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The EU Terrorism Situation and Trend Report (TESAT) is one result of the excellent collaboration that exists between Europol and Member States.
Acts of terrorism in 2013 caused the death of seven people in the European Union (EU). This, along with the sustained number of Europeans taken hostage by groups or individuals linked to religiously inspired terrorism, demonstrates the continuing terrorist threat posed to the security of citizens and interests of the European Union. The presence of potential or experienced terrorists in the EU, as evidenced by the number of arrests in 2013 for offences related to terrorism, is also a serious cause for concern.

Europol is a unique organisation, offering EU Member States access to its expertise and information capabilities in support to their efforts in fighting serious organised crime and terrorism. The EU Terrorism Situation and Trend Report (TE-SAT) is one result of the excellent collaboration that exists between Europol and Member States. This public document, published annually, presents facts and figures regarding terrorism in the EU for the benefit of law enforcement officials, policy makers and the general public and also seeks to identify developing trends in terrorism. This and previous editions of the TE-SAT reports are available on Europol’s website: www.europol.europa.eu.

The Member States of the European Union define terrorism as criminal acts that aim to intimidate populations, compel states to comply with the perpetrators’ demands and/or destabilise the fundamental political, constitutional, economic or social structures of a country or international organisation.

The threat from terrorism in Europe remains strong, manifesting itself in various forms and driven by diverse motivations. There is a growing threat from EU citizens, who, having travelled to conflict zones to engage in terrorist activity, return to the European Union with a willingness to commit acts of terrorism. This was especially evident in the case of Syria in 2013. This phenomenon adds a new dimension to the existing threat situation in the European Union, since it provides new groups within Member States with both terrorist intentions and capabilities, which may result in terrorist attacks with unexpected targets and timings. The instability of some Middle East and North African countries directly affects the security of the EU.

I take this opportunity to thank all Member States and Eurojust for their contributions, which are essential to the annual production of the TE-SAT. I would also like to express my gratitude to authorities in Colombia, the Russian Federation, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States of America for the information they contributed. Finally, I would like to recognise the work of the members of the Advisory Board, consisting of the ‘Troika’ (EU Council Presidencies of Lithuania, Greece and Italy), France, Spain, Eurojust, the EU Intelligence Analysis Centre (INTCEN) and the Office of the EU Counter-Terrorism Coordinator. Their support throughout the year and their valuable contributions were indispensable for the production of this, the 2014 edition of the TE-SAT.
The terrorist threat in the EU remains acute and diverse. The largest proportion of terrorist attacks in the EU was related to separatist groups, although the number significantly decreased in 2013 compared to previous years. Most separatist incidents, however, were small-scale. The majority of EU Member States continue to consider religiously inspired terrorism as a major threat, as evidenced by the significant increase in the number of arrests. Two attacks and several disrupted plots in 2013 illustrate this threat. Al-Qaeda and like-minded terrorist groups abroad continued to encourage self-organised attacks within the EU aiming for indiscriminate casualties. With regard to left-wing and anarchist terrorism, the number of attacks and arrests increased compared to previous years. Right-wing extremists may exhibit violent and intimidating behaviour, but do not generally employ terrorist modi operandi. An exception to this rule in 2013 was a series of four attacks in the UK carried out by one individual. Tactics employed by terrorists of all affiliations differ in their levels of sophistication. New tactics continue to be observed in attempted, completed or foiled attacks.

EU citizens continue to travel to conflict zones to receive training in combat techniques and to engage in armed struggle. The numbers of EU citizens travelling to Syria in particular, including those intending to fight alongside al-Qaeda-affiliated groups, were already substantial and rising, and increased significantly in 2013. It seems likely that Syria will remain the destination of choice for prospective fighters departing from EU Member States, as long as the civil war there continues. In the wake of the Syrian conflict, the threat to the EU is likely to increase exponentially. European fighters, who travel to conflict zones, are assessed as posing an increased threat to all EU Member States on
their return. They may seek to set up logistical, financial or recruitment cells, and may act as role models to individuals within extremist communities – further enhancing their capacity to encourage others to travel. In addition, their resolve is likely to have strengthened in the conflict zones, and they may have gained the skills and contacts to carry out attacks in the EU.

Developments in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region increase risks in the EU and for EU interests elsewhere. Western nationals and interests continue to be at risk in parts of Africa, the Middle East and Asia, where there are high levels of terrorist activity. Kidnapping for ransom is a particular risk. The Arab revolutions, which started in Tunisia in late 2010, have facilitated a consolidation of operational capacities and support bases of terrorist groups that are involved in regional conflicts. Groups motivated by ideologies identical or similar to that of al-Qaeda continue to have a significant impact on the security situation in countries including Afghanistan, Iraq, Mali, Nigeria, Pakistan, Somalia and Yemen. In addition, al-Qaeda affiliates have gained a stronghold in Syria through their involvement in the civil war, which also affects neighbouring countries and other states in the Middle East. This development strengthens the position of these groups, providing safe havens and a range of opportunities, including training and fundraising, with a consequential increased risk for the EU.

The EU continues to serve as an area for financing, logistics, refuge and procurement for terrorist groups that conduct their main activities outside Europe. This applies in particular, but not exclusively, to the Turkish terrorist groups PKK and DHKP/C, terrorist groups from the Northern Caucasus and the Lebanese Hezbollah, whose main operational activities are not focused on the EU or EU interests.

More and more issues that were traditionally deemed left-wing have been adopted by right-wing activists. As well as anti-capitalism, anti-globalism and animal rights, right-wing extremists now also engage in campaigning against genetically modified food. Right-wing extremist groups or individual activists mainly cause public order problems and community tension. They may also occasionally be engaged in serious crime, but only present a terrorist threat in exceptional cases. As in previous years, individuals and groups motivated by an enmity to Islam, such as the ‘Defence League’ branches in EU Member States, remain active and maintain international links.

Left-wing and anarchist terrorist attacks and arrests increased in 2013, while overall activities of left-wing and anarchist extremists decreased. Left-wing and anarchist extremists continue to be primarily motivated by domestic politics. However, efforts are made to establish and maintain international contacts between like-minded groups. In the left-wing and anarchist scene, individuals willing to engage in violent acts are usually a small minority.

Terrorist groups occasionally cooperate with organised crime groups. Pragmatic and/or opportunistic contacts between organised crime groups and terrorist organisations have been observed on occasions. However, this does not seem to be a widespread phenomenon in the EU and is likely to be limited to a small number of terrorist organisations.

Social media offer opportunities to terrorists. Terrorists and violent extremists of all affiliations make abundant use of the Internet, and in particular social media, as pivotal tools for planning, targeting, recruitment, communication, bonding, instruction, training and propaganda. Social media are believed to have contributed to the acceleration of (self-)radicalisation among EU nationals.
GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE SITUATION IN THE EU IN 2013

➔ In 2013, 7 people died as a result of terrorist attacks in the EU

➔ 152 terrorist attacks carried out in EU Member States

➔ 535 individuals arrested in the EU for terrorism related offences

➔ Court proceedings for terrorism charges concluded in relation to 313 individuals
CHAPTER 1   GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE SITUATION IN THE EU IN 2013

1.1 Terrorist attacks and arrested suspects

In 2013 seven people were killed in terrorist attacks in the European Union (EU): one British army soldier in London (UK), one elderly Muslim male in the West Midlands (UK), two members of a right-wing extremist party in Athens (Greece) and three high-ranking Partiya Karkerên Kurdistan (PKK, Kurdistan Workers’ Party) members in Paris (France).

A total of 152 terrorist attacks occurred in five EU Member States. The majority took place in France (63), Spain (33) and the UK (35). After an increase in 2012, the number of terrorist attacks in 2013 fell below the number recorded in 2011.

As in previous years, the majority of attacks can be attributed to separatist terrorism. The number of attacks related to left-wing and anarchist terrorism rose in 2013, thereby ending the downward trend observed in previous years. No attacks related to single-issue terrorism were reported in 2013. EU Member States did not report any terrorist attacks specifically classified as right-wing or religiously inspired terrorism for the period 2013. However, in at least two attacks, including the murder of the British soldier, the role of religious extremism appears to be evident. Furthermore, in the UK, an individual motivated by right-wing extremist ideology carried out four attacks, including the murder in the West Midlands.\(^1\)

In 2013, 535 individuals were arrested for offences related to terrorism,\(^2\) a number similar to 2012 (537). Most of the arrests occurred in France (225), Spain (90) and the UK (77).

A continuous increase in the number of arrests for religiously inspired terrorism has been observed since 2011, whereas arrests for separatist terrorism have significantly decreased.

As well as the increase in left-wing and anarchist terrorist attacks, there was also an increase in the number of arrests in this domain, from 19 in 2012 to 49 in 2013. Reported arrests related to right-wing terrorism remained low and decreased from ten in 2012 to three in 2013 (this figure does not include the arrest of the perpetrator of the West Midlands murder).\(^1\) In addition, three arrests were reported by Bulgaria and Italy for single-issue terrorism.

In 2013 the number of arrests increased for preparation and execution of attacks; financing of terrorism; and travelling, facilitating travel or sending fighters to conflict zones, especially Syria. In previous years, arrests had been predominantly related to membership of a terrorist organisation.

\(^1\) For an overview of all attacks per EU Member State and per affiliation, see Annex 1.

\(^2\) For an overview of all arrests per EU Member State and per affiliation, see Annex 2. For the UK, figures represent the number of charges in 2013, to provide a more accurate comparison with the number of judicial arrests in the other EU Member States. However, at this stage in the criminal justice process, it is not possible for the UK to assign an affiliation to individual cases.
1.2 Terrorist and violent extremist activities

Financing of terrorism

Terrorists have developed a pragmatic approach to fundraising. This is reflected in the myriad of methods employed, including criminal activities of various kinds and legitimate (e.g. the sale of publications and paraphernalia) or ‘semi-legal’ activities (e.g. ‘taxes’ collected from specific communities or the misuse of charitable donations).

The PKK has long utilised Kurdish communities in Western Europe to generate substantial financial support. The financing of the organisation is mainly achieved through membership fees, sales of publications and proceeds from events. In addition, each year, members of the PKK leadership organise a donation campaign to collect funds. On 12 February 2013, 23 people were arrested by police in operations across France and Spain on suspicion of having links to the PKK or being involved in its financing.

A novel criminal funding method was observed in Belgium in 2013. Members of the Kurdish community were targeted by an individual offering to manipulate the electricity meter in their household or workplace. In payment for this service, the approached individuals were expected to provide a part of their illicitly generated savings. It is suspected that considerable sums were obtained in this way and transferred to support the PKK.

In another case within the EU in 2013, it is suspected that stolen bank and credit cards, theft, pick-pocketing and the sale of stolen goods were used to provide financial assistance to an Algerian organisation with links to al-Qaeda.

Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM), like other terrorist groups based outside the EU, is notorious for using kidnapping to generate revenue. 3 UN Member States are required, under UN Security Council resolution 1904 (2009), to prevent ransom payments, directly or indirectly, to terrorists under the UN al-Qaeda sanctions regime. In December 2013, a proposal was made for an additional UN resolution calling to ban such payments to all terrorist entities.

Funding activities encountered in investigations into right-wing extremism in EU Member States in 2013 largely remained below the criminal threshold. They included the selling of fanzines, CDs with White Power Music (WPM) and other merchandise. Right-wing extremist groups finance their activities via music events and the sale of associated items, which equally serve as a platform for propaganda. One financial goal of right-wing extremists is to purchase suitable premises to ensure the hosting of their events and to control the resulting revenue streams.

Several investigations in EU Member States have concerned the misuse of charities and non-profit organisations in order to collect funds for terrorist entities. In most cases, calls for donations were published on Internet sites and forums. In one counter-terrorism investigation, it was noted that supposed humanitarian aid activities were promoted via Facebook. Monetary donations were requested via an associated PayPal account. Examples of charity misuse have been evidenced in

3 For more information, see 2.4 Terrorist situation outside the EU.
support of several terrorist entities including the Devrimci Halk Kurtuluş Partisi/Cephesi (DHKP/C, Revolutionary People’s Liberation Party/Front) and HAMAS. Furthermore, some non-profit organisations are also suspected of serving as fronts for disseminating terrorist propaganda and financing the recruitment of young persons for the conflict in Syria.

Raised funds are moved by various means, including money remittance companies, hawala traders, and/or the use of anonymous (‘bearer’) or preloaded value cards. The sale of prepaid phone cards has also been observed in the financing of terrorist entities.

A standard method for money movements in support of terrorism involves the use of cash couriers. Large quantities of cash have been intercepted at hub airports and transnational rail stations. It is suspected that these had been gathered from donations and other enterprises. For example, in November 2013, two Lebanese passengers were found in possession of nearly EUR 770,000 at Brussels airport. Although there is no firm evidence, it was suspected that at least some of this cash was destined to finance Hezbollah (‘party of God’) in Lebanon. In July 2013, the military wing of Hezbollah was added to the EU list of terrorist organisations.4

Most counter-terrorism investigations have a financial component, usually with regards to recruitment, travel, operational and/or logistical support. In July 2013, for example, a French national was arrested in Kenya along with two Harakat al-Shabab al-Mujahidin (HSM, Young Mujahidin Movement) operatives for illegally entering the country. The three men were wanted in the EU on terrorist charges. Information derived from the Terrorist Finance Tracking Programme (TFTP)5 identified previously unknown financial associates of the suspect.

The nexus between terrorism and organised crime

Terrorist groups have been observed to outsource certain crimes to criminals, who do not have terrorist motives, in order to compensate for their lack of expertise and maintain operational security, instead of engaging in those criminal activities themselves. Cooperation may take the form of pragmatic, short- or long-term relationships with the aim of providing not only funding, but all kinds of goods or services that terrorist groups cannot procure themselves or that cannot be obtained legally. Such services may include the supply of forged identity documents, weapons, transportation and contacts. For instance, ETA in Spain and Dissident Republican (DR) groups in Northern Ireland (UK) have in the past been suspected of having ties to organised crime groups in the Balkan countries and to the Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia (FARC, Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia) in South America.6

Although bonds between criminal and terrorist groups constitute a potential security threat, they are not currently considered to be a significant phenomenon in the EU. Whereas terrorist groups, due to their political objectives, are in need of media attention, organised crime groups avoid attracting public attention. In addition, organised crime groups may fear that terrorist groups aspire to take over their activities, and terrorist groups may be concerned with losing their political and ideological credibility if their cooperation with criminals comes to light. Such concerns stand in the way of the development of lasting cooperation structures.

Nevertheless, Romania reported that, in May 2013, an Iraqi and a Lebanese citizen were declared inadmissible persons due to their involvement in terrorism-linked illegal migration activities, aimed at facilitating their fellow nationals’ entry into Romania and Europe, as well as being involved in drugs and arms trafficking in support of the Syrian insurgency. In addition, Romanian authorities investigated four Afghan nationals with links to the Afghan Taleban, who were believed to have links to illegal migration networks. Bulgaria also reported that some individuals travelling to Syria had interacted with Bulgarian criminals to acquire false identity documents for their journey to Syria.
Explosives

In 2013 terrorists’ use of commercial explosives was almost non-existent in the EU. In most attacks reported by EU Member States, the improvised explosive devices (IEDs) incorporated home-made explosives (HMEs) and pyrotechnic mixtures as the main charge, combined with improvised initiators. The HMEs were in most cases ‘blended’ rather than ‘cooked’.7

The modus operandi in building IEDs differed in individual EU Member States. Terrorists in Corsica (France) continued building IEDs, mainly pyrotechnically initiated, in which gas canisters were incorporated in order to increase the potential damage to the buildings targeted.

Attacks in Northern Ireland (UK) predominantly incorporated ammonium nitrate mixtures as the main charge of large IEDs, such as vehicle-borne IEDs (VBIEDs) and improvised mortars. Smaller devices, like pipe bombs, used firework composition or pyrotechnic mixtures.

Left-wing terrorists in Italy, Greece and Spain used IEDs that were mainly composed of powders and pyrotechnic mixtures, also known as ‘low explosives’. These devices were rudimentarily constructed and mainly based on designs from manuals available on the Internet.

IEDs analysed by Europol in 2013 showed a continuing trend towards a lower level of sophistication in their construction, which was already apparent in 2012. Less expertise was required for the construction, and the explosives used as the main charge had lower detonation velocities. Reduced sophistication, however, does not imply a lower level of potential lethality. IEDs, even those with low explosives, remain potentially lethal due to the high speed projection of their components.

In 2013 the number of seizures of chemical precursors for the production of HMEs, reported in terrorism investigations, decreased significantly. The EU Member States have implemented policies and actions in order to control the illicit procurement and use of these chemicals.

Communication

Terrorist groups maintain a strong need for public communication. Groups using terrorist tactics for political reasons aim at generating a response from the public that they address. They try to convince audiences, whose interests they purport to defend, of the legitimacy of their struggle and the terrorist tactics used. This is necessary because, while not profit-oriented, such groups need funds, volunteers and shelter to carry out their activities.

The Internet remains an essential platform for communication between terrorist organisations and their sympathisers, as well as a medium for issuing threats.

Internet forums continue to be crucial in the dissemination of propaganda by religiously inspired terrorist groups. These forums connect terrorist groups to thousands of Internet users, who in turn can relay the content to a potentially unlimited audience. Some terrorist organisations have designated particular forums or media outlets as their official communication channels. Investigations within EU Member States have also shown that some al-Qaeda-affiliated Arabic-language Internet forums were administrated by EU citizens or residents, or hosted by Internet service providers (ISPs) based in the EU.

Social media on the Internet continue to increase in importance for communication between terrorist groups and supporters worldwide. They offer opportunities for tailored access to, and interaction with, supporters and potential recruits of terrorist groups. This has perhaps contributed to the short time-scales in which some individuals have become self-radicalised. On several occasions, terrorist Internet forums were taken down by hacking attacks or law enforcement intervention in 2013. Consequently, terrorist propagandists increasingly relied on social media, such as Facebook, Twitter or YouTube, to continue publishing their messages. Some terrorist groups now officially designate social media accounts as their primary propaganda outlets.

The nature of social media allows terrorist groups and individuals in conflict zones to provide their followers with real-time updates of their activities. However, this approach has resulted in the trusted forums, and their administrators, being bypassed and losing control of the propaganda message. It has also made it much more difficult to contain debates and conflicts between competing factions. This was evident in 2013 in the dispute between the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) and Jabhat al-Nusra (‘support front’) in Syria, which manifested itself on Twitter. All messages concerning the groups’ differences were banned from the major terrorist forums. Nevertheless, forum administrators, whose aim is to safeguard the unity of jihadist discourse, were unable to contain the rhetoric.

Some social media companies, including Facebook and Twitter, have taken steps against abusive usage. With regard to right-wing extremists, it has been noted that individuals whose accounts were suspended moved on to alternative and less rigorously controlled international platforms.

An increased level of security awareness is evident among extremists on the Internet. They have made use of commonly available anonymisation software (e.g. TOR), encryption applications designed and propagated by extremist groups (e.g. ‘Mujahideen Secrets’ and ‘Asrar al-Dardashah’) and private chatrooms (e.g. Paltalk) – albeit not necessarily on a regular basis.

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7 ‘Blended’ HME only requires the mixture of different chemical precursors to obtain the explosive material. ‘Cooked’ HME, by contrast, requires chemical reactions and laboratory processes.
Figure 2
Terrorist attacks and arrests in the EU in 2013

ATTACKS
ARRESTS
1.3 Convictions and Penalties

In 2013, 15 EU Member States reported having concluded a total of 150 court proceedings on terrorism-related charges. The number of concluded court proceedings is similar to the figure reported in 2012 (149). The relevant court decisions in 2013 concerned terrorist offences, some of which dated back to the 1980s.

The court proceedings concluded in 2013 involved 313 individuals, 42 of whom were female. Twelve of the individuals appeared in court several times for different offences. One of them was tried in both France and Spain on different charges. In addition to the 313 individuals, two legal entities in Denmark and one legal entity in France were convicted for having committed terrorist offences. In Ireland, two individuals were brought to court on terrorism charges but the prosecution entered a nolle prosequi (declining to pursue the case against the defendants). As a result, the total number of verdicts pronounced for terrorism-related offences in 2013 was 336.

In 2013 Spain was the Member State in which the highest number of court proceedings for terrorist offences were concluded. Despite a slight decrease, Spain also remains the country in which the majority of terrorism verdicts were rendered. Courts in some other Member States pronounced fewer verdicts in 2013 compared to previous years. This was the case for Belgium, France and Italy. In 2013 Cyprus and Romania reported terrorism-related decisions to Eurojust for the first time.

The majority of the reported verdicts were final, while others are pending judicial remedy due to the fact that appeals have been submitted.

In 2013 separatist terrorism continued to be the dominant type of terrorism in court proceedings. The vast majority of separatist terrorism verdicts were pronounced in Spain and France. A large part (29) of the 42 female defendants was tried for separatist terrorism acts, which confirms a tendency observed in recent years. In Greece all relevant verdicts were related to left-wing terrorism, while Italy was the only Member State that reported right-wing terrorism verdicts in 2013.

Separatist terrorism cases concerned acts related to ETA, Dissident Republican groups and the PKK. In Denmark, for example, the High Court of Eastern Denmark dealt with the appeal against the guilty verdicts pronounced in 2012 by the Copenhagen City Court against Roj TV A/S and Mesopotamia Broadcast A/S METV. As reported in the TE-SAT 2013, both entities were prosecuted for repeatedly broadcasting PKK-related television programmes, thereby functioning as a mouthpiece for the PKK, as well as disseminating invitations to join the organisation and participate in its terrorist activities, while glorifying the PKK and its terrorist activities. The Copenhagen City Court found them guilty of aiding and abetting a terrorist organisation and sentenced each to pay a fine of DKK 2 600 000 (EUR 350 000). The PKK is listed as a terrorist organisation by the EU. However, this does not suffice in itself to consider the PKK a terrorist organisation in Denmark. The High Court found Roj TV A/S and Mesopotamia Broadcast A/S METV guilty of having aided and abetted the activities of the PKK, which, in its July 2013 judgment, it found to be a terrorist organisation. Roj TV A/S and Mesopotamia Broadcast A/S METV were each sentenced to pay a fine of DKK 5 000 000.

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8 Please refer to Annex 3 for additional information and clarification on the numbers mentioned in this section.
9 The UK’s submission covers England, Scotland and Wales but not Northern Ireland. The data received from the Republic of Ireland does not cover the whole of 2013. The data for the Netherlands includes two verdicts concerning animal rights extremism.
10 The two individuals are included in the number of individuals in concluded court proceedings for terrorism charges in 2013 but not in the number of verdicts.
11 The data for the previous years corresponds to the data reported to Eurojust and included in the respective TE-SAT reports.
12 The data provided by the UK was not broken down by type of terrorism and therefore is not included in the findings related to the different types of terrorism.
(EUR 670 000) and were disqualified from transmitting television broadcasts until further notice.

In 2013, as in the previous year, all court decisions in Austria, Belgium and the Czech Republic concerned religiously inspired terrorism. In two other cases of religiously inspired terrorism, two Dutch individuals preparing to go to Syria and join the armed rebel groups there were convicted by a Dutch court. The defendants were brought to court on several charges, including (preparation for) the commission of a terrorist crime. In the first proceeding at the Rotterdam District Court, the defendant expressed his wish to travel to Syria and join the armed fight there and had undertaken a series of preparatory activities, aside from booking tickets to Turkey and packing his suitcase. He had also visited websites, on which information about (violent) ‘jihad’ and ‘martyrdom’ was shared, and had sent multiple messages in which he had stated, among other things, that he wanted to fight on the side of the ‘mujahidin’ and also fight for the establishment of an Islamic state or the implementation of the shari’a. According to his defence, the acts described in the summons were not punishable due to the fact that there was an internal armed conflict in Syria and international humanitarian law was applicable. The court rejected this argument and ruled that the defendant, with a view to preparing to commit murder, had committed all acts as charged. The acts undertaken by the defendant were seen as preparatory for his departure to Syria in order to take part in the armed ‘jihad’ against the Syrian regime and to establish an Islamic state. With this in mind, as well as the personality and personal circumstances of the defendant and his established mental disorder, the court ruled that he should be placed in a psychiatric clinic for a period of one year.

In the second proceeding, the Rotterdam District Court found the defendant guilty of preparing to commit arson and/or cause an explosion, and distributing material inciting a terrorist crime. The defendant had visited websites and made queries about home-made bombs and explosives, purchased 10 metres of ignition fuse and one kilogramme of aluminium powder, as well as other materials that could be used to make explosives. He had also posted videos showing the execution of violent attacks and some extremist texts on websites and engaged in discussions about armed ‘jihad’ on the Internet. According to the prosecution, he had also visited websites on which information about ‘jihad’ and ‘martyrdom’ was shared, obtained a travel visa for Saudi Arabia and undertaken a trip to Turkey (via Germany) with Syria as the final destination. He was arrested in Germany before he could reach Syria. The court sentenced him to a prison term of 12 months, four of which were suspended, with a probationary period of two years.

In both cases, the court emphasised the seriousness of the offences and pointed out that these acts should be considered in a terrorist context, namely that of participation in the armed ‘jihad’ in Syria.
In 2013 all reported terrorism-related prosecutions in Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Germany, the Republic of Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Romania and the UK resulted in convictions.\(^{14}\) Germany and the Netherlands are the only EU Member States that reported no acquittals in the period 2010-2013.

In 2013 acquittals constituted 23% of all verdicts pronounced for terrorist offences. The percentage of acquittals decreased compared to 2011 (31%) and 2012 (30%), indicating a higher percentage of successful terrorist prosecutions. Seventeen of the 42 female defendants in the concluded court proceedings reported in 2013 were acquitted. The majority of the acquitted females (14) were brought to court on charges related to separatist terrorist acts.

The verdicts in relation to left-wing terrorism in 2013 had the highest acquittal rate (43%), which is unlike previous years, in which the highest acquittal rates were reported for verdicts related to separatist and religiously inspired terrorism. In 2013, 34% of the separatist terrorism verdicts contained acquittals. With a conviction rate of 99%, prosecutions for religiously inspired terrorism were the most successful.

The court proceedings for terrorist offences resulted in prison sentences ranging from three days to life imprisonment. In some cases, (part of) the sentence was suspended or made conditional for a certain period of time.

The majority (47%) of penalties handed down with guilty verdicts in 2013 were five years’ imprisonment or below. Penalties of 10 or more years constituted 33% of all penalties pronounced – an increase compared to 2012, when they represented 24% of the total. In some trials, for example in France, the Republic of Ireland and the UK, the courts ordered sentences of life imprisonment. In Spain, cumulative sentences of up to 3 860 years’ imprisonment were given for separatist terrorism offences.

The average prison sentence imposed in 2013 in the EU for acts of terrorism was approximately 10 years, which is higher than the reported average for 2011 and 2012 (8 years). In 2013 average prison sentences for terrorist offences were highest in Greece (27 years), Spain (14 years) and Ireland (12 years). In France, Greece, Spain and the UK, the average penalty increased compared to 2012.\(^{15}\)

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14 The UK data for 2013 refers only to convictions.

15 For the purpose of the calculation of the average prison sentence, penalties exceeding 40 years of imprisonment and life sentences were counted as 40 years. In cases in which the court ordered a minimum number of years of a life sentence to be served, the sentence was included in the overview with the minimum number of years indicated.
In 2013 left-wing terrorism verdicts received the highest average prison sentence (18 years), followed by separatist terrorism verdicts (13 years). These average prison sentences were considerably higher than the averages reported in 2012 (8 and 9 years respectively). The average prison sentence given for religiously inspired terrorist offences in 2013 decreased to 4 years, compared to 6 years in 2012.

In some cases, in addition to imprisonment, convicted individuals had their civil rights restricted, were banned from entering the national territory upon completion of their prison term or ordered to do community service. Occasionally, national courts imposed a pecuniary penalty as the only penalty or in combination with a prison term. The two legal entities convicted in Denmark, for example, were sentenced to pay a fine, while the legal entity found guilty of terrorism in France was dissolved. In other cases, prison sentences were pronounced as an alternative to pecuniary penalties. In Germany, youth sentences were handed down to two defendants found guilty of terrorist offences. In one case in the UK the court issued a hospital order, and in the Netherlands one individual was placed in a psychiatric clinic for a period of one year.
RELIGIOUSLY INSPIRED TERRORISM

- 1 person killed in a religiously inspired attack
- Several plots disrupted
- Significant increase in arrests for religiously inspired terrorism from 159 in 2012 to 216 in 2013
- Increase in arrests for recruitment and travelling for terrorist purposes to conflict zones, in particular Syria
- Religiously inspired terrorist groups continued inciting individuals in the EU to perpetrate self-organised attacks
CHAPTER 2   RELIGIOUSLY INSPIRED TERRORISM

2.1 Terrorist attacks and arrested suspects in the EU

European Union (EU) Member States reported no terrorist attacks specifically classified as religiously inspired terrorism for the 2013 period. However, in at least two attacks, the role of religious radicalisation appears to be evident.

On 22 May 2013, an off-duty British army soldier was murdered in the vicinity of army barracks in Woolwich, London (UK). The attackers initially used a car to run him over, before repeatedly stabbing him with bladed weapons. The two suspects – British Muslim converts of Nigerian descent – were arrested at the scene. Further arrests of their associates were made from May onwards. The assailants were self-organised but previously had links to radical Muslim groups in the UK (al-Muhajiroun and its later incarnation, the Sharia4 movement). One of the suspects was also believed to have attempted to travel to Somalia in the past in order to join Harakat al-Shabab al-Mujahidin (HSM, Young Mujahidin Movement). Both attackers were convicted of the murder in December 2013.

On 25 May 2013, just three days after the aforementioned attack, a French soldier was targeted in a non-fatal knife attack in La Défense near Paris (France) by an individual who converted to Islam and radicalised in an extremely short period of time.

The threat from self-radicalised, self-organised and self-financed individuals was underlined in 2013 through the disruption of terrorist plots in several EU Member States, including Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the UK. Several of the arrested suspects had criminal backgrounds. Only a limited number appeared to be connected to terrorist groups based outside the EU.

In March, weapons and material for producing improvised explosive devices (IEDs) were found at the home of one of three suspects arrested in Marignane (France). They reportedly sought to emulate Mohamed Merah and potentially planned to commemorate the first anniversary of his shootings. In October, three individuals linked to the group responsible for a 2012 grenade attack on a Jewish grocery in Paris were arrested, after material believed to be intended for the preparation of terrorist attacks was found. Other cell members are believed to have fled to Syria.

In March 2013 in Germany, four individuals belonging to radical salafist circles were arrested, suspected of being members of a ‘home-grown’ terrorist group. Their aim was to assassinate the leader of the right-wing extremist party PRO NRW.

16 The Sharia4 movement is a network of radical Muslim groups united by a common ideology based on that of the former al-Muhajiroun. It has branches (either virtual or actual) across Europe, including Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia and Spain. See Europol, Terrorism Situation and Trend Report (TE-SAT) 2013, p. 18.

17 In March 2012, Mohammed Merah carried out a series of three gun attacks against French soldiers and Jewish civilians in Toulouse and Montauban, killing seven people in total. Ibid., p. 17.

18 Ibid., p. 17.

19 Salafism is first and foremost a religious movement. Salafist communities may have certain theological preferences in common, but they can have widely different, often diametrically opposing, political agendas, ranging from quietist religious propagation to participation in armed struggle. The strand of salafism that legitimises violent action under the concept of ‘jihad’ is sometimes called salafiyya jihadiyya. See Roel Meijer (ed.), Global salafism: Islam’s new religious movement (New York: Columbia University Press, 2009).

20 NRW is the abbreviation used for the German federal state of North Rhine-Westphalia.
Other arrests for religiously inspired terrorism in EU Member States, including France, Italy and Spain, were connected to recruitment networks for violent action outside the EU. France, for example, arrested four militants in the region of Paris as part of an investigation into the recruitment of fighters for al-Qaeda-linked forces in Mali and the Sahel region.

Between June and September 2013, nine individuals were detained in Ceuta (Spain), suspected of belonging to a network dedicated to sending volunteers to Syria, to fight alongside groups including Jabhat al-Nusra (‘support front’) and the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL). The network appears to have had international links to Morocco, Belgium, Turkey and Syria, and to have successfully sent at least 12 young Spanish and Moroccan men to Syria, a number of whom died there in suicide attacks or combat.

In addition, there were a number of arrests and convictions across Europe, including in Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK, in connection to travelling to Syria to participate in the conflict. In July 2013, for instance, a woman linked to an investigation into a broader network of recruiters for Syria was arrested in Rotterdam (Netherlands); she was later released and managed to travel there herself.

Arrests also occurred after individuals returned from Syria. In September 2013, for instance, UK police arrested two British citizens (of Pakistani origin), suspected of attending a training camp in Syria.

Other arrests, including in France, Italy and Spain, were related to the dissemination of terrorist propaganda and bomb-making instructions on the Internet, in particular via social media. In June 2013, for example, Italian police arrested a Moroccan male for providing training for terrorist purposes and inciting religious and racial hatred. He was allegedly the main representative for the Sharia4 movement in Italy and maintained contacts with leading members of the network based in Belgium and the UK. He had gathered information on the Internet on a variety of possible targets in Italy and, reportedly, wanted to join jihadists fighting in Syria.

2.2 Terrorist and violent extremist activities

Logistics

In Austria, investigations suggest that there is an on-going trend with regard to fundraising among sympathisers of the jihadist spectrum. Terrorist financing included support for travel to Syria. In addition, there are a number of followers of the terrorist group ‘Caucasus Emirate’, an organisation for which Austria (and Europe) appears to serve mainly as an area for financing, logistics and recruitment.

In April 2013, Italian police arrested four members of a ‘home-grown’ terrorist cell. The Tunisian cell leader, who was among those arrested, was a former imam at a mosque. Among other activities, the group aimed to recruit and train irregular migrants and send them to training camps in Afghanistan, Chechnya, Iraq and Yemen, and supplied them with forged identification documents.

Propaganda and recruitment

Terrorist propaganda by religiously inspired terrorists in 2013 focused on two major topics. Firstly, ‘individual jihad’ attacks were encouraged in Western countries, including the EU. Secondly, individuals were incited to participate in fighting and support activities outside the EU.

Since the French military intervention in Mali (Operation Serval) began in January 2013, an increasing number of calls for attacks by individual operatives were broadcast on the Internet, along with instructions on how to make IEDs. Many of them evoked Mohamed Merah.

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21 The concept of ‘individual jihad’ has been publicly propagated by the al-Qaeda leadership since June 2011, following the death of Osama bin Laden. In al-Qaeda’s definition, ‘individual jihad’ refers to military operations executed by an individual or a small group with the aim of harming the enemy and inciting other fighters. The attackers act on their own initiative and use the means at their disposal. According to al-Qaeda, ‘individual jihad’ includes attacks carried out by unaffiliated individuals in Western countries. This definition can be applied to attacks in the EU, such as the one in Woolwich in the UK, but also covers assaults on buildings by small groups.
Foreign terrorist groups also reacted to the attacks in London and Paris and the 15 April 2013 Boston (USA) marathon bombings. The Somali-based HSM celebrated the Woolwich attack in its propaganda, criticised UK foreign policy, encouraged more ‘individual jihad’ attacks in the UK and exhorted British Muslims to travel overseas to conflict zones. Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula (AQAP) produced a special edition of Inspire magazine focusing on the Boston bombings and referencing the Woolwich attack in the UK. Another English-language magazine, Azan, also published an edition specifically focusing on inciting extremists to conduct attacks in the West (i.e. Europe, as well as Australia, Canada and the USA).

Some salafist individuals and groups in the EU, such as the Sharia4 movement, seem to have heeded the advice of prominent jihadist ideologues to stop their controversial public appearances in Europe, for example demanding the immediate implementation of Islamic law in Europe. Instead, they have been encouraged to participate in what these ideologues describe as a ‘jihād’ against un-Islamic rule in Muslim countries. Indeed, there are more and more indications that members of Sharia4Belgium, for example, have joined armed groups in Syria adhering to an al-Qaeda-inspired ideology.

2.3 Travelling for terrorist purposes

Individuals and groups that have travelled from the EU to other parts of the world for terrorist purposes are assessed to pose an increased threat to all EU Member States upon their return, even if only a small proportion may be intent on perpetrating attacks in the EU. They are likely to have been further radicalised in the conflict zones and may have gained the skills and contacts to enable future terrorist activities. As well as potential attack planning, they may also seek to set up logistical, financial or recruitment cells and may become local leaders in the extremist community, further enhancing their capacity to encourage others to travel.

In 2013 the Afghanistan-Pakistan region, Somalia, Mali and Yemen continued to attract fighters in varying degrees.

A limited number of EU citizens were arrested in northern Mali. In March, for example, the French military arrested a French-Algerian national in the Ifoghas mountains; and in April a 58-year-old French citizen, who had joined al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM), was arrested by Malian security forces north of Timbuktu.

In July 2013, three suspected terrorists from France and Belgium, believed to be linked to HSM, were arrested in Kenya after having illegally entered from Somalia. The group reportedly arrived in Kenya via Bulgaria, Turkey and Tanzania in 2011, in order to travel to Somalia.

However, Syria continued to be the destination of choice for travellers seeking to join armed groups. It is believed that the Turkish-Syrian border’s accessibility is one factor why more European volunteers travelled to Syria rather than to Afghanistan, Mali, Somalia or Yemen.

With regards to travel routes to Syria, Turkey is the major transit hub: its location at the crossroads of Europe and Asia, and its vicinity to the Middle East and North Africa, mean that it has also played a role as a transit country for terrorist travel to and from other destinations (for example the Afghanistan-Pakistan region and Somalia). In 2013 it was observed that, as well as direct flights to Turkey from their home countries, a number of people travelled to neighbouring or nearby EU countries first. The popular land routes used to reach Turkey included those via Germany, Austria, Hungary, Croatia, Romania, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Bulgaria, Italy and Greece. Travel from Italy and Greece was often via sea ferry.

Many travellers are believed to have funded and organised their journeys to Syria themselves. Some used rented vehicles, which were stolen and used as transportation to and within the Syrian conflict zone.

Bulgaria reported isolated cases, in which those on their way to Syria sought assistance from Bulgarian criminals to obtain false identity documents to facilitate their journeys. The facilitators appeared to be exclusively financially motivated. Other reporting indicates that a group of Syrian na-
tionals residing in Sofia – some of whom participated in the
conflict – organised logistical activities to facilitate the travel
of (potential) fighters from Bulgaria to Turkey and on to Syria.
In addition, a number of foreign fighters are reported to have
travelled to Syria under the cover of legitimate humanitarian
aid missions.

Specific organised facilitation networks may be involved in
ensuring a smooth transition into the more radical fighting
groups, which are believed to operate strict admission
policies and require references. There were indications that
Sharia4Belgium, for example, may have played a significant
role in facilitating individuals to join jihadist groups fighting
in Syria. In April 2013, a number of persons were arrested
following a judicial investigation into Sharia4Belgium
members, some of whom were suspected of recruiting for
Syria. Furthermore, in the network dismantled in Ceuta
(Spain), each of the members appears to have had different
tasks: recruiting and indoctrinating volunteers; obtaining
financing; organising relocation logistics; contacting
facilitators in transit zones and in the final destination in order
to guarantee arrival in the conflict zone; ensuring transfers to
training camps, and finally to al-Qaeda-linked fighting groups.

There is no overall official figure available regarding EU
citizens travelling to take part in the conflict in Syria, but
estimates suggest that, by the end of 2013, they numbered
between 1 200 and 2 000. EU nationals and residents are
believed to be fighting as members of a number of groups
in Syria. Those fighting alongside al-Qaeda-affiliated groups,
such as the ISIL and Jabhat al-Nusra, were believed to amount
to a significant number and, ultimately, pose the greatest
threat to the EU.

At the time of writing, the sectarian nature of the Syrian
conflict did not seem to have violently manifested itself back
in the EU, whether with regards to Sunni and Shi’a Muslims, or
Sunni Muslims and supporters of the Kurdish terrorist group
Partiya Karkerên Kurdistan (PKK, Kurdistan Workers’ Party).

2.4 Terrorist situation outside the EU

EU citizens kidnapped or killed

The risk to EU citizens of being kidnapped by religiously
inspired terrorist groups is particularly great in West Africa,
Yemen and Syria. Although ostensibly politically motivated
in some cases, kidnap for ransom appears to be seen by
terrorist groups as an attractive and lucrative method to
finance their operations. Besides money, AQIM for example,
has demanded the withdrawal of French troops from Mali
and the release of its incarcerated operatives. Kidnapping
is believed to be a major financing source for AQIM –
allowing it to grow, facilitate alliances, purchase equipment
and weapons and attract financially motivated fighters.
At the time of writing, AQIM continued to hold EU citizens
hostage in the Sahel region. In October 2012, al-Qaeda leader
Ayman al-Zawahiri suggested that his followers should take
British, French, Italian or US citizens hostage, with a view to
influencing negotiations regarding prisoners in Afghanistan.

Motives for the kidnapping of EU nationals in Syria remain
unclear and are currently being investigated. Of particular
concern is the significant number of journalists kidnapped.
For example, an Italian journalist was abducted in April
2013 and released in early September; in July, a Polish
photographer was kidnapped and released in October; in
September, three Spanish journalists were also kidnapped,
two of whom remained in captivity at the time of writing. One
kidnapping of a Belgian resident in Syria was also reported.

In Nigeria, seven foreign workers, including British, Greek
and Italian nationals, were seized (and eventually killed)
and a security guard shot dead on 17 February 2013 by the
jihadist group Jama'at Ansar al-Muslimin fi Bilad al-Sudan
(Group of the Supporters of Muslims in Black Africa, also
known as Ansaru). In February 2013 in Cameroon, Boko
Haram,22 or Boko Haram-associated elements, kidnapped
seven French nationals (a family, released two months later),
apparently in revenge for the French invasion of Northern
Mali. Both Ansaru and Boko Haram have links to AQIM,
receiving training and financing.

In March 2013, two female Czech tourists were kidnapped in
Baluchistan province, south-western Pakistan. The kidnappers
reportedly took the captives to Afghanistan. In June 2013, ten
persons, including two Slovakian and one Lithuanian tourist,
were killed whilst at the base of the Nanga Parbat mountain in
Pakistan. Responsibility for this terrorist attack was claimed by
Tehrik-e-Taliban Pakistan (TTP, Pakistan Taliban Movement).
The group claimed that the murders were in response to the
international community’s support of drone attacks.

22 The name Boko Haram (‘Western education is prohibited’) is not used by the
group itself, which uses the name Jama’at Ahl al-Sunnah lil-Da’wa wal-Ikhshad
(‘group of the Sunnis for preaching and jihad’).
Developments in Africa and the Middle East

In a number of Middle East and North African (MENA) countries, political transformation, which began in 2011, has led to significant change and, in some cases, disruption to countries’ legal and security structures, with a resultant impact on EU interests and nationals. Furthermore, some terrorist groups in the region have strengthened their positions and acquired a portion of Libyan-based arsenals. The ramifications were also felt in West African countries, including Nigeria and Cameroon.

The civil war in Syria between the regime and rebel groups continued unabated. In April 2013, the Islamic State of Iraq (ISI) tried to present Jabhat al-Nusra as its branch in Syria and declared that henceforth it would use the name Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL). This was denied by Jabhat al-Nusra, which in turn declared itself an independent al-Qaeda affiliate. The ISI’s claim was dismissed by al-Qaeda’s leader Ayman al-Zawahiri, who instructed the ISI to remain in Iraq and respect Jabhat al-Nusra’s lead in Syria. Notwithstanding, members of Jabhat al-Nusra in Syria joined the group under its new name, ISIL. Defying the al-Qaeda leadership’s orders, the ISIL refused to cease activities in Syria. Tensions between the ISIL and other rebel forces, including Jabhat al-Nusra, continued and eventually escalated in the latter part of 2013, when heavy fighting broke out between the ISIL and the rest of the rebel groups. The ISIL actively tried to recruit foreigners, including EU citizens.

In Mali, the control of the northern territories since early 2012 by a loose alliance of insurgent and terrorist groups, notably al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM), was ended through a French military intervention (Operation Serval), which started in January 2013. Within weeks, the militias were expelled from major cities in northern Mali, of which they had taken control in the preceding months. Some retreated into mountainous areas, from where they have continued terrorist activities, including ambushes and kidnappings. In May 2013, AQIM declared French interests legitimate targets due to France’s ‘occupation’ of Muslim territory in Mali. Although AQIM was weakened by Operation Serval and several of its prominent members were killed, the group maintained a considerable disruptive capability – demonstrated, for example, by the kidnapping and subsequent killing of two French journalists in November 2013 in Kidal.

Terrorists have also fled to neighbouring countries, such as Niger, where they have carried out terrorist suicide operations, including coordinated car bomb attacks on the Arlit uranium mine, a French business interest, and a military academy in Agadez on 23 May 2013, which killed at least 20 people. The attack was claimed by al-Mulathamun (‘the veiled men’), in cooperation with the Mouvement pour l’unicité et le jihad en Afrique de l’ouest (MUJAO, Movement for Oneness and Jihad in West Africa).

Al-Mulathamun, which also uses the name ‘those who sign in blood’, had previously claimed an attack and hostage-taking operation at the In Amenas gas facility in southern Algeria from 16 to 19 January 2013, which resulted in the death of 40 foreign hostages – including EU nationals. The group alleged that the attack was carried out in retaliation to Algeria opening its air space to the French military for its intervention in northern Mali. The attack at In Aménas was the first of that scale conducted by Mokhtar Belmokhtar, the leader of al-Mulathamun.

In late August 2013, al-Mulathamun merged with the MUJAO to form a joint group dubbed al-Murabitun (‘those stationed at the frontline’). The group is still holding a French hostage, kidnapped by the MUJAO in Diéma (Mali) in November 2012, and have threatened to target French interests in any location.

In Somalia, despite its expulsion in 2012 from major cities and towns, HSM perpetrated a number of terrorist attacks in 2013. Several attacks were carried out against international targets in Mogadishu, including an assault on 19 June 2013 on the offices of the United Nations (UN), which killed 15 people including four expatriate United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) staff.

An attack claimed by HSM on the Westgate shopping mall in Nairobi (Kenya) on 21 September 2013 claimed the lives of more than 60 people, including many citizens of Western countries. One of the perpetrators – who did not number more than four men – was a Norwegian citizen of Somali origin.

In 2013 HSM also offered its support to AQIM and warned the citizens of France that they would suffer the consequences of an operation by French special forces that attempted to free a French hostage in Somalia in January. French nationals have been threatened in Somalia, including Somaliland and Puntland, as well as in Djibouti and Ethiopia, where many aid workers are present.

In Yemen, al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula (AQAP), which in mid-2012 had been driven from the territories that it had occupied a year earlier, continued its terrorist activities, including a large-scale attack on the Yemeni ministry of defence and a military hospital in the capital Sana’a in

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24 Ibid., p. 23.
25 Ibid.
26 Ibid., p. 21.
December 2013. There were over 50 victims, including two German development workers. Prior to this, on 6 October 2013, a German national working as a security officer at the German embassy was shot and killed in front of a supermarket in Sana’a; and a Sierra Leonean employee of the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) was kidnapped on the same day. The UK cites AQAP’s capability in developing their attack methodology against civil aviation and in motivating independent attacks through their extremist media output as a key threat to its security.

On 30 June 2013 in Egypt, the military deposed President Muhammad Mursi and his government, which was dominated by the Muslim Brotherhood. The Supreme Council of the Armed Forces assumed power. The Muslim Brotherhood was banned and eventually declared a terrorist group. In the Sinai peninsula, terrorist activities have increased on a dramatic scale, despite rigorous military operations. Terrorist violence spilled over into Cairo and the Nile delta. Two suspected Egyptian terrorists linked to al-Qaeda were arrested in May 2013 for planning a car bomb attack against the French or the American ambassador in Cairo. They were released a month later.

Libya continued to be highly unstable and the availability of weapons there remained high. Militias continued to act in an unrestrained manner, as evidenced, for example, by the temporary abduction of Libyan prime minister Ali Zaydan by members of a militia on 10 October 2013 – apparently in retaliation for the arrest of an alleged al-Qaeda commander in Libya by US special forces.

In April 2013, a vehicle-borne improvised explosive device (VBIED) exploded in front of the French embassy in Tripoli, injuring two security staff; and in July 2013 the French Consul in Benghazi was shot at whilst in his vehicle. Italian diplomatic targets in Benghazi and Tripoli were also targeted in 2013. In addition, in October 2013, a VBIED exploded outside the Swedish consulate in Benghazi, seriously damaging the building but causing no casualties.

The southern part of Libya became an area for fighters to fall back to after being chased out of northern Mali by Operation Serval. It also served as a base from where terrorist attacks against Western interests in the region were planned: approximately two-thirds of the individuals (amounting to 20 people) that carried out the In Aménas attack in Algeria are believed to have been trained in Ubari (Libya).

Significant numbers of Tunisians are believed to have joined terrorist groups in the Sahel: more than a third of the terrorists who participated in the attack in In Aménas were Tunisian nationals. Ansar al-Shari’a in Tunisia, which was declared a terrorist group by the Tunisian government in August 2013, has built up close associations with AQIM, which strengthened the latter’s presence in the country. In October 2013, a suicide bomber detonated his device on a beach, after he was unable to enter a nearby hotel popular with European holiday makers in the seaside resort of Sousse. Nobody else was injured. Current members of Ansar al-Shari’a based in Tunisia, previously convicted in Italy for terrorism offences, are believed to maintain contacts with jihadist networks in Libya and Syria, as well as possibly back in Italy.
Figure 6
Number of suspects arrested for religiously inspired terrorism in EU Member States in 2013
ETHNO-NATIONALIST AND SEPARATIST TERRORISM

-> 3 high-ranking PKK members killed in the EU

-> Ethno-nationalist and separatist terrorist attacks decreased significantly from 167 in 2012 to 84 in 2013

-> 180 persons arrested for offences related to ethno-nationalist and separatist terrorism in EU Member States

-> Threat from Dissident Republican groups remains

-> ETA continues to observe ceasefire but maintains arms caches
Despite a reduction in the overall number of attacks since 2010, greater sophistication, incremental learning and lethal intent among Dissident Republican (DR) groups in Northern Ireland (UK) have been evident. The main groups of concern in 2013 were the ‘New IRA’ (which formed in 2012 following a merger of the Real IRA, vigilante group Republican Action Against Drugs (RAAD) and a number of unaffiliated DRs); Óglaigh ná hÉireann (ONH, Warriors of Ireland); and the Continuity IRA (CIRA).

Despite its small size, ONH poses a serious threat. The group has shown the capability, willingness and intent to kill members of the security forces in Northern Ireland, as demonstrated by several attributable incidents. On 24 November 2013, for example, a viable improvised explosive device (IED) was placed in a hijacked car and the driver ordered to transport it to Belfast city centre.

The security forces remain the primary target for DR groups. Prison officers and military personnel are also considered legitimate targets. On 8 November 2013, an under-vehicle improvised explosive device (UVIED) was placed under the private car of a former police officer in Belfast.

DR groups are assessed as focusing their activities in Northern Ireland, but some members may also aspire to conduct attacks in other parts of the UK. In the Republic of Ireland, they are actively involved in fundraising, training, engineering IEDs, procurement, storage and, occasionally, using it as a launch base for attacks in neighbouring Northern Ireland.
Euskadi ta Askatasuna (ETA) and Resistência Galega

Euskadi ta Askatasuna (ETA, Basque Fatherland and Liberty) carried out no terrorist attacks in 2013. The ‘definitive ceasefire’, proclaimed by the group on 20 October 2011, continued to be observed.

The street violence attributed to juvenile groups of supporters and sympathisers of SEGI (‘follow’) decreased to very low levels in 2013. Actions were mainly limited to criminal damage and propaganda for ETA members. At least two railway sabotage operations were perpetrated by operational groups (Taldes Y) in April and November in the Basque country. Leaflets and a banner carrying a text in solidarity with ETA prisoners claimed responsibility for the actions.

France continued to be used by ETA to store equipment in caches, including a significant proportion of the group’s weaponry, explosive precursors and vehicle number plates illegally obtained in the past. Such equipment might be used for a potential resumption of terrorist actions. Six alleged ETA members, reportedly logistical operatives, were arrested in May 2013 in France.

ETA issued six communiqués in 2013. In these messages, the group stressed its commitment to a negotiated peace process. However, the group did not categorically distance itself from its violent past, nor did it declare its dissolution. Some individuals linked to the group disagreed with this peace process and expressed their readiness to resume terrorist activity.

In late 2013, Herrira (‘towards the people’), an association supporting ETA prisoners, was banned and dismantled. Eighteen members were arrested.

The number of attacks attributed to Resistência Galega decreased in 2013 compared to previous years. The group targeted bank premises and governmental infrastructure, causing material damage. One member was arrested in 2013 and tried. The Spanish National Court ruled that Resistência Galega was a terrorist group aiming at a change of the constitutional order.

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27 SEGI is a banned youth organisation associated with ETA, responsible for street violence (or low intensity terrorism). The attacks, which in the past included the use of improvised explosives devices (IEDs) and improvised incendiary devices (IIDs), were executed by SEGI groups known as Taldes Y. ETA is responsible for the command and control of SEGI and other organisations.

28 Created in February 2012, Herrira substituted the former Gestora Pro Amnistía and Askatasuna.
French separatist groups

In comparison to previous years, 2013 saw a significant decrease in the number of attacks attributed to Corsican separatist movements. However, the two most active groups, the Front de Libération Nationale de la Corse (FLNC, National Liberation Front of Corsica) and the FLNC du 22 Octobre (FLNC of 22 October), continue to demonstrate the capability and intent to carry out terrorist acts.

The FLNC traditionally targets not only police and gendarmerie, public buildings and state institutions, but also private properties and restaurants. On 5 December 2013, after five of its members were arrested, the group carried out two simultaneous rocket attacks against gendarmerie offices in Bastia and Ajaccio.

In December 2013, two attacks were claimed by the Armée Révolutionnaire Bretonne (ARB, Breton Revolutionary Army). This group sees itself in the tradition of the Front de Libération de la Bretagne-Armée Républicaine Bretonne (FLB-ARB, Liberation Front of Brittany-Breton Republican Army), a terrorist organisation created in 1963 that called for the independence of Brittany.

The year 2013 also witnessed the emergence of a new French separatist terrorist group, the Front de Libération Nationale de Provence (FLNP, National Liberation Front of Provence). The group was responsible for three attacks against real estate agencies and a bank in the Var department, in which there were no casualties.

Kurdistan Workers’ Party (PKK)

In 2013 the Partiya Karkerên Kurdistan (PKK, Kurdistan Workers’ Party) carried out no terrorist attacks in the European Union (EU). Similar to previous years, the group’s EU-based activities were mainly restricted to fundraising, propaganda, procurement and logistics, recruitment and training.

On 9 January 2013, three Kurdish women were murdered in the Kurdish Institute of Paris (France). Two of the victims were senior members of the PKK’s European structures and were actively involved in the financing of the organisation’s activities. Although a 30-year-old ethnic Kurd was arrested in Paris after the incident, at the time of writing the motivation for the attack had not been established.

Law enforcement measures against PKK structures in the EU targeted its financial apparatus and its main propaganda outlets. In February 2013, 17 Kurds were arrested in southwestern France in a counter-terrorism investigation linked to extortion for the purpose of raising funds for the PKK. In the same operation, six people were detained in Spain. The individuals arrested in the French cities of Bordeaux and Toulouse were suspected of being senior figures within the regional structure of the organisation. Weapons and EUR 28 000 in cash were seized in raids in the Spanish cities of Madrid, Barcelona and Murcia.
It has been suggested that the PKK coordinates its training activities in Europe mainly through the Belgian-based Mesopotamia Social Sciences Research Academy. Trainees reportedly go on to join the PKK’s armed wing, the Hêzên Parastina Gelê (HPG, People's Defence Forces), which operates from camps in northern Iraq.

In 2013 a Danish court fined Mesopotamia Broadcasts — a company which operated and controlled television channels Roj TV, MMC and Nuce TV — after ruling that it received financial support from the PKK. The company was convicted of promoting terrorism and consequently stripped of its broadcasting rights.29

The PKK and the Turkish government reached a partial peace agreement in 2013. A significant decrease in terrorist attacks in Turkey was observed. However, the core military wing of the group still operates from the Qandil mountains in northern Iraq, which is also the base of the recently reshuffled leadership. The PKK carried out a limited number of attacks, mostly targeting military convoys in south-eastern Turkey.

Turkish reporting suggests that the PKK imposes a levy on drug traffickers, including at the Turkish borders, as part of the process of transferring drugs into European markets. Furthermore, it allegedly provides protection and mediation services for internal disputes between drug traffickers.

The PKK and its Syrian equivalent, the Partiya Yekitiya Demokrat (PYD, Democratic Union Party), were involved in the Syrian conflict in 2013. Clashes with jihadist rebel groups, especially Jabhat al-Nusra (‘support front’), were largely restricted to the north-eastern region, the main area of Kurdish settlement in Syria.

**Liberation Tamil Tigers of Eelam (LTTE)**

The Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) is considered to have been inactive since it was militarily defeated in Sri Lanka in 2009. However, LTTE networks remain in numerous countries, and continue to attempt to rebuild their structures and operating capabilities, especially via fundraising and money laundering.

In Switzerland, for instance, police continued to investigate the activities of a number of former LTTE members. The investigation focused primarily on operations aimed at channelling funds collected on Swiss territory to Sri Lanka.

29 See 1.3 Convictions and Penalties.
Figure 8
Number of failed or completed attacks and number of suspects arrested for ethno-nationalist and separatist terrorism in EU Member States in 2013

ATTACKS
ARRESTS

CHAPTER 3 ETHNO-NATIONALIST AND SEPARATIST TERRORISM
LEFT-WING AND ANARCHIST TERRORISM

- 2 people killed by left-wing or anarchist terrorists in Greece
- Terrorist attacks increased to 24 in 2013 after a 2012 low
- Decrease in low-scale violence and increasingly elaborate terrorist attacks
- 49 individuals arrested in 6 EU Member States
4.1 Terrorist attacks and arrested suspects

The number of attacks and arrests in the European Union (EU) related to left-wing and anarchist terrorism rose in 2013 after a downward trend in previous years. Traditionally, these groups are most active in Greece, Italy and Spain. Terrorist activities increased in Greece and Spain, a fact illustrated by an increased number of attacks in Greece and higher numbers of arrests in both countries.

The scale and nature of left-wing and anarchist terrorist attacks in Greece have intensified significantly. The fourteen attacks that occurred in 2013 reflect the fact that Greek left-wing and anarchist terrorist groups have acquired weapons and equipment and have regained their operational capabilities. The most active group is Synomosia Pyrinon Fotias (Conspiracy of Fire Cells), the Greek affiliate of the Informal Anarchist Federation/International Revolutionary Front (FAI/IRF). In 2013 the group launched a string of attacks in the framework of the so-called Project Phoenix, which triggered solidarity responses by like-minded groups in a number of countries, including Indonesia, Russia and Chile.

On 1 November 2013, two members of the Greek right-wing extremist party Chrysi Avgi (Golden Dawn) were shot and killed and a further member seriously injured in an attack that was claimed by the previously unknown group Mahomenes Laikes Epanastatikes Dynameis (Militant Popular Revolutionary Forces). They were the first fatalities as a result of left-wing or anarchist terrorist activity in Greece since 2010.

In Italy, the anarchist terrorist group Federazione Anarchica Informale (FAI) altered its modus operandi. It carried out a number of terrorist attacks in 2013, but there were no large-scale coordinated campaigns, such as the multiple improvised explosive devices (IEDs) delivered by mail to various targets in previous years.

In October 2013, a journalist in Turin was targeted by an innovative IED delivered by mail. Instead of the more common parcel bomb, the package contained a typewritten text, an external memory hard disk and a USB cable. The hard disk contained an IED designed to detonate when plugging the USB cable into a computer. The text invited the journalist to carefully watch a video supposedly stored on the hard disk.

In Spain, although the number of attacks remained stable, the modi operandi used became more sophisticated and the number of arrests increased significantly. In February an IED was placed in the Almudena Cathedral in Madrid but did not explode. In October, a similar device was left in the Basílica de Nuestra Señora del Pilar in Zaragoza; this device did explode. Furthermore, a parcel bomb was sent to the director of a Catholic school in Madrid. This IED exploded at a post office, slightly injuring one person. In Spain, religious institutions are a common target of anarchist terrorists.

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30 The Informal Anarchist Federation/International Revolutionary Front (FAI/IRF) is a loose international network of anarchist terrorist cells, which was created in late 2010 following a proposal of the Greek Conspiracy of Fire Cells for the coordination of anarchist terrorist activities worldwide. To date, FAI/IRF cells have carried out attacks in 20 countries around the world. They operate autonomously and no direct communication amongst them has been reported to date.

31 Project Phoenix was a series of 10 attacks that were carried out by cells of FAI/IRF in Greece, Indonesia, Chile, Russia, and Mexico as expressions of solidarity to a number of imprisoned anarchists in several countries worldwide.
The investigation into the attack in Zaragoza resulted in the arrest of two known Chilean anarchists. They had entered Spain after being released from prison in Chile, where they had served a sentence for offences related to placing IEDs. They received support for their journey to Spain from anarchists residing in Barcelona, three of whom were also arrested.

The increasing internationalisation of anarchist terrorism also became apparent on 11 September 2013, when the offices of an Italian newspaper received an envelope postmarked in Barcelona, Spain. In the text, a group using the name ‘Neomaquis Caotico/FAI-FRI’ expressed solidarity with anarchists who had been arrested in Italy shortly before. Similar letters were sent to another Italian newspaper and a news agency. Three parcel bombs bearing the same sender as the abovementioned letters – one of them a hoax device – were also received by Italian businesses based in Spain.

The DHKP/C is a terrorist organisation seeking the establishment of a Marxist-Leninist regime in Turkey. Since 2012 it has stepped up its violent activities in Turkey, targeting politicians, the military, the judiciary, Turkish businessmen and private companies of US origin. A suicide bombing carried out by the group on 1 February 2013 against the US embassy in Ankara killed a security guard and injured three persons.

Investigations have suggested that members of the DHKP/C have illegal structures for logistical and financial purposes in a number of EU Member States. These structures are supported by legally established organisations, such as the ‘Solidarity Committee for Political Detainees in Turkey and Kurdistan’ in Greece. In 2013 a total of 16 suspected DHKP/C members were arrested in Austria, Germany, Greece, Italy and Spain. In July, Greek authorities intercepted a sailing boat on its way to Turkey. They discovered weapons and explosives including two light anti-tank weapons, ammunition, timers and propaganda material. Two DHKP/C members and two Greek citizens were arrested.

4.2 Violent extremist activities

Unlike the terrorist attacks described above, the level of violent activity among left-wing and anarchist extremists in the EU continued on a downward trend compared to previous years.

Violent left-wing and anarchist extremist groups exploit traditional left-wing causes, such as anti-fascism and anti-racism (particularly as regards asylum issues), to engage in violent protest. During such protests, criminal damage, blockades and ‘lock-ons’ are typical tactics and, on occasion, more serious offences such as arson have occurred.

In Italy, the ongoing economic crisis has been exploited by left-wing extremists and used as an opportunity to carry out significant recruitment activities. In particular, they have focused on issues connected to housing and evictions and intensified their efforts to attract immigrants. Demonstrations, parades and anti-eviction sit-ins, to draw attention to issues relating to the occupation of empty public and private buildings, were held in several Italian cities.

32 ‘Lock-ons’ refer to instances in which protesters lock themselves to the location of their protest, using handcuffs, chains, padlocks or bicycle locks, in an effort to make it difficult to remove them.
Figure 10
Number of failed, foiled or completed attacks and number of suspects arrested for left-wing and anarchist terrorism in EU Member States in 2013
RIGHT-WING TERRORISM

- One person killed and three mosques attacked in the UK
- Three individuals arrested for right-wing terrorist offences
- Right-wing extremism in Greece associated with serious crime, including homicide
- Right-wing extremist activities within the EU mainly motivated by xenophobia
5.1 Terrorist attacks and arrested suspects

For the period of 2013 no attacks classified as right-wing terrorism were reported by European Union (EU) Member States. However, a series of terrorist attacks in the UK were motivated by right-wing extremist ideology. Between April and July 2013, a Ukrainian national carried out four terrorist attacks. The offender stabbed to death an elderly Muslim male and detonated three improvised explosive devices (IEDs) at mosques in the West Midlands area. The campaign started within a few days of the individual’s arrival in the UK in April 2013. Subsequent enquiries uncovered no links to other right-wing extremist groups or individuals based in the UK; he arrived in the UK already radicalised.

In addition, France reported a total of three arrests for right-wing terrorist offences. On 6 June 2013, right-wing extremists assaulted a left-wing activist in a shopping centre in Paris. The victim died of the injuries inflicted. The incident was later celebrated by white supremacists on the Internet. In a separate case in July, French authorities arrested a Norwegian right-wing extremist suspected of inciting racial hatred through the content of his weblog. Finally, in August a French soldier was arrested at an air force base near Lyon, at which he was stationed. The suspect planned to attack a mosque in Vénissieux at the end of the Muslim month of Ramadan. The soldier had reportedly previously attacked a mosque in the Bordeaux region in 2012.

5.2 Violent right-wing extremism

Although to date there are no indications that right-wing extremists in the EU Member States have adopted terrorist modi operandi, the right-wing extremist scene remains of considerable concern.

In late September 2013 in Greece, a member of the far-right party Chrysi Avgi (Golden Dawn) was arrested for the murder of a left-wing hip hop artist. Furthermore, Greek police arrested 20 party members on charges of homicide, criminal association, illegal possession of firearms, a series of racist attacks, extortion, possession of explosives and money laundering. Among the arrested were six of Golden Dawn’s 18 members of parliament and two police officers. Golden Dawn’s leader was charged with being the leader of a criminal group. In recent years, Greece has suffered a number of right-wing extremist riots and violent assaults on foreigners.

In late November 2013 in the Czech Republic, police arrested five suspected right-wing extremists. They were charged with illegal possession of firearms. During house searches, weapons, substantial amounts of gunpowder, explosives, ammunition and right-wing extremist propaganda material were seized.

In Germany, the trial against the right-wing terrorist group Nationalsozialistischer Untergrund (NSU, National Socialist Underground) started in May 2013. In addition, the Federal Prosecutor-General’s Office declared that it was conducting investigations into four cases related to right-wing extremism or terrorism.
The majority of right-wing extremist activities within the EU were motivated by xenophobia.

Immigration and multiculturalism continued to be among the key themes of right-wing extremists. The public debate about the full opening of the EU labour market to Bulgarian and Romanian nationals, which came into effect in January 2014, was exploited by right-wing extremists. In addition to anti-immigration demonstrations, in 2013 some EU Member States experienced violence in the form of arson attacks on asylum seekers’ hostels, or houses known to be inhabited by immigrants.

Minorities, such as the Roma, are frequently targeted in several EU Member States. The most significant anti-Roma behaviour was expressed via demonstrations and marches. In August 2013, hundreds of far-right activists attended anti-Roma events on the same day in seven towns and cities across the Czech Republic. In Ostrava and Ceske Budejovice, the marches led to particularly severe clashes, when the demonstrators left the approved route and tried to reach areas inhabited by Roma. Similar incidents occurred in Slovakia and Hungary.

In several EU Member States, anti-Semitism remains the ideological base of right-wing extremism. Most anti-Semitic expressions are non-violent and are made in verbal or written form, particularly on the Internet. However, acts of vandalism and violence occurred as well.

Left-wing and right-wing extremists continue to confront one another. The antagonism is apparent in their respective online activities, as well as via occasional violent physical clashes such as the fatal incident in France described above.

Violent incidents and acts of revenge also continued between right-wing extremists and Muslim extremists in 2013. As in previous years, the ‘Defence League’ branches in some EU Member States remained active, at varying levels. Individuals and groups motivated by an enmity to Islam also maintained international links.

The English Defence League (EDL) in the UK, in defiance of widespread public disapproval of their provocative actions, seized the perceived opportunity to exploit fears generated by the murder of a British soldier in Woolwich (London) in May. The incident was followed by harassment, hate-filled rhetoric and unprovoked, opportunistic attacks towards Muslims and Muslim institutions across the UK. This can be seen as a continuation of cross-provocation between right-wing extremists and Muslim extremists, such as groups affiliated with the Sharia4 movement.
The Netherlands reported that more and more issues that were traditionally left-wing activist activities have been adopted by right-wing activists. As well as anti-capitalism, anti-globalism and animal rights, right-wing extremists have now also engaged in campaigning against genetically modified food.

White Power Music (WPM) and other social events

In 2013 White Power Music (WPM) remained of essential importance to the right-wing extremist scene. Lyrics are used to define the enemy and propagate ideology. WPM often serves as a gateway to right-wing extremism for young people.

Most EU Member States consider the right-wing extremist music scene to be a medium for promoting extremist views and interaction between members of different groups. In regard to international networking, cross-border concerts, with the participation of bands from several countries, continued to play an important role.

Most concerts took place inside the EU. They usually gathered between 50 to 500 people and, on certain occasions, up to 1 500. The sale of CDs and concert tickets contribute to financing right-wing extremist activities. In August, German police searched houses across the country and seized more than 2 000 CDs containing right-wing extremist music. The CDs were to be distributed via an online shop.

Martial arts are also popular within the right-wing extremist scene and, occasionally, international tournaments are organised. Events described as training camps have taken place in several EU Member States and are predominantly organised to form social bonds between individuals.

Internet

As well as WPM and face-to-face contacts, the Internet remained a crucial tool for recruitment. It is the preferred platform for communication and self-expression for the target audience of teenagers and adolescents. In addition, it is used to distribute propaganda and mobilise sympathisers. Furthermore, websites and social media are used to increase the popularity and attractiveness of right-wing extremist messages.

The Internet is used by right-wing extremists on two levels: open internet sites are utilised for publicity and propaganda by political parties or groups with political aspirations, whereas more extreme members of the scene continue to use closed forums as their main form of communication.

Some of the most popular social media companies, including Facebook and Twitter, have taken steps against abusive usage, which has led to many right-wing extremists having their profiles removed after posting offensive content. This has led to some individuals seeking alternative and less rigorously controlled international forums. A growing trend reported by several EU Member States is that right-wing extremists increasingly communicate via a Russian-based social media site. According to the UK, right-wing extremists on these sites use more extreme rhetoric than that observed on other sites. Some EU Member States also mention the use of smaller, less prominent social media platforms.

Irish and German authorities have noted that a significant number of right-wing extremists also use video portals as a preferred means to promote their views. In addition to the popular video sharing platform YouTube, other video hosting sites are also being used.
SINGLE-ISSUE TERRORISM

Incidents related to animal rights extremism (ARE) have decreased steadily since 2007.
6.1 Terrorist attacks and arrests

In 2013, as in previous years, no attacks related to single-issue terrorism were reported by European Union (EU) Member States. However, there were three arrests, two of which took place in January in Italy related to an arson attack in Montelupo Fiorentino targeting eight vehicles belonging to a dairy company. The attack was claimed by the Animal Liberation Front (ALF).

6.2 Single-issue extremist activities

Violent environmental extremist groups are mainly involved in campaigns against major infrastructure projects such as high-speed railways, natural gas and oil drilling and military infrastructures. For a number of years, these topics have also been on the agenda of some militant anarchist entities, and cooperation between these groups has been observed across several EU Member States.

In 2013 a number of violent activities were carried out in the area of Skouries, in northern Greece, where the local population protested against a gold mining company. The activities included petrol bomb attacks and the placement of improvised incendiary devices (IIDs). The most serious incident occurred on 17 February 2013, when a group of 40 to 50 activists, some of whom carried shotguns, raided the facilities of the Skouries-based mine, threatened the security guards at gun point and set company property on fire, causing substantial damage.

Although in recent years there has been a decrease in the volume of animal rights extremism (ARE) activity, life science research, vivisection laboratories and the pharmaceutical industry remain key targets. In addition, some actions focusing on fox hunting or the fur industry were reported. For many years, ARE activities were highest in the UK; after 2007 the majority of ARE campaigners moved to mainland Europe, mainly to the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland and France. Previously, the most prominent and active ARE campaign in the UK was Stop Huntingdon Animal Cruelty (SHAC). SHAC also exported its brand to mainland Europe and the Americas. Its tactics were adopted internationally and consist mainly of lawful protest.

The Animal Liberation Front (ALF) continued to serve as an umbrella for smaller ARE groups claiming extremist actions. Criminal offences were limited to occasional acts of criminal damage, threats and intimidation rather than physical harm.

In the Netherlands, a branch of 269 Life emerged. This organisation was originally set up in Israel and has been active in the Netherlands since April 2013. They carry out campaigns to highlight animal suffering by means of ‘live exposure’ and by posting video footage on the Internet secretly recorded at mink, poultry and pig farms.
ANNEX 1: OVERVIEW OF THE FAILED, FOILED AND COMPLETED ATTACKS IN 2013 PER EU MEMBER STATE AND PER AFFILIATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Member State</th>
<th>Left-wing</th>
<th>Separatist</th>
<th>Not specified</th>
<th>Total 2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2013, 152 terrorist attacks occurred in five EU Member States. The majority took place in France, Spain and the UK. After an increase in 2012 (219), the number of terrorist attacks in 2013 fell below the number recorded in 2011 (174). As a result of terrorist attacks, seven people died and nine were injured in the EU in 2013. Attacks using firearms were most frequent in France, and those aiming at criminal damage in Spain.

As in previous years, more than half of the total number of attacks (84) were claimed by, or attributed to, separatist terrorist groups: 58 in France, and 26 in Spain. After an increase in 2012, the number of separatist attacks decreased significantly compared to previous years, from 110 (2011), to 167 (2012), to 84 (2013). The number of bomb attacks decreased considerably, from 91 in 2012 to 31 in 2013, but the number of attacks with firearms remained stable.

The number of attacks by anarchist or left-wing terrorist groups increased from 18 in 2012 to 24 in 2013, thereby ending the downward trend observed in previous years. EU Member States that reported such attacks are Greece, Italy and Spain. The number of attacks in Greece increased significantly to 12 in 2013, after decreasing from 6 (2011) to one in 2012. A significant change was noted in the modus operandi; whereas in previous years arson was the most frequently employed attack method, in 2013 this was bombings.

No attacks explicitly classified as religiously inspired terrorism, right-wing terrorism or single-issue terrorism were reported by the EU Member States in 2013. However, two persons were killed in the UK in two separate terrorist attacks, one motivated by religious extremism and the other by right-wing extremist ideology.

Almost 70% of the attacks targeted the business sector and private properties in 2013. The proportion of attacks against government facilities continued to decrease.

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33 In 2013 Northern Ireland experienced 30 attacks on national security targets. There was no other attack on national security targets in the UK in 2013. Attacks on national security include those principally (but not exclusively) targeting the security forces, those who support them, and premises and institutions associated with policing, justice and security.
ANNEX 2: ARRESTS IN 2013 PER EU MEMBER STATE AND PER AFFILIATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Member State</th>
<th>Religiously inspired</th>
<th>Left-wing</th>
<th>Right-wing</th>
<th>Separatist</th>
<th>Single Issue</th>
<th>Not specified</th>
<th>Total 2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
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<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland (Republic of)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>216</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>535</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2013, 14 EU Member States arrested 535 individuals for terrorism-related offences. This figure closely matches that of 2012, when 537 arrests were reported. Most arrests occurred in France (225), Spain (90) and the UK (77). A continued increase in the number of arrests for religiously inspired terrorism has been observed since 2011, while arrests for separatist terrorism decreased significantly.

- In 2013 arrests for religiously inspired terrorism represented the largest proportion of arrests in the EU. The number has continuously increased from 122 (2011), to 159 (2012), to 216 (2013). There was a significant increase in France, from 91 in 2012 to 143 in 2013. As in previous years, more than half of the arrested individuals were EU citizens.

- Arrests related to separatist terrorism decreased in 2013 from 257 to 180. The decrease of arrests continued in France from 95 to 77, and the Republic of Ireland from 66 to 41. Half of the arrests were made for membership of a terrorist organisation.

- Arrests in the area of anarchist and left-wing terrorism increased, from 24 in 2012 to 49 in 2013. A significant increase was noted in Greece (18) and in Spain (15).

- Arrests related to right-wing terrorism decreased from 10 in 2012 to three in 2013. This figure does not include the perpetrator of the terrorist attack in the UK that was motivated by right-wing extremist ideology.

- For 2013 a total of three arrests for single-issue terrorism were reported by Bulgaria and Italy.

- In 2013 the number of arrests increased for the preparation and execution of attacks; financing of terrorism; and travelling, facilitating travel or sending fighters to conflict zones. In previous years, arrests had been predominantly related to membership of a terrorist organisation.

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34 For the UK the figures represent the number of charges for 2013, to provide a more accurate comparison with the number of judicial arrests in the other EU Member States. However, at this stage in the criminal justice process, it is not possible for the UK to assign an affiliation to individual cases.
### ANNEX 3: CONVICTIONS AND PENALTIES (EUROJUST)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Member State</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
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<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
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<td>16</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland (Republic of)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Netherlands</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>316</strong></td>
<td><strong>400</strong></td>
<td><strong>313</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Numbers of individuals in concluded court proceedings for terrorist offences per EU Member State in 2011, 2012 and 2013\(^{35}\) as reported to Eurojust

- In 2013, 15 EU Member States reported to have concluded a total of 150 court proceedings on terrorism-related charges.\(^{36}\) The number of concluded court proceedings is similar to the figure reported in 2012 (149).

- The court proceedings concluded in 2013 involved 313 individuals. Twelve of those individuals appeared in court several times, standing trial for different offences.\(^{37}\) One of them was tried in both France and Spain on different charges.\(^{38}\) In addition to the 313 individuals, two legal entities in Denmark and one legal entity in France were convicted of terrorist offences in 2013. In the Republic of Ireland, two individuals were brought to court on terrorism-related charges, but the prosecution entered a *nolle prosequi*. Those two individuals are included in the number of individuals in concluded court proceedings for terrorism-related charges in 2013, but not in the number of verdicts. As a result, the total number of verdicts pronounced for terrorism-related offences in 2013 amounts to 336. This number includes also six verdicts of defendants convicted in the Republic of Ireland in 2012 but sentenced in 2013.

- In 2013 there were 42 female defendants in concluded court proceedings for terrorism-related offences.

- In 2013 Spain was the EU Member State in which the highest number of court proceedings for terrorist offences were concluded. Despite a slight decrease, Spain also remains the country in which the majority of terrorism verdicts were rendered.

- In 2013 the number of individuals convicted or acquitted for terrorist offences by courts in Belgium, France and Italy also decreased. For the first time, Cyprus and Romania reported a terrorism-related court decision to Eurojust in 2013.

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\(^{35}\) The data for the previous years corresponds to the data reported in the respective TE-SAT editions. The UK’s submission covers England, Scotland and Wales but not Northern Ireland. It is taken from the National Terrorist Arrest Database and includes all individuals convicted under anti-terrorism legislation, and also other offences assessed by police practitioners to be terrorism-related. The UK data for 2013 refers only to convictions. The data received from the Republic of Ireland does not cover the whole of 2013. The data for the Netherlands includes two verdicts concerning animal rights extremism.

\(^{36}\) Contributions containing information on terrorism-related court decisions in 2013 were sent to the drafting team by the following EU Member States: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, the Republic of Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Romania, Spain and the UK. If a verdict pronounced in 2013 was appealed, and the appeal was concluded before the end of the year, Eurojust counted the proceeding as one.

\(^{37}\) In Spain there were three individuals who were tried five times in 2013 in different court proceedings; one individual who was brought to court three times for different offences; and six other individuals who appeared in court twice on different charges. In France, one individual faced trial twice for separate terrorist offences. The verdicts pronounced in the different court proceedings were counted separately in the analysis of the number of verdicts.

\(^{38}\) This individual is included separately in the number of individuals in concluded court proceedings in both France and Spain but is counted only once in the total for all Member States.
In 2013 separatist terrorism continued to be the dominant type of terrorism in concluded court proceedings. Separatist terrorism cases finalised in 2013 concerned acts related to the terrorist organisations ETA, Dissident Republican groups and the PKK. The vast majority of separatist terrorism verdicts were pronounced in Spain and in France. As in 2012, all court decisions pronounced in Austria, Belgium and the Czech Republic in 2013 concerned religiously inspired terrorism. In Greece all relevant verdicts related to left-wing terrorism, while Italy was the only EU Member State that reported right-wing terrorism verdicts. The majority (29) of the 42 female defendants brought to court in the concluded court proceedings in 2013 were tried for separatist terrorism acts, which confirms a tendency observed in recent years. Left-wing terrorism verdicts received the highest average prison sentence (18 years), followed by separatist terrorism verdicts (13 years). These average prison sentences are considerably higher than the averages reported for the respective type of terrorism in 2012 (eight and nine years respectively). The average prison sentence given for religiously inspired terrorist offences in 2013 decreased to four years, compared to six years in 2012.

39 The data provided by the UK was not broken down by type of terrorism and, therefore, is not included in the overview and findings related to the different types of terrorism.
### ANNEX 3: CONVICTIONS AND PENALTIES (EUROJUST)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Member State</th>
<th>Convictions</th>
<th>Acquittals</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Acquittals in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland (Republic of)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>258</strong></td>
<td><strong>78</strong></td>
<td><strong>336</strong></td>
<td><strong>23%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Numbers of verdicts, convictions and acquittals per EU Member State in 2013 as reported to Eurojust

- In 2013 all terrorism-related prosecutions in Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Romania and the UK resulted in convictions. Germany and the Netherlands are the only EU Member States that have reported no acquittals in the period 2010-2013.

- The majority (46%) of the penalties imposed in 2013 were below or equal to five years’ imprisonment. The penalties of 10 and more years constituted 33% of all penalties rendered, which presents an increase compared to 2012, when those penalties were 24% of the total. In some cases, the court ordered life imprisonment sentences or sentences of thousands of years in prison.

- In 2013 acquittals constituted 23% of all verdicts pronounced for terrorist offences. The percentage of acquittals decreased compared to 2011 and 2012, indicating a higher percentage of successful terrorist prosecutions.

- Seventeen of the 42 female defendants in the court proceedings reported in 2013 were acquitted. The majority of the acquitted females (14) were brought to court on charges related to separatist terrorist acts.

- The verdicts in relation to left-wing terrorism had the highest acquittal rate (43%), which is unlike previous years, when the highest acquittal rate was reported for verdicts related to separatist and religiously inspired terrorism. In 2013, 34% of the separatist terrorism verdicts contained acquittals. With a conviction rate of 99%, prosecutions of religiously inspired terrorism were the most successful.

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40 The numbers in the figure include the guilty verdicts pronounced against the three legal entities in Denmark and France. The UK data for 2013 refers only to convictions.

41 The number of acquittals also includes verdicts in which the defendants were acquitted of the terrorist offence but found guilty of an offence not related to terrorism.

42 The data provided by the UK was not broken down by the type of terrorism and, therefore, is not included in the findings related to the different types of terrorism.
### ANNEX 3:
CONVICTIONS AND PENALTIES (EUROJUST)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Member State</th>
<th>Final</th>
<th>Pending judicial remedy</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland (Republic of)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Number of final verdicts and verdicts pending judicial remedy per EU Member State in 2013 as reported to Eurojust**

- The majority (210) of the reported terrorism-related verdicts in 2013 were final.
- In the other cases, the verdicts are pending judicial remedy as appeals have been submitted.
- In cases in which a verdict pronounced in 2013 was appealed, and the appeal was concluded before the end of the year, only the appeal verdict was included and the proceeding was counted as one.

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43 According to Council Decision 2005/671/JHA, the information to be submitted to Eurojust is in relation to final convictions. Due to the specifics of reporting, the EU Member States submit information on both final and non-final decisions. Therefore, reference is also made to those decisions pending judicial remedy, and they were included in the reported numbers. The data provided by the UK is not included in these numbers, as the UK did not distinguish between final verdicts and verdicts pending judicial remedy. As reported, all convictions in the UK are effective from the moment of their being pronounced, even if an appeal is made.
ANNEX 4: METHODOLOGY

The EU Terrorism Situation and Trend Report (TE-SAT) was established in the aftermath of the 11 September 2001 attacks in the United States of America (USA), as a reporting mechanism from the Terrorism Working Party (TWP) of the Council of the EU to the European Parliament. In 2006 Europol replaced the TWP. The methodology for producing this annual report was developed by Europol and endorsed by the Justice and Home Affairs (JHA) Council on 1 and 2 June 2006.

The content of the TE-SAT is based on information supplied by EU Member States, some third states (Colombia, the Russian Federation, Switzerland, Turkey, USA) and partner organisation Eurojust, as well as information gained from open sources.

In accordance with ENFOPOL 65 (8196/2/06), the TE-SAT is produced annually to provide an overview of the terrorism phenomenon in the EU, from a law enforcement perspective. It seeks to record basic facts and assemble figures regarding terrorist attacks and arrests in the EU. The report also aims to present trends and new developments identified from the information available to Europol.

The TE-SAT is a situation report which describes and analyses the outward manifestations of terrorism, i.e. terrorist attacks and activities. It does not seek to analyse the root causes of terrorism, neither does it attempt to assess the impact or effectiveness of counter-terrorism policies and law enforcement measures taken, although it can serve to illustrate some of these.

This edition of the TE-SAT has been produced by Europol in consultation with the 2014 TE-SAT Advisory Board, composed of representatives of the past, present, and future EU Presidencies, i.e. Lithuania, Greece and Italy (the EU “Troika”), along with permanent members, representatives from France and Spain, the EU Intelligence Analysis Centre (INTCEN), Eurojust, the office of the EU Counter Terrorism Coordinator and Europol staff.

For the preparation of this report, Europol collected qualitative and quantitative data on terrorist offences in the EU and data on arrests of people suspected of involvement in those offences, provided or confirmed by Member States. Similar data were collected, when available, of offences in which EU interests were affected outside of the EU. Eurojust contributed data on convictions and penalties for terrorist offences in EU Member States and relevant amendments in national legislation on terrorism.

Included as ‘arrests’ are those judicial arrests warranted by a prosecutor or investigating judge, whereby a person is detained for questioning on suspicion of committing a criminal offence for which detention is permitted by national law. The fact that the person may subsequently be provisionally released or placed under house arrest does not impact on the calculation of the number of arrests.

The definition of the term ‘terrorist offences’ is indicated in Article 1 of the Council Framework Decision of 13 June 2002 on combating terrorism (2002/475/JHA), which all EU Member States have implemented in their national legislation. This Framework Decision specifies that terrorist offences are intentional acts which, given their nature or context, may seriously damage a country or an international organisation when committed with the aim of:

■ seriously intimidating a population, or
■ unduly compelling a government or international organisation to perform or abstain from performing an act, or
■ seriously destabilising or destroying the fundamental political, constitutional, economic or social structures of a country or an international organisation.

In cases in which the wording of Article 1 of the Framework Decision leaves room for interpretation, the TE-SAT 2014 respects Member States’ definitions of terrorist offences on their territories. At times, it can be difficult to assess whether a criminal event should be regarded as an act of ‘terrorism’ or as an act of ‘extremism’. Contrary to terrorism, not all forms of extremism sanction the use of violence. Nevertheless, extremism as a phenomenon may be related to terrorism and exhibit similar behavioural patterns. Therefore, the TE-SAT 2014 mentions criminal acts with the potential to seriously destabilise or destroy the fundamental political, constitutional, economic or social structures of a country, when they were reported by the Member States as extremism, in an effort to provide a clearer picture of the phenomenon and its relation to terrorism. However, these cases were not considered in the statistical data of this report, which exclusively reflect incidents reported as terrorism by EU Member States.

**Types of terrorism**

The TE-SAT categorises terrorist organisations by their source of motivation. However, many groups have a mixture of motivating ideologies, although usually one ideology or motivation dominates. The choice of categories used in the TE-SAT reflects the current situation in the EU, as reported by Member States. The categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

Religiously inspired terrorism is perpetrated by individuals, groups, networks or organisations that evoke religion to justify their actions. Groups inspired by or affiliated with al-Qaeda belong to this category.

Ethno-nationalist and separatist terrorist groups are motivated by nationalism, ethnicity and/or religion.

Left-wing terrorist groups seek to change the entire political, social and economic system of a state according to an extremist leftist model. Their ideology is often Marxist-Leninist. The agenda of anarchist terrorist groups is usually revolutionary, anti-capitalist and anti-authoritarian. Not all Member States distinguish between activities of left-wing and anarchist terrorist groups in their contributions. For this reason, both categories are discussed in the same chapter of this report.

Right-wing terrorist groups seek to change the entire political, social and economic system on an extremist right-wing model. The ideological roots of European right-wing extremism and terrorism can usually be traced back to National Socialism.

Single-issue terrorism is violence committed with the desire to change a specific policy or practice within a target society. The term is generally used to describe animal rights and environmental terrorist groups.

**Data collection**

The EU Council Decision of 20 September 2005 (2005/671/JHA), on the exchange of information and cooperation concerning terrorist offences, obliges Member States to collect all relevant information concerning and resulting from criminal investigations conducted by their law enforcement authorities with respect to terrorist offences, and sets out the conditions under which this information should be sent to Europol. Europol processed the data and the results were cross-checked with the Member States. In cases of divergences or gaps, the results were corrected, complemented, and then validated by the Member States.

Eurojust also collected data on prosecutions and convictions for terrorist offences on the basis of the aforementioned EU Council Decision. The data used in this report concerns relevant court decisions and legislation amendments in 2013. Due to the specifics of reporting, Member States submit information on both final and non-final decisions. Therefore, reference is also made to those decisions pending judicial remedy. Verdicts from 2013 on which an appeal is pending are included in the reporting as pending judicial remedy. In case a verdict pronounced in 2013 was appealed and the appeal was concluded before the end of the year, Eurojust counted the proceeding as one. Eurojust’s contribution was verified with the Member States that provided relevant data.
### ANNEX 5: ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Abbreviation and Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALF</td>
<td>Animal Liberation Front</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| AQAP    | al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula  
             | *Tanzim qa’idat al-jihad fi jazirat al-’arab*  |
| AQIM    | al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb  
             | *Tanzim al-qa’ida bi-bilad al-Maghrib al-Islami*  |
| ARB     | Armée Révolutionnaire Bretonne  
             | Breton Revolutionary Army  |
| ARE     | Animal rights extremism      |
| CIRA    | Continuity Irish Republican Army  |
| DHKP/C  | Devrimci Halk Kurtuluş Partisi/Cephesi  
             | Revolutionary People’s Liberation Party/Front  |
| DR      | Dissident Republican        |
| EDL     | English Defence League      |
| ETA     | Euskadi ta Askatasuna  
             | Basque Fatherland and Liberty  |
| EU      | European Union              |
| FAI     | Federazione Anarchica Informale  
             | Informal Anarchist Federation  |
| FAI/IRF | Informal Anarchist Federation/International Revolutionary Front  |
| FARC    | Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia  
             | Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia  |
| FLB-ARB | Front de Libération de la Bretagne-Armée Républicaine Bretonne  
             | Liberation Front of Brittany-Breton Republican Army  |
| FLNC    | Front de Libération Nationale de la Corse  
             | National Liberation Front of Corsica  |
| FLNP    | Front de Libération Nationale de Provence  
             | National Liberation Front of Provence  |
| HAMAS   | Harakat al-Muqawama al-Islamiyya  
             | Islamic Resistance Movement  |
| HME     | Home-made explosive          |
| HPG     | Hêzên Parastina Gelê  
             | People’s Defence Forces  |
| HSM     | Harakat al-Shabab al-Mujahidin  
<pre><code>         | Young Mujahidin Movement  |
</code></pre>
<p>| IED     | Improvised explosive device  |
| IID     | Improvised incendiary device  |
| INTCEN  | EU Intelligence Analysis Centre  |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>ACRONYMS</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **ISI** | Islamic State of Iraq  
             *Dawlat al-Iraq al-Islamiyya* |
| **ISIL** | Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant  
             *Al-Dawla al-Islamiyya fi al-Iraq wal-Sham* |
| **ISP** | Internet service provider |
| **JHA** | Justice and Home Affairs |
| **LTTE** | Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam |
| **MENA** | Middle East and North Africa |
| **MUJAO** | *Mouvement pour l’Unicité et le Jihad en Afrique de l’Ouest*  
              *Jama’a al-tawhid wal-jihad fi gharb Ifriqiya*  
              Movement for Oneness and Jihad in West Africa |
| **NSU** | *Nationalsozialistischer Untergrund*  
             National-Socialist Underground |
| **ONH** | *Óglaigh ná h’Éireann*  
             Warriors of Ireland |
| **PKK** | *Partiya Karkerên Kurdistan*  
            Kurdistan Workers’ Party |
| **PYD** | *Partiya Yekîtiya Demokrat*  
             Democratic Union Party |
| **RIRA** | Real Irish Republican Army |
| **SHAC** | Stop Huntingdon Animal Cruelty |
| **TE-SAT** | European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report |
| **TTP** | *Tehrik-e-Taleban Pakistan*  
             Pakistan Taleban Movement |
| **TWP** | Terrorism Working Party |
| **UK** | United Kingdom |
| **UN** | United Nations |
| **UNDP** | United Nations Development Programme |
| **UNICEF** | United Nations Children’s Fund |
| **USA** | United States of America |
| **UVIED** | Under-vehicle improvised explosive device |
| **VBIED** | Vehicle-borne improvised explosive device |
| **WPM** | White Power Music |
**Austria**

On 30 July 2013, an amendment of Article 278d of the Austrian Criminal Code concerning the financing of terrorism came into force. The amendment widens the punishable actions: in addition to the offences of financing terrorist acts and supporting terrorist groups with financial contributions, it also makes punishable the financing of terrorists (without a link to a specific terrorist act) or the financing of members of terrorist groups (without a link to the terrorist group they are a member of). Furthermore, the amendment introduces higher penalties of between 1 and 10 years imprisonment for the respective offences (even if the financed offence is punished with a lower penalty).

**Hungary**

In 2013 amendments to Chapter XXX Offences against Public Security of the Criminal Code were introduced. Sections 314, 315 and 316 of Chapter XXX define acts of terrorism. Section 314 includes a definition of violent crimes against the person and criminal offences that endanger the public or involve the use of arms, and provides for a penalty of between 10 to 20 years or life imprisonment for those who commit such crimes in order to:

a) coerce a government agency, another State or an international body into doing, not doing or countenancing something;

b) intimidate the general public;

c) conspire to change or disrupt the constitutional, economic or social order of another State, or to disrupt the operation of an international organisation.

The same penalty is envisaged for those who seize considerable assets or property for the purpose defined in paragraph a) above and make demands to government agencies or international organisations in exchange for refraining from harming or injuring said assets and property or for returning them. Section 315 determines the penalties for those who instigate, suggest, offer, join or collaborate in the commission of any of the criminal acts defined in Subsection (1) or (2) of Section 314, or those involved in aiding and abetting such criminal conduct by providing any of the means intended for use in such activities. Section 316 makes threatening to commit a terrorist act a criminal offence, while Section 317 deals with the failure to report a terrorist act. Further on, Chapter XXX provides for penalties of up to 10 years’ imprisonment for those who provide or collect funds or material assistance for acts of terrorism (Section 318). A definition of a terrorist group for the purposes of Sections 315 and 318 is also included in the chapter.

**Belgium**

Several new articles of the Criminal Code entered into force on 14 March 2013. The articles envisage imprisonment of 5 to 10 years and a fine of EUR 100 to 5 000 for those who:

- spread a message or place a message at the disposal of the public in any other way, with the purpose of inciting to perpetrate one of the offences referred to in Article 137 which defines a terrorist offence, except the offence referred to in Article 137, § 3, 6°, when such behaviour, whether it incites directly to commit terrorist offences or not, creates the risk that one or several of these offences will be perpetrated (Article 140bis);

- recruit others with the purpose of perpetrating one of the offences referred to in Article 137 or Article 140, except the offence referred to in Article 137, § 3, 6° (Article 140ter);

- give instructions or training for the assembly or the use of explosives, fire arms, or other weapons or harmful or dangerous substances, or for any other specific methods and procedures with the purpose of perpetrating one of the offences referred to in Article 137, except the offence referred to in Article 137, § 3, 6° (Article 140quater);

- in Belgium or abroad, receive instructions or training as referred to in Article 140quarter, with the purpose of perpetrating one of the offences listed in Article 137, except the offence referred to in Article 137, § 3, 6° (Article 140quinquies).

**United Kingdom**

In January 2011, the UK government published its review of counter-terrorism and security powers, the aim of which was to strike a balance between safeguarding national security and protecting individual rights. The review proposed significant changes to some of the most far-reaching powers. Subsequently a number of changes to terrorism legislation were introduced in 2012. However, further legislative developments which came into force in 2013 are set out below.
**Justice and Security Act 2013**

The Justice and Security Act received Royal Assent in 2013. The Act provides for strengthened oversight of intelligence and security by expanding the statutory remit of the Intelligence and Security Committee to include (i) a role in overseeing the wider government intelligence community and (ii) retrospective oversight of the operational activities of the agencies on matters of significant national interest. Part 1 of the Act also makes provision to expand the Intelligence Services Commissioner’s remit.

Part 2 of the Act makes provision for closed material procedures in proceedings (other than those in a criminal cause or matter) before the High Court, the Court of Session, the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court in the cases where there is relevant material, the disclosure of which would damage national security. In addition, Part 2 of the Act provides for an amendment to the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000 to permit use of intercept evidence in closed proceedings in employment cases before tribunals across the United Kingdom. Finally, Part 2 of the Act also makes provision about courts’ residual disclosure jurisdiction, generally known as the Norwich Pharmacal jurisdiction, which is used to order a person involved (however innocently) in apparent wrongdoing by another person to disclose information about the wrongdoing. The provision removes that jurisdiction in certain circumstances, if the information is sensitive, i.e. information which relates to, has come from or is held by the agencies or defence intelligence units, or whose disclosure the Secretary of State has certified would damage the interests of national security or the international relations of the United Kingdom.

**Section 117 of the Coroners and Justice Act 2009**

Section 117 of the Coroners and Justice Act 2009 came into force on 22 April 2013. It provides for important enhanced safeguards for terrorist suspects in police detention, e.g. additional independent oversight of terrorist detention by strengthening the role of the Independent Reviewer of Terrorism Legislation in reporting on the treatment of those held pre-charge and by extending the statutory Independent Custody Visiting scheme to terrorist detainees held under the Terrorism Act 2000. Independent Custody Visitors are members of the community who work on a voluntary basis to make sure that detained people are being treated properly and have access to their rights. They are part of the United Kingdom’s National Protective Mechanism under the UN Convention Against Torture, along with HM Inspectorates of Constabulary and Prisons.

The code of practice covering independent custody visiting to terrorism detainees held under the Terrorism Act 2000 came into operation on 25 March 2013.

**Protection of Freedoms Act 2012**

The Protection of Freedoms Act 2012 that received Royal Assent on 1 May 2012 came into force on 31 October 2013. Part one of this Act reformed police retention of DNA and fingerprint (biometric) material, including material held for national security purposes, providing for a new framework for regulating the retention, destruction and use of biometric material. This new model ensures the right balance between public protection and individual freedoms.
PHOTO CREDITS


Europol would like to thank the law enforcement photographers whose photographs feature in this publication.