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Words of Welcome from the Editors

Dear Reader,

We are pleased to announce the release of Volume XVI, Issue 2 (April 2022) of *Perspectives on Terrorism* (ISSN 2334-3745). Our independent online journal is an Open Access publication of the Terrorism Research Initiative (TRI), Vienna, and the Institute of Security and Global Affairs (ISGA) of Leiden University's Campus in The Hague. All past and recent issues can be found at: https://www.universiteitleiden.nl/perspectives-on-terrorism.

Perspectives on Terrorism (PoT) is indexed by JSTOR, SCOPUS, and Google Scholar where it ranks No. 3 of journals in the field of Terrorism Studies. Jouroscope[™], a directory of scientific journals, has just listed PoT as one of the top ten journals in the category free open access journals in social sciences, with a Q1 ranking. Now in its 16th year of publication, it has more than 9,500 registered subscribers and many more occasional readers and website visitors in academia, government and civil society worldwide. The Articles of its six annual issues are fully peer-reviewed by external referees while its Research Notes and other content are subject to internal editorial quality control.

The current issue features one **Article** by *Andreas E. Feldmann* and *Marc Lopez* on 'Repertoires of Terrorism in Mexico's Criminal War'. In addition, it features two **Research Notes**. The first, by *Ely Karmon*, discusses the relationship between India and Israel in the field of counter-terrorism. The second, by four researchers at Harvard University—*Megan McBride*, *Marley Carroll*, *Jessa Mellea*, and *Elena Savoia*—is a literature review comparing the phenomena of targeted violence and domestic terrorism in the United States.

The **Resources** section features, in its CT-Bookshelf, a number of short reviews by our book reviews editor, *Joshua Sinai*. This is followed by a longer of review of a new book by three authors from Leuven university (Belgium) on 'The Nexus Between Organized Crimes and Terrorism' by *Alex Schmid*. Our information resources editor, *Judith Tinnes*, offers an extensive bibliography on Islamophobia (it will be paralleled by one on Anti-Semitism in a future issue of our journal). *Brody McDonald*, has compiled a clickable list of academic theses on victims of terrorism. *Berto Jongman* contributes another of his wide-ranging surveys of recent online resources on terrorism and related subjects, with special sub-sections on the conflict in the Ukraine.

In **Announcements**, *Olivia Kearney* presents her regular "Conference Calendar" which, due to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, is still dominated by online meetings. Finally, the **About Perspectives on Terrorism** section lists the people behind the journal and their tasks.

The texts of the current issue of Perspectives on Terrorism have been selected and prepared by *Alex Schmid* and *James Forest*, the journal's principal editors. Editorial Assistant *Jodi Moore* handled proof-reading, while the technical online launch of the April 2022 issue of our journal has been in the hands of our Associate Editor for IT, *Audrey J. Vrolijk* (ISGA, The Hague).

Repertoires of Terrorism in Mexico's Criminal War

by Andreas E. Feldmann and Marc Lopez

Abstract

Security conditions in Mexico linked to the confrontation between security forces, organized crime groups (OCGs) and self-defense groups have deteriorated due to the rise of terrorist attacks. While Mexico has a history of violence, terrorism has not been a common practice. This article provides a brief analysis of existing trends by examining the nature of terrorism in Mexico and reviewing the way in which different armed parties utilize this tactic. It argues that terrorism arises in the context of a criminal war in which state security forces, self-defense groups and different OCGs have developed specific repertoires of terrorism that fit their organizational goals and character.

Keywords: Mexico, terrorism, criminal war, violence, crime, drugs

Introduction

Since the mid-1990s, Mexico has seen a steady and dramatic deterioration of security conditions linked to rising criminal activity. In this new phase of violence, Mexican security forces have been combating a plethora of organized crime groups (OCGs)[1] and, more recently, armed civilian-led self-defense groups. Violence in the country has reached unprecedented levels. Researchers conservatively estimate there have been approximately 150,000 crime-related casualties in Mexico since the so-called "War on Drugs" began in 2006.[2] In addition, an estimated 90,000–150,000 people have disappeared[3] while 357,000 people have been internally displaced and many more fled to the United States as refugees.[4] Other forms of violence, such as kidnappings, extortion, and racketeering, have also been increasing.[5]

A particularly ominous sign of the violence afflicting the country is the increased use of terrorist tactics[6], including targeted assassinations, abductions, massacres, disappearances, bombing attacks, torture, and sexual violence.[7] While Mexico has a history of violence, terrorism has not been a common practice, barring the use of state terror during the so-called "Dirty War" in the 1970s and limited insurgent terrorism in the states of Chiapas and Guerrero.[8] People of all walks of life ranging from innocent bystanders, journalists, and human rights activists to governmental and state officials (politicians, judges) and the relatives of armed parties' operatives are being regularly targeted.[9] These acts clearly match extant definitions of terrorism, i.e., armed parties deliberately targeting civilians with violent acts in open defiance of cardinal principles of International Humanitarian Law (IHL) to instill fear in the wider community.[10] In what seems a typical feature regarding the use of terrorism in situations of armed conflict and/or situations of generalized violence, groups rely on different repertoires of terrorism that suit their organizational identities and goals.[11]

This article analyzes the range of terror tactics used by three different armed parties in Mexico: state security forces, criminal organizations and self-defense forces. The analysis highlights how distinct forms of terrorism vary according to distinct organizational features and situational logics and how these forms evolve over time. By exploring the use of terror in the context of a criminal war (see definition below), the article broadens our understanding of the crime-terror nexus.

Conceptualizing Violence and Terrorism in Contemporary Mexico

The rise of terrorist attacks in a setting characterized by conditions of violence linked to organized crime raises intriguing questions concerning the linkages between nonpolitical criminality and terrorism.[12] Any understanding of terrorist dynamics requires a sound diagnosis of the nature of violence in Mexico, in particular its complex configuration. Several factors account for this complexity. First, the size and regional variation of the country significantly impact violent dynamics, rendering local forms of violence particularly salient. Mexican OCGs are resourceful organizations that have amassed enormous fortunes and con-

siderable military capabilities including security specialists (e.g., former members of the Mexican security and special forces).[13] Most OCGs have attained control of slices of territory where they have become de facto authorities. Localized forms of violence have emerged against the backdrop of persistent divisions and splinter within OCGs in the highly unstable context of illegal markets. In the case of criminal groups, this is compounded by their predatory nature and their tendency to encroach on rivals' territory as they vie for so-called *plazas*, strategic locations for the transshipment of drugs into the United States, such as corridors, ports and border cities.[14]

Second, the clandestine nature of OCGs and their constant evolution creates a fragmented ever-changing criminal landscape. Turf wars between OGCs generate waves of violence and terrorism as these groups ebb and flow depending on their capacity to organize their business and withstand pressures from security forces and rival groups.[15] Violence is worsened by the capture, and/or killing of OCG members that often results in violent intra-cartel succession power struggles.[16]

Third, an unconstrained and unaccountable state apparatus with a problematic human rights record has exacerbated already-alarming levels of violence and created an unpredictable, unstable context.[17] Mexican security forces are organized into a gargantuan, multilayered system which operates at municipal, state and federal levels. Far from being unified, Mexican security forces tend to operate in scattered ways, rarely cooperating and often competing with one another. Endemic corruption, regional differences and mutual distrust in a context characterized by criminal infiltration of security agencies, especially at the state level, exacerbate fragmentation.[18]

In addition, Mexico has also seen a rapid expansion of self-defense groups (commonly known as *auto-defensas*) that rose up in arms to confront OCGs in crime-ridden municipalities.[19] These militia groups have often refused to obey orders to disarm and have also confronted state forces. While purportedly created to combat criminal groups, most of them have turned into predatory groups and have committed serious excesses.[20] Many have been compromised by corrupt authorities and criminal groups and at times have mutated into criminal gangs themselves.[21]

The sudden and massive increase of violence in Mexico has initiated an intriguing debate concerning the real nature of this violence and how exactly to conceptualize it. A recent report on human rights practices states it is "staggering how little is known about killings and violence in Mexico." [22] Academics agree that the fighting in the country does not constitute a conventional civil war since political elements are largely absent, but they disagree on how to characterize it. [23] One author, Benjamin Lessing, argues that Mexico is experiencing a *criminal war*. In such contexts, he explains, OCGs seek to constrain rather than defeat the state by deploying violence to limit the latter's capacity to interfere in their operations. Further, he argues that the differences between criminal and rebel governance are related to the dynamics of territorial control and organizational goals. While organized crime groups can choose whether to rule or not, for rebel groups [proto-]governance seems to be a necessary condition for achieving victory. [24] Examining the Mexican case, other authors argue that limited state capacity opens the way for political and economic extortion and the creation of an alternative criminal order that resembles incipient state-making processes. [25] Our own work posits that terrorism in Mexico arises in the context of a criminal war that, at least in terms of the use of this tactic, resembles conventional civil wars, where armed parties (state and non-state) systematically rely on terrorist tactics to advance their strategic goals. [26]

Armed Parties: Repertoires of Terrorism

This section provides an analysis of existing patterns of terrorism by tracing the terrorism repertoires of the different Mexican armed parties. The examination is based on a combination of primary and secondary sources, including interviews, databases on violence, and human rights reports. We collected the information during three short field trips to Mexico City and Michoacán. While in Mexico, the authors conducted 15 semi-structured interviews with knowledgeable actors, including human rights activists, humanitarian workers, journalists, representatives of international organizations, mayors, as well as scholars and experts

on armed conflict.

In the following we summarize what we found on the security forces, the organized crime groups and the self-defence forces.

Mexican Security Forces

Agents of the state have been responsible for widespread atrocities, including the use of terrorism during their "war on drugs." [27] Civilians, particularly those from humble backgrounds, are regularly victimized during searches and raids. State agents aggressively target civilians suspected of participating in, or sympathizing with, criminal groups. As Anaya Muñoz and Frey explain, "behind the smokescreen of criminal violence, state actors are engaging or acquiescing in human rights violations with almost total impunity." [28] Reports also show that security forces rely on extrajudicial searches and arrests of civilians in order to discourage criminal activity. Specifically, testimonies reveal how security forces indiscriminately target people during routine checkpoint controls or on the street. These searches and/or arrests, which frequently occur following anonymous tipoffs, often lack reasonable cause or evidence of wrongdoing and most of the victims do not know why they were targeted. [29]

As to the tactics employed, thousands of testimonies note the widespread use of torture of civilians while in detention. Reports also note the use of targeted assassination as a tactic to ensure silence.[30] Massacres also appear to be part of the security forces' repertoire of action, but they tend to be far less widespread and harder to confirm due to concerted efforts to cover up these incidents.[31] Security forces have also carried out a share of the large number of disappearances.[32] Most human rights experts interviewed explain that this modus operandi derives from the country's 'dirty war' period (1960–1980), when many repressive techniques (e.g., torture, enforced disappearance and extrajudicial execution) were developed as part of the counterinsurgency training against Communism.[33] These days, however, the target is drug trafficking instead of Communism.[34] Nonetheless, the manner in which this repression is employed (i.e., random, capricious, sudden) clearly seeks to elicit widespread fear in communities to silence citizens and diminish their capacity to organize.

Organized Crime Groups [OCGs]

These groups have routinely resorted to terrorist acts to attain their objectives. Attacks include summary executions, massacres, bombings, and sexual violence.[35] The atrocities unleashed by criminal groups are complex and multifaceted. In one of the most compelling accounts on the matter, Williams indicates that the growth of gratuitous violence in Mexico defies conventional interpretations, making it "more complex and intractable than terrorism and insurgent violence."[36] He also posits that violence is best characterized as a series of layers superimposed on each other and informed by different, competing logics (i.e., competition, outsourcing and factionalism) and takes issue with accounts depicting violence as *terror*. In line with Williams' general thesis, we argue that only a subset of OCG violence corresponds to terrorism.

Specifically, we posit that OCG tactics mutated from a conventional repertoire of violence targeting rivals into outright terrorist practices whereby OCGs purposefully attack civilians to inspire fear. The use of terrorism on the part of OCGs obeys three complementary logics. First, criminal organizations often rely on this tactic while seeking control of territory and people to buttress their operational capacity.[37] Second, they resort to terrorism to deter state authorities from interfering in their business.[38] Finally, OCGs use terrorism in areas controlled by rival groups in an effort to shift blame to their rivals and attract the intervention of security forces (this practice is colloquially known as *calentando la plaza* (heating up the plaza).[39]

The incorporation of terrorism as a tactic on the part of OCGs coincides with the escalation of turf wars following the gradual breakdown of the ruling party PRI's *state protection racket* after democratization in the 2000s.[40] The uncertainty created by these changes prompted OCGs to form paramilitary wings to prevent rival organizations entering their territory while also trying to expand their own presence in rivals' territory. [41] Most of these groups were composed of ex-military violence specialists[42] who brought their coun-

terinsurgency techniques developed during the Cold War to the drug war.[43] Among these techniques is the incorporation of direct attacks against civilians who defy OCG authority.[44] Over the years, Mexicans have become accustomed to the widespread use of what Villarreal dubs "spectacular violence."[45] In order to maximize fear, OCGs display victims' bodies in public places, often adding banners warning authorities, rivals and the public or uploading videos to Internet sites such as YouTube.[46]

A cursory analysis suggests that there is not only a difference between cartels, but also within cartels as they develop and evolve new repertoires of violence and terrorism. We analyzed three OCGs: The Gulf Cartel, Los Zetas, and the Knights Templar Cartel.[47] Each of these groups has its own preferred repertoire of terrorism.[48]

The Gulf Cartel displays an interesting trajectory that sets it apart from many other OCGs. Originally, it was a relatively nonviolent organization that resolved most conflicts through bribery and corruption.[49] Yet, over time and as the drug war progressed, it created its own paramilitary wing, Los Zetas, to whom it outsourced violent enforcement and turf protection. When Los Zetas left the Gulf Cartel, the latter began to resort to more violence in order to regain its control over the contested *plaza* and to match the growing influence of their former armed wing.[50] The Gulf Cartel resorted to high-profile violent acts designed to inspire fear in rival OCGs, potential enemies, and the public by staging public executions and abductions. An example was the assassination of Juan Jesús Guerrero Chapa, the former lawyer of Gulf Cartel leader Osiel Cárdenas, and his wife in broad daylight right outside of the Dallas/Fort Worth International Airport after it was revealed that Guerrero was a government informant.[51] The Gulf Cartel also became notorious for systematic kidnappings that were highly selective in their targeting despite their significant volume.[52] According to military sources, they primarily target potential recruits, or relatives of rival gangs with the intent of spreading terror.[53]

Having splintered from the Gulf Cartel, Los Zetas share some repertoires of violence with them, but they have added unique elements to their approach that lead them to be considered the most violent OCG in the country. The Zetas have relied on a diverse set of terrorist tactics. Early on they incorporated acts such as massacres in order to tighten their grip on certain territories.[54] A case in point is the Allende massacre in 2011. Police officers taking bribes from Los Zetas were suspected of cooperating with the US Drug Enforcement Agency (DEA). The cartel's response to such disloyalty was brutal. They invaded the town, sacking and burning as many as 40 houses and seven ranches as well as abducting hundreds of people in a rampage that lasted three days.[55] Once it was all over, 300 civilians had perished in the attack.[56] Terrorism is also used by the group in order to further expand its business portfolio.[57] The attack on Casino Royale in the city of Monterrey in 2011 is an example of this. Zetas operatives stormed the building and torched the people inside, killing 57 civilians. The attack served as a punishment against the owner for refusing to pay extortion money. The group has also been reported to use explosives, including grenade attacks and car bombings on civilian targets to solidify their control over certain *plazas*.[58]

The Knights Templar, for its part, which operates mostly in the western states of Michoacán and Guerrero, displays unique traits including religious posturing and their self-representation as a modern-day version of the Knights Templar from the Crusades.[59] Like other groups, it initially used money rather than violence to solve its problems, but as its control started to wane, it became increasingly predatory and violent. This began with the fracturing of its alliance with *Los Zetas* which prompted an acute wave of spectacular violence.[60] The cartel began to apply harsh methods, including the execution in public town squares of alleged criminals accused of kidnapping, rape, or murder.[61] They also began murdering rivals and suspected informants and some members of their families, cutting off their heads and tossing them in town squares. As time went on, they began targeting civilians with several terrorist tactics, including rape, forced recruitment, targeted assassination, abductions and use of explosive devices in public places.[62] Overall, the Knights Templar seemed keen to avoid the large-scale violence of other OCGs but enough to spread the message that they were in control and that they would kill anyone who opposed their power in an area.[63]

Self-Defense Groups

As indicated, a direct result of the violence impacting Mexico has been the emergence of paramilitary groups known as *auto-defensas*. A recent account identifies 31 major *auto-defensa* groups in 13 out of the country's 32 states. [64] Many *auto-defensa* groups are set up by powerful local elites (e.g., avocado and lime growers, cattle ranchers, or mine owners) to defend their interests from extortion and sabotage on the part of OGCs. [65] Other groups correspond to variants of community policing forces formed by groups of citizens seeking to protect their land and forestry from criminals and from venal authorities. In addition to defending themselves against criminal groups, *auto-defensas* mobilized to root out rampant corruption, abuse and violence on the part of state agents linked to organized crime. [66] What unites the various self-defense groups is their common objective to protect themselves from OCGs and their frustration at the utter incapacity or unwillingness of the state to protect them. [67] However, while purportedly created to protect citizens from violence, most *auto-defensas* stand accused of committing crimes themselves, including the use of terrorist tactics. Felbab-Brown asserts many groups ended up going *rogue*, turning into abusive forces. A particularly problematic issue, she adds, is that many of these groups have been subverted by criminal organizations and/ or corrupt state officials. [68]

Because many self-defense forces are regionally organized and many have been infiltrated by OCGs and the state, it is hard to discern a unified modus operandi.[69] A study by the Mexican National Human Rights Commission on *auto-defensas* in the state of Michoacán provides at least some sense of the groups' violent repertoires. This study from 2015 found that between 2006–14 these groups perpetrated 13,964 violent acts: of these, 52% were homicides, 23% rape, 8% kidnappings and 27% acts of extortion.[70] More fine-grained qualitative descriptions of *auto-defensas* provide further context and point out that while *auto-defensas* employ terrorism, they do so less systematically than OCGs. Wolff describes how *auto-defensas* in Michoacán, many composed of indigenous groups, attacked and lynched narcotraffickers and corrupt authorities. Retaliatory attacks of this nature do not amount to terrorism.[71]

Auto-defensas that emerged more recently in an area known as *Tierra Caliente* and associated with the leadership of José Manuel Mireles, Estanislao Beltrán (aka Papa Smurf) and Hipólito Mora utilized more brutal methods including torture, summary executions, and abductions.[72] At least some of these attacks purposefully targeted civilians with the intention of inhibiting resistance and sending a message to the wider community.[73] In his rich account of violence in the state of Guerrero, Kyle describes how in their attempt to thwart OCG security schemes, *auto-defensas* have also engaged in attacks against civilians with alleged links to organized crime, carrying out abductions, targeted assassinations, and engaging in torture.[74]

Table 1 summarizes the prevalent terror tactics used by Mexican armed parties. As can be seen, while all five groups resort to terrorism, each of them has developed its own particular repertoire of action.[75] Interestingly, distinctions exist both among different categories of actors (state, auto-defensas and OCGs) and within a single type of group, e.g., OCGs.

Abduction Targeted Public Repertoires of **Torture Bombings** Massacres **Assassinations Terrorism** Displays of **Violence Auto-Defensa** Yes Yes No Yes No No State Security Yes No Yes Yes No No **Gulf Cartel** Yes Yes No Yes Yes No Los Zetas Yes Yes Yes Yes Yes Yes Knights No Yes No Yes Yes Yes **Templar Cartel**

Table 1. Repertoires of Terrorism by Mexican Armed Parties

Source: Authors' own elaboration based on reports by human rights, intelligence, and media organizations, and selected interviews with Mexican sources, including human rights specialists, scholars, and authorities.

Conclusion

Our analysis suggests several policy implications for the Mexican government. It is evident that each of these armed groups is engaging in a different form of terrorist activity due to competing logics. Therefore, any policy recommendation must match such logics. In order to reduce the use of terrorism by its own security forces, the Mexican government should reconsider the wisdom of outright confrontation with all OCGs. Instead it should focus more on seeking to gradually retake and rebuild the communities that have been overrun by criminal syndicates. The international community could buttress such efforts by providing foreign aid that directly supports this endeavor. Specifically, funds need to be allocated toward reestablishing law and order and to provide alternative economic opportunities within afflicted communities. Currently, Mexican security forces operate as occupation forces within territories dominated by OCGs, something that incentivizes them to use Cold War-era anti-insurgency tactics that also include the use of terror. Such a move could also have an added benefit of reducing the tension with auto-defensa groups that feel as if they are fighting a two-front war, one against OCGs and the other against the state. Specifically, policies should be implemented to create a line of cooperation between *auto-defensa* groups and state security forces. This cooperation ought to be contingent on mutual transparency that would help lessen the propagation of terror tactics and other human rights abuses. It would also have the added effect of creating a united front against OCG forces that have taken advantage of the distrust between the other two parties. With regards to OCGs, the state should avoid outright confrontation with all of them as it is an inefficient use of manpower. Instead, it should signal that it will go after the most violent ones. Such a move would create incentives for OCGs to decrease their use of terror and other violent tactics. Of course, it would be desirable to neutralize or, at the very least, cripple all major OCGs, but absent that option, shutting down the most violent ones can help protect lives that otherwise might be lost in a policy of total war.

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Notes

[1] In 2021, major OCGs included Sinaloa, Los Zetas, Tijuana/AFO, Juárez/CFO, Beltrán Leyva, Gulf, La Familia Michoacana, the Knights Templar, and Cartel Jalisco Nuevo Generación (CJNG). Scores of other smaller organizations operate on a local level, many of which are subcontractors when it comes to violent 'work' for the most powerful OCGs. See "Justice in Mexico. Organized Crime and Violence in Mexico 2021," Special Report UC San Diego, 2021. Available at URL: https://justiceinmexico.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/OCVM-21.pdf.

[2] Guillermo Trejo (2021), "Mexico's Illegal Democratic Trap"; in: Tom Carothers and Andreas E. Feldmann (Eds.) *Divisive Politics and Democratic Dangers in Latin America*. Carnegie Endowment for Democratic Peace. Available at URL: https://carnegieendowment.org/2021/02/17/exico-s-illiberal-democratic-trap-pub-83786.

[3] Ibid.

- [4] See Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (2021), Data & Research, Mexico. Available at URL: https://www.internal-displacement.org/countries/mexico; Xóchitl Bada and Andreas E. Feldmann (2017), "Mexico's Michoacán State Mixed Migration Flows and Transnational Links." *Forced Migration Review* (56): pp. 12–14.
- [5] Daniel Wilkinson (2018), "Mexico Violence and Opacity", *Human Rights Watch*. Available at URL: https://www.hrw.org/news/2018/10/17/mexico-violence-and-opacity?gclid=CjwKCAjwoduRBhA4EiwACL5RP74Ydvks6QZXcN1tUhzEuNx-JPVr1CXHeYcztQjq2SChxjLX pyuqhxoCRQIQAvD BwE.
- [6] Following the seminal work by Schmid, "[t]errorism refers on the one hand to a doctrine about the presumed effectiveness of a special form or tactic of fear-generating, coercive political violence, and on the other hand, to a conspiratorial practice of calculated, demonstrative, direct violent action without legal or moral restraints, targeting mainly civilians, and noncombatants, performed for its propagandistic and psychological effects on various audiences and conflict parties." Alex P. Schmid, (2011) *The Routledge Handbook on Terrorism Research*, London: Routledge, p. 86.
- [7] Brian J. Philips (2018), "Terror Tactics by Criminal Organizations: The Mexican Case," *Perspectives on Terrorism* 12(1): pp. 46–63; Alexander Salt (2017); Alexander Salt (2017), "Blurred Lines: Mexican Cartels and the Narco-Terrorism Debate." *Journal of Military and Strategic Studies* 18(1): pp. 166–188; Longmire, Sylvia M., and John P. Longmire (2008), "Redefining terrorism: Why Mexican Drug Trafficking is More Than Just Organized Crime." *Journal of Strategic Security* 1(1): pp. 35–52.
- [8] In the Global Data Terrorism Database Mexico registers 633 terrorist attacks for the period 1970–2015. Available at URL: https://www.start.umd.edu/gtd/search/Results.aspx?chart=overtime&search=MEXICO. For historical accounts of violence and terrorism, see Alan Knight (2012), "Narco Violence and the State in Mexico"; in: Will Panster (Ed.), Violence, Coercion and State Making in Twentieth Century Mexico: The Other Half of the Centaur. Stanford: Stanford University Press, pp. 115–134; Mark Wrighte (2002), "The Real Mexican Terrorists: A Group Profile of the Popular Revolutionary Army," Studies in Conflict and Terrorism 25(2), pp. 207–225; and Andreas E. Feldmann (2005), "A Shift in the Paradigm of Violence: Non-Governmental Terrorism in LA Since the End of the Cold War." Revista de Ciencia Política 25(2): p. 9.
- [9] See June Beittel (2020), *Mexico: Organized Crime and Drug Trafficking Organizations*. Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service. Available at URL: https://sgp.fas.org/crs/row/R41576.pdf.
- [10] Other civilians, in particular operatives of non-state armed groups, are also regularly targeted. Yet, to the extent that they take part in the hostilities, they can be considered combatants in accordance with International Humanitarian Law (IHL) (i.e., they participate in hostilities, are under a responsible command and carry weapons openly). See Marco Sassòli and Antoine Bouvier (1999), *How Does Law Protect in War?* Geneva: International Committee of the Red Cross, p. 123.
- [11] See Andreas E. Feldmann (2018), "Revolutionary Terror in the Colombian Civil War," *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism* 41(10), pp. 825–846.
- [12] On the connection between crime and terror, see Tamara Makarenko (2004), "The Crime-Terror Continuum: Tracing the Interplay between Transnational Organised Crime and Terrorism." *Global Crime* 6(1), pp. 129–145.
- [13] David Shirk and Joel Wallman (2015), "Understanding Mexico's Drug Violence," *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 59(8), pp. 1348–1376.
- [14] Guillermo Trejo and Sandra Ley (2020), *Votes, Drugs and Violence: The Political Logic of Criminal Wars in Mexico.* New York: Cambridge University Press. See also David Teiner (2020), "Cartel-Related Violence in Mexico as Narco-Terrorism or Criminal Insurgency." *Perspectives on Terrorism* 14(4): pp. 83–98; Flanigan, Shawn Teresa (2012), "Terrorists Next Door? A Comparison of Mexican Drug Cartels and Middle Eastern Terrorist Organizations." *Terrorism and Political Violence* 24(2), pp. 279–294.
- [15] In a recent statement the Mexican government acknowledged the existence of 37 major groups. However, a recent investigation by the International Crisis Groups spoke of 198 active criminal groups in 2019. In addition to major OCGs, the report states that scores of other smaller organizations operate on a local level, many as subcontractors of violent 'work' for the most powerful OCGs. See Jane Esberg (2020), More than Cartels: Counting Mexico's Crime Rings, International Crisis Group. Available at URL: https://www.crisisgroup.org/latin-america-caribbean/mexico/more-cartels-counting-mexicos-crime-rings.
- [16] Brian J. Phillips (2015), "How Does Leadership Decapitation Affect Violence? The Case of Drug Trafficking Organizations in Mexico," *Journal of Politics* 77(2): pp. 324–36.
- [17] Military operations against this group started under president Ernesto Zedillo (1994–2000) but were deepened under President Felipe Calderon (2006–2012). Subsequent administrations including Presidents Enrique Peña Nieto (2012–2018) and Andrés Manuel López Obrador (2018-) have not substantially altered this approach.
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Research Notes

India's Counterterrorism Cooperation with Israel

by Ely Karmon

Abstract

This Research Note focuses on the cooperation between India and Israel in the field of counterterrorism since the establishment of the full diplomatic relations between the two countries in 1992. Fresh out of the trauma of Partition, India decided to recognize the State of Israel, but only allowed consular relations on a nonreciprocal basis. India opened full diplomatic relations with Israel in May 1992 following the start of the Madrid Peace Process.[1] It analyzes the international context and the internal political constraints for the implementation of the cooperation process and refers also to the intricate challenges faced by India in dealing with Iranian terrorism on its soil.

Keywords: India; Israel; Iran; terrorism; CT cooperation; intelligence

Secret Cooperation

It should be noticed that since its early days, India's external intelligence agency, the Research and Analysis Wing (RAW), had a secret liaison relationship with the Mossad, Israel's external intelligence agency. "The main purpose was to benefit from Israel's knowledge of West Asia and North Africa, and to learn from its counterterrorism techniques." [2] Initial contacts were established through the Israeli consulate in Mumbai. Over the years, the bonds between the two agencies have strengthened with a common threat of Islamist terrorism and fundamentalism. [3]

After the assassination of Indira Gandhi on 31 October 1984 and the formation of the Indian National Security Guard, there were reports that Israeli training was availed of.[4] During the early 1980s, some Indian military officers indeed underwent counterterrorism training in Israel.[5]

Since the 1980s India was a popular tourist destination for Israelis. In June 1991, young Israeli tourists visiting the scenic Kashmir Valley were attacked by a dozen armed Kashmiri Muslim terrorists in Srinagar. Fearing that the men were about to be executed, one of the Israelis untied his hands, attacked one of the gunmen, grabbed his assault rifle, and opened fire. In the ensuing gun battle, one Israeli was killed, three others were wounded, and one kidnapped. A Kashmiri organization calling itself Defenders of the Islamic Revolution claimed responsibility for the kidnapping.[6]

Pakistan suspected the Israelis were Israeli Army officers masquerading as tourists to train Indian security forces in counterterrorism operations. The Pakistani Inter-Services Intelligence (ISI) propaganda inspired the terrorist attacks on the Israelis. Soon afterward, under pressure, the terrorists released the kidnapped Israeli tourist. During the negotiations for his release, Israeli government officials, including senior intelligence operatives, arrived in New Delhi. Their interaction with Indian officials gave a boost to the larger considerations behind the formalization of diplomatic relations between the two states.[7]

The International Context for the Establishment of Diplomatic Relations

India and Israel normalized their relations with the change in the international balance of power after the 1991 Gulf War. Various factors played a significant role in this regard: the beginning of the era of coalition politics in India; the beginning of a Pakistan-sponsored insurgency in Kashmir; the breakup of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War. In the early 1990s, the growing insurgent activity in Kashmir worsened the domestic and the regional security environment of India. The OIC (Organisation of Islamic Conference)

resolutions on Kashmir consistently criticized India at the request of Pakistan and the Muslim community in India—in stark contrast to Israel's support of India on the Kashmir issue.[8]

While the Soviet Union showed positive indications that it would recognize Israel, the US started talking to the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO). China opened diplomatic relations with Israel in January 1991. Eventually, the PLO itself in its Conference in Algiers in 1988 recognized Israel's right to exist and the possibility of a peaceful solution to the Palestinian-Israeli conflict. For India, after the Madrid negotiation process began, the argument of "annoying friendly Arab States, and Muslims at home", lost relevance.[9]

As the Soviet Union, India's strongest strategic ally and defense supplier, had waned in power and influence and transformed into the Russian Federation, New Delhi wanted to engage more with the sole remaining superpower, the United States. Indian Prime Minister Rao was convinced that normalization with Israel was necessary to improve India's standing vis-a-vis the American Jewish community and the US political establishment. Therefore, India decided to change its earlier posture toward Israel and on 29 January 1992 accorded full diplomatic recognition to Israel and both nations established embassies in each other's countries.[10]

In justifying the opening of relations India offered several reasons: Israel's cruciality to what happens in West Asia and the Gulf; defense equipment, technologies and systems from Israel, given the drying up and unreliability of ex-Soviet sources; potential of cooperation in defense modernization and production; and Israel's knowledge and experience in countering terrorism techniques, border management methods which could help India in getting over its major weaknesses in internal security management.[11]

The 1999 Kargil crisis with Pakistan, when Israel responded positively to Indian requests for military equipment and ammunition, in the face of US pressure to implement an arms embargo on India, opened a new chapter in the arms trade between the two countries. India is today Israel's largest arms market while Israel is India's biggest arms supplier.[12]

The Evolution of the Counterterrorism Cooperation

According to Samuel Rajiv, researcher at the Institute for Defence Studies and Analyses (IDSA), India's foreign policy interactions with Israel are "marked by a political discreetness which is in contrast to its prominent political engagement with the Palestinians and countries of the Arab world." Indian government spokespersons and ministers acknowledge the importance of the "mutually beneficial cooperation" which "in no way dilutes India's principled support for the legitimate aspirations of the Palestinian people." India's "delicate balance" is evident in its censure of Israeli policies regarding the Palestinians.[13]

Other analysts have claimed that India has elevated the Israeli bilateral ties to that of a "pivotal relation-ship"—at the cost of India's relations with countries like Iran.[14] Israeli analysts have acknowledged that the India–Israel bilateral relationship is a "limited partnership" which "while mutually vital, is delicate."[15]

Fighting terrorism is a major issue and challenge for both India and Israel. The two countries set up in 2001 a Joint Working Group as part of their Strategic Dialogue. This Joint Working Group has served as a platform to exchange practical experiences on border security, suicide terrorism, aviation security, financing of terror, information security, as well as digital and cyber warfare. There is, however, a difference between India and Israel when it comes to the philosophy behind counterterrorism and respective threat perceptions. While Israel believes in giving no quarter to terror as an instrument of political negotiation, India has always believed in keeping a door open for dialogue. Israel sees circles of threat which include Iran, Syria, Hezbollah, and Hamas, while India sees its threats emanating from radical Islamist groups sponsored by Pakistan, especially the Taliban, Lashkar-e-Toiba and Jaish-i-Mohammad.[16]

India has sought to obtain Israeli assistance to train four battalions of nearly 3,000 soldiers in specialized counter-insurgency operations in desert, mountainous and jungle terrains, besides counter-hijack and hostage crisis situations. The *Jerusalem Post* of February 3, 2003, asserts that India sought security expertise from Israel due to its inability to control infiltration into Jammu and Kashmir, as well as some other stretches

of the India-Pakistan border that resulted in a high-profile attack on its Parliament on 13 December 2001. [17]

The convergence of Indo-Israeli interests and their strategic significance was outlined by the Indian National Security Adviser Brijesh Mishra in his address to the American Jewish Committee. Therein he argued that democratic countries that are the prime targets of international terrorism should form a "viable alliance" and develop multilateral mechanisms to counter the menace. He identified India, the US and Israel as countries fitting that description. During the June 22, 2003 Joint Working Group meeting, the Deputy Director General of the Israeli Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Zvi Gabey, said: "We find ourselves in the same camp that fights terrorism, and we have to develop our relationship according to that." Indian Foreign Ministry officials said during the same meeting, "India finds it increasingly beneficial to learn from Israel's experience in dealing with terrorism since Israel, too, has long suffered from cross-border terrorism."[18]

The BJP's Contribution to Enhanced Cooperation

India's ruling Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP) has always been an ardent supporter of stronger ties between India and Israel. Its leaders, whether in opposition or in government, have continuously expressed admiration for Israel's counterterrorism expertise and national security policies.[19]

The BJP, a Hindu National right-of-center party, came to power in 1996, first for 13 months and then, in 1998, for a full term. The prominent leaders of the BJP, Prime Minister Atal Bihari Bajpayee and Deputy Prime Minister and Home Minister L.K. Advani, had expressed admiration for Israel's survival in a hostile neighborhood, and their assessment of the threat of global Islamist terrorism coincided with that of Israel. The visits in 2000 of two high-profile ministers of the BJP-led government, Home Minister Advani and Jaswant Singh, the first Indian foreign minister to visit Israel, underlined the importance that Israel had come to occupy in Indian strategic and security circles. [20]

The delegation which accompanied the visit of the Indian Home Minister L.K. Advani included the heads of India's intelligence agencies Research Analysis Wing (RAW), the Intelligence Bureau (IB), and the Central Police organization. In meetings with the Mossad chief and Israeli ministers responsible for security, Indian counterparts discussed collaboration in internal security management and intelligence sharing and cooperation. As a consequence, Israeli intelligence agencies agreed to open offices in New Delhi.

The 9/11 terrorist attacks, the spreading of Islamist terrorism, and the exclusion of India and Israel from the US-led War on Terror in Afghanistan, while making Pakistan an ally in this effort, brought the security, defense, intelligence and counterterrorism issues to the forefront of the growing Indo-Israeli strategic partnership. No wonder, then, that India, like Israel, felt that it had to build its own tools for protecting its citizens and its borders from terrorist groups, some of which are assisted by the neighboring states.[21]

The Effect of the 2008 Mumbai Terrorist Attacks

On November 26, 2008, 10 gunmen associated with the Lashkar-e-Taiba (LeT—"Army of the Righteous") organization attacked five locations in Mumbai, India, firing at random, with the intention of killing a maximum number of people. The attackers deliberately targeted areas of the city frequented by foreigners with the intention that this would maximize the global impact of their actions. The gunmen took hostages and withstood the Indian security forces for three days. The final death toll was 165 killed—140 Indian citizens and 25 foreign visitors. Nine of the 10 gunmen were also killed. The 10th was apprehended by the authorities, convicted of murder, and executed four years later.

Among the sites targeted was Nariman House, known also as "Chabad House," a popular stop for Israeli tourists. Chabad, also known as Lubavitch, is one of the world's best-known Hasidic movements, particularly for its outreach activities. Chabad operates mainly in the wider world and caters to secularized Jews. Six Israeli citizens, including Rabbi Gavriel Holtzberg and his wife Rivka, who managed the Chabad House, were tortured and murdered at this site.

An Indian investigation confirmed LeT's responsibility for the attacks. Pressure from the United States and United Nations on Pakistan led to the arrest of a number of LeT members on Pakistani soil. In 2009, Pakistan also confirmed the organization's responsibility for the attacks. Evidence has emerged that a close relationship between the group and the Pakistani Inter-Services Intelligence organization, or elements within that organization, was maintained before, during and subsequent to the attacks. One of the ISI officers, "Major Iqbal," directed and funded the attacks, and personally selected the targets. Iqbal specifically chose the Nariman Chabad House as a target because he claimed that it was a front for the Mossad.[22]

The strategic relationship and partnership between Israel and India have grown exponentially since the Mumbai attacks of 2008, pointing to a certain consistency which remains at the core of bilateral relations. [23] The Mumbai terror attacks—planned and engineered from Pakistani territory, exposed the difficulty of the Indian state to control its borders, process actionable intelligence in time, and preempt and counter terrorist attacks. As a result, Israel has provided India with satellite photo imagery, unarmed vehicles (UAVs), handheld thermal imagers, night vision devices, long-range reconnaissance and observation systems (LOR-ROS), and detection equipment for counterterrorism purposes. Counterterrorism was also one of the priority areas of discussion during Israeli President Reuven Rivlin's landmark meeting with Modi in New Delhi in November 2016.[24]

The PM Narendra Modi's Strategic Impact

Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi can be credited with "elevating the strategic dimension of the Indo-Israeli partnership by bringing the bilateral relationship out from under the carpet" during his historic visit in Israel in July 2017, the first visit by an Indian prime minister to the Jewish state. Defense, the central pillar of the relationship, has increased dramatically under his government. Modi's "epoch-making trip" gave an unprecedented push to efforts to build new bilateral relations and further solidify security ties between the two countries. However, India's growing tilt toward Israel might not have much impact on its own relationships with its traditional Arab partners. [25]

A crucial aim of Modi's foreign policy is to ensure that his domestic "transformational" agenda is not held hostage to diplomatic or military adventures of India's adversaries. Thus, he developed a strategy that uses hard and covert power, including the use of Special Forces operations, most dramatically highlighted by the surgical strikes India carried out across Pakistan-occupied territory in 2016. According to some observers, these dynamics are likely to translate into greater security cooperation with Israel—although the Indian government faces challenges in using the same kind of counterterrorism tactics that Israel has practiced. [26]

According to Shalom Salomon Wald, Indian diplomacy refuses to call Modi's friendship with Israel and the change in bilateral relations since 2014 "a revolution." This caution is justified as it is wise not to antagonize the Arab world unnecessarily. The Indo-Israeli links were growing steadily for twenty years, and Modi was merely the culmination of a long process.[27]

As the two countries marked 25 years of ties, Daniel Carmon, Israel's ambassador to India since July 2014, said that "there was a policy in the past and it has changed" [28]: after 25 years of "low key, low volume" bilateral cooperation, he could feel doors were opening at the governmental level, as India has overcome its hesitance to accept its relationship with the Jewish nation openly.[29]

For its part, Israel seems to be consciously focusing on expanding internal security/HLS cooperation. The Israeli Embassy has an official, the Deputy Defense Attaché for HLS Defense Cooperation, who is specifically tasked with these matters. The issue is also on the agenda of meetings Ambassador Daniel Carmon conducted at the time with regional leaders. During his meeting with the chief minister of Andhra Pradesh in December 2014, for instance, Carmon discussed the possibility of internal security cooperation with the state. He also met with the police chiefs of the two Telugu-speaking states during his visit.[30]

During a public lecture at the United Services Institution of India (USI) on April 1, 2015, Ambassador Carmon highlighted the importance of the February 2014 HLSCT landmark agreement between the two

countries which provided the formation of four working groups to advance cooperation in these fields, suggesting that as a consequence the institutional interaction in this area has been seriously enhanced.[31]

In August 2017 it was reported that India is deploying along its border with Pakistan a smart Israel-developed fencing system having a "quick response team" mechanism which strikes when the CCTV-powered control room detects an infiltration attempt. It is an ambitious project called the comprehensive integrated border management system (CIBMS) as part of the Modi government's plan to completely seal the Indo-Pak and India-Bangladesh borders in the coming years.[32]

During his January 2018 visit to India, Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu signed nine agreements, including one in the area of cybersecurity, and laid a wreath for the 11/26 Mumbai terror attack victims. This was the first Prime Ministerial visit from Israel to India in 15 years after that of Ariel Sharon in 2003.[33] In December 2020 India and Israel carried out, during a virtual meeting of India-Israel foreign offices, a comprehensive review of their cooperation, especially in the strategic fields of defense and security, counterterrorism, and cybersecurity.[34]

The Iranian Factor

India and Israel do not see eye to eye on the former's relations with Iran; here there is a matter of strategic disagreement between them. Israel has repeatedly expressed its concern to India about a possible nuclear technology leak or transfer of nuclear-related information to Iran. According to Abhyankar, Iran enjoys a rare political consensus in India and since the early 1990s every Indian Government has placed a high priority on strengthening its ties with Tehran. India is unlikely to share Israeli apprehensions over Iranian radicalism.[35] It would appear that the Abhyankar forecast holds true even today.

In 2003 India and Iran signed an agreement to set up a joint working group on terrorism and security, described as an "Axis" in the making, the main purpose of which was to share intelligence on al-Qaeda activities in Afghanistan. Both countries had an interest in a stable Afghanistan ruled by a regime fully representative of the ethnic and cultural diversity of the country and capable of leading to enhanced regional security. However, India had to be careful to make sure that its relationship with Iran did not impinge upon its improving relationship with the United States, as Washington decided to pursue its containment of Iran more aggressively.[36]

In this context, it appears to be difficult for India to maintain strategic partnerships with both Israel and Iran for a long time, since Iran not only supports the Palestine cause and the right of its people to reclaim occupied lands as their homeland, but also strives to the elimination of the Israeli state.[37]

India's relations with Iran have been shaped significantly by Iran's solidarity with the Indian Muslim population, the second-largest Shia Muslim population in the world after Iran. For example, India-Iran relations were hurt by the destruction of the Babri mosque at Ayodhya by Hindu fundamentalists in December 1992 and the subsequent Hindu-Muslim riots in various parts of India. Moreover, Iran had been a consistent supporter of Pakistan's position on Kashmir, both within and outside the United Nations. Therefore, India's domestic policy and its treatment of its Muslim population play a major role in determining the long-term strength of the Indo-Iranian relationship.[38] India will find it hard to ignore Iran's active tutelage of terrorist groups such as Hezbollah and Hamas, as it endangers the values and commitments of India in the fight against nuclear proliferation and in the war against terror.[39]

Two examples of Iranian terrorism against Israeli targets on Indian territory illustrate the dichotomy of this challenge in Israel-India cooperation.

Delhi Terror Attack against Israel in 2012

On 13 February 2012, a vehicle of the Israeli Embassy was the target of a bomb blast in a high-security neighborhood of New Delhi. The wife of an Israeli diplomat, the driver of the vehicle and two other persons, were

injured. Israel immediately held Iran responsible for the attack.

The possible Iranian involvement in the attack posed a serious diplomatic challenge for New Delhi. There was a great deal of circumstantial evidence, including the fact that an identical attack was attempted the same day on another Israeli Embassy vehicle in Tbilisi, Georgia. Moreover, the New Delhi attack came a day after the fourth death anniversary of Hezbollah leader Imad Mughniyah, who had died in a car explosion. The evidence indicated that a covert war between Israel and Iran and Hezbollah "just arrived in India." This was detrimental to India's security, and New Delhi needed to do something about it, advised *The Times of India*. The daily stressed that New Delhi doesn't appreciate the sponsorship of terror activities on Indian soil but condones the murder of Iranian nuclear scientists. India is also firmly opposed to any raid on Iran's nuclear sites, as the Israelis periodically threaten. [40]

Some Indian journals raised the question of a possible cooperation between Hezbollah and local recruits in India to harm Israeli interests in the country. If this angle has any truth, LeT support for the Hezbollah plan cannot be ruled out, though LeT is composed of extremist Sunnis only.[41]

Indian reaction to the bombing of an Israeli diplomatic car has been lukewarm at best. A foreign ministry spokesman in New Delhi said that India would seek the cooperation of the Iranian authorities in bringing those involved in this dastardly attack to justice.

New Delhi Police arrested Indian journalist Syed Mohammed Ahmad Kazmi, a Shi'ite with long-standing Iranian connections, who was employed part-time by an Iranian broadcaster for allegedly facilitating the February 13 bombing. An Indian court issued arrest warrants for Iranians Housan Afshari, Syed Ali Mehdi Sadr and Mohammed Reza Abolghasemi in connection with the attack. Housan Afshari, who had visited Delhi twice and left for Malaysia shortly after the Delhi attack, was in contact with Masoud Sedaghatzadeh, one of the Iranian suspects in the January 2012 Bangkok bomb plot, who was later named on an Indian arrest warrant for his role in the New Delhi attack.[42]

On 31 July 2012, Kazmi was charged under various provisions of the Unlawful Activities (Prevention) Act (UAPA), Indian Penal Code (IPC) including attempt to murder and the Explosive Substances Act.[43]. However, Kazmi was granted bail in October 2012. To this day, he is active as a freelance journalist, being the founding editor of Media Star News. Recently, he started his own YouTube channel "Media Star World" which is mainly focusing on international affairs "from the Indian perspective." [44]

In July 2012, the *Times of India* reported that Delhi Police concluded that terrorists belonging to a branch of Iran's military, the Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps (IRGC), were responsible for the attack. The investigation report, exclusively accessed by the *Times of India*, stated that the IRGC members had discussed the plan to attack the Israeli diplomats in India with Indian journalist Kazmi in January 2011, after Iranian scientists had been attacked, allegedly by Israelis. Kazmi had been in touch with these people for almost 10 years. [45]. The Indian Police spokesperson denied the report. [46]

Iran denied it would do such a thing in India, especially when New Delhi was making strenuous efforts—despite disapproval by the US and some European countries—to develop new methods to pay for Iranian oil. "It is not in the character of Iranian policy to do this. If it is so, why select India? Iran could have selected some other country." The attacks in India occurred when it had just replaced China as Iran's largest crude oil importer. The question of why Iran would do this to its biggest customer arose after the attacks. [47]

Indeed, several weeks later, a large Indian delegation visited Tehran to ask for more oil imports and India invited three Iranian banks to open their branches to conduct direct trade. In April 2012, Tehran informed the Indian Ministry of External Affairs that "both sides are interested in collaboration". At the same time it said that information about the three suspected Iranians involved in the terrorist attack could not be provided immediately "because Iran had gone into its Navroz (New Year) celebrations!"[48]

It appears that all the diplomatic efforts, as well as the visit of the Indian Police to Tehran to obtain official information about the suspected perpetrators of the February 13 attack, have not achieved any positive re-

sults until today.

Blast Near Israel Embassy on January 31, 2021

A minor blast took place in the evening in a high-security zone of Delhi. No one was injured. An envelope addressed to the Israeli Embassy and containing a note was found at the site of the blast. According to the style of writing and the spelling of the names, it was probably written by an Iranian. The letter swore revenge for the killing of Quds Force commander General Qasem Soleimani in January 2020 by the United States, and for the death of an Iranian nuclear scientist Mohsen Fakhrizadeh, allegedly by Israel, in November 2020. The explosion took place on the day when India and Israel marked the completion of the 29th anniversary of the establishment of their diplomatic relations.[49]

Investigators were looking into links to Jaish-ul-Hind, an unknown group which claimed responsibility for the blast on Telegram more than an hour before the explosion occurred. Police have recovered a chat on social media wherein the terror outfit could be seen taking pride over the attack. More than a month later, India's central counterterrorism agencies drew up a list of suspects, with their investigations concluding that while the Iranian Quds force was behind the terror plot, the bomb itself was planted by a local Indian Shia team.[50]

The Special Cell of Delhi Police arrested four students from Jammu and Kashmir in connection with the blast. Police had alleged that this was a case of conspiracy hatched by Islamic outfits and the four students were planning to carry out terrorist attacks in Delhi and other parts of India, targeting Western as well as Israeli establishments in India. In July 2020, Chief Metropolitan Magistrate Pankaj Sharma granted bail to Nazir Hussain (aged 25), Zulfikar Ali Wazir (25), Aiaz Hussain (28) and Muzammil Hussain (25). In its order, the court claimed that nothing incriminating has been put forth by the police which suggested that the accused persons had links with any terrorist organization. It further noted that as per the report, Nazir was a supporter of the Islamic Revolutionary Guard Corps of Iran, "and this was not a terrorist organisation." All four were released because of their near-perfect alibi. Delhi Police have opposed the bail plea citing that the investigation was still at a crucial stage.[51]

A year after the blast outside the Israeli Embassy in Delhi, the National Investigation Agency (NIA), which was investigating the case, was nowhere close to cracking the case.[52]

The February 13, 2012 attack, in one of the rising global powers, although relatively minor, was more of an Iranian signal with the potential to reverberate internationally. The timing was, as indicated before, probably connected to the 29th anniversary of the establishment of diplomatic ties between India and Israel. Based on experience [2012], it is possible that the Iranian leaders thought they could rely on a lax investigation, under political constraints, by the Indian authorities.

A top comment by Vidyanand Shetty on *The Times of India* of January 30, 2021, resumes the discussion: "Iran can't use India for its dirty games. They escaped punishment in 2012 as they had a friendly gov't. Now things have changed, [with] this act of terrorism against India and not against Israel. [The] Indian government should issue a strong statement: anyone using Indian soil will be punished." Prime Minister Narendra Modi condemned the terror attack near the Israeli Embassy in New Delhi and pledged to punish the perpetrators.

Surprising as it may be, Israel and Iran accept India's relations with the rival as a fact, without criticizing their very existence or the Indian interest in strengthening them. India's relations with each of the two are important enough for the other to try to harm them.[53]

Iran's Ambassador to India since December 2012, Ansari, a seasoned diplomat, asked in an interview what he feels about India's growing ties with Israel answered: "That is your business. It is not our business to advise you. Any country can choose their own friends. That's your right as well as ours. But we should not let our friends choose our enemies. If they (Israel) are your friends, don't let them choose your enemies." [54]

Conclusion

India's External Affairs Minister S. Jaishankar declared during his five-day visit to Israel in October 2021 that India has been facing major threats emanating across the border from Pakistan and that Israel is also surrounded by hostile neighbors. India and Israel have a Joint Working Group on Counterterrorism and the two countries also share real-time intelligence to deal with the terrorist menace. Jaishankar added that the "real thrust, however, is to expand the innovation and trade partnership between our two knowledge economies." As an example, he noted that the two countries collaborate to tackle the COVID-19 pandemic. [55]

In describing the security relations between the countries, including CT, the former Israeli ambassador to New Delhi, Daniel Carmon, has stressed that there is a formal maintenance of discretion, although it is a major component of the relationship. Relations between the two countries are officially viewed as a strategic partnership.[56]

Indeed, one should see the cooperation of the two states on counterterrorism as part of a much larger strategic alliance—an alliance based on democratic values which both countries share and based as well on the similarity of threats posed to both of them by asymmetric warfare.

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Targeted Violence: A Review of the Literature on Radicalization and Mobilization

by Megan K. McBride, Marley Carroll, Jessa L. Mellea, and Elena Savoia

Abstract

This literature review contributes to the work of understanding the differences between targeted violence and domestic terrorism by exploring research on radicalization and mobilization processes within the literature on targeted violence. This review relied on the U.S. Department of Homeland Security's 2019 terminology regarding the definition of targeted violence, and consequently focused on incidents that lacked an ideological motivation and occurred in "communities, schools, places of worship, and other public gatherings". Although our data collection returned 169 distinct articles seemingly on the radicalization or mobilization of those involved in terrorism and targeted violence, we did not find a robust discussion of processes of radicalization or mobilization of those who commit acts of targeted violence. We did, however, identify five "theories of radicalization" in the targeted violence literature which we review in this article. We then articulate recommendations for research that would improve understanding of how domestic terrorism and targeted violence are related in the US discourse. This work is especially critical because the literatures on these topics are not, at present, in conversation with one another, and bringing them together has the potential to meaningfully advance the understanding of both phenomena.

Keywords: Radicalization, targeted violence, domestic terrorism, mobilization

Introduction

The phrase "targeted violence" is more than 25 years old (it was first used in a 1995 paper titled "Threat Assessment: An Approach to Prevent Targeted Violence").[1] Recently, though, the language has transitioned from a term of art to a descriptor just as likely to appear in a newspaper article as in an academic journal. In fact, over half of the Google Scholar results for a query of "targeted violence" are for articles written in the past five years. Yet despite this increased use, the phrase is at best vaguely defined. According to the Department of Homeland Security's (DHS) 2019 Strategic Framework, targeted violence includes:

"Any incident of violence that implicates homeland security and/or U.S. Department of Homeland Security activities, and in which a known or knowable attacker selects a particular target prior to the violent attack. Unlike terrorism, targeted violence includes attacks otherwise lacking a clearly discernible political, ideological, or religious motivation, but that are of such severity and magnitude as to suggest an intent to inflict a degree of mass injury, destruction, or death commensurate with known terrorist tactics. In the Homeland, targeted violence has a significant impact on the safety and security of our communities, schools, places of worship, and other public gatherings." [2]

The strategic framework of DHS acknowledges that the line between terrorism and targeted violence can be difficult to draw, and raises the possibility that there may be "some alignment in the tools that can be used to counter them."[3]

This literature review contributes to the work of understanding the differences between targeted violence and domestic terrorism by exploring research on radicalization and mobilization processes within the literature on targeted violence. The ultimate goal of this work is to inform policy, practice and future research by establishing whether or not the hypothesized processes of radicalization being used to describe those who engage in acts of targeted violence are similar to, or different from, the hypothesized processes of radicalization being used to describe those who commit acts of domestic terrorism. Determining whether or not these processes are similar or different is critical for policymakers and government officials and practitioners

working to create the institutions and programs necessary to prevent both types of violence. If perpetrators of both domestic terrorism and targeted violence radicalize via similar processes, then it may be possible to leverage the resources dedicated to preventing domestic terrorism to address both challenges. By contrast, if the perpetrators radicalize via different processes, then more significant adjustments might be necessary in order to align existing domestic terrorism resources to address targeted violence.

The search and synthesis strategy we adopted included: querying for articles that propose theories of radicalization, examining case studies to determine which theories of radicalization are being used, expanding search terms to include distinct phrases that might return more results, and analyzing comparative literature (i.e., literature explicitly looking at the similarities and differences between terrorism and targeted violence). We then consulted with experts in the field (i.e., scholars who write on acts that fit the definition of targeted violence) to validate our findings. Despite the lack of much literature on this topic, this review was ultimately able to identify a number of theories of radicalization that have been proposed by those working in this space.

Background

Our approach to the definition of radicalization and mobilization, in the context of this Research Note, was influenced by recent work in terrorism studies on the importance of differentiating between beliefs and actions. Efforts to separate the two concepts stemmed from dissatisfaction with a composite model that did not explain why many individuals radicalize without engaging in terrorist violence. Though we adopt Stern's characterization of radicalization and mobilization, it is consistent with McCauley and Moskalenko's distinction between the "opinion pyramid" and the "action pyramid" and Horgan's distinction between radicalization and violent radicalization.[4] We thus define **radicalization** as the **social and psychological process through which an individual or group adopts extreme beliefs, ideas, or opinions**.[5]

Since mobilization is infrequently discussed in isolation in terrorism literature, we have derived our definition of the term from Horgan's definitions of both disengagement and violent radicalization. Horgan defines disengagement as "the process whereby an individual experiences a change in role or function that is usually associated with a reduction of violent participation." [6] By contrast, he defines "violent radicalisation" as "the social and psychological process of *increased* and *focused* radicalisation through involvement with a violent non-state movement", including both initial and continuing involvement with a violent extremist group. [7] Both definitions focus on change in an individual's behaviors, though the latter frames these behavioral changes as a mechanism for radicalization. Further, both definitions present these processes as occurring within a group setting. We follow this scholarship, though we broaden it to include also lone actors, and define the term **mobilization** as *the behavioral process of planning and preparing to commit an act of terrorism or targeted violence, often culminating in the perpetration of such acts*. Importantly, our definition of mobilization does not presuppose a motivating political cause or ideology, and focuses on the process leading to a single attack rather than an individual's lifetime involvement and behaviors. As such, it is especially well-suited to discussions of targeted violence which are characterized - at least in part - by the absence of a motivating political, religious, or ideological agenda.

Because this distinction is not universal within the literature that we were searching, we included the language necessary to capture both radicalization and mobilization in our Boolean strings. Our intention was to differentiate between the two in our analysis, essentially comparing both theories of radicalization *and* mobilization for both domestic terrorism and targeted violence in the U.S. context. There was, however, very little literature specifically addressing the processes of radicalization or mobilization for those who engage in targeted violence. Thus, though the distinction was not as relevant as we expected, we do maintain it in our analysis.

Methodology

Unfortunately, for a number of reasons, the phrase "targeted violence" does not function as an especially strong search term in the academic literature. To begin, the term is relatively new, meaning that many incidents that might be described as targeted violence occurred before the phrase was in widespread use. The 2017 Las Vegas shooting, for example, happened two years before the 2019 DHS Strategic Framework was written; and the Columbine school shooting happened just four years after the term was coined (and well before it had become more mainstream). Additionally problematic is that the lines separating acts of targeted violence from acts of domestic terrorism are at best blurry. As a result, these incidents can be difficult to classify for a variety of reasons including, but not limited to: if law enforcement officials do not find a political/ideological/religious motivation (e.g., Las Vegas); if the perpetrator's ideology appears to be thin or inconsistent (e.g., Omar Mateen); or if scholars are uncertain that a political/ideological motivation is cohesive (e.g., violent incels). This uncertainty and ambiguity is then reflected in the literature. To give one example, articles on Anders Breivik describe him as a "far-right terrorist," "lone wolf terrorist," and "mass shooter". [8] Scholars from different disciplines and backgrounds are consequently applying the terms unevenly and inconsistently, complicating the process of finding relevant articles. Moreover, there are no strong proxy terms that can stand in for targeted violence. Following the lead of DHS - primarily because DHS has played a key role in popularizing the phrase - this literature review focuses on violence targeting "communities, schools, places of worship, and other public gatherings". A query focusing on locations, though, can easily return results that are commonly classified as domestic terrorism (e.g., Wade Michael Page's attack on a Sikh temple or Dylann Roof's attack at a Christian church). In short, even the relatively straightforward task of identifying the articles upon which to base this literature review was unexpectedly complicated. To address this challenge, we developed the methodology outlined below, which consists of an iterative process distinguished in two phases - informed and shaped by what we learned along the way - that resulted in our final dataset.

Search Strategy - Phase 1

As mentioned above, this literature review uses DHS's 2019 language regarding the definition of targeted violence to inform its data collection. This language explicitly mentions four broad types of violence based on the location of the incident: that which occurs in "communities, schools, places of worship, and other public gatherings". We added to this list violence that occurs in workplaces, as well as a number of phrases and terms (e.g., "mass shooting" and "lone wolf") that we thought might capture the types of attacks we were interested in. We conducted searches using the databases Web of Science, Social Science Premium, Policy File, PsycINFO, International Bibliography of the Social Science, and Criminal Justice Abstracts with Full Text using the following four Boolean strings:

- 1. su(("targeted violence") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*)) OR ti(("targeted violence") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*))
- 2. su(("school shoot*" OR "workplace shoot*" OR "mass shoot*" OR "mass kill*" OR rampage* OR massacre* OR "mass violence") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*)) OR ti(("school shoot*" OR "workplace shoot*" OR "mass shoot*" OR "mass kill*" OR rampage* OR massacre* OR "mass violence") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*))
- 3. su(("church shoot*" OR "synagogue shoot*" OR "mosque shoot*" OR "temple shoot*") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*)) OR ti(("church shoot*" OR "synagogue shoot*" OR "mosque shoot*" OR "temple shoot*") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*))
- 4. (su((extremis* OR terroris*) AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*)) OR ti((extremis* OR terroris*) AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*))) AND ti(review)

For the first three Boolean strings, we stipulated that the article had to (i) have been published after January 1, 2000, (ii) be published in a peer-reviewed journal, and (iii) be written in English. Because our search was completed in August 2021, this strategy returned approximately 21 years of peer-reviewed, English-language articles on the radicalization or mobilization of perpetrators of targeted violence. For the last Boolean string, we narrowed the scope so as to include only articles published after January 1, 2010, thus returning approximately 11 years of peer-reviewed, English-language review articles on the radicalization of terrorists and extremists.

Finally, after noticing that the targeted violence literature often referenced attacks using the terms "lone wolf," "lone actor," and "active shooter," we expanded our query (search term for query #5 reported below) to include these terms.

5. su(("lone wolf" OR "lone-wolf" OR "lone actor" OR "lone-actor" OR "active shooter") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*)) OR ti(("lone wolf" OR "lone-wolf" OR "lone actor" OR "lone-actor" OR "active shooter") AND (radicali* OR mobili* OR engage* OR path* OR process*))

The first data collection phase of this project yielded a total of 1,353 original articles. The electronic results of these queries were exported in RIS files from these databases and were added to Covidence, which the research team used to conduct a title and abstract screening. The articles that had no direct relevance to radicalization, mobilization, or engagement processes for terrorists, extremists, or perpetrators of targeted violence were removed from the dataset and marked as irrelevant. Two reviewers screened each article and if they could not agree on its classification, a third reviewer was consulted. After the title and abstract screening, the remaining articles were exported to a single shared Google Sheet and full-text versions of the articles were downloaded.

Search Strategy - Phase 2

Once we started the full-text screening of articles, we ran additional searches based on our findings. Our initial review of the articles, for example, allowed us to identify two models resembling radicalization or mobilization theories: the Path to Intended Violence model and the Sequential Model. For the Path to Intended Violence model, we first located the source of the model, and then screened articles that cited the work from which the model originated. By doing so, we found four additional articles relevant to our review, as well as two that had already appeared in previous queries. For the Sequential Model, we conducted a similar review but did not find any additional articles relevant to this review. Instead, we found articles that focused on issues other than radicalization, such as risk factors, mental health issues, and attack patterns. We also ran additional queries tracking down ideas prompted by our initial research. We then conducted searches using the following potential keywords and themes in an effort to determine whether they might lead to additional research relevant to our literature review: "ideological shooter", "nonideological shooter", and "grievance fueled violence". Each query yielded additional articles that we added to our dataset.

Finally, because the data we had returned were overwhelmingly focused on school shootings and youth violence, we ran a series of queries to determine whether additional literature on other forms of targeted violence existed but was not being identified by our Boolean strings. As one example, we ran a number of queries on the 2017 Las Vegas shooting to see how it had been described and to determine if there was other language we should be using. These queries provided no additional sets of literature for us to examine, thus substantiating that our Boolean strings and follow-up queries had captured the desired targeted violence literature.

Coding

Once the data collection phase was complete, our dataset consisted of 169 articles related to the radicalization, mobilization, or engagement processes or pathways of terrorists, extremists, or perpetrators of targeted

violence. We then reviewed each of the articles in the dataset and used the titles and abstracts to mark them as relating to either terrorism, targeted violence, or both.

We classified articles as relating to terrorism according to the University of Maryland Global Terrorism Database's definition of terrorism as "the threatened or actual use of illegal force and violence by a non-state actor to attain a political, economic, religious, or social goal through fear, coercion, or intimidation." [9] Within that, we distinguish between domestic and international terrorism using the Federal Bureau of Investigation's definitions. The Bureau defines international terrorism as being "committed by individuals and/or groups who are inspired by, or associated with, designated foreign terrorist organizations or nations (state-sponsored)" and domestic terrorism as "committed by individuals and/or groups to further ideological goals stemming from domestic influences, such as those of a political, religious, social, racial, or environmental nature." [10] We categorized articles as "non-U.S. domestic terrorism" when they met the FBI definition of domestic terrorism but occurred in a country other than the U.S. Finally, articles were categorized as "general terrorism" if they did not have a particular regional, ideological, or group focus and/or were theoretical in nature.

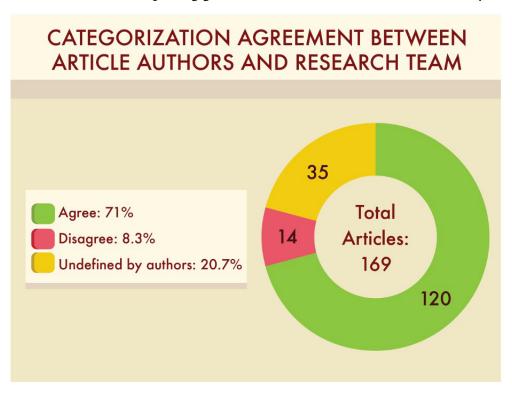
For targeted violence, we used the DHS description of targeted violence as violent incidents in which the perpetrator selects the attack target prior to the incident, focusing on "attacks otherwise lacking a clearly discernible political, ideological, or religious motivation."[11] In cases where an article's focus was unclear, we read the full article before classifying it. The process of coding the articles was complicated by the fact that in some cases the authors would use language suggesting inclusion in both categories. One article, exploring in part how to classify these types of attacks, described a particular event in Sweden as: a "school shooting" (in the keywords), a "school attack", a "targeted attack", "targeted violence", "terrorism", "individual terrorism", and "lone actor terrorism".[12] Other articles complicated this process by intentionally addressing both types of violence in an effort to explore similarities and differences between them.

Importantly, our coding approach meant that our research team classified the articles without regard to how the original scholars had described their own work. In other words, our team assessed how to classify an article based solely on the data in the article and the definitions cited above. The graphic below captures our assessment of the full dataset.[13]

FOCAL CATEGORIES OF VIOLENCE IN ARTICLES				
	Targeted Violence	53		
	Domestic Terrorism	34		
	International Terrorism	46		
	Non-U.S. Domestic Terrorism	17		
	General Terrorism	<i>7</i> 1		
	TOTAL	169		

We took this approach because the language of "targeted violence" is relatively new, and we did not want our results to be shaped by its adoption and application. Our decision to independently classify the articles,

however, raised the obvious question of how frequently we were in agreement with the authors, so we also assessed how the authors had classified their own articles. We did so by looking in the text for the terms "terrorism" and "targeted violence", as well as very closely related terms (e.g., "targeted attack" but not "mass shooting"). We found that our classification matched that of the authors 71% of the time. Most of the discrepancies (21% of the articles), were a result of the authors failing to use either of the primary categories we were analyzing (i.e., targeted violence or terrorism). We classified nearly all of these cases (32 of 35 articles) as targeted violence, which was unsurprising given that it is both a newer and less clearly defined category.



Literature Synthesis

Theories of Radicalization and Mobilization

Though our data collection returned 169 distinct articles seemingly on the radicalization or mobilization of those involved in terrorism and targeted violence, a closer examination revealed that there were actually very few articles in the latter category. In other words, we did not find a robust discussion of processes of radicalization or mobilization in the targeted violence literature. Yet we found five "theories of radicalization" in the literature we reviewed: 1) Sequential Model, 2) Unnamed Shame and Developmental Trajectories Model, 3) Path to Violence, 4) Developmental Pathways to Demonstrative Target Attacks, and 5) Intimate Massacre Model. A summary of each model is provided below.

Theory 1: Sequential Model

One article, "Mass Murder at School and Cumulative Strain: A Sequential Model," outlined and applied a five-stage sequence that elaborates on distinct strains (defined here as "difficulties that lead to anger, frustration, disappointment, depression, fear, and ultimately, crime" in an individual's life).[14] This sequential model combines three criminological theories established to explain crime more broadly - general strain theory, social control theory, and routine-activities theory - and applies them to explain how psychosocial factors compound to impel an individual to commit mass murder. The model begins with chronic strain, defined as the presence of persistent life difficulties over a long period of time.[15] Chronic strain alone is relatively common; therefore, it must be accompanied by uncontrolled strain, the second stage of the model. Uncontrolled strain refers to the breakdown or absence of prosocial support systems as a result of social isolation.[16] The third stage consists of an acute strain, "some loss perceived

to be catastrophic in the mind of the killer, which serves as a catalyst or precipitant" for the fourth and fifth stages, the planning and commencement of the massacre, respectively.[17] The latter two stages describe mobilization more than radicalization; however, the authors do describe the planning stage as the time during which "a mass killing is fantasized about as a masculine solution to regain lost feelings of control", in addition to the explicit preparatory actions.[18] Despite being the most complete radicalization theory that we found in the targeted violence literature, this sequential model only appeared in our queries in the article in which it was theorized. A follow-on query revealed that the article was well cited (with more than 250 citations listed in Google Scholar), but analysis of these articles revealed virtually no case studies applying the model to individual offenders. Instead, this literature was largely focused on: risk factors and correlates of mass violence; training on, and prevention of, school shootings; leakage and behavior antecedent to attacks; and the impact of attacks on students, teachers, and society.

Theory 2: Unnamed Shame and Developmental Trajectories Model

The second article articulating a radicalization theory, "The Role of Shame in Developmental Trajectories Towards Severe Targeted School Violence: An In-Depth Multiple Case Study," examined how shame may intervene in developmental trajectories to push individuals toward school-based targeted violence. Examining 19 cases of school-based targeted violence, the study identifies three psychological turning points preceding acts of violence: two shame crises and one triggering event. The first shame crisis occurs as a result of the revelation of an individual's weakness to others, while the second stems from the individual's failed attempts at managing the shame brought on by the first crisis.[19] However, the authors identify two distinct ways in which perpetrators attempt to manage their shame - internalization, or social withdrawal, and externalization, or aggressive behavior - that shape the rest of their radicalization process.[20] Following the second shame crisis, individuals begin to plan a violent attack; however, this planning process differs for type 1 (internalizing) versus type 2 (externalizing) individuals. Whereas type 1 perpetrators need to transform their self-image from weak to powerful in order to build the requisite aggression and hostility needed to decide to commit an attack, type 2 perpetrators already see themselves as powerful and aggressive, and thus go through a shorter planning phase focused more on outward identification with violence.[21] Following the triggering event, both types enter a short preparation phase, then commit the offense itself.[22] Like the sequential model, the latter two steps align more closely with mobilization than radicalization. Also noteworthy is that the Developmental Pathways to Demonstrative Targeted Attacks model (Theory 4, below) adds to this discussion by outlining how each perpetrator type's respective developmental trajectory impacts thinking with regard to announcement of intentions to attack (leakage) and target selection during the attack itself. While the theory is based on case studies of 19 incidents of school-based targeted violence, no case studies walk through the shame-focused developmental model from start to finish, and this theory does not appear in any other articles that came up in our queries. Moreover, a follow-on query revealed that this research has been cited just twice (both times in articles written by some of the same authors who developed the theory). In each case, however, the citation was used in the context of work on prevention programming.[23]

Theory 3: Path to Violence (family of theories)

The third theory, the Path to Intended Violence, originally arose in the field of threat assessment as a means to evaluate assassins acting individually and targeting high profile individuals. In the model, articulated by Calhoun and Weston in 2003, the perpetrator moves "from feeling a grievance to developing the idea that only violence can resolve their injury, to researching and planning the attack, to making preparations according to the dictates of the plan...to breaching the target's security...to attack." [24] This theory was later adapted in a 2005 master's thesis by Olson, who used it to explain the radicalization of extremist groups. [25] This adaptation, called the Path to Terrorist Violence (PTTV), includes similar but slightly modified stages (e.g., the model's first stage of feeling a grievance includes not only personal grievances but also political ones). In the targeted violence literature, this theory was found in the work of Allely and Faccini who adapted the theory (calling it the Path to Intended and Terroristic Violence

model) to explain examples of both terrorism and targeted violence in a series of articles. Importantly, these articles (one of which focused on targeted violence perpetrator Adam Lanza; three of which focused on terrorists Elliot Rodger, Anders Breivik, and Dylann Roof; one of which focused on Anders Breivik, Dean Allen Mellberg, and Adam Lanza; and one of which focused on 75 individuals in the Mother Jones mass shooting database) concentrate exclusively on the association between Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and acts of violence.[26] Broadly, they posit that a relationship between the Path to Intended Violence (sometimes the Path to Intended and Terroristic Violence) and ASD (sometimes in combination with co-morbid diagnoses of a personality disorder) might explain the violent behavior of this small subset of perpetrators. All of the articles that included the model also analyzed risk factors that may contribute to this violence.

Theory 4: Developmental Pathways to Demonstrative Targeted Attacks

The fourth theory, outlined in "Same but Different? Developmental Pathways to Demonstrative Targeted Attacks - Qualitative Case Analyses of Adolescent and Young Adult Perpetrators of Targeted School Attacks and Jihadi Terrorist Attacks in Germany," sought to explain the pathways to violence for perpetrators of both targeted violence and terrorism.[27] This model was based on a sample of 35 cases of targeted school violence perpetrators and 21 cases of terrorists, all of whom committed an attack in Germany between 1999 and 2013. The two sets of perpetrators follow nearly the same developmental pathway, with only slight differences. The model begins with the individual's mental dispositions, as well as mental disorders, that frame how they process reality and the world. Next, grievances arise, on a continuum from personal to political. In the study's sample of school attackers and terrorist attackers, school attackers clustered toward the personal end of the continuum and terrorist attackers were closer to the political end. From there, the perpetrators began to identify with previous attackers and "ideological [or] cultural scripts" of violence. This model combines radicalization and mobilization into one process, with radicalization (for terrorist attackers) beginning at this stage in the model. After the step of identification, perpetrators move into the redefinition of self, wherein their increasing identification with a violence-justifying worldview transforms their perception of themselves from that of a nobody or a failure to that of someone who is significant and worthy of recognition. This stage is followed by clandestine planning of the attack, either alone or in small groups, and often with ritualized elements. Trigger events, which can vary, then push the perpetrator to an act of violence. Another article, "Blurred Boundaries of Lone-Actor Targeted Violence: Similarities in the Genesis and Performance of Terrorist Attacks and School Shootings," written by the same authors, also uses this model.[28]

Theory 5: Intimate Massacres Model

The fifth model is somewhat unique in that it does not offer a clear radicalization process, but instead suggests multiple explanations for radicalization without explicitly ordering them. The article, "A Theory of Intimate Massacres: Steps Toward a Causal Explanation," identifies three factors as potentially explaining why individuals commit "intimate massacres": seeking a point of no return, negating others' personification of them, and bringing order to emotional chaos.[29] The article frames intimate massacres as "intimate' because the site targeted has biographical meaning to the attacker, as terrorist attacks do not, 'massacre' because, unlike revenge attacks, there is an indiscriminate targeting of victims." [30] According to the article, these attacks are the perpetrators' way of transforming their identity "by negating their past in an ineradicable way," which is seen as a means of destroying "the person others have assumed one to be" without destroying one's conception of oneself.[31] This model posits that perpetrators' failed attempts to fit in solidifies their "public identity as awkward, impenetrable, loner, strange, or mentally ill", which in turn reinforces their socialization difficulties.[32] These repeated failed attempts represent a form of internal chaos; by committing an intimate massacre, "the assailant is attempting to... crystallize chaos in a representation of order." [33] That is, the perpetrator seeks to impose a sense of temporary order on their internal emotional chaos by enacting, then resolving, external chaos. The article does mention a few potential stages of mobilization, briefly referencing the perpetrator experimenting with identities and obtaining weapons for the attack.[34] However, though the article presents a coherent theory explaining why individuals commit intimate massacres, there is no attempt at establishing a clear radicalization or mobilization timeline. In fact, it downplays the importance of a potential catalytic event, a key event in three of the four aforementioned processes, relying on long-term grievances as radicalizing factors but not addressing why intimate massacres occur at a given time.

In the absence of a dominant theory or a robust literature on theories, in a couple of cases authors have turned to general theories of violence - not theories specific to targeted violence - to make sense of these attacks. One article uses the I³ model, a theoretical framework that suggests that high degrees of Instigation and Impelling factors, when combined with limited Inhibition, increase the likelihood of aggression.[35] The article applies this model to a case study of James Holmes, arguing that a combination of severe mental illness and acute personal struggles guided him toward committing an act of targeted violence.[36] Another article references the Path to Violence, the general theory of violence upon which the aforementioned Path to Intended Violence, Path to Terrorist Violence, and Path to Intended and Terroristic Violence, are based. [37]

Case Studies and Comparative Analysis: Theories in Practice

The lack of a robust literature on theories of radicalization or mobilization for those who commit acts of targeted violence is not necessarily indicative of a disciplinary shortcoming or a theoretical lacuna. In fact, though recent scholarship suggests improvement, terrorism studies have been criticized repeatedly for producing too much theoretical literature (relying too heavily on the literature review methodology and lagging behind other fields in quantitative analysis).[38] It may, as a result, be a poor point of comparison for assessing the literature on targeted violence. The absence of theories of radicalization or mobilization unique to perpetrators of targeted violence, however, raises the obvious question of how this process is being discussed. The dataset that we had assembled was well-suited to answer this question because it captured not only articles outlining *theories* of radicalization and mobilization, but also articles *applying* theories of radicalization and mobilization. Specifically, we identified 11 articles that explored - sometimes, but not always, as the primary focus - the process by which an individual came to commit an act of targeted violence.

Because we knew that these case studies did not use the theories cited above, our expectation was that they would employ theories that come specifically from terrorism studies. This approach would be reasonable, given recognition of the difficulty in clearly differentiating acts of targeted violence from acts of domestic terrorism. In fact, such work does exist. As one example, Peterson and Densley, in their 2021 book The Violence Project, acknowledge that some mass shooters (e.g., Elliot Rodger) go through a radicalization process and they cite terrorism studies scholar Fathali Moghaddam's staircase to terrorism model. Surprisingly, though, this pattern was not evident in the case studies. In fact, despite being captured in our query (and thus including language suggestive of an interest in radicalization or mobilization), few of the case studies focused on these processes, focusing instead on risk factors and individual psychopathology. For example, the most highly cited article (according to Google Scholar), "The Autogenic (Self-Generated) Massacre", seeks to develop a profile of perpetrators of targeted violence by comparing five anonymized case studies. [39] It finds, among other things, that all five actors were likely depressed, that most had obsessional tendencies, felt persecuted and self-righteous, and that all were socially isolated.[40] The second most cited case study captured in our dataset applied psychoanalytic models to the Columbine High School shooters, presenting the shooting as a byproduct of "bully-victim-bystander dynamics" and emphasizing community responsibility for such attacks.[41] Finally, the most recently published article closely examines the concept of pathological fixation, found to be a proximal warning sign for targeted violence, and uses seven case studies to exemplify three cognitive-affective drivers of fixation: delusion, extreme overvalued belief, and obsession.[42] The authors focus in particular on extreme overvalued belief, using the case studies to 1) clarify the difference between it and delusion and 2) begin to draw out implications for threat assessment.[43] These three articles, while not exhaustive in their coverage of the case study topics, are a representative sample of the targeted violence case studies we identified; notably, none theorize an individual's full progression to

committing an act of targeted violence.

Finally, we analyzed a set of articles that were explicitly comparative (i.e., that bridged the gap between targeted violence and domestic terrorism). Our queries returned 20 articles that fell into this category; these articles, in other words, both (a) addressed targeted violence and domestic terrorism and (b) contained at least some discussion of the process by which the individual came to commit an act of violence. Of these articles, however, only five included theories of radicalization and/or mobilization and all five of these were already mentioned above.

Path to Intended and Terroristic Violence (Theory 3 above): One article in this category applied a targeted violence model of radicalization (Path to Intended and Terroristic Violence) to the Norwegian terrorist Anders Breivik.[44] This article did not, however, aspire to make broad generalizations about the theory's utility as the theory was narrowly constructed to address a very small subset of violent perpetrators diagnosed with (or suspected to have) an ASD.[45] Another article expanded somewhat on the Path to Violence model by exploring the role that impulsivity plays in accelerating individuals, perhaps even hastily, toward what might otherwise be described as carefully planned violence.[46]

<u>Developmental Pathways to Demonstrative Targeted Violence Model (Theory 4 above)</u>: The two articles that mentioned this model are the same two that were described in the theory section above.

Importantly, all four of these articles used their respective models to explain both radicalization and mobilization, and all four described perpetrators of terrorist violence and targeted violence moving through the same process.[47]

Opinion Radicalization Theory: The final model that we found in the comparative literature was the Opinion Radicalization Theory, which focuses solely on the radicalization process. This theory comes from work by Leuprecht, Hataley, Moskalenko and McCauley differentiating the radicalization to extremist ideologies from the radicalization to violent actions (some of which is mentioned in the introduction). [48] Based on interviews with individuals who had expressed "deep interest" in school shootings, the article identified three tiers of actors within an opinion pyramid. The first tier includes individuals who are interested in school shootings but do not have positive associations with the events or the perpetrators. The second tier describes individuals who sympathize or identify with perpetrators or such actions, but neither condone shooters' violence nor have an interest in carrying out an attack of their own. The final tier consists of those who have interest in conducting their own massacres. This article made connections to the similarities of school shootings and terrorism, but did not attempt to apply the Opinion Radicalization Theory to other forms of targeted violence.

The remainder of the articles in this category did not articulate a model for the processes that they explored. Instead, four focused on mental health or personality traits of perpetrators that may suggest a predisposition to targeted or terrorist violence, [49] four focused on categorizing the perpetrators' motivations, [50] and two foregrounded both risk factors and motivations. [51] Finally, five articles examined the beliefs and behaviors of individuals planning or carrying out attacks, including how social networks may impact their radicalization or mobilization. [52]

Conclusion

In some ways, it is unsurprising that there is only a modest literature on radicalization processes for those who engage in acts of targeted violence. Radicalization has long been recognized as a belief- or thought-oriented process, and it is easy to understand why it has not been adopted by scholars concerned with a type of violence characterized (at least in part) by its lack of "a clearly discernible political, ideological, or religious motivation." [53] This feature of targeted violence obviously raises the question of whether or not it is useful for policy and practice to have a widely accepted theory of radicalization for the actors who commit this type of violence. A focus on mobilization might, by contrast, make more sense and is to some degree already re-

flected in the literature. Four of the five theories outlined above (the Sequential Model, Unnamed Shame and Developmental Trajectories Model, Path to Violence, and Developmental Pathways to Demonstrative Target Attacks) are hybrid models that describe the related processes of radicalization and mobilization (i.e., that begin with changes in thoughts and beliefs, but that culminate in actions such as planning and/or attacking). Importantly, while there are no definitive models for radicalization or mobilization within terrorism studies, the four process-oriented models outlined above are consistent with many of the models that have been articulated within by experts in the field of terrorism (i.e., each begins with a source of stress or grievance, transitions through a period during which individual identity and the morality of violence are reexamined, and culminates with a commitment to or engagement in violent activity).

This literature review has, however, highlighted a number of critical issues that merit additional research. The issues outlined below are especially important as increased clarity would meaningfully contribute to our shared understanding of the similarities and differences between those who commit acts of targeted violence and those who commit acts of domestic terrorism with important implications for policy and practice.

- 1. <u>Risk factors:</u> The literature on targeted violence appears to favor discussions related to risk factors over discussions related to radicalization and mobilization. As such, it should be possible to determine whether or not the individuals who commit acts of targeted violence share the same risk factors, or have different ones than those who commit acts of domestic terrorism.
- 2. <u>Risk and threat assessment</u>: A number of tools have been developed over the past two decades, to support risk and threat assessment. A comparison of the tools discussed in these distinct literatures (i.e., targeted violence and domestic terrorism) could increase our knowledge in an area (risk and threat assessment) critically important to practitioners working in the two fields.
- 3. <u>Incels:</u> Our research team chose to classify incels as domestic terrorists for the purposes of this literature review, but we could have chosen to classify incels as targeted violence actors, or we could have chosen to classify each incel separately. Because the incel population's ideology is amorphous, and personal grievance is so central to many incels' motivations, it is possible that a review of the literature on incels (a population that perhaps bridges the gap between targeted violence and domestic terrorism) could be leveraged to explore the relationship between these two types of violence.
- 4. <u>Social amplifiers</u>: There is a relatively robust discussion within the targeted violence literature on a number of social factors (e.g., media violence, video games, contagion) that might increase the likelihood that acts of targeted violence will occur. A study designed to review this literature, and assess its applicability to domestic terrorists, could shed light on the similarities and differences between the two populations of actors.

A universal definition of terrorism remains elusive, and the work of defining targeted violence is not yet done (though DHS identified the need for a definition as a priority action item in its 2019 Strategic Framework).[54] It is consequently difficult to assert the precise relationship between these threats, but it is equally difficult to deny or ignore the similarities between them. We may not yet - and if definitions continue to evade us, we may not ever - be able to explain precisely how these two are related. And yet the similarities are too compelling to ignore, and so additional research is necessary. This work, moreover, is especially critical because research on targeted violence and research on domestic terrorism is often being done by distinct sets of scholars, with distinct disciplinary backgrounds (research on targeted violence appears to be dominated by those working in the field of criminology and sociology, while research on domestic terrorism appears to be dominated by those with backgrounds in political science and psychology). These literatures are not, at present, in conversation with one another, and helping this to happen has the potential to meaningfully advance our understanding of both phenomena.

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Resources

Counterterrorism Bookshelf: 8 Books on Terrorism & Counter-Terrorism-Related Subjects

Reviewed by Joshua Sinai

So many books are published on terrorism- and counterterrorism-related subjects that it is difficult to catch up on a large backlog of monographs and volumes received for review. In order to deal with this backlog, this column consists of capsule reviews and tables of contents of eight recently published books.

Terrorism - Anarchism

Jeffrey D. Simon, *America's Forgotten Terrorists: The Rise and Fall of the Galleanists* (Lincoln, NE: Potomac Books/An Imprint of the University of Nebraska Press, 2022), 320 pp., US \$ 34.95 [Hardcover], ISBN: 978-1-6401-2404-2.

With Anarchism considered to characterize the first historical wave of modern terrorism, beginning around the 1880s, and with Anarchism continuing to motivate some of the violent extremists who operate in the current era, it is important to understand the origins of this category of violent extremism in order to effectively address the threats anarchists present to our societies. Jeffrey Simon's <u>America's Forgotten Terrorists:</u> The Rise and Fall of the Galleanists is an excellently analyzed and researched case study of the Galleanists, a violent extremist group of Italian anarchists who were active during the early 1900s in the United States.

As the author explains, Luigi Galleani, the group's leader, "was a charismatic Italian immigrant who arrived in America in 1901 at the age of forty after living a life of anarchist agitation in Italy, France, and Switzerland" (pp. 3-4). He was eventually deported along with several of his aides to Italy by the time the U.S. Government had launched the Palmer Raids against them in 1919. Interestingly, while the Galleanists were no longer a significant threat, one of their remaining members, Mario Buda, was reportedly the perpetrator of a major bombing in Wall Street on September 16, 1920. In the chapter on "The Legacy of the Galleanists," the author concludes that their importance lay in their introduction of innovative terrorist strategies and tactics that are still prevalent today, such as sending weaponized package bombs and deploying vehicle bombs. For counterterrorism campaign planners, the author concludes, groups such as the Galleanists need to be understood because of their innovations in terrorist warfare "to find new and more devastating ways to perpetrate their violence" (p. 180). Otherwise, Mr. Simon cautions, "There is a tendency to think about terrorism from the perspective of what happened in the past rather than thinking 'outside the box' as to what may occur in the future" (p. 180).

The author is President of Political Risk Assessment Company, Inc., a security and terrorism research consulting company in Santa Monica, CA.

Table of Contents: List of Illustrations; Introduction; The Soul of the Movement; Green Mountain Boys – Anarchist Style; Targeting the Galleanists; You Have Shown No Pity to Us!; Roundup; Final Blow; The Legacy of the Galleanists; Back Home Again.

Terrorism - The Islamic State

Ido Levy, *Soldiers of End-Times: Assessing the Military Effectiveness of the Islamic State* [Policy Focus 171] (Washington, DC: The Washington Institute for Near East Policy, December 2021), 285 pp., ISBN: 979-8-9854-4740-8 [Paper copies available free of charge to universities, research centers, libraries, and other institutions. Contact: mdene@washingtoninstitute.org. PDF can be downloaded from website]

This is an excellently analyzed assessment of the military effectiveness of the Islamic State's (IS) warfare in countries such as Syria, Iraq, Libya, the Philippines, and Nigeria. Four case studies of the IS's military campaigns in Ramadi (January 2014-May 2015), Kobane (September 2014-March 2015), Mosul (October 2016-July 2017), and Baghuz (February-March 2019) are highlighted to generate many of the volume's findings. Four factors, the author explains, accounted for the IS's military effectiveness: "organizational innovation, shaping operations, will to fight, and seizing the initiative" (p. 226). The Islamic State, the author adds, also has major vulnerabilities that can be exploited by its government adversaries, such as an absence of "real air defense capability against fixed-wing aircraft, resulting in a high vulnerability to airpower"; it "performed relatively poorly when it massed its forces"; and it "generally could not achieve victory in protracted engagements" (pp. 233-234). While much of the author's analysis is sound, as an account that is intended to be read by military analysts, the text would have benefited from visualized diagrams and checklists that could summarize and highlight the study's findings. The author is an Associate Fellow, specializing in military and counterterrorism operations, at the Washington Institute for Near East Policy, in Washington, DC.

Table of Contents: List of Illustrations; Introduction; Sunni Jihadist Armies Before 2014; Origins and Elements of Islamic State Military Effectiveness; IS Performance in Conventional Operations; Sources of IS Military Effectiveness; IS Military Operations Outside Iraq and Syria; Assessing the Islamic State's Way of War; Lessons Learned and Policy Implications.

Jason Warner with Ryan O'Farrell, Héni Nsaibia, and Ryan Cummings, *The Islamic State in Africa: The Emergence, Evolution, and Future of the Next Jihadist Battlefront* (New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 2021), 288 pp., US \$ 45.00 [Hardcover], ISBN: 978-0-1976-3932-0.

Based on primary sources, this is a highly comprehensive, well-researched and analyzed account of the Islamic State's (IS) warfare operations in Africa (including Egypt's Sinai Peninsula). To examine these issues, the volume's authors answer two core questions: "how did the Islamic State's official provinces and non-province affiliate groups emerge and evolve, and why have these affiliates continued to show loyalty and strength – by re-pledging allegiance, continuing to conduct and publicize attacks in the Islamic State's name, and developing new branches – even as the IS Central itself was in seeming decline following its *annus horribilis* of 2019?" (p. 4). To effectively counter the IS's warfare operations in Africa, the authors recommend adopting a "rule of law approach" with no "one size fits all" campaigns (p. 302), since all counter-measures need to address the conflicts associated with the localized regions where the IS operates. Jason Warner is Assistant Professor of Social Sciences at the U.S. Military Academy (West Point) and directs Africa research at the Combating Terrorism Center. Ryan Cummings is a director of Signal Risk, a Cape Town-based political risk consultancy. Héni Nsaibia is a Senior Researcher at ACLED (Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project). Ryan O'Farrell is a Senior Analyst at the Bridgeway Foundation.

Table of Contents: Introduction; The Islamic State in Libya; The Islamic State in Algeria; The Islamic State in Sinai; The Islamic State in Tunisia; The Islamic State's West Africa Province; The Islamic State's West Africa Province - Greater Sahara; The Islamic State in Somalia; The Islamic State's Central Africa Province - DRC; The Islamic State's Central Africa Province - Mozambique; Conclusion.

Counterterrorism - International Law

Mark Coen (Ed.), *The Offences Against the State Act of 1939 at 80: A Model of Counter-Terrorism Act?* (New York, NY: Hart Publishing/Bloomsbury Publishing Plc., 2021), 304 pp., US \$ 85.50 [Hardcover], US \$ 43.15 [Paperback], ISBN: 978-1-5099-3199-6.

The contributors to this authoritative, comprehensive and highly detailed volume utilize a multidisciplinary approach to examine Ireland's counter-terrorism-based "Offences Against the State Act" on the 80th anniversary of its enactment. In his introductory overview, the volume's editor observes that after 80 years it is likely that the Act's statutes are likely to undergo some changes, as he writes: "The prosecution of Irish citi-

zens for terrorist offences committed abroad will be an emerging issue to monitor. The improving political fortunes of Sinn Fein and the likelihood that that party will form a significant part of a future government, could herald dramatic changes" (p. 4). The volume's editor is a Lecturer in Law at the Sutherland School of Law, University College Dublin.

Table of Contents: Foreword; Table of Cases; Table of Legislation; Introduction; The Prehistory of the Offences Against the State Act; Precursors to the Offences Against the State Act – Emergency Law in the Irish Free State; A Certain Ambivalence: Independent Ireland and Trial by Jury; The Special Criminal Court: A Conveyor Belt of Exceptionality; Terrorism Trials and the Offences Against the State Acts in Comparative Perspective; Threats to Security and Risks to Rights: 'Belief Evidence' under the Offences Against the State Act; Disclosure and Privilege: The Dual Role of the Special Criminal Court in Relation to Belief Evidence; The Offences Against the State Acts and Non-Subversive Offences; The Proscription of Organisations in the Republic of Ireland; New Media, Free Expression, and the Offences Against the State Acts; The Offences Against the State Acts and International Human Rights; The Offences Against the State Acts: Reflections from Practice and the Legislature; A Less Exceptional State of Exception: The Offences Against the State Act as an Emergency Response; 'Contagion' between the Special and the Normal in Criminal Justice: A Comparative Perspective.

Maureen Duffy, *Detention of Terrorism Suspects: Political Discourse and Fragmented Practices* (New York, NY: Hart Publishing/Bloomsbury Publishing Plc., 2020), 320 pp., US \$ 99.00 [Hardcover], US \$ 44.95 [Paperback], ISBN: 978-1-5099-3954-1.

This is an authoritative legal examination of the dilemmas posed by the 'extraordinary' detention of terrorism suspects, especially during periods of national security emergencies in democratic states. The subject of targeted assassinations of terrorist leaders is also discussed. The author is Assistant Professor of Law at the University of Calgary.

Table of Contents: Preface; Introduction; Part I. Political Discourse; Language Manufactures Truth: The Power of Labels; Breaking Down and Reconstructing Discourse Can Reveal New Realities; Layers of Argumentation Tools and a Fractured Post-9/11 Narrative; Part II: Fragmented Practices; Hasty Inductive Generalisation: The Problem with the Claim that the 9/11 Attacks Exposed a Need for New Detention Paradigms; False Premise: Non-citizens as the Terrorist 'Other': False Dichotomies in the Narrative: The 'Either/or' Dilemma; Conclusion: Turning the Kaleidoscope; Appendix.

Military Warfare - General

Greg Cashman and Leonard C. Robinson, *An Introduction to the Causes of War: Patterns of Interstate Conflict from World War I to Iraq* [Second Edition] (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, 2021), 466 pp., US \$ 120.00 [Hardcover], US \$ 49.00 [Paperback], ISBN: 978-1-5381-2779-7.

This is an outstanding comprehensive overview of the causes of armed interstate conflict, which the authors define as "sustained armed combat between two or more sovereign states that results in a minimum of 1,000 battle deaths" (p. 1). These issues are examined at the individual level, the substate level, the nation-state level, the dyadic level (peer interaction, such as the distribution of power between states), the international system, and at a multilevel of analysis (i.e., "a process that occurs over time") (pp. 4-37). These analytic approaches are applied to the volume's six major interstate wars. In the conclusion, the authors observe that "Many of the wars featured in our case studies appear to be inadvertent in the sense that they were not consciously sought by the initiators – at least not as part of a long-term strategic plan" (p. 402). For analysts of terrorism, another finding is that despite Israel's military victories in the Yom Kippur War of 1973 and the wars in Lebanon in 1982 and 2006, they did not "prevent the uprising by the Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza (the *intifadas*) and the incessant terrorist attacks that have prevented any semblance of peace and security inside Israel in recent years" (p. 403). This volume is highly recommended as a textbook for university courses on military warfare. Greg Cashman is Professor Emeritus of Political Science at Salisbury University.

Table of Contents: List of Illustrations; Introduction; World War I; World War II in the Pacific; The Six-Day War; The Indo-Pakistani War of 1971; The Iran-Iraq War; The Iraq War; Conclusion; Glossary.

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Sara McLaughlin Mitchell and John A. Vasquez (Eds.), *What Do We Know About War?* [Third Edition] (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, 2021), 466 pp., US \$ 118.00 [Hardcover], US \$ 59.00 [Paperback], ISBN: 978-1-5381-4009-3.

The contributors to this volume apply a multidisciplinary approach to examine issues concerning the conduct of warfare in all its dimensions. These include the causes of interstate war, the roles of power and parity in the conduct of wars, the roles of alliances in deterring wars (as well as terrorism, such as by the Taliban and al Qaeda in Afghanistan), the role of nuclear weapons in conflict, and the outcomes of wars. Also examined are the factors that promote peace, as well as emerging trends in the study of war, such as cyber warfare. This volume is highly recommended as a supplementary textbook for courses on military warfare. Sara McLaughlin Mitchell is the F. Wendell Miller Professor of Political Science at the University of Iowa. John A. Vasquez is the Thomas B. Mackie Scholar in International Relations at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

Table of Contents: Part I: Factors that Bring About War; Territory and Contentious Issues; Dyadic Power Distributions and War; Deterrence Theory and Alliance Politics; Arms Races; Rivalries and Crisis Bargaining; Nuclear Weapons; Outcomes and Consequences of War; Part II: Factors that Promote Peace; The Liberal Peace; The Territorial Peace: Current and Future Research; The Peace Puzzle: Understanding Transitions to Peace; Conflict Management of Territorial and Maritime Disputes; Part III: Emerging Trends in Interstate War Research; Cyber War; The Environment and Conflict: Water Wars; Leaders and War; War Financing and Foreign Debt; Trends in Interstate Conflict; Part IV: Conclusion; Some Brief Observations on the Contemporary Study of War; War and the Orient Express; What Do We Know about War?

Military Warfare - Israel

Ehud Eilam, *Israel's National Security, The Arab Position, and Its Complicated Relations with the United States* (Lanham, MD: Lexington Books, 2022), 216 pp., US \$ 100.00 [Hardcover], ISBN: 978-1-66690-750-6.

As the book's author explains, it "presents an in-depth discussion, from the Israeli perspective" (p. viii) to examine major national security threats affecting Israel in the Middle East. These include Iran's nuclear program and its regional ambitions, the Lebanese Hizballah's military arsenal, Syria's chemical weapons, Egypt's internal problems (including threats from the Muslim Brotherhood and the Islamic State), and the conflict between Israel and Hamas in the Gaza Strip, which might lead to future wars. The author is an independent analyst on military affairs, who resides in the United States. He is a former contractor for the Israeli Ministry of Defence. [For transparency: this reviewer contributed a blurb to the book's back-cover.]

Table of Contents: Preface; Introduction; The Conflict between Israel and Iran; The IDF vs. Hamas and Hezbollah; The Civil War in Syria; Syria's Chemical Weapons; The Golan Heights; Egypt's Internal Affairs; Egypt and the United States; The Two Palestinian Entities; Egypt and Israel and the War in Libya; Conclusion; Appendix: Israel and Turkey and Their Relations with Arabs.

About the Reviewer: Dr. Joshua Sinai is the Book Reviews Editor of 'Perspectives on Terrorism'. He can be reached at: Joshua.sinai@comcast.net.

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Letizia Paoli, Cyrille Fijnaut and Jan Wouters (Eds.). *The Nexus Between Organized Crime and Terrorism: Types and Responses.* Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing, 2022. 523 pp.; ISBN 978-1-78897-929-0 (hardcover, £ 139.50); ISBN 978-1-78897-930-6 (e-book, £ 25.-).

Reviewed by Alex P. Schmid

This volume, edited by three professors from Leuven University (Belgium), is the outflow of a series of lectures held in early 2018 at their university. It is divided into five parts: I. Literature Review and Conceptualization; II. Transfer of Resources; III. European Case Studies; IV. Non-European Case Studies; and V. International Policies. Five of the twenty chapters are (co-) authored by one or more of the editors, the others were written by researchers and scholars from Belgium, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Spain, Mexico, the United States, Sweden, Switzerland, Nigeria, and Colombia. It is a comprehensive volume, academic in nature, analyzing also EU, UN and other international policy responses. There are twelve case studies and three comparative analyses on organized crime and terrorist groups in Europe, Asia, Africa and the Americas.

The volume offers a novel tripartite conceptualization of observed and potential linkages between organized crime and terrorism. The first type of nexus, labelled "interaction", involves, in its 'milder' manifestations, the occasional voluntary or non-voluntary transfer of resources (manpower, money, weapons) between organized crime groups (OCGs) and terrorist groups. In its 'heavier' manifestation, interaction involves regular collaboration, alliance formation and fusion. The second type of nexus, which the editors call "transformation/imitation", usually involves a more or less marked shift from terrorism to organized crime - rather than the other way around. The third type, "similarities" is the loosest of the three categories. The editors find similarities in the socio-economic background of the respective individual actors joining clandestine organizations as well as in the type of criminal activities, structure and/or culture of the respective organizations (pp. 9-10). Within each of these three nexus types, L. Paoli and C. Fijnaut distinguish different levels, "...going from zero (thus no interaction, transformation/imitation or similarity) to one (fusion, full transformation or complete overlap)"(p. 490). The last category, they explain, consists, potentially, "... of violent hybrid actors that systematically engage in organized crime activities or act like mafias at the same time as they systematically apply terrorist tactics" (p. 57). This conceptual framework is an improvement over the simplistic but seminal conceptualization of T. Makarenko (2004) which placed the two types of underground organizations on a continuum ranging from profit-oriented crime to politically motivated terrorism.

The new framework is used and tested against actual cases by the editors and the authors of the individual chapters. Prior to that, in chapter 2, the editors identify a number of weaknesses of the existing literature on the assumed nexus, namely, (i) the scarcity of empirical research, (ii) the ambiguous conceptualization of what is meant by "nexus" as well as by the concepts "organized crime" and "terrorism", and third (iii), a poor understanding of the promoting factors driving organized crime and terrorism to cooperate, despite their different orientations.

The contributors to this volume manage to correct some widespread but untested assumptions about the nexus between terrorism and organized crime. In the case of Libya, for instance, Mark Micallef and Matt Herbert who conducted field interviews with smugglers and other criminal actors, members of civil society, government officials and others between 2015 and 2020, concluded that "Libya is a difficult context to access for foreign terrorist organizations seeking to profit from the country's illicit economy" (p. 361). In the chapter on Mexico, Luis Astorga concluded that "There are no known links between terrorists and OCGs in Mexico but paramilitary, mafia-type groups have occasionally used terrorist methods and have perpetrated terrorist acts" (p. 408). In one of the volume's strongest chapters, on Colombia by Gustavo Duncan, Santiago Sosa and Jose Antonio Fortou, the authors noted that "Although drug lords paid FARC to protect their laboratories and runways in some sectors of the country, they were also often kidnapped and extorted by FARC and ELN in other locations" (p. 423). Given the fact that this volume has been four years in the making,

some chapters are unfortunately dated. This is especially true for the one written by Matthew Phillips and Shelby Davis. While the authors note that "The Afghanistan-Pakistan (AfPak) region is perhaps one of the world's most extreme examples of the nexus between organized crime and terrorism" (p.337), they added only a single paragraph to account for the takeover of Afghanistan by the Taliban without discussing the enhanced status of the Haqqani network which is heavily involved in the illicit drug trade (p. 336).

While the simultaneous presence of terrorist and organized crime groups and the existence of various nexuses are a reality in some countries, they are far from the rule - if only because in more than one hundred countries there are no active terrorist groups. The editors conclude: "Both our review of the literature and the analyses presented in this book reveal that there is typically no nexus between organized crime and terrorism" (p. 489). However, given that in both cases the pool of recruits often consists of unorganized criminals (as in Europe, as acknowledged in this volume), the last word on this is not yet spoken. After reading this volume, this reviewer came to the conclusion that in general, we know far less about organized crime groups than we know about terrorist groups. Yet these remarks should not detract from the great value and the true importance of this volume; it is a milestone on the road towards a better understanding of the linkages in the underworlds of crime and terror.

About the Reviewer: **Alex P. Schmid** is Editor-in-Chief of 'Perspectives on Terrorism' and, in his former capacity as Senior Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Officer at UNODC, author of several reports on terrorism and organized crime.

Bibliography: The Kurds and Security in the Middle East

Compiled and selected by Judith Tinnes

Bibliographic Series of Perspectives on Terrorism – BSPT-JT-2022-1]

Abstract

This bibliography contains journal articles, book chapters, books, edited volumes, theses, grey literature, bibliographies and other resources on the Kurds and security in the Middle East. It focuses on recent publications (up to March 2022) and should not be considered as being exhaustive. The literature has been retrieved by manually browsing more than 200 core and periphery sources in the field of Terrorism Studies. Additionally, full-text and reference retrieval systems have been employed to broaden the search.

Keywords: bibliography, resources, literature, Kurds, Middle East, security, counter-terrorism, SDF, YPG, Rojava, KRG, Kurdistan, Kurdish Question, Kurdish Issue, terrorism, PKK

NB: All websites were last visited on 21.03.2022. - See also Note for the Reader at the end of this literature list.

Bibliographies and other Resources

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40+ Full-Text Academic Theses (Ph.D. and M.A.) on Victims of Terrorism, written in English between 2003 and 2021

Compiled and selected by Brody McDonald

Abstract: This bibliography contains doctoral dissertations (Ph.D.) and Master theses (M.A.) on victims of terrorism. Titles were retrieved manually by searching the Open Access Theses and Dissertations Database (OATD), using various combinations of search terms, including – but not limited to – 'Victims of Terrorism', 'Fatalities', 'Terrorism', 'Violent Extremism'. More than 220 entries were evaluated, of which 41 were ultimately selected for this list. All theses are open source. However, readers accessing them should observe possible copyright restrictions. The title entries below are hyperlinked, or 'clickable', allowing access to full texts.

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Recent Online Resources for the Analysis of Terrorism and Related Subjects

Compiled and selected by Berto Jongman

Most of the clickable items included below became available online between March and April 2022. They are categorized under 13 headings (as well as sub-headings, not listed below). In addition, there is a special focus on war and political violence in the Ukraine in several sections.

- 1. Non-Religious Terrorism
- 2. Religious Terrorism
- 3. Terrorist Strategies and Tactics
- 4. Conflict, Crime and Political Violence other than Terrorism
- 5. Extremism, Radicalization
- 6. Counterterrorism General
- 7. Counterterrorism: Specific Operations and/or Specific Policy Measures
- 8. Prevention, Preparedness and Resilience and Rehabilitation Studies
- 9. State Repression, Civil War and Clandestine Warfare
- 10. Intelligence Operations
- 11. Cyber Operations
- 12. Risk and Threat Assessments, Forecasts and Analytical Studies
- 13. Also Worth to Read/Listen and Watch

N.B. Recent Online Resources for the Analysis of Terrorism and Related Subjects is a regular feature in 'Perspectives on Terrorism'. For past listings, search under 'Archive' at www.universiteitleiden.nl/PoT

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Podcast: Sebastian Rotella and the fusion of criminality, borders and terrorism. DEEP Dive episode 4.

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Podcast: Counterterrorism after 9/11. The Hague: ICCT, 2021. URL: https://icct.nl/podcast/

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About the Compiler: Berto Jongman is Associate Editor of 'Perspectives on Terrorism'. He is a former senior Military Intelligence Analyst and currently serves as an International Consultant on CBRN issues. A sociologist by training, he previously worked for Swedish and Dutch civilian research institutes. Drs. Jongman was the recipient of the Golden Candle Award for his World Conflict & Human Rights Maps, published by PIOOM. He is editor of the volume 'Contemporary Genocides' (1996) and has also contributed to various editions of 'Political Terrorism', the award-winning handbook of terrorism research edited by Alex P. Schmid.

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Conference Monitor/Calendar of Events (April 2022 and beyond)

Compiled by Olivia Kearney

The Terrorism Research Initiative (TRI), in its mission to provide a platform for academics and practitioners in the field of terrorism and counter-terrorism, compiles an online calendar, listing recent and upcoming academic and professional conferences, symposia and similar events that are directly or indirectly relevant to the readers of Perspectives on Terrorism. The calendar includes academic and (inter-) governmental conferences, professional expert meetings, civil society events and educational programs organised between April and June 2022 (with a few shortly thereafter). The listed events are organised by a wide variety of governmental and non-governmental institutions, including several key (counter) terrorism research centres and institutes listed in the February 2021 issue of this journal.

We encourage readers to contact the journal's Associate Editor for Conference Monitoring, Olivia Kearney, and provide her with relevant information, preferably in the same format as the items listed below. Olivia Kearney can be reached at <<u>oliviaj.kearney@gmail.com</u>> or via Twitter: <u>@oliviajkearney</u>.

April 2022

Launch of the Regional Youth Engagement and Empowerment Programme in South and Southeast Asia

United Nations Office of Counter-Terrorism (UNOCT), Online

5 April, *New York, United States* Website: visit | Twitter: @UN OCT

Funding and Enabling Community-Level P/CVE

Global Counterterrorism Forum (GCTF), Online

5 April, *The Hague, Netherlands* Website: <u>visit</u> | Twitter: <u>@theGCTF</u>

Turbulent vs. Stable Cooperation: How (Dis)location Affects Pathways of Civilian Cooperation in Boko Haram-controlled Territory

Belfer Center for Science and International Affairs, Online

7 April, *Cambridge*, *Mass.*, *United States* Website: visit | Twitter: @BelferCenter

The Context of a Refugee Return in Syria

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Online

11 April, Beirut, Lebanon

Website: visit | Twitter: @CarnegieEndow

ASPI Publication Launch: Global Terrorism Index 2022

Australian Strategic Policy Institute (ASPI),

12 April, Canberra, Australia

Website: visit | Twitter: @ASPI_org

Webinar on the Far Right in Central America

Center for Research on Extremism (C-REX), Online

13 April, Oslo, Norway

Website: visit | Twitter: @CrexUiO

Offline Exclusion, Online Exclusion? Understanding the Interplay Between Social Exclusion, Online Communities and Extremist Ideologies

Institute for Security and Global Affairs (ISGA), Leiden University

14 April, *Campus The Hague*, *Netherlands* Website: visit | Twitter: @ISGA Hague

Counterterrorism Between the Wars: An International History, 1919-1937

The Wilson Center, Online

18 April, *Washington DC*, *United States*Website: wisit | Twitter: @TheWilsonCenter

Covid19 Challenge, Gender and Extremism, Understanding Terrorist Threats

The Canadian Network for Research on Terrorism, Security and Society (TSAS),

22 April, Ottawa, Canada

Website: visit | Twitter: @TSASNetwork

Terrorism Financing and New Technologies in Europe: Report Launch

Project CRAAFT,

27 April, Brussels, Belgium

Website: visit | Twitter: @ProjectCRAAFT

Tech Against Terrorism E-learning Webinar Series

GIFCT, Online

28 April

Website: visit | Twitter: @GIFCT_official

May 2022

A Group Affair: Understanding Involvement in Terrorism in Mali

Institute for Security and Global Affairs (ISGA), Leiden University

11 May, *Campus The Hague*, *Netherlands* Website: visit | Twitter: @ISGA Hague

Fusion Conference: Polariserende communicatie als vector van radicalisering – La communication polarisante en tant que vecteur de radicalisation

Egmont Royal Institute for International Relations,

12 May, Brussels, Belgium

Website: visit | Twitter: @EgmontInstitute

What can we Learn from Interviewing 'Formers'?

Center for Research on Extremism (C-REX), Online

12 May, Oslo, Norway

Website: visit | Twitter: @CrexUiO

Ideology

Centre for Analysis of the Radical Right (CARR), online

18 May, United Kingdom

Website: visit | Twitter: @C4ARR

Stockholm Forum on Peace and Development

Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, Online

23 - 25 May, Sweden

Website: visit | Twitter: @sipriorg

Online Summer Law Programme on International Criminal Law & International Legal & Comparative Approaches to Counter-Terrorism

Asser Institute, Online

31 May - 24 June, The Hague, The Netherlands

Website: visit | Twitter: @TMCAsser

June 2022

GLOBSEC 2022 Bratislava Forum

Globsec,

2-4 June, *Bratislava*, *Slovakia* Website: visit | Twitter: @Globsec

Countering Tomorrow's Threats, Today

Counter Terror Expo (CTX),

8-9 June, *London*, *United Kingdom* Website: visit | Twitter: @CTX Event

Going Nativist: How to Interview the Radical Right

Center for Research on Extremism (C-REX), Online

9 June, Oslo, Norway

Website: visit | Twitter: @CrexUiO

2022 CNAS National Security Conference: Security in the Balance

Center for a New American Security (CNAS), Online

14-16 June, Washington, DC, United States

Website: visit | Twitter: @CNASdc

BISA 2022 Conference

British International Studies Association,

15-17 June, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, United Kingdom

Website: visit | Twitter: @MYBISA

International Terrorism and Social Media Conference

Swansea University,

28-29 June, *Swansea*, *United Kingdom* Website: visit | Twitter: @SwanseaUni

Acknowledgment: Special thanks go to Alex Schmid and Berto Jongman for their suggestions and contributions to this conference calendar.

About the Compiler: Olivia Kearney is an Associate Editor of Perspectives on Terrorism as well as a member of the Editorial Board for the ICTR Journal. She is the Community Building Officer for Project CRAAFT led by RUSI Europe. Before that, she worked as a Project Assistant for the International Centre for Counter-Terrorism – The Hague (ICCT) after having obtained a Master's degree in Crime and Criminal Justice at Leiden University.

About Perspectives on Terrorism

Perspectives on Terrorism (PoT) is a joint publication of the Terrorism Research Initiative (TRI), headquartered in Vienna, Austria, and the Institute of Security and Global Affairs (ISGA) of Leiden University, Campus The Hague. Now in its 16th year, PoT is published six times annually as a free, independent, scholarly peer-reviewed online journal available at the URL: https://www.universiteitleiden.nl/perspectives-on-terrorism.

Perspectives on Terrorism has recently been ranked by Google Scholars again as No. 3 in 'Terrorism Studies' (as well as No. 5 in "Military Studies"). Jouroscope™, a directory of scientific journals, has just listed PoT as one of the top ten journals in the category free open access journals in social sciences, with a Q1 ranking. PoT has more than 9,500 registered subscribers and many more occasional readers.

Our journal seeks to provide a platform for established scholars as well as academics and professionals entering the interdisciplinary fields of (Counter-)Terrorism, Political Violence and Conflict Studies.

The editors invite researchers and readers to:

- use the journal as a forum for debate and commentary on issues related to the above.
- present their perspectives on the prevention of, and response to, terrorism and related forms of violent conflict; and
- submit to the journal accounts of evidence-based, empirical scientific research and analyses on terrorism.

Perspectives on Terrorism has sometimes been characterised as 'non-traditional' in that it dispenses with some of the rigidities associated with commercial print journals. Topical articles can be published at short notice and reach, through the Internet, a much larger audience than subscription-fee based paper journals. Our online journal also offers contributors a higher degree of flexibility in terms of content, style and length of articles – but without compromising professional scholarly standards. The journal's Research Notes, Special Correspondence, Op-Eds and other content are reviewed by members of the Editorial Team, while its Articles are peer-reviewed (double-blind) by members of the Editorial Board and outside academic experts and professionals. Due to the hundreds of submissions we receive every year, only the most promising and original ones can be sent for external peer-review.

While aiming to be policy-relevant, PoT does not support any partisan policies regarding (counter-) terrorism and waging conflicts. Impartiality, objectivity and accuracy are guiding principles that we require contributors to adhere to. They are responsible for the content of their contributions and retain the copyright of their publication.

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