons across ideologies as we could. We collected data on the education of nine types of right- and left-wing extremists active both before and after World War II: the early Nazi and Italian fascist movements; the neo-Nazis in Germany and Austria; U.S. and Russian white supremacists; members of the Spartakusbund, of the Rote Armee Fraktion and of the Brigade Rosse; and a collection of anarchists active around the world. In total, we collected biographical data on more than four thousand individuals.

A second, more general advantage of our approach lies in the type of reasoning that results from starting research with a causal puzzle. Research on complex topics can easily drown in a sea of conjecture. Bad research is littered with unnervingly long lists of potential causes of whatever it is the researcher is trying to explain: asking, for example, "What are the causes of suicide?" is not likely to be of much help in identifying any of them. By contrast, following a method Emile Durkheim put to systematic use, asking, "Why do Protestants commit suicide more often than Catholics or Jews?" and thus restricting the range of what differentiates one group from another, can help isolate some of the causes of suicide.

Similarly, our puzzle compels us to recast the grand questions concerning extremism within circumscribed limits: whatever conjecture we put forward must be compatible with the basic finding that engineers are much more likely (and, as we will see, students of certain other disciplines much *less* likely) to pursue the violent route of Islamist extremism. Conversely, any inference we draw from this basic fact, by being narrower and well-defined, offers greater scope for being testable. Engaging in this exercise opens up unexpected implications for extremism of other kinds, both right and left wing, which we compare with Islamist extremism in the last three chapters.

There are four classic questions that surround extremism that the correlation at the core of our book will help us frame in a new and clearer light.

What are the socioeconomic conditions that explain why people join extremist groups?

With respect to Islamist extremists alone, scholars have produced an "almost inexhaustible

lists of precipitating factors, including the failure of secular modernization projects, blocked social mobility, economic malaise, Arab defeat in the 1967 war with Israel, the legacy of colonialism and cultural imperialism, and political alienation” (Wiktorowicz 2004b: 3). When taking a broader view to include other kinds of extremists, the list becomes even longer. Poverty is often invoked, though its presence is uneven at best; in some cases it seems to matter but not in others, or if it does it is not with first movers but with second-generation rebels (see, e.g., Hertog’s review [2010] of Krueger 2007). In fact, the opposite effect has also been detected: there is evidence of a *positive* correlation between *level* of education and militancy both among Islamist and left-wing radicals (Russell and Miller 1977; Krueger and Maleckova 2003; Krueger 2007; Berrebi 2007).

To deal with these contrasting predictions, social movement theories have invoked “political opportunity structures” and “political entrepreneurs” able “to frame discontent” (Snow et al. 1986; Tarrow 1998; Tilly 2004; Wiktorowicz 2004a, 2004b). Still, concepts such as these are too abstract to distinguish between cases with precision, and it is not apparent how they can generate testable hypotheses that can explain why, among larger dissatisfied populations, certain agents were the first to become radicalized or were more prone to join. Social movement theorists themselves have advocated a move away from global theories to more mechanism-based explanations (McAdam, Tarrow, and Tilly 2001). Some important results have been achieved in this direction, for instance, by studying how social networks matter in mobilizing certain individuals rather than others (McAdam 1986; Sageman 2004).

By taking the general question to the specific microlevel of mobilization we aim to contribute to this more focused research agenda: we do not look for any general mobilizing factor but for factors that are consistent with Islamic *engineers* rebelling to a greater extent than graduates of other disciplines. Can we identify the socioeconomic conditions to which *engineers* are particularly exposed relative to other graduates that could explain their radicalization? And could these conditions be the same ones that contribute to mobilization generally?

Do some people more than others have a mind-set susceptible to the lure of extremism?

The idea that, given the “right” socioeconomic conditions, *anyone* can end up an extremist is widespread among social scientists. We are wary of believing that there could be *types* of individuals whose hardwired traits make them more likely to become extremists. This is not just because it seems contradictory for a *social* scientist to focus on factors other than “the social.” Many among us also hold deep-seated beliefs that are hostile to psychological explanations—for example, that humans are born *tabula rasa* or that it is morally wrong to assume that there are innate predispositions to embrace certain political ideas.

But there are better justifications for the social scientists’ skepticism. These lie in the weakness of the existing psychological studies. While we know that violent extremists are more likely to be male and young, no other feature has consistently emerged. No one has been able to construct a profile of *the* archetypal extremist. A thorough review of the psychological studies of “the mind of the terrorist” by Victoroff (2005), a psychiatrist, ends with somewhat vague statements such as “terrorists are psychologically extremely heterogeneous” and “terrorist behavior is probably *always* determined by a combination of innate factors, biological factors, early developmental factors, cognitive factors, temperament, environmental influences, and group dynamics” (34–35).

If everything explains then nothing does. Many social scientists thus understandably think that the “terrorist mind” is a chimera and that by and large extremists are “normal people” (Kruglanski and Fishman 2006; Ruby 2002; Silke 1998). Still, it may be premature to come to that conclusion. As Victoroff (2005) writes, “the much-cited claim that no individual factors identify those at risk for becoming terrorists is based on *completely inadequate research*” (3, emphasis added). Furthermore, an increasing amount of empirically grounded research in political psychology, which we review in [chapter 6](#), shows that political preferences in general are grounded in personality types and even in genetic dispositions.

The puzzling correlation at the core of our book carries implications that offer a good opportunity to evaluate the extent to which personality traits matter. Once we control for socioeconomic conditions that lead engineers to rebel we can measure the extent to which engineers are still overrepresented; and if they are, we can infer that character traits must matter, given that character likely influences choice of education and vice versa.

There are theoretical grounds to suggest that certain political and ideological orientations can be either promoted by the discipline one chooses to study or be the reason why certain individuals are attracted to a discipline in the first place. As for being promoted, both the Marxist and the Weberian traditions would predict that professional socialization shapes, respectively, one’s economic interests and one’s beliefs about the causal and moral order of the world. As for the attraction hypothesis, there are plausible reasons to expect that the choice of different disciplines will be driven by different preexisting talents, tastes, and dispositions.

To what extent is the question of who ends up becoming an extremist a matter of “supply”—different types of people choosing particular types of extremism—or a matter of “demand”—groups searching for and selecting suitable recruits?

There is a particular mechanism that could explain engineers’ overrepresentation and weaken our inferences that socioeconomic circumstances or personality matter and which speaks to another general question concerning extremists. Theoretical work on the economics of terrorism (Bueno de Mesquita 2005; Benmelech, Berrebi, and Klor 2010) points to recruitment strategies to explain why some well-known “terrorists” come from relatively privileged backgrounds: of all the individuals that at any given point are clamoring to commit violent political acts, organizations select those who seem most likely to succeed, and these people are more likely to be found among the elites.

This explanation of violent extremists as demand driven seems particularly suited to the case of engineers, who possess technical skills that make them prized recruits among all kinds of extremist groups. This conjecture can be tested by looking in depth at how and why engineers end up becoming extremists—for instance, whether engineers are found in greater than expected numbers among other types of extremists who have as much interest as Islamist radicals in employing the skills of engineers; and, regardless of the type of extremists, whether engineers occupy roles in the organizations that best exploit their technical skills.

Does ideology matter in determining which types of people join certain groups?

The strategic recruitment hypothesis may not work if different types of people are attracted to different types of groups, in which case regardless of how groups select, groups would receive different types of people: “It is plausible but yet to be proven that differences

types of terrorism disproportionately attract individuals with specific temperaments. Future research should attempt to determine the most likely psychological types among terrorists from “groups with different political orientations” (Victoroff 2005: 35). We take up this challenge through the focused lens of our puzzling correlation. Are there particular traits among engineers that cause them to be more attracted to the Islamist radical ideology, and if so, what are these? And do we find that engineers are also attracted by ideologies that have features in common with the Islamist ideology?

In [chapter 1](#) we examine the distribution of engineers and graduates from other disciplines among Islamist radicals active in Muslim countries. In [chapter 2](#) we explore to what extent the rather neglected theory of relative deprivation as a source of radicalization is supported by the data on education of Muslim world extremists. In [chapter 3](#) we probe how robust and exhaustive an explanation relative deprivation really is by analyzing (1) the educational distribution of extremists in countries in which engineers have not been particularly deprived—for instance, in Western countries, and (2) whether engineers stand out relative to other graduates even when we vary factors—use of violence, group religiosity, and propensity to defect—that should make no difference as far as relative deprivation is concerned. In [chapter 4](#) we investigate whether the ideology of Islamist extremists—covering an ensemble of beliefs, values, and tastes—has any parallel with that of groups of non-Islamist political extremists: in other words whether Islamist extremists’ ideology is more akin to that of the extreme right or the extreme left. In [chapter 5](#) we detail the education of a long list of non-Islamist extremists, both on the right and the left of the political spectrum. Lastly, in [chapter 6](#), we try to discover what might be the character traits and dispositions that distinguish the various types of extremists.

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When we first posted a paper on the web in 2008 describing the puzzle that lies at the core of this book, many people who read it superficially or even just heard about it took it either as a chance to attack and ridicule engineers in general or took exception to what we wrote as if we did attack engineers in general. These responses were regrettable and unwarranted: we write about a fringe of engineers who, while much more likely than people from other disciplines to join some extremist groups, remain a tiny minority. It is no larger than the graduates of the humanities and social sciences who are as overrepresented in other types of extremist groups as we shall show in [chapter 5](#). Our first thanks should therefore go to the many other engineers who wrote to us or about our puzzle fairly and offered perceptive comments, as for instance Susan Karlin in *IEEE Spectrum* (<http://spectrum.ieee.org/telecom/security/extremist-engineers>, posted on 1 September 2008), the magazine of the largest professional association of engineers in the world.

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¹ We decided to include Hamas because it is a hybrid group that, on the one hand, uses many conventional “terrorist” tactics and that for long periods of its existence lacked a territorial basis but, on the other, is larger and more embedded in local society than typical “terrorist” groups. Leaving it out of the sample would not materially change results.

The Education of Islamist Extremists

ON CHRISTMAS DAY 2009, UMAR FAROUK ABDULMUTALLAB, A TWENTY-three-year-old Nigerian man, arrived from Ghana into Amsterdam's Schiphol airport where he boarded Northwest Airlines Flight 253 to Detroit. As the airplane approached its destination, Abdulmutallab disappeared for twenty minutes into the lavatory. Back in his seat, he started fumbling around with his underwear. Neighboring passengers saw his trousers on fire and Jasper Schuringa, a Dutch film director, jumped on Abdulmutallab and subdued him, while flight attendants rushed to the scene with a fire extinguisher. The explosive device he had hidden in his pants failed to detonate and Abdulmutallab was arrested. Authorities discovered that he had been in contact with Al-Qaida elements in Yemen. Just a year earlier Abdulmutallab had received a degree in mechanical engineering from University College London.¹

Two months before Abdulmutallab's attempt, on 13 October 2009, Mohamed Game, a thirty-seven-year-old Libyan living in Italy, blew himself up with two kilos of nitrate at the entrance of the Caserma Santa Barbara, an army barracks in Milan. This was the first and thus far only suicide attack attempted in Italy, and Game might have been a "lone wolf" operator, at most a member of a small local network. Game—who lost his right hand in the attack and is now serving a fourteen-year sentence—has a degree in electronic engineering.

Exactly three months before Game's failed attack, on 13 July 2009, a German court sentenced forty-seven-year-old German Pakistani Aleem Nasir to eight years in prison for his role as an Al-Qaida facilitator in Europe. Nasir had been traveling regularly to the tribal areas in Pakistan, supposedly to trade in semiprecious stones but apparently to transfer money to and coordinate European recruitment for, Islamist militant groups. Nasir is said to have been enlisting a number of German Muslims for jihad, among them German Moroccan Bekka Harrach, who would become infamous—also in 2009—for his videotaped threats of jihad against the German government, apparently recorded in a hideout in Pakistan. Nasir holds a degree in mechanical engineering while Harrach had begun college studies of laser technology and mathematics before dropping out to take a part-time job in a mosque in Bonn.²

Apart from being male and of Islamic faith, these four men have little in common. They vary in terms of nationality, age, the Western country with which they had most contact, and even the extremist network they were part of. They also differ in marital status: Game, Nasir, and Harrach had wives and children; Abdulmutallab did not.

Their careers vary greatly, too. Nasir had worked at an energy research institute in Karlsruhe before being fired for supposed extremist statements, after which he worked as a gem trader. Game, despite his degree, had a history of underemployment and was in debt while Harrach lived off odd jobs. Abdulmutallab never even began a career, jumping straight from his studies into extremist activities.

The only thing they have in common is having studied engineering.

As one would expect there are militant Islamist university or college graduates who have

not had successful careers after graduation: Faisal Shahzad, the Pakistani man who left a SUV packed with explosives near Times Square in Manhattan on 1 May 2010, is said to have been “unemployed and bankrupt at the time of his arrest,” though it is not clear whether his progressive radicalization was the effect or the cause of his unemployment.³ Wadih El-Hage, a Lebanese man who is serving a life sentence in the United States for his involvement in the 1998 bombings of U.S. embassies in Africa, held minimum-wage jobs in the United States as a city custodian and auto mechanic, despite having university training as an urban planner.⁴

However, other extremists abandoned successful careers to devote themselves to the cause. Abdul Subhan Qureshi, leader of the Students Islamic Movement of India, who was wanted in India for various attacks, including the ones on the Mumbai trains on 11 July 2006, left his wife, three children, and a thriving occupation. Qureshi joined Radical Solutions, a computer firm in South Mumbai, in November 1996. According to his coworkers, Qureshi was an exceptional worker: “He handled several major independent projects, including an intranet for Bharat Petro-Chemicals carried out by Wipro in 1999, and then joined Datamatics.” In just three years, his salary quadrupled. In a letter dated 26 March 2001 he resigned, stating, “I wish to inform you, that I have decided to devote one complete year to pursue religious and spiritual matters.”⁵ For other extremists their careers mattered less because they came from very privileged backgrounds: underpants bomber Abdulmutallab was the youngest of the sixteen children of Alhaji Umaru Mutallab, former chairman of First Bank of Nigeria and former Nigerian Federal Commissioner for Economic Development, and lived in a luxury apartment in Marylebone while studying for his engineering degree in London.⁶

And yet, despite their deeply dissimilar employment histories, Shahzad, El-Hage, and Qureshi all have engineering degrees, just like Abdulmutallab and the others. Shahzad “enrolled at the University of Bridgeport, where he received a bachelor’s degree in computer science and engineering in 2000, followed by a master’s in business administration in 2005. El-Hage studied urban planning at the University of Southwestern Louisiana in the 1980s, interrupted by spells of jihadist training in Afghanistan.⁸ Qureshi for his part “obtained a diploma in industrial electronics [in 1995], and landed a part-time job at String Computers in Mazgaon. Later, in 1996, he went on to earn a specialised software maintenance qualification from the CMS Institute in Marol.”⁹

Socioeconomic background, age, country of origin or relocation, group of affiliation, employment and family situation—all these features vary among the men discussed thus far. The only feature they share is a degree in higher education, in particular a degree in engineering. This is doubly puzzling when set against commonsense expectations. While we readily accept that the dispossessed are natural candidates for extremism, we are at a loss to comprehend why well-off, educated men should join the ranks of jihad. And why would individuals with a technical mind and training in modern technology have a penchant for a movement at once violent, religious, and in many cases, as we will see in [chapter 10](#), permeated by antiscientific beliefs?

AT THE ORIGINS

Evidence of this link is not limited to recent cases. It spans three decades and three continents and appears in connection with notorious attacks. Mohamed Atta (Egyptian) and Khalid She

Mohammed (Kuwaiti), leading figures in the 9/11 plot, both studied technical subjects: one urban planning in Hamburg, the other mechanical engineering in the United States. In fact, of the twenty-five individuals directly involved in the 9/11 attacks, eight were engineers. Engineers are, moreover, found right at the beginning of modern Islamist militancy. In 1970s Egypt, three groups considered part of the beginning of modern jihadism had been started and were led by individuals who had a technical education. Al-Takfir wal-Hijra, which was involved in the assassination of a cabinet minister, was founded in 1969 by Shukri Mustafa, an agricultural engineer and former member of the Egyptian Muslim Brotherhood. Shukri was radicalized during his incarceration in the Tura prison and Abu Zabal concentration camp in Egypt. The second group—known as the Military Academy Group for its violent occupation of the Egyptian Technical Military Academy in April 1974, from where it launched a failed attempt to march on the ruling party's headquarters—was founded in the 1970s by Salah Siriyya, a Palestinian with a doctorate in the teaching of science (Ibrahim 1980; Kepel 1985). Siriyya, too, had been imprisoned. Finally, an electrical engineer, Muhammad Abd al-Salam Faraj, played a pivotal role in the group al-Jihad, which was responsible for the assassination of President Sadat in 1981 and became the most notorious successor to the earliest Egyptian groups (Nesser 2004; ICG 2004). Saad Eddin Ibrahim, an Egyptian sociologist who was the first to study the early violent Islamists, interviewed thirty-four members of two of these groups, the Military Academy Group and Al-Takfir, who were imprisoned in the late 1970s. Twenty-nine of them were either university graduates or students, and of the twenty-five for whom he reports their area of study, nine were engineers, seven were doctors, five were agronomists, two were pharmacists, two were studying technical military science, and one was studying literature (Ibrahim 1980, 1982).

Engineers were also members of radical student groups in Egypt in the 1970s called Gama'at Islamiyya. Ayman al-Zawahiri, who later gained worldwide notoriety as bin Laden's partner and successor at the helm of Al-Qaida, was a member of one of them. Abdallah Schleifer, an American Jew who is now a professor of media studies at the American University in Cairo and converted to Islam in the 1960s, made Zawahiri's acquaintance in 1974 when working for NCB news in Cairo. When they first met, Zawahiri, then at medical school, gave Schleifer a tour of the campus: "during the tour, Zawahiri proudly pointed out students who were painting posters for political demonstrations, and he boasted that the Islamist movement had found its greatest recruiting success in the university's two most élite faculties—the medical and engineering schools. 'Aren't you impressed by that?' he said" (Wright 2002).

Indications of the link between radical Islamism and engineering are also found beyond the Middle East. We have already mentioned Abdul Subhan Qureshi, the Indian computer engineer. Two of the three men who in 1987 founded Lashkar-e-Taiba, a Sunni fundamentalist Pakistani group that fights against India's sovereignty over the State of Jammu and Kashmir, were professors at the University of Engineering and Technology in Lahore, albeit not engineers themselves.¹⁰ While appealing to madrasa students and the disenfranchised, Jemaah Islamiya in Southeast Asia also recruited "many technical faculty members, including architects, engineers, geophysicists, chemists, and robotics engineers" (Abuza 2006: 78). The three leading suspects in the September 2004 bombing of the Australian Embassy in Jakarta had an engineering background. According to a Tunisia

professor of the history of Islam, 60 percent of salafi-jihadists in his country are trained engineers.¹¹

While the groups mentioned thus far are made up of Sunnis, the phenomenon extends to Shiite Islamists too: engineers were prominently represented in Mahmoud Ahmadinejad's radical 2005 cabinet,¹² and the former Iranian president himself trained as a civil engineer. While he is not a militant, his rhetoric as well as his biography reflect radical leanings: he was among the many engineering students at the University of Science and Technology in Teheran who played a very active role in the 1979 Islamic revolution.¹³

Hezbollah, the Lebanese Shiite group, also has a strong link with engineers. Soon after it was founded in 1982, Hezbollah established Jihad al-Binaa ("construction jihad"), an organizational branch devoted to the reconstruction of civil infrastructure and private housing. According to Hezbollah expert Judith Palmer Harik, "this is an interesting organization because it is chock-full of professionals—contractors, engineers, architects, and demographic experts."¹⁴ Representatives for Jihad al-Binaa estimate that more than two thousand of their engineers and architects have been involved in the reconstruction of Lebanon since the war with Israel in August 2006, which, considering that the estimated total Shiite male labor force in Lebanon likely lies below three hundred thousand, is a large number indeed.¹⁵

A SYSTEMATIC TEST

Several scholars have mentioned the link between radical Islam and science and engineering, but more as an oddity than as anything that could help us understand the phenomenon. A few have speculated about what might explain it,¹⁷ but no one has attempted to find a systematic confirmation of the phenomenon. In fact, no one since Russell and Miller (1977) has published any research on the type of higher education extremists, whether Islamist or otherwise, receive. The few studies that document levels of education are limited and include only small or partial samples.¹⁸

To discover whether the overrepresentation of graduates in general and engineers in particular can be confirmed by more than anecdotal evidence, we compiled a list of 49 members of violent Islamist groups in the Muslim world active since the 1970s. It included almost exclusively men for the simple reason that they are the overwhelming majority of extremists.¹⁹ We drew from a variety of sources. We took lists of names included in academic literature, we asked colleagues, we combed through government documents, and we visited websites of radical organizations themselves. Then we conducted research on each person to gather additional biographical data in news archives in several languages, online sources, and further official documentation.²⁰ We mainly sought data on each person's level and type of education but also gathered information on age, socioeconomic background, international mobility, function within groups, and other qualitative biographical information. We supplemented this data-gathering effort with a daily survey of major international and Middle Eastern newspapers from 2004 to early 2010 to record, verify, and research new names as they appeared.

The list of names includes individuals who grew up in countries that have either a Muslim majority or an indigenous Muslim minority, all of which are non-Western.²¹ The list does not

include violent members of groups born or bred in a Western country, which we investigate in a separate sample in [chapter 3](#).²² The median year of birth of the three hundred cases whose ages we could establish is 1968. This implies that the median year in which those who went to university started their courses is 1986–87, with a spread ranging from the mid-1950s to the late 1990s.

Our sample consists of members of groups that manifest an Islamist ideology of some kind *and* that employ violence in pursuit of their aims. In cases in which the involvement of a given individual was not certain, we erred on the side of caution. For instance, we did not include prisoners at Guantanamo with the exception of the few among them whose involvement in violent groups was confirmed by other sources.²³

Our list is not a random sample of the Muslim world’s Islamist extremists, and it does not cover all areas with a presence of Islamist militancy. It leaves out or underrepresents groups in South Asia and North Africa, for instance. It also excludes larger insurgent groups like Boko Haram in Nigeria, the Shabab in Somalia, and the Taliban in Afghanistan, which operate in a different strategic context of less asymmetric conflict.

However, the sample spans three continents and three decades, allowing us to investigate how far the phenomenon reaches in both space and time. The list includes individuals from thirty-five nationalities from a dozen larger groups and almost twice as many smaller groups, which injects ideological and organizational variety. The sample includes locally oriented groups struggling against authoritarian regimes (such as Egyptian Takfir wal-Hijra) or foreign occupation (such as Hamas), as well as global jihadists pursuing a millenarian anti-Western struggle (such as Al-Qaida and its franchises).²⁴ The list includes members of both small cells (such as the October 2004 Sinai bombers in Egypt) and larger clandestine networks (such as Jemaah Islamiya in Southeast Asia). Many of these groups are well-known in the West, but others, such as the Indian Mujahedeen, are known mostly to specialists. Variation in geography, group strategy, and ideology are important because they allow us to put the link between extremism and higher education in general and engineering in particular through a stricter test—to see whether it holds independently of the groups’ specific makeup or whether it is more common in some types of groups than in others.²⁵

Education Levels

Out of the 497 individuals in our sample, we found some biographical information for 433 and educational information for 335 ([figure 1.1](#)). Of these, only 28 had less than a secondary education and 76 had completed secondary education (including madrasas).²⁶ Two hundred and thirty-one had undertaken higher education, whether finished or unfinished, and of these at least 40 studied in Western countries.

The share of individuals who undertook higher education is remarkable: 69 percent, if we consider only those in the sample whose education we know about (231/335). And even if we assume that *none* of the individuals whose education is unknown had higher education, the share of those with higher education would still be a hefty 46.5 percent (231/497).²⁷ The well-known cases of highly educated individuals who carried out violent acts—for example, the master bomber of the 2004 and 2005 Bali attacks, Azahari Husin, was an engineer with a PhD from the University of Reading and a lecturer at the Technical University of Malaysia

while Ramadan Abdullah Shallah, a leader of Palestinian Islamic Jihad, received his PhD in economics at the University of Durham—are just the tip of a well-educated iceberg.

We cannot, however, rule out the possibility that even the lower percentage is an overestimate because proportionally more graduates might have ended up in our sample. Who is included in our list *and* the information we found on these individuals are a function of the public availability of data. This in turn depends largely on whether the individual came to the attention of the authorities and media because they were killed, captured, or investigated. Since university graduates may hold positions that might expose them to a greater risk of detection than do nongraduates, they may also be more likely to enter the sample.

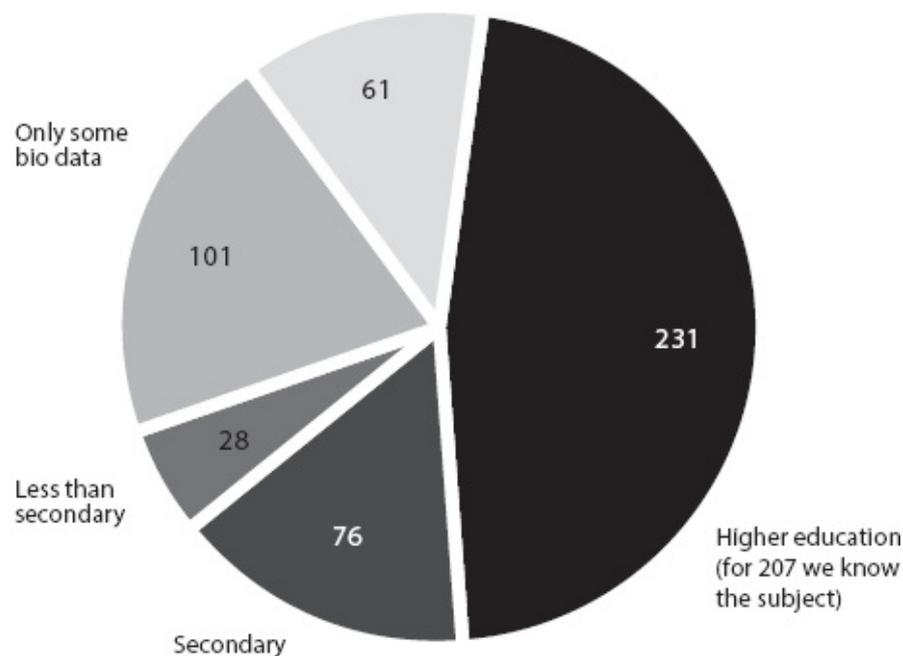


Figure 1.1: Levels of education in the Muslim world sample (497 individuals).

Source: Muslim world sample.

We were able to establish that at least 169 members of our sample exerted a leadership role in their organization or group—no less than 34 percent of the total sample, making this a plausible bias. It may obtain particularly among bigger groups in the sample, such as Jemaah Islamiya in Indonesia or Hamas in Palestine, whose total membership is much larger than the number of individuals in our records. In the case of smaller groups, however—such as the 1970s Egyptian groups and the international jihadi cells we have included—the majority of actual members *are* in our sample, somewhat mitigating the bias. If educational levels are broken down by group (see [table 1.7](#)), the members of the more exhaustively documented groups have similar levels of education as the members of the partially sampled ones.

The difference between the levels of education in the populations from which the sample is drawn and the levels of education in the sample itself is so dramatic that even a marked selection bias could not plausibly explain it: the rate of tertiary enrollment in all countries in the sample in 1987—when the median case in our sample would have entered university—was 11.3 percent (weighted average).²⁸ The odds of being educated are thus, at the very least, more than six times higher in our sample than they are in the relevant population.

Although we cannot say by how much with precision, there is little doubt that violence

Islamist radicals outside of mass insurgency and civil war settings are vastly more educated than their compatriots. Previous studies have highlighted the high levels of education among specific groups of Islamist militants.²⁹ The data presented here confirm the phenomenon in a much larger and diverse sample. Although in recent years radical Islamist movements seem to have undergone a process of “proletarianization,”³⁰ looking at the last three decades one finds a strong overrepresentation of the highly educated almost wherever one chooses to look.

Considering the view often taken of such rebels—that they are poor, ignorant, or have nothing to lose—it is surprising to find that so many individuals with university degrees should join militant Islamist movements, given both the personal costs involved and the supposed backwardness of Islamist ideologies. We will come back to this in [chapter 2](#).

Education Types

Of those who attended university, who studied what? Before revealing our results we need to mention that throughout this book we use the same *seven disciplinary groupings* when presenting the types of education for all extremists—Islamist extremists in this and the next chapters and left-wing extremists, anarchists, and right-wing extremists in [chapter 5](#). Our categories include, first, the “big four” degrees, which rely on established knowledge and whose holders typically apply it to professional fields: engineering; medicine; law; and economics, business, and administration. We then further group other disciplines into three clusters. These disciplines, while not having clearly corresponding professions, share methods and core concerns (and often buildings): math and science; social and psychological sciences; and humanities. Unlike the “big four,” these disciplines, albeit with greater or lesser rigor, focus on creating knowledge rather than learning how to apply it. When relevant we provide information on additional specific subjects, such as Islamic studies for the sample discussed in this chapter or history for right-wing groups in [chapter 5](#).

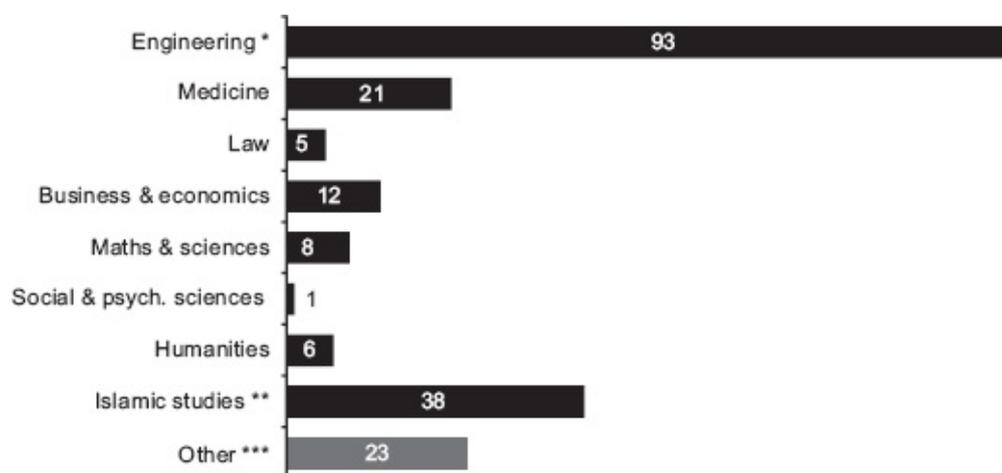


Figure 1.2: Islamist extremists by discipline of study (207 individuals).

* “Engineering” includes computer science and architecture. The latter was included because it is commonly part of engineering faculties in Middle Eastern countries, as it is in European countries.

** “Islamic studies” includes various Islamic subjects such as “Islamic law,” “Quranic studies,” and “religion.”

*** “Other” includes agriculture, education, English, food sciences, pharmaceutical science, social services, and technical military science.

Source: Muslim world sample.

In the Islamist sample we were able to find the discipline of study for 207 of the 230 individuals who at some point had full or partial exposure to higher education (figure 1.2). Unsurprisingly, the second most numerous group comprises 38 individuals who pursue Islamic studies. But the largest group among the Islamist extremists is that of the engineers: 93 out of 207 individuals, or 44.9 percent of those whose type of degree we know, studied this subject. The engineering group is followed at some distance by medicine (21 individuals), economics and business studies (12), and math and science (8). On the whole, the individuals who pursued what we might call “elite degrees”—engineering, medicine, and science—make up 58.9 percent of the total. The elite degrees are universally more demanding and have stricter admission criteria in the countries in our sample than do the other degrees. If we add economics and business studies, which in some countries such as Egypt is also a selective degree (Moore 1994: 46), to the elite category, we reach 64.7 percent. Militant Islamists are not only highly educated but have some of the most prestigious degrees available in the societies. Zawahiri had good reason to feel proud.

The engineers’ birthdates (based on the 65 cases for which we could determine them) range from the 1930s to the late 1970s, with the median date of birth in 1966—two years older than the overall median (based on the 300 cases for which we know the date of birth). The oldest, born in 1936, is Hamas spokesperson Ibrahim Ghousheh, who graduated with a degree in civil engineering from Cairo University. The youngest one is underpants bomber Umar Abdulmutallab, followed by Youssef Mohamad Al-Hajdeeb and Jihad Hamad, two Lebanese nationals born in 1985 who moved to Germany to pursue engineering degrees but were caught attempting to bomb German trains in 2006 before they finished their course of study.

With regard to specific fields of study, three types of engineering predominate for the 55 cases for which we have that information: civil, electrical, and computer-related (figure 1.3). We do not know whether the distribution across engineering fields means anything or simply faithfully reflects the distribution found in the population of the relevant countries; we could not find systematic data on this. What we do know is that several illustrious individuals are from these three subdisciplines. Dokka Umarov, the most prominent Chechen Islamist military commander and self-proclaimed emir of the unrecognized Islamic state of Caucasus Emirate from 2007 until his death in 2013, had a degree in construction engineering.³² The one-eyed, hook-armed Abu Hamza Al-Masri, notorious for his firebrand preaching at London’s Finsbury Park mosque and whom a UK court sentenced to life in prison without parole in January 2015, has a civil engineering degree. A particularly strong battalion of jihadi VIPs is made up of electrical engineers: Muhammad Abdul-Salam Faraj, prominently involved in the 1981 Sadat assassination; Pakistani Ramzi Yousef, a leading figure in the first attack on the World Trade Center in New York in 1993 who went on to concoct the “Bojinka Plot” with Khalid Sheikh Mohammed (himself a mechanical engineer) to simultaneously blow up twelve airliners in midair between Asia and the United States in 1995; 9/11 support staff Said Bahar and Mounir al-Motassadeq; and Yahya Ayyash, Hamas’s master bomb-maker in the 1990s. Computer and electronic engineers include the above-mentioned Abdul Subhan Qureshi of Mumbai train-bombing fame, as well as Qatari national Ali Saleh Kahlah al-Marri, for many years the only foreign enemy combatant held on U.S. soil.

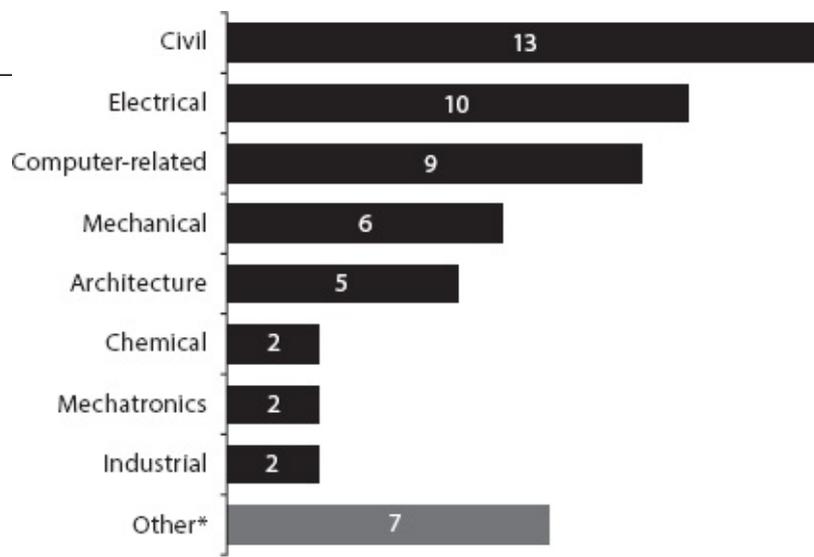


Figure 1.3: Types of engineering disciplines (56 individuals).

* “Other” includes urban planning, telecommunication electronics, industrial electronics, thermal energy engineering, medical technology, shipbuilding, and aeronautical engineering.

Source: Muslim world sample.

How Truly Overrepresented Are Engineers?

A bias in reporting the type of degree is implausible: we see no reason why the sources we used should be more inclined to report an engineering degree than any other degree. Still, the high proportion of engineers could be the result of “battlefield” selection: more engineers, we could conjecture, might have fallen into the investigative net, and hence ended up in our sample, because they took greater risks or had more visible leadership roles. This would be an important finding in its own right: even if engineers did not form a disproportionate share of jihadists as a whole, they would be the group that played the most significant role and paid the price for it.

However, this bias is unlikely. We were able to identify individuals who had held a leadership function within their militant group and had pursued higher education and found that the engineers were no more likely to be in a leadership role than were those who had studied other subjects at the university level (table 1.1). They were also no more likely to be bomb-makers, as we shall see shortly.³³ These data indicate that engineers are not taking on more exposed roles than are students of other disciplines.

TABLE 1.1
Leaders among Islamist extremists by discipline

Education	Leaders	Total in sample	%
Engineering	38	93	40.9
Medicine	5	8	62.5
Business & Economics	5	12	41.7
Math & Science	7	21	33.3
Islamic studies	19	38	50.0
Other degrees	15	36	41.7
Unknown degrees	5	23	21.7
Total	94	231	40.7

Source: Muslim world sample.

The skeptical reader, however, might remain unconvinced for a different reason. Suppose the extremists come from countries in which scores of youngsters study engineering, a common career to aspire to in developing countries. This would then simply be reflected in the composition of the extremists. We would still have to explain why there are so many university graduates among the extremists, but the type of degree would simply follow from the distribution of graduates in the countries of origin. To see whether there is any truth in this, we looked at the number of engineers among the extremists relative to the number of engineers in the general population and then among the number of university graduates overall.

General Population

The share of engineers among the total male working population in the countries of origin of the individuals in our sample, weighted by the number of extremists we identified as coming from each country, is 1.3 percent. By contrast, even if we include all missing cases in the denominator, the share of engineers among our extremists is 18.7 percent (93/497). These figures allow us to calculate the ratio between the odds of being an engineer in the general population and the odds of being one in our sample of extremists. The odds of finding an engineer in the sample is *seventeen times greater* than what we would expect if engineers were as likely to radicalize as the male adult population in general.

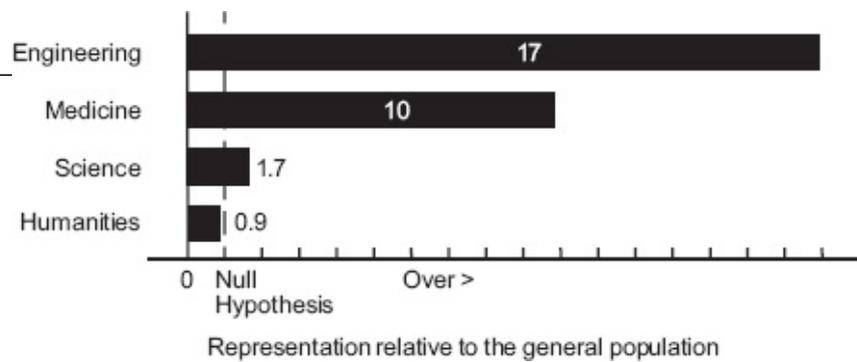


Figure 1.4: Representation of disciplines of study among Islamist extremists relative to presence of the same disciplines in the general population (odds ratio).

Source: Muslim world sample.

Doctors, too, are overrepresented by ten times. The odds of finding scientists, by contrast, are only slightly higher than what the null hypothesis predicts, while humanities students appear slightly less frequently in our sample than they do in the general population.

Population with Higher Education

This massive overrepresentation of engineers among Islamist extremists does not tell us what extent engineers are also overrepresented among the militants with higher education. How many engineers could we expect to become radical if they did so at the same rate as graduates in any other subject? To address this question we compare our results with enrollment rates in higher education. Again, the data are for *males*, since all the individuals with higher education in our sample are males with the exception of U.S. citizen Aaf Siddiqui. We were able to obtain higher education data for all of the countries with a substantial number of cases in our sample for 1987, the median year in which the men in our sample went to university.

As [table 1.2](#) shows, the overrepresentation of engineers in our sample is very pronounced for all nationalities (Saudi Arabia is an exception, which we will explore in the next section). The average share of engineers among the total number of male students of the 19 countries in our sample is 11.6 percent (individual country averages are weighted by the number of men per country in our sample who had pursued higher education). In our sample, by contrast, the share of engineers among those with known higher education is 44.9 percent. The odds of being an engineer are more than *six times greater* than we would expect, a result that is highly statistically significant. For some of the countries in our sample the overrepresentation is even greater. In Egypt the proportion of engineers among male students was 10.9 percent in 1987 (dropping to 8.3 percent by 1995–96),³⁵ while among the 5 Egyptian cases in our sample whose subject of study we know 35.8 percent (19) are engineers. For Palestinians the enrollment rate was 5.9 percent, and out of 62 cases with known subject of study 35.5 percent (22) are engineers. (The differences between expected and actual ratios are highly significant for both countries in a chi-square test.)

To be accurate, we have to take into account 40 cases in our sample who studied in Western countries, 27 of whom (67.5 percent) studied engineering. To use the overall engineer ratio in the sample as the term of comparison, therefore, is not entirely correct, as Muslims studying in the West might have a higher propensity to choose an elite subject like

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