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UKRAINIAN EXPERIENCE IN THE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS DURING ANTI-TERRORIST OPERATIONS. HOW TO DEFEAT TERRORISM THROUGH EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

What schools can do to protect education from attack and use for military purposes or in counter-terrorism operations.

Schools and universities must remain safe spaces for learning. However, in many conflict-affected and unstable regions, children's and young people's rights to education and protection are frequently violated. Students and education staff have been harassed, killed, tortured, and forcibly recruited by armed groups, both in schools and on their way to and from school. Additionally, armed forces have occupied schools and universities, using them as bases, barracks, weapons storage facilities, and detention centers, putting students and staff in danger.

This article is intended to assist ministries of education, UN agencies, and international and local non-governmental organizations (I/NGOs) in supporting school communities—including principals, teachers, school management committees, and community members—in developing effective strategies to safeguard education from attacks and prevent schools from being.

Keywords: terrorist threats, law, prevention, education, school, crisis, awareness, universality.

The problem statement in general terms and its connection with important scientific and practical tasks.

Although the international community has adopted a number of international treaties that are designed to combat specific types of terrorism, such as the hijacking of aircraft, at the UN level to date there has been no agreement on a definition of terrorism.[38] There is no settled definition of terrorism in international law, despite many attempts to achieve one by Intergovernmental organizations, governments, and academics.[1] One International Court of Justice judge has observed, "terrorism is a term without any legal significance. It is merely a

convenient way of alluding to activities, whether of States or individuals, widely disapproved of and in which either the methods used are unlawful, or the targets protected, or both." [13] However, as such, much is at stake in the definition of terrorism.[4] Defining Terrorism: Challenges and Implications.

Labeling an act as terrorism is not only a classification based on specific characteristics but also a moral judgment that the act is inherently wrong. Defining an act as terrorism carries significant legal and diplomatic consequences, affecting international cooperation in areas such as intelligence

sharing, legal assistance, asset freezing, confiscation, and extradition.

One of the main difficulties in defining terrorism lies in the fact that, under certain circumstances, the use of violence may be seen as legitimate. Throughout history, many struggles for independence and self-determination—ranging from George Washington’s revolution to Nelson Mandela’s resistance—have involved violence that has been labeled as terrorism. At the same time, an overly broad definition of terrorism can be misused to suppress peaceful dissent and erode democratic freedoms.

The first unsuccessful attempt to establish a legal definition of terrorism occurred in the 1937 Geneva Convention for the Prevention and Punishment of Terrorism. It described terrorism as “all criminal acts directed against a state and intended or calculated to create a state of terror in the minds of particular persons or a group of persons or the general public.” This definition was criticized for being too vague, and the Convention never took effect due to insufficient ratifications. Despite this, finding a clear and appropriate definition remains crucial for an effective global strategy against terrorism. The issue is not only political and moral but also legal, as defining terrorism impacts prosecution, law enforcement, and international law.

While terrorism manifests in various forms and contexts, certain key features are commonly associated with it:

- Organized Structure – Whether involving a large network or a small group, terrorist acts are typically coordinated.

- Threat to Life and Property – These acts pose serious risks to individuals and infrastructure.

- Challenge to Government Authority – Terrorist acts often aim to influence policies and lawmakers.

- Randomness and Psychological Impact – The unpredictable nature of terrorist attacks spreads fear across a population.

A fundamental characteristic of terrorism is that it involves criminal acts, even if the motives behind them add a political or ideological dimension. Regardless of whether an act is classified as terrorism or another serious crime, it remains subject to the principles of criminal law. Additionally, human rights standards must apply consistently, ensuring that legal and ethical norms are upheld in addressing both terrorism and other forms of serious crime.

Analysis of recent studies that have begun to address the issue.

Thirteen global conventions have been adopted under the auspices of the UN, or its agencies, to combat specific aspects of terrorism. These have tended to be in response to a particular event or atrocity. [5]

They are:

1. Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft, 1963;
2. Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft, 1970;
3. Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Civil Aviation, 1971;
4. Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents, 1973;
5. International Convention against the Taking of Hostages, 1979;
6. Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material, 1980;
7. Protocol on the Suppression of Unlawful Acts of Violence at Airports Serving International Civil Aviation, supplementary to the Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Civil Aviation, 1988;
8. Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Maritime Navigation, 1988;

9. Protocol for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Fixed Platforms Located on the Continental Shelf, 1988;

10. Convention on the Marking of Plastic Explosives for the Purpose of Detection, 1991;

11. International Convention for the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings, 1997;

12. International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism, 1999;

13. Convention on the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism, 2005.

Each of these treaties, once ratified by a state, imposes slightly different obligations. As a general rule these include:

1. Establishing their jurisdiction over the offences described;

2. Making the offences punishable by appropriate penalties;

3. Taking alleged offenders into custody;

4. Prosecuting or extraditing alleged offenders;

5. Co-operating in preventive measures; and exchanging information and evidence needed in related criminal proceedings.

While the UN has been concerned with issues arising out of terrorism for many years, there has been an urgency to ensure an effective and co-ordinated international response since the events of 11 September 2001. These initiatives have mainly been taken in the UN Security Council, but the General Assembly and the Commission on Human Rights have become increasingly involved.

The following are the key resolutions that form the basis of the UN's current approach:

1. Security Council Resolution 1269 (1999), obliging states to co-operate to prevent and suppress terrorist attacks and to bring perpetrators to justice;

2. Security Council Resolution 1373 (2001), obliging states to implement more effective counter-terrorism measures at

national level and to increase international co-operation in the struggle against terrorism, and creating a Counter-Terrorism Committee to monitor action;

3. Security Council Resolution 1456 (2003), obliging states to ensure that "any measure taken to combat terrorism comply with all their obligations under international law, and [to] adopt such measures in accordance with international law, in particular international human rights, refugee, and humanitarian law";

4. Security Council Resolution 1624 (2005), calling on states "to prohibit by law incitement to commit a terrorist act or acts" as well as prevention of such acts and the denial of safe haven to perpetrators. It also calls upon states to "continue international efforts to enhance dialogue and broaden understanding between civilisations in an effort to prevent the indiscriminate targeting of different religions and cultures [...]";

5. General Assembly Resolution 58/187 (2004): "States must ensure that any measure taken to combat terrorism complies with their obligations under international law, in particular international human rights, refugee and humanitarian law [and] raise awareness about the importance of these obligations among national authorities involved in combating terrorism."

Of these resolutions, UN Security Council Resolution 1373 is of particular importance in that it provides a basis for domestic legal action against terrorism and a new basis for the UN's law-enforcement approach to anti-terrorist measures. The resolution, adopted under Chapter VII of the UN Charter, "decides that all states shall" take specific action to suppress the financing of terrorist acts, including criminalizing fundraising for terrorist groups, and freezing terrorists' assets.

Resolution 1373 seeks to influence national law and practice in requiring particular domestic action, including legislative measures. The resolution established a committee of the Security Council, the Counter-terrorism Committee (CTC), to monitor compliance with

and implementation of the resolution. States are required to submit reports to the Committee detailing their compliance with Resolution 1373 within 90 days of its adoption.

Resolution 1373 does not attempt to define terrorism. Instead, the obligation is on each member state of the UN to apply its own laws against terrorism effectively and therefore maintains member states' sovereignty in their own jurisdiction to establish a definition of terrorism.

Additionally, in 1999 the UN introduced "designation" as part of its sanctions framework against the Taliban. "Designation" is a mechanism whereby organizations and people can be listed, with consequent restrictions such as travel bans and asset freezing, if they are considered to be engaged with terrorism or its promotion. After 11 September 2001, the UN extended its sanctions framework against the Taliban to all groups and individuals associated with Al Qaida. States are obliged to refrain from "providing any form of support, active or passive" to "entities or persons involved in terrorist acts."

Presentation of the main material of the study with a full justification of the obtained scientific results. Discussion.

War and terrorism share many similarities. Both involve extreme violence, stem from political, ideological, or strategic motives, and are initiated by one group against another. Their consequences are devastating for civilians, whether intended or not. However, war tends to be more extensive and destructive, as it is conducted at the state level, with governments having access to vast arsenals of weapons. In contrast, terrorist groups usually lack the professional and financial resources of a state.

Beyond differences in methods and scale, war and terrorism are also treated differently under international law. The distinction between them is not always clear, and even experts may disagree on whether an

act of mass violence qualifies as terrorism, civil war, rioting, self-defense, or legitimate self-determination.

In the 20th century, groups such as the Chechens, Abkhazians, Kurds, Palestinians, and Irish nationalists saw their struggle as a war against colonial rule. However, nation-states often labeled their actions as terrorism.

Defining war itself presents challenges. It is sometimes classified strictly as a conflict between nation-states, while in other cases, a formal declaration of war is used as a criterion. However, this definition excludes prolonged military actions, such as U.S. bombing campaigns along the Pakistani border or in Iraq's no-fly zones during the 1990s.

UNICEF estimates that more than half a million children (and many adults) died as a result of sanctions against Iraq in the 1990s. The lack of agreement on the definition of this concept has very practical consequences: as an example, the fact that the UN cannot adopt a convention on combating terrorism, despite constant attempts for 60 years, is because member states cannot agree on a definition of the term "terrorism". The UN General Assembly most often uses the following definition in its official statements on terrorism:

"Criminal acts aimed at or calculated to create a climate of terror among the general public, groups of persons or individuals for political purposes can under no circumstances be justified, whatever the motives (political, philosophical, ideological, racial, ethnic, religious or any other nature) that may be invoked to justify them." [6]

The term «terrorism» was first used in reference to the Reign of Terror («Régime de la Terreur») in France during the late 18th century, particularly between 1793 and 1794 under Maximilien Robespierre's rule. This period was marked by violent repression, including mass executions carried out by the Revolutionary Tribunal, which was established to prosecute political enemies. By the end of this era,

convictions were often based on mere suspicion, with little regard for fair trials.

This widespread fear, where individuals could no longer feel safe from arbitrary violence, gave rise to the modern concept of terrorism.

In the 19th century, terrorism became less associated with state-led repression and more linked to groups operating within states, aiming to overthrow governments they deemed unjust. Revolutionary organizations across Europe frequently used violence against rulers and regimes, with assassination being a common tactic. Among their targets were the Russian Tsar, the French President, the Austro-Hungarian Emperor, and the Italian King.

The 20th century witnessed an escalation in both the scale and brutality of politically motivated violence. Governments and non-state groups alike engaged in violent acts to achieve their goals. However, by the century's end, the term «terrorism» was primarily used to describe the actions of sub-state groups. Ironically, many of these groups were armed, financed, or trained by nation-states.

International law addresses various aspects of warfare, including the use of force by states. In some cases, legal frameworks such as the UN Charter regulate the use of force between states, classifying conflicts as wars governed by international agreements. The laws of war, mainly covered by international humanitarian law, determine the legality of specific wartime actions. Even in wartime, human rights protections remain in place, though governments may impose more restrictions than in peacetime.

War in International Law: The UN Charter and Kellogg-Briand Pact

The Kellogg-Briand Pact (1928), signed initially by 15 nations and later by 47 more, was the largest peacekeeping effort after World War I. Although it failed to prevent future conflicts, including World War II, it was significant in

establishing the concept of a «crime against peace.» This principle played a crucial role in the Nuremberg Trials, where aggression and war crimes were prosecuted. According to the Nuremberg Principles, crimes against peace include *»planning, preparation, initiation, or waging of wars of aggression and wars in violation of international agreements.»[6]

Terrorism in International Law

(Your last sentence seems unfinished—do you want me to expand on how international law defines and addresses terrorism?)

The process of developing international legislation to combat terrorism is complicated by various problems, mainly because it is so difficult to reach agreement on a definition of the term. The Council of Europe has issued a number of recommendations[8] on the limitations of the interpretation of concepts, so as not to violate other international agreements and conventions.

The recommendations contain the following key points:

- Respect for human rights and the rule of law, as well as the prohibition of discrimination.
- Absolute prohibition of torture: “The use of torture or cruel or degrading treatment or punishment is absolutely prohibited under all circumstances...”
- The collection and processing of personal data must be lawful and proportionate to the purpose pursued.
- Measures against interference with privacy must be taken by the State.
- A person suspected of committing terrorist acts may be arrested only if there is reasonable suspicion and must be informed of these reasons.
- A person suspected of committing terrorist acts has the right to a fair trial within the shortest possible time, which must be conducted by an independent and impartial

tribunal, in accordance with the procedure established by law. Such persons are presumed innocent.

- “A person deprived of his liberty for committing terrorist acts shall in all circumstances be treated with respect for his human dignity.”

- “The extradition of a person to a country where he could be sentenced to the death penalty or to torture or cruel or degrading treatment shall not be permitted.”

- “States shall never [...] derogate from their obligation to protect the right to life guaranteed by these international instruments, from the prohibition of torture and cruel or degrading treatment or punishment, from the principles of legality of sentences and measures, as well as from decisions prohibiting the retroactive effect of criminal legislation.”

Secret renditions

A report by Dick Marty to the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe in 2006 [9] examined the support given by a number of European countries to the United States in the “rendition” of terrorist suspects to countries where they were expected to be tortured. According to the report, seven countries – Sweden, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the United Kingdom, Italy, Macedonia, Germany and Turkey – could be held liable for “violations of the rights of individuals” because they knowingly supported a programme that resulted in these individuals being detained without due process, often for years, and being subjected to torture. Other countries, including Spain, Cyprus, Ireland, Greece, Portugal, Romania and Poland, were also accused of “colluding” with the United States. Marty claims to have evidence that Romania and Poland were collection points for prisoners, one might say secret detention centers for detained prisoners.

Victims of conflict

War and terrorism have a terrible and long-lasting impact on vast numbers of people.

Deaths in conflict are just one of many elements, which also include psychological trauma, the destruction of physical and economic infrastructure, forced displacement of people, physical injuries, shortages of food, water or electricity, and the loss of trust and disruption of normal human relationships. And the impact of this continues throughout the lives of subsequent generations.

International wars are becoming fewer, but civil wars are becoming more active and newer methods of warfare are emerging, and as a result, civilians are now in greater danger and suffer more casualties than professional soldiers. UN Women has estimated that in modern conflicts up to 90% of the victims are civilians, the majority of whom are women and children. Rape and sexual violence are used as weapons of war, as tactics to humiliate, demonstrate dominance and instill fear in society.

War directly affects young people in many ways. In addition to the child soldiers mentioned above, young people make up the vast majority of armies, especially in countries with national military service. It can therefore be said that young people are the first victims of war. In the case of professional armies, these are often young people from relatively poor backgrounds who join the army because it is one of the few opportunities to earn a decent living.

Law enforcement agencies in Member States must continuously adapt to the evolving global terrorist threat, which has grown significantly in both scale and complexity over recent decades. The modern terrorism landscape is marked by the increasingly advanced misuse of emerging technologies, including information and communication technologies (ICTs), persistent threats to critical infrastructure and soft targets, and the use of improvised explosive devices (IEDs) and unmanned aerial systems (UASs) for terrorist purposes.

United Nations Security Council Resolution 1373 (2001) mandates that Member States prosecute individuals involved in financing, planning, preparing, or committing terrorist acts, as well as those supporting such activities. Additionally, Resolution 2322 (2016) urges all States to exchange information in accordance with international and national laws and to collaborate in administrative, police, and judicial matters to prevent terrorist acts and address the threat posed by foreign terrorist fighters (FTFs), including returning combatants. To fulfill these obligations, States must establish effective and professional law enforcement agencies, including specialized counter-terrorism units where necessary. Given the transnational nature of terrorism, these capabilities must also be reinforced at regional and international levels.

Despite the need for cross-border collaboration, transnational law enforcement cooperation remains underdeveloped. Many States lack clear frameworks and protocols for cooperation, as well as access to information-sharing mechanisms, such as regional and international counter-terrorism databases and networks. However, such collaboration is essential, particularly when multiple States in the same region face similar terrorist threats. The Counter-Terrorism Executive Directorate (CTED) seeks to enhance international and regional cooperation by encouraging the establishment of regional mechanisms that bring together law enforcement agencies from different countries. Information sharing and data access are also critical for national risk and threat assessments.

The Security Council has acknowledged the effectiveness of INTERPOL's I-24/7 secure global communications system, its investigative and analytical databases, and its messaging system in combating terrorism. States are encouraged to integrate the INTERPOL I-24/7 network into their national systems and extend its access beyond INTERPOL's national central bureaus (NCBs) to other key law enforcement entities, such as border checkpoints, airports,

customs and immigration offices, and police stations.

Drawing from country visits and direct engagement with Member States, CTED identifies gaps and challenges in counter-terrorism efforts and provides recommendations for improvement. It also facilitates technical assistance to enhance law enforcement procedures and cooperation. Effective inter-agency coordination and information exchange at the national level are essential for seamless cross-border collaboration. Therefore, CTED promotes the establishment of national coordination mechanisms that involve all relevant authorities and, where appropriate, non-governmental actors.

To effectively counter evolving terrorist threats, States are increasingly integrating intelligence into law enforcement operations. There is a growing need to develop mechanisms that reduce unnecessary restrictions on the use of intelligence data related to FTFs and individual terrorists, enabling appropriate information-sharing with screening officers, other States, and relevant international organizations. Timely access to and exchange of threat intelligence are crucial for early warning systems and the prevention of terrorist activities.

Watchlists and databases serve as national or regional alert systems that provide early warnings and verification procedures to aid in identifying and recognizing suspected criminals, terrorists, and suspicious goods or materials at border crossings. They also play a crucial role in the early detection of suspects or previously unknown criminals and terrorists. To facilitate international information sharing, it is essential for States to develop, establish, and maintain relevant national watchlists and databases while ensuring that all competent national authorities have access to them. States are encouraged to ensure interoperability between their national watchlists and databases and to establish links with regional

and international systems. Where appropriate, information sharing should be enabled with relevant national and international authorities.

In its Resolution 2396 (2017), the UN Security Council mandated that States develop watchlists or databases of known and suspected terrorists, including foreign terrorist fighters (FTFs). These should be utilized by law enforcement, border control, customs, military, and intelligence agencies for traveler screening, risk assessments, and investigations, in compliance with national and international law, including human rights obligations. The resolution also urged States to exchange this information through bilateral and multilateral mechanisms in accordance with human rights laws.

To hold terrorists accountable, law enforcement agencies must be able to conduct criminal investigations in a manner that allows prosecutors to bring cases to court. This requires strong investigative capabilities and close cooperation between investigators and prosecutors. The Counter-Terrorism Executive Directorate (CTED) supports this process by identifying technical assistance needs for investigative bodies in areas such as crime scene management, forensic analysis, evidence collection, and analytical capacity. CTED also monitors emerging terrorist trends to help law enforcement agencies develop effective countermeasures and operational strategies.

Terrorist attacks on critical infrastructure pose a significant security threat worldwide. Security Council Resolution 2341 (2017) calls on States to mitigate the risk of such attacks and to consider preventive measures when formulating national strategies and policies. Physical security measures can reduce the likelihood of severe terrorist incidents targeting airports, seaports, railway stations, dams, nuclear power plants, chemical facilities, telecommunications, and financial systems. The *Compendium of Good Practices on the Protection of Critical Infrastructure Against Terrorist Attacks*, launched in 2018, provides

guidance on risk mitigation strategies, with a focus on prevention, preparedness, response, investigation, recovery, and other relevant aspects of critical infrastructure protection.

Resolution 2396 (2017) also highlights the need for States to develop, review, or modify national risk and threat assessments to address vulnerabilities associated with soft targets. It encourages the development of contingency plans for responding to terrorist attacks and calls for strengthening partnerships between national, regional, and international actors, including public and private stakeholders. Information sharing and best practices exchange are essential to preventing, protecting, mitigating, investigating, responding to, and recovering from attacks on soft targets. Such locations are particularly attractive to terrorists, including FTFs, due to their accessibility, lower security measures, and potential for mass casualties, widespread destruction, and public fear with minimal financial resources. The number of such attacks has risen globally in recent years.

Concerns over the risks and threats posed by the use of unmanned aerial systems (UAS) for terrorist purposes have escalated rapidly. The potential dangers of armed drones in terrorist attacks have increased the urgency of adopting legal frameworks to regulate their use, keep pace with technological developments, and establish detection and counter-UAS mechanisms. At the same time, UAS technologies offer new opportunities for law enforcement, such as rapid response operations and area security during major public events. For States with vast borders, UAS can serve as cost-effective tools for border management and early warning activities.

All counter-terrorism measures, including law enforcement activities and information sharing, must be conducted in accordance with national legislation, international obligations, and full respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. Law enforcement efforts must be comprehensive,

human rights-compliant, non-discriminatory, and considerate of gender and age-related aspects.

Conclusion:

Enhancing School-Based Safety and Security Planning.

Effective school safety and security planning requires a multi-level approach, incorporating measures at both the school and national levels while engaging a wide range of stakeholders, including school staff, government ministries, and international organizations.

Risk Assessment

Building the capacity of schools to conduct risk assessments before developing safety plans is essential. Schools and governing bodies can create their own assessment tools or adapt those developed by other education stakeholders to ensure a comprehensive understanding of potential threats.

Protection Measures

Schools should identify and implement protective measures based on risk assessments to address potential threats and mitigate attacks. Plans should include:

Emergency Response Strategies – Developing evacuation procedures, first aid response, and school reconstruction efforts.

Community Engagement – Encouraging local communities to participate in school repairs and reconstruction to support the return of students and teachers while helping prevent future attacks.

Preventing Military Use of Schools & Attacks on Education– A school safety and security plan should include an emergency training component covering:

- First aid, early warning systems, risk analysis, and evacuation drills
- Community involvement in training to ensure adaptability to local conditions

- Regular training for teachers, parents, students, and community members to maintain preparedness

- Psychosocial support training for educational staff and community leaders

Early Warning Systems & Coordination –

Implementing early warning systems, such as SMS alerts and other technology-based notifications, can improve response times. Coordination between school leaders and local/national ministries is critical for information sharing and rapid response. If government forces are responsible for school attacks, community leaders should take charge of managing alert systems.

Ensuring Educational Continuity

To maintain learning during crises, schools should:

- Secure educational facilities
- Provide learning materials and hire additional teachers as needed
- Develop alternative learning plans, such as remote education options, when travel to school is unsafe

A security plan should analyze risks faced by students and teachers and outline measures to address them. While evidence on the most effective interventions is limited, lessons can be drawn from schools in conflict-affected areas that have successfully protected education despite challenges.

Although school-based security planning is essential, individual schools often lack the resources to handle widespread or frequent attacks. A coordinated, strategic approach at multiple levels is necessary to strengthen long-term protection for students, teachers, and school facilities.

The recommendations include:

- Conducting further research to better understand the nature of links between terrorism and organized crime, as well as

sector-specific vulnerabilities, ensuring evidence-based responses.

- Strengthening national intelligence and criminal justice cooperation through inter-agency coordination mechanisms, national policies, and action plans to improve information exchange and whole-of-government responses. This also includes establishing specialized units, joint task forces, and operational centers to promote intelligence-led policing.

- Enhancing efforts to detect and counter the financing of terrorism by identifying links with other criminal activities, conducting financial risk assessments, strengthening Financial Intelligence Units, and improving cooperation with counter-terrorism investigators.

- Assessing and addressing risks associated with new payment methods, financial instruments, crowdfunding platforms, and virtual assets, applying risk-based anti-money laundering and counter-terrorist financing regulations.

- Tackling all forms of human trafficking, including those perpetrated by terrorist groups.

- Preventing the illicit exploitation and trafficking of natural resources and other goods that may benefit terrorist groups by conducting financial investigations, strengthening border controls, and enhancing cross-border cooperation.

- Combatting illegal arms trafficking, including the manufacture and possession of small arms that can finance terrorism and facilitate terrorist acts, through the ratification and implementation of relevant international agreements.

- Addressing drug trafficking through comprehensive drug demand reduction strategies, improved border management, and enhanced investigative approaches.

- Supporting states in preventing and combating corruption, recognizing its role in

facilitating violent extremism, terrorism, and organized crime.

- Utilizing databases and emerging technologies for data collection and analysis, such as passenger data systems and biometrics, while ensuring human rights protections.

- Assisting states in developing effective, accountable, and inclusive legal frameworks and criminal justice measures that prevent terrorist and organized criminal groups from abusing technology.

- Strengthening border security and maritime crime prevention efforts to detect and disrupt illicit goods and people trafficking, which may finance terrorism or enable foreign terrorist fighter travel. This includes using data collection tools, surveillance systems, and inter-agency cooperation.

- Promoting regional intelligence sharing and international cooperation in criminal matters through regional practitioner networks, information-sharing agreements, liaison officers, INTERPOL tools, and mutual legal assistance treaties.

- Encouraging public-private partnerships with key industries such as art dealers, firearms manufacturers, banks, and Internet Service Providers to counter illicit activities.

- Updating national legal frameworks to ensure the criminalization of facilitation acts while maintaining precise and narrow definitions of terrorism and organized crime offenses in accordance with international law.

- Strengthening capabilities in evidence gathering and preservation, including electronic evidence.

- Adopting investigative and prosecutorial strategies that prioritize dismantling organized crime and terrorist networks, including measures such as plea bargaining to encourage cooperation from suspects.

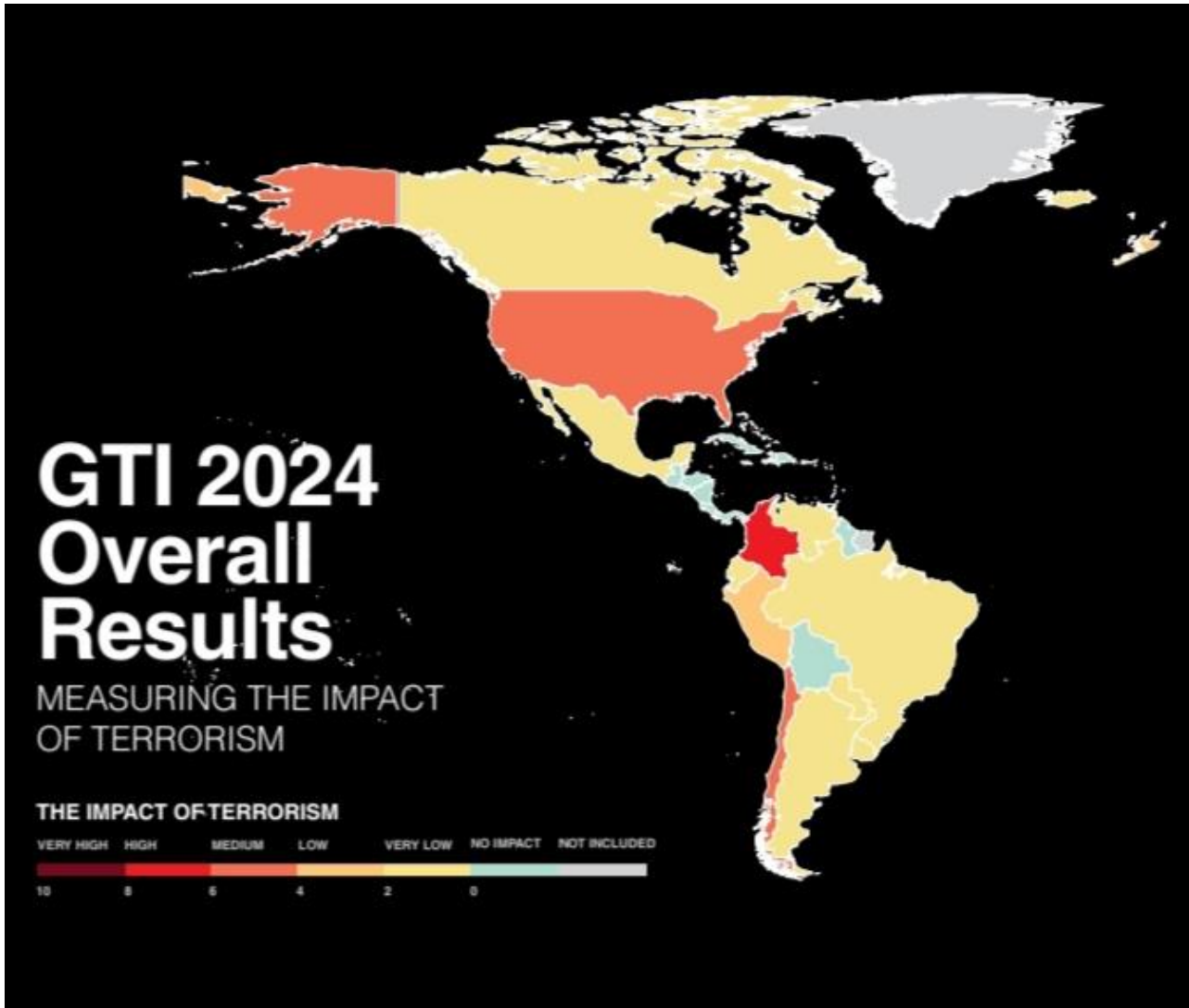


- Enhancing prison management to rehabilitate organized crime and terrorism offenders, preventing new connections between terrorism and organized crime from forming in prisons. This includes improving intelligence-sharing between police and prisons and

developing rehabilitation programs for violent extremist prisoners.

- Finally, ensuring that all measures comply with international humanitarian, human rights, and refugee law obligations.





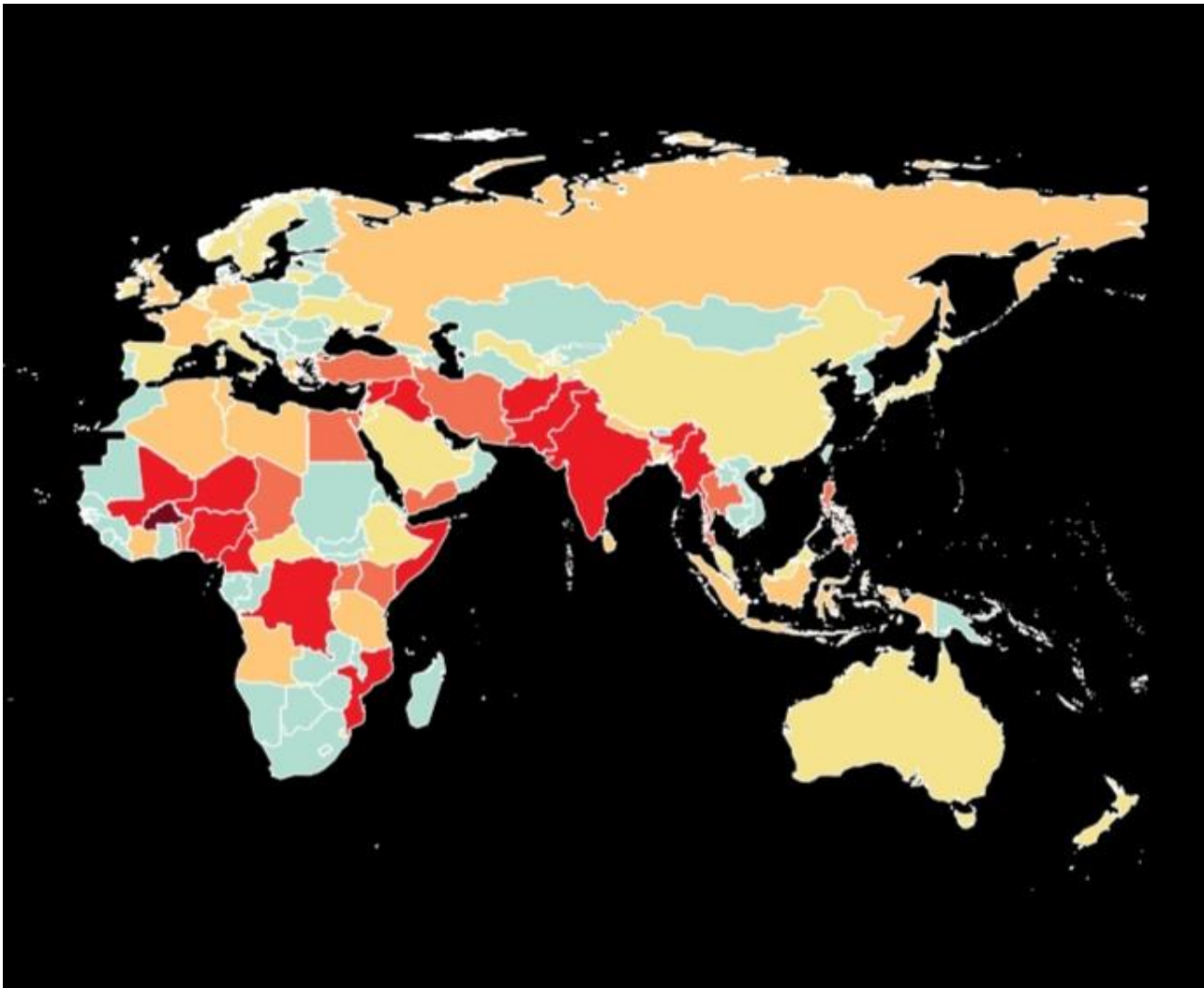
GTI 2024 Overall Results

MEASURING THE IMPACT
OF TERRORISM

THE IMPACT OF TERRORISM



RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE	RANK CHANGE	RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE	RANK CHANGE	RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE	RANK CHANGE
1	Burkina Faso	8.571	↑ 1	28	Thailand	4.219	↓ 5	55	Spain	1.669	↑ 5
2	Israel	8.143	↑ 24	29	Türkiye	4.168	↓ 8	56	Lebanon	1.562	↓ 5
3	Mali	7.998	↑ 1	30	United States of America	4.141	↓ 1	57	Australia	1.475	↓ 2
4	Pakistan	7.916	↑ 3	31	Indonesia	3.993	↓ 7	58	Italy	1.447	↓ 4
5	Syria	7.890	↔	32	Bangladesh	3.317	↑ 14	59	Central African Republic	1.445	↓ 2
6	Afghanistan	7.825	↓ 5	33	Sri Lanka	3.072	↓ 2	60	Saudi Arabia	1.366	↑ 5
7	Somalia	7.814	↓ 4	34	Greece	3.028	↓ 1	61	Argentina	1.274	↓ 3
8	Nigeria	7.575	↔	35	Russia	3.016	↑ 8	62	Ethiopia	1.272	↓ 3
9	Myanmar	7.536	↔	36	Tunisia	2.914	↑ 4	63	Kosovo	1.218	↑ 28
10	Niger	7.274	↔	37	Germany	2.782	↓ 2	64	Japan	1.189	↔
11	Iraq	7.078	↓ 5	38	France	2.647	↓ 4	65	Venezuela	1.174	↓ 13
12	Cameroon	6.98	↓ 1	39	Libya	2.469	↓ 7	66	Slovakia	1.092	↓ 5
13	Democratic Republic of the Congo	6.514	↑ 1	40	Burundi	2.434	↓ 4	67	Mexico	1.04	↑ 1
14	India	6.324	↓ 1	41	United Kingdom	2.373	↑ 3	68	Austria	0.953	↓ 5
15	Mozambique	6.267	↓ 3	42	Tanzania	2.267	↓ 3	69	Tajikistan	0.871	↓ 16
16	Colombia	6.188	↓ 1	43	Angola	2.254	↑ 48	70	Sweden	0.735	↓ 4
17	Chile	5.679	↓ 1	44	Algeria	2.197	↓ 6	71	Switzerland	0.627	↓ 4
18	Kenya	5.616	↑ 1	45	Nepal	2.163	↓ 8	72	Cyprus	0.616	↑ 3
19	Philippines	5.383	↓ 1	46	Côte d'Ivoire	2.06	↓ 5	73	China	0.582	↑ 21
20	Egypt	5.221	↓ 3	47	Peru	2.045	↓ 6	74	Netherlands	0.577	↓ 4
21	Chad	4.987	↓ 1	48	Djibouti	2.035	↓ 3	75	Jordan	0.455	↓ 4
22	Palestine	4.966	↑ 6	49	Brazil	1.988	↓ 2	=76	Armenia	0.423	↑ 18
23	Yemen	4.951	↓ 1	50	New Zealand	1.947	↓ 2	=76	Uzbekistan	0.423	↓ 4
24	Benin	4.898	↑ 3	51	Belgium	1.904	↑ 11	78	Paraguay	0.241	↓ 5
25	Togo	4.67	↑ 5	52	Canada	1.753	↑ 4	=79	United Arab Emirates	0.233	↓ 2
26	Iran	4.464	↓ 1	53	Norway	1.747	↓ 3	=79	Iceland	0.233	↓ 2
27	Uganda	4.377	↑ 22	54	Ukraine	1.686	↑ 20	81	Malaysia	0.192	↓ 5



RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE	RANK CHANGE	RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE	RANK CHANGE	RANK	COUNTRY	SCORE	RANK CHANGE
82	Eswatini	0.18	↓ 3	89	Guatemala	0.000	↑ 5	89	Papua New Guinea	0.000	↑ 5
83	Ecuador	0.167	↓ 14	89	Guinea	0.000	↑ 5	89	Poland	0.000	↑ 5
84	Bahrain	0.123	↓ 3	89	Guinea-Bissau	0.000	↑ 5	89	Portugal	0.000	↑ 5
85	Rwanda	0.114	↓ 2	89	Guyana	0.000	↑ 5	89	Qatar	0.000	↑ 5
86	Uruguay	0.114	↓ 4	89	Haiti	0.000	↑ 5	89	Republic of the Congo	0.000	↑ 5
87	Lithuania	0.059	↔	89	Honduras	0.000	↑ 5	89	Romania	0.000	↓ 3
88	Ireland	0.03	↔	89	Hungary	0.000	↑ 5	89	Senegal	0.000	↓ 10
89	Albania	0.000	↑ 5	89	Jamaica	0.000	↑ 5	89	Serbia	0.000	↑ 5
89	Azerbaijan	0.00	↑ 5	89	Kazakhstan	0.000	↑ 5	89	Sierra Leone	0.000	↑ 5
89	Bulgaria	0.000	↑ 5	89	Kuwait	0.000	↑ 5	89	Singapore	0.000	↑ 5
89	Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.000	↑ 5	89	Kyrgyz Republic	0.000	↑ 5	89	Slovenia	0.000	↑ 5
89	Belarus	0.000	↑ 5	89	Laos	0.000	↑ 5	89	South Africa	0.000	↓ 6
89	Belgium	0.000	↑ 5	89	Latvia	0.000	↑ 5	89	South Korea	0.000	↑ 5
89	Bolivia	0.000	↑ 5	89	Lesotho	0.000	↑ 5	89	South Sudan	0.000	↑ 5
89	Bhutan	0.000	↑ 5	89	Liberia	0.000	↑ 5	89	Sudan	0.000	↑ 5
89	Botswana	0.000	↑ 5	89	Madagascar	0.000	↑ 5	89	Taiwan	0.000	↑ 5
89	Republic of the Congo	0.000	↑ 5	89	Malawi	0.000	↑ 5	89	The Gambia	0.000	↑ 5
89	Costa Rica	0.000	↑ 5	89	Mauritania	0.000	↑ 5	89	Timor-Leste	0.000	↑ 5
89	Cuba	0.000	↑ 5	89	Mauritius	0.000	↓ 1	89	Trinidad and Tobago	0.000	↑ 5
89	Czechia	0.000	↑ 5	89	Moldova	0.000	↑ 5	89	Turkmenistan	0.000	↑ 5
89	Denmark	0.000	↑ 2	89	Mongolia	0.000	↑ 5	89	Vietnam	0.000	↑ 5
89	Dominican Republic	0.000	↑ 5	89	Montenegro	0.000	↑ 5	89	Zambia	0.000	↑ 5
89	Eritrea	0.000	↑ 5	89	Morocco	0.000	↓ 4	89	Zimbabwe	0.000	↑ 5
89	Estonia	0.000	↑ 5	89	Namibia	0.000	↑ 5				
89	Finland	0.000	↑ 5	89	Nicaragua	0.000	↑ 5				
89	Gabon	0.000	↑ 5	89	North Korea	0.000	↑ 5				
89	Georgia	0.000	↑ 5	89	North Macedonia	0.000	↑ 5				
89	Ghana	0.000	↑ 5	89	Oman	0.000	↑ 5				
				89	Panama	0.000	↑ 5				

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39. The data for the previous years correspond to the data reported in the respective TE-SAT reports.
40. Eurojust received contributions containing information on terrorism-related convictions and acquittals in 2023 from the following EU Member States: Austria, Belgium, Croatia Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Romania, Spain and Sweden.
41. The number of convictions in the Netherlands includes one case in which the court ruled that the facts were proven but the defendant was declared not punishable.