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File/Project number: 3700-1 CRTI 09-428RD

March 4, 2013 (revised)

CONCISE REVIEW OF CANADIAN TERRORIST AND EXTREMIST CRIME DATA SOURCES

INTRODUCTION

In 2011, The Defence R&D Canada (DRDC) Centre for Security Science (CSS) Chemical, Biological, Radiological-Nuclear and Explosive (CBRNE) Research and Technology Initiative (CRTI) funded a project (CRTI 09-428RD) to identify and fill a gap in national security information publicly available for research purposes. This letter report is intended as a background document for the prospective development of a Canadian, historical, incident database of extremist crime in order to partially address this gap. It contains a brief discussion and recommendations based on a review of seven extant sources of Canadian data.

DISCUSSION

Several sources exist of Canadian, historical data on terrorism and extremist crime (see Annex A and B for a review of each). There are three sources that are still maintained, collected and stored by government (i.e., Uniform Crime Survey, Homicide Survey and Canadian Disaster Database). Two government sources are no longer officially maintained (Kellet, Beanlands et al. 1991; RCMP Chronology). The remaining three are academic sources that were created by scholars (Ross; Lemay-Langlois and Brodeur; Global Terrorism Database).

The Uniform Crime Survey (UCR) and Homicide Survey are the only two sources that rely on law enforcement reporting of criminal occurrences, hence align with *Criminal Code* violations. All of the remaining sources are drawn from open data sources. They employ varying definitions of “terrorism” or “extremist crime” and the criteria they use to select cases tend to be inconsistent (see Annex B).

Sources tend to vary in scope, years of coverage, the number and type of events they include, and in some cases, the information that is made publicly available. For instance, a clear rationale is missing from the Canadian Disaster Database (CDD) for why certain events are included. The CDD is also quite constrained given the definition of a “disaster event” and the stringent criteria for inclusion. Despite the Lemay-Langlois and Brodeur database being one of the most relevant and possibly the most comprehensive of sources, having included other extant sources (e.g., Kellet, Beanlands et al. 1991) and

taking a much broader approach, the data and codebook are not readily available to permit a clear understanding of how the database is structured. Similarly, the ATIC IV database is said to be more rigorous than Kellet's, but since the inclusion criteria is not published, it is difficult to identify what data is included. Not including the two Statistics Canada sources, all of the others are outdated, but in some cases, by only a few years¹.

The Statistics Canada UCR and Homicide data stand to complement other sources, but there are issues with their use that must be considered. For one, data from the UCR and Homicide surveys cannot be readily used to shed light on domestic criminal extremism. Quite simply, "violent extremism" is not a *Criminal Code* offense. These sources capture violations related to terrorism offenses in the *Criminal Code* even if charges are dropped or an offender is subsequently charged under a different article of criminal legislation. An even greater issue involves the inability to extract incident-level data from these sources. Staff at CCJS were asked about whether special permission might be received to access limited data (e.g., date, location, event type) that could support an open-source data collection initiative. However, it has since been confirmed that no data can be publicly released that could be used to identify the specifics of an incident, in accordance with the Statistics Act and the Privacy Act. As such, the only foreseeable way that UCR data might be used to support the creation of a new database is as a benchmark when collecting open-source data. By knowing the aggregate number of cases that were reported by law enforcement in a given year, researchers will know to keep searching for open-source data until such time as they reach or exceed the reported number of cases.

Statistics Canada could be contracted to complete other historical analyses using the Homicide data that may prove relevant and useful for understanding criminal extremism. Since the Homicide survey includes an officers' assessment of the apparent motive for the crime, it is feasible that a content analysis could be undertaken in order to identify and code for homicides that meet a definition of extremist crime. Since the Homicide Survey also captures data on hate crimes, a content analysis could similarly be completed to explore possible links between hate crime and extremist crime. This presumes – similar to what is done for the Global Terrorism Database – that hate crime data can be differentiated based on whether it was deliberately undertaken to achieve a political or other aim, or was merely a personal, retributive or spontaneous act².

RECOMMENDATION

Several recommendations stem from this report, as follows:

- 1) While this report has sought to provide a concise review and comparison of Canadian terrorism and extremist crime data sources, the ability to draw such comparisons was contingent on the definitions and inclusion criteria that were used

¹ According to Dr. Leman-Langlois, an updated version of the database will be available in 2013.

² The definition of a terrorist act in Section 83.01(b) of the Canadian *Criminal Code* may provide a useful way of classifying acts of hate that are also extremist or, as the case may be, terrorist acts. Acts of hatred can readily serve a broader, political, religious or ideological purpose, objective or cause that intends or serves to intimidate segments of the public with regard to their security (s. 83.01). Acts of hate might also be viewed as criminal extremism or even terrorism when they are deliberately committed by individuals or members of groups or entities, and when they cause death or serious bodily harm, serious risk to health and safety, substantial property damage or serious interference with private or essential services.

by each. This information was difficult to discern in some cases. It is therefore recommended that the prospective database contain clear definitions and inclusion criteria so as to resolve ambiguities and minimize gaps and inconsistencies when collecting data. As importantly, a clear set of definitions and criteria will permit transparency so that users will know what the database represents and when legitimate comparisons can be made.

- 2) When developing the definitions, inclusion criteria and variables for the prospective database, it is recommended that consideration be given to the desire and ability to draw useful comparisons between data sources, possibly also, to share data with extant sources, such as, the Canadian Disaster Database, Global Terrorism Database, U.S. Extremist Crime Database, etc.
- 3) More information on the scholarly databases should be sought in order to permit a more thorough review of these sources. For instance, the Leman-Langlois and Brodeur database appears to be one of the most relevant and comprehensive of sources reviewed in this paper, but the data set and codebook were not obtained. As well, inclusion criteria for the ATIC IV were not available at the time of this report.
- 4) It is recommended that a small contract be arranged with the Criminal Justice Statistics Division (CCJS) at Statistics Canada to code law enforcement officers' narrative description in the Homicide Survey Incident Questionnaire to see how many cases, if any, fit a definition of extremist crime for the prospective database. This analysis has not previously been completed, and may yield surprising results.
- 5) A Canadian list of sources for open source data and search engines will need to be identified in order to permit data collection. It is recommended that investigators adapt the list of sources in Annex B, Table 7 to suit the Canadian context.

Comments or questions on this Letter Report are welcome and should be addressed to Sean Norton at (613) 944-8190 or by email to sean.norton@drdc-rddc.gc.ca.

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Canada



ANNEX A: CANADIAN TERRORISM/EXTREMISM DATA SOURCES

	GOVERNMENT SOURCES†			ACADEMIC SOURCES				
	Statistics Canada		Public Safety Canada					
	<i>UCR Survey</i>	<i>Homicide Survey</i>	<i>Canadian Disaster Database</i>	<i>RCMP Chronology</i>	<i>Kellet, Beanlands et al. 1991</i>	<i>Attributes of International Terrorism in Canada IV (ATIC)</i>	<i>Leman-Langlois and Brodeur 2005</i>	<i>Global Terrorism Database</i>
Scope and Timeframe:								
Year of coverage			1924-1992	1970-2001	1960-1989	1960-1990	1973-2007	1970-2007
Number of cases (Canadian)	UNK	UNK	10	209	428	469	UK	64
Included Events by Type †:								
conspiracies	X	X		X				
criminal extremism				X	X		X	
disaster events			X					
failed or foiled plots	X	X					X	X
hate crimes/terrorism	X	X					X	
hoaxes	X	X		X			X	
low-level violence	X	X					UNK	
personal motives (e.g., grudges, mental instability)								
planned/threat of violence	X	X		X			X	X
propaganda							UNK	
serious violence	X	X		X	X	X		X
support activities	X	X			X		X	
suspects/perpetrators		X					X	X
Terrorism/Criminal Code offenses	X	X				X		
threats (direct/indirect)							X	
vandalism	X	X					X	
victims/fatalities		X						X

Events of various types are included based on set criteria in relation to the magnitude of consequences

†The RCMP Chronology and the Kellet, Beanlands et al. (1991) datasets are no longer maintained.

[†]This list is intended to be exemplary rather than inclusive of the types of events that are included/excluded for each data source based on references found in the source documentation.
UNK - Unknown

ANNEX B: CANADIAN GOVERNMENT AND ACADEMIC DATA SOURCES

GOVERNMENT SOURCES

Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Survey, Statistics Canada

The Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) survey is an official criminal incident-based survey that is completed from police departmental records and analyzed by the Criminal Justice Statistics Division (CCJS) at Statistics Canada. It captures all categories of crimes and traffic incidents, their characteristics, as well as that of the accused persons and victims. The UCR is modified over time based on changes to Canadian criminal legislation and based on suggested improvements by police services. For instance, in 2004, version 2.2 was created to capture new data on organized crime/street gangs, hate and cyber-crime.

Table 1 shows violations in the UCR based on terrorism offenses in the *Criminal Code*. At quick glance, one can see that the number of incidents tend to be much greater than the total persons charged in the corresponding field (i.e., 310 incidents compared to 26 persons charged, overall). Reasons for this discrepancy are various. In some cases, the suspected persons are not identified in connection with a criminal occurrence. At other times, charges can be laid or recommended to be laid in connection with criminal code violation, but for various reasons, the police department cannot lay the recommended charges or charges are dropped. As well, it is conceivable that an individual is identified in relation to a terrorist incident, but for one reason or another, are subsequently prosecuted under a different article of criminal legislation. In instances, such as these, referring to the number of incidents in the UCR, as compared to the total persons charged, suggests much greater incidence of terrorism in Canada. Similarly, a database that refers to a definition of terrorism for statistical purposes and that relies on open source information is also likely to report much greater incidence of “terrorism” than would be reflected in a dataset that is based on how a person was actually prosecuted.

The UCR 2.2 and Homicide surveys (see below) collect hate crime data that stand to complement other data collection. In the case of the UCR 2.2, there is thought to be five years of decent coverage; at least, according to CCJS research staff. This data also has a potential gap in that it does not identify links between hate crimes and extremist and/or terrorist acts. For instance, spontaneous hate crimes committed by individuals are not differentiated from those acts representing a deliberate strategy, undertaken by groups or entities, in order to intimidate segments of the public and compromise their security.

Incident-level data from the UCR cannot be publicly released by Statistics Canada. Staff at CCJS were asked about whether special permission might be obtained to release limited data from the UCR (e.g., date, location, event type) in order to support an open-source data collection initiative. However, it has since been confirmed that no data can be released that could be used to identify the specifics of an incident, in accordance with the Statistics Act and the Privacy Act. The only foreseeable way that the UCR data might be used when developing a new database is as a benchmark when collecting open-source data on hate crimes. By knowing the aggregate number of cases that were reported by law enforcement in a given year, researchers will know to keep searching for open-source data until such time as they reach or exceed the reported number of cases.

Table 1: A Selection of Incident-Based Terrorism Offenses, 2008-2011

Incident-based violation code	Violations	Year	Actual incidents	Rate per 100,000 population	Total, persons charged
3550	Advocating genocide	2008	1	0	0
		2009	1	0	1
		2010	1	0	2
		2011	0	0	0
3711	Property or service for terrorist activity	2008	31	0.09	0
		2009	24	0.07	0
		2010	23	0.07	0
		2011	31	0.09	0
3713	Participate in activity of terrorist group	2008	33	0.1	0
		2009	34	0.1	1
		2010	22	0.06	0
		2011	17	0.05	0
3714	Facilitate terrorist activity	2008	9	0.03	0
		2009	7	0.02	0
		2010	6	0.02	0
		2011	2	0.01	0
3715	Commission or instructing to carry out terrorist activity	2008	13	0.04	0
		2009	5	0.01	0
		2010	3	0.01	1
		2011	2	0.01	0
3716	Harbour or conceal terrorist	2008	1	0	0
		2009	0	0	1
		2010	0	0	1
		2011	0	0	1
3717	Hoax terrorism	2008	14	0.04	1
		2009	13	0.04	5
		2010	6	0.02	5
		2011	11	0.03	7
Totals		2008	102		1
		2009	84		8
		2010	61		9
		2011	63		8

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Uniform Crime Reporting Survey

Homicide Survey, Statistics Canada

The homicide (tri-part) survey is another official law enforcement data source that has been administered by CCJS at Statistics Canada since 1961. Investigating officers are ideally intended to complete separate incident, victim and suspect questionnaires following a homicide. While the UCR is much broader in scope, focusing on all criminal incidents, versus merely homicides, the homicide survey is more detailed than the UCR.

Incident Questionnaire

The Incident questionnaire includes details about the homicide (e.g., date, geographic and specific location, number of suspects and victims, type of dwelling, type of violation, related offenses, etc.). Also included is the investigating officer's personal assessment of the apparent, primary motive for the crime. Two motive categories are directly relevant to the current report: "terrorism, political cause", and "hate crime" (i.e., hate, prejudice or bias based on race, national or ethnic origin, language, colour, religion, sex, age, mental or physical disability, sexual orientation or any other similar factor). A narrative description is also included in order that police officers can provide a more detailed account of the motive and events leading up to the incident (Statistics Canada 2010).

In speaking with CCJS research staff, it would be feasible to undertake a small study to code officers' narrative description in the Homicide Survey Incident Questionnaire to see how many cases, if any, fit a definition of extremist crime for the prospective database. Even though incident-level data could not be publicly released from such an endeavor, this type of analysis has not been completed and may yield some unexpected results.

Victim Questionnaire

The Victim questionnaire includes detailed information of the victim(s) at the time of the homicide, such as name, gender, age, occupation, marital and employment status, criminal history and primary cause of death, relationship to the suspect, as well as detailed information on the weapon used, etc.). The survey also addresses whether the victim's death was associated with their profession (e.g., police officer). For instance, of the vast majority of homicides committed in the U.S. each year, only very few involve law enforcement personnel. However, results from the U.S. Extremist Crime Database have found that while right-wing extremists commit relatively few homicides, each year, their victims are mostly police officers. Whether such a pattern exists in Canada is unclear, but could be determined based on the data contained in the homicide survey.

Charged/Suspect-Chargeable Questionnaire

In addition to the above, police officers are asked to complete a separate questionnaire for each chargeable suspect in a homicide investigation. Many of the same questions are included (e.g., name, gender, age, occupation, employment and marital status, criminal history). Other questions pertain to suspected mental or developmental disorder, use of alcohol or drugs and suspected history of violence between the victim and the accused. Also included, is whether charges were laid, recommended or cleared.

Canadian Disaster Database

The Canadian Disaster Database, which was developed and made publicly available by Public Safety Canada in 1995, contains information on disasters that have affected Canadians both at home and abroad since 1900. Events are included if they meet the following definition of a disaster as well as one or more of the following specific criteria:

Disaster - Essentially a social phenomenon that results when a hazard intersects with a vulnerable community in a way that exceeds or overwhelms the community's ability to cope and may cause serious harm to the safety, health, welfare, property or environment of people; may be triggered by a naturally occurring phenomenon which has its origins within the geophysical or biological environment or by human action or error, whether malicious or unintentional, including technological failures, accidents and terrorist acts.

Criteria:

- 10 or more people killed,
- 100 or more people affected/injured/infected/evacuated or homeless,
- an appeal for national/international assistance,
- historical significance, and/or
- significant damage/interruption of normal processes such that the community
- the affected community cannot recover without assistance.

While nearly all of the approximately 1,000 events listed in the database correspond to natural disasters (e.g., meteorological-hydrological, geological, etc.) or accidents (e.g., explosions, hazardous chemical release, transportation accidents), ten terrorist events are included that are believed to also represent disaster events. These are mostly bomb attacks, but there is also a kidnapping and shooting event, from the period 1924 to 1992.

The database describes where and when a disaster occurred, the number of injuries, evacuations, and fatalities, and where possible, includes an estimate of the costs. Many data fields are missing, however. For instance, there are no costs associated with the terrorist events. Since the number of people killed and/or injured/affected for eight of the ten events are less than 10 and 100, respectively, in accordance with the above criteria, one must infer from the description that these events do in fact represent disasters based on them having met one or more of the remaining criteria (e.g., an appeal for assistance, historical significance, significant damage/interruption to normal community processes or the inability of those affected to recover on their own).

Chronology of Criminal Extremist Incidents in Canada (1970-2001)

Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP)

The Criminal Extremism Analysis Section of Royal Canadian Mounted Police compiled a chronology of criminal extremism incidents occurring in Canada between 1970 and 2001 (last revised: 2002-01-16). Incidents are identified by date along with a short narrative description. Although the list is not viewed as comprehensive, it includes 209 confirmed cases. The list represents an unclassified chronology of ideologically-motivated acts of significant violence or planned violence based on open source information. Included, are incidents, conspiracies and hoaxes involving arson, bombing, armed assault, murder, and armed barricade incidents. The list does not include vandalism or individual acts that

are committed for personal reasons or for personal gain or by persons who are thought to be “emotionally-disturbed”. Direct or implicit threats in the form of vandalism or propaganda are also excluded even though extremists are often known to use threats to instill fear among their targets.

International and Domestic Terrorism in Canada (1960-1989)³

Kellet, Beanlands et al. (1991)

A team of researchers, led by Dr. Anthony Kellet, compiled a rigorous and extensive open-source database on international and domestic terrorism incidents in Canada from 1960 to 1989 while working for the then Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The database includes data from several extant sources at the time of its publication in 1991. The list of terrorism incidents is thought to be comprehensive for the period of coverage.

Since the database was created before there existed a legislative definition of a terrorist act, as currently exists, the authors had to develop their own definition and criteria (see below), as part of a deductive process, which was then applied to specific cases.

“...[T]errorism consists of acts of *serious violence*, planned and executed clandestinely, and committed *with clear intention* to achieve political ends; it is frequently compounded by the threat of further violence, primarily to communicate demands and to gain publicity, and to extort, intimidate and disrupt; and to realize these goals, a terrorist act may involve one or more targets – the target(s) of violence, the target(s) of demands, and those persons to be sensitized and thereby converted to the terrorist cause.” (emphasis added; 23).

The authors make reference to “serious violence” and “with clear intention” in order to distinguish terrorism from “low-level or spontaneous acts of assault, vandalism or like occurrences...” (Kellet, Beanlands et al. 1991). By contrast, they sought to emphasize and include only those events which are “planned with consideration of their potential impact on target audiences and with a view to advancing long-term political objectives, and thus largely exclude personal motives (including grudges, mental instability, and so forth).” (ibid.). On that basis, 428 terrorist events were subsequently compiled over the study period⁴.

³ Primary sources, in addition to Canadian criminal cases and Dominion Law Reports, were the following: (1) Gregory Cran’s Doukhobor Chronology used by Ross in ATIC I; (2) Kellet, Anthony, (1988) Contemporary International Terrorism and its Impact on Canada, Ottawa: Operational Research and Analysis Establishment, Department of National Defence; (3) Lowry, H.W., (1988) “Chronological Breakdown of Armenian Terrorist Incidents, 1973-1987”, Enclosure I to Soyupak, Brig-Gen. Kemal, “Terrorist Movements Against Turkey”, paper presented to the XIVth International Military History Colloquium (Conflicts of High and Low Intensity since the Second World War), Montreal, 16-19 August, pp. 10-17; (4) Mickolus, Edward F. (1980) Transnational Terrorism: A Chronology of Events: 1968-1979, Westport, Conn.: Greenwood; and (5) Ross, Jeffrey Ian (1989) “Attributes of Terrorism in Canada, (ATIC I and ATIC II)”, A chronology of domestic and international terrorism in Canada from 1960-1985.

⁴ Note: the Air India Flight 182 bombing on June 23, 1985, notably the largest terrorist incident in Canadian history, was excluded from the database, since investigations were still underway.

Table 2: Chronology of Terrorism in Canada (1960-1989)

Event Type:	Tactics:	Targets:	Support Activities:
Emigré Left-Wing Nationalist/ Separatist Religious Right-Wing Single-Issue	Arson Assassination Assault Bombing Fire Bombing Hijacking Hostage-Taking Kidnapping Product Contamination Sabotage	<p>Public: Monument, business, club, public place, private citizen, religious, general public</p> <p>Facilities/Services: Communications, energy, medical, education, transportation, media</p> <p>Government: Postal, military, political, criminal, justice, other government</p> <p>Foreign Diplomatic, Foreign</p> <p>Other : Other, Unknown</p>	Demonstration Extortion Fraud Possession of drugs Possession of explosives Possession of stolen goods Possession of weapons Propaganda Robbery Theft Traffic (arms) Traffic (drugs) Training Transit of funds Vandalism/Mischief

Reproduced from: <http://www.erta-tcrq.org/groupe/typologies.htm>

Incidents are sorted by date and location. They include a description and as shown in Table 2, are categorized according to the event type (i.e., nationalist/separatist, religious, émigré, left-wing, single-issue, and right-wing terrorism), tactic (i.e., bombing, firebombing, arson, assassination, kidnapping, assault, hostage-taking, hijacking), and targets (i.e., business, clubs, public place, monuments, private citizens, media, religious, communications, transportation, educational, energy, medical, diplomatic, foreign, postal, military, political, criminal justice, and other government).

It appears that hoaxes are excluded from the database of domestic terrorism in Canada, unlike the RCMP chronology of criminal extremist incidents (listed above). Many other cases are also listed as excluded if there was found to be insufficient information, if the motive or perpetrator were unclear, or if the act was considered to be too “low-level”.

A second chronology of 93 criminal acts in support of terrorism was also compiled, but it is less inclusive than the terrorism database. Unlike terrorist incidents, the goal of which, very often, is to seek publicity, support activities are usually clandestine and can only be identified when they are publicly reported, such as the case when the perpetrators are known and criminal charges are laid. Still, the database provides a useful illustration of a range of tactics (i.e., attempted extortion, attempted robbery, extortion, fraud, other, possession of explosives and/or weapons, propaganda, robbery, theft, training, transit of funds) and targets undertaken in support of terrorism in Canada (Table 2).

The event databases include as much information as was publicly available.

ACADEMIC SOURCES

Attributes of Terrorism in Canada (ATIC IV; 1960-1995)

(Ross 1994)

An earlier version of a database created by scholar, Jeffrey Ian Ross (i.e., ATIC I and II), provided a main source of data for the development of the Kellet database. At that time, the version of ATIC database supplied to Kellet included 399 incidents occurring in Canada between 1960 and 1985. Ross' work filled a valuable gap given the paucity of data that was publicly available at the time on domestic terrorism. However, there were drawbacks that Kellet, Beanlands et al. (1991) sought to rectify involving gaps, the double-counting of events or events being included that Kellet did not view as terrorism or specifically, "extra-normal political violence" (e.g. criminal theft, protest, vandalism).

Table 3: Definition of Terrorism Used for Purposes of Constructing the Attributes of Terrorism in Canada Database[†]

These different parts form the definition of terrorism that is used:

- Terrorism is a method of combat in which random or symbolic victims are targets of violence
- Through previous use of violence or the credible threat of violence, other members of that group or class are put in a state of chronic fear.
- The victimization of the target is considered extra-normal by most observers, which creates an audience beyond the target.
- The purpose of terrorism is either to immobilize the target of terror in order to produce disorientation and/or compliance, or to immobilize secondary targets of demands (for example, a government) or targets of attention, such as public opinion

Source: Ross (1994)

[†]The definition is derived from: Alex P. Schmid, *Political Terrorism: A Research Guide to Concepts, Theories, Data Bases and Literature* (New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction, 1988).

The international portion of the ATIC database was subsequently revised to account for methodological problems. While it still employed the same definition for terrorism that was previously relied upon (Table 3), Ross sought to address the issue of missing data, and each of the cases were reassessed for inclusion in the database in accordance with the definition. There were 147 cases that Ross (1994) refers to as having subsequently omitted from the ATIC IV for not meeting the inclusion criteria. Given that there were only 71 international cases in the original database, the number of omitted cases suggests that Ross also reassessed the domestic database; however, this is not clear. The ATIC IV is said to be a more rigorous database, and according to the author, the more stringent application of the inclusion criteria has made the database more rigorous than Kellet's 1988 chronology (Ross 1994). The inclusion criteria are not published, but Table 4 gives some indication of what these were by the identifying the reasons cases were omitted. Some confusion still exists, however. For example, the definition of terrorism refers to the "credible threat of violence", but threats were omitted (Table 4).

The revised ATIC IV has 58 international and 411 domestic terrorism events, as compared to the original, which contained 71 domestic and 415 international cases.

Table 4: Reasons Cases were omitted from ATIC IV

Value label:

- | | |
|--|--|
| ▪ Threat or Hoax | ▪ Evidence of training |
| ▪ Action took place outside Canada | ▪ Domestic and not international |
| ▪ Did not meet three source inclusion criteria | ▪ Target unclear |
| ▪ Arrest of terrorist/s | ▪ Extortion |
| ▪ Personal/psychological and not political motives | ▪ Evidence of terrorist/s in transit |
| ▪ Protest and not terrorism | ▪ State terrorism/intelligence operation |
| ▪ Non-activated conspiracy | ▪ Accidental detonation by terrorists |
| ▪ Insufficient details | ▪ Terrorists seeking asylum |
| ▪ Criminal and not political motives | ▪ Wrong date |

Source: Ross (1994)

Index of terrorist and political violence-related incidents in Canada, 1973-2007

Leman-Langlois and Brodeur (2005)

Drs. Stephane Leman-Langlois and the late Jean-Paul Brodeur, Centre international de criminologie comparée, Université du Montréal, constructed a qualitative database on terrorism in Canada, which spans 1973 to 2007. The 1973 to 1989 data is mostly drawn from Kellet, Beanlands et al. (1991). Since the researchers were primarily interested in the evolution towards a “new terrorism”, they sought to exclude acts committed before 1973, which they saw as primarily involving the *Front de libération du Québec* (FLQ) – a “paradigm case of conventional terrorism” (Leman-Langlois and Brodeur 2005). The authors also sought to rectify problems with the Kellet dataset, to expand its scope and content with data from 1990 to 2007. The researchers were also interested in a much broader definition of “terrorism in Canada”, although it’s not clear if an actual definition was used⁵. Essentially, any so-called “terrorist act” was included that has links to Canada. An American-hijacked airplane that has to refuel in Canada is cited as one possible example. Also included are support activities that occur in Canada even if a subsequent attack occurs elsewhere. Terrorism is also taken to include hoaxes, threats, individual attacks, and failed or foiled plots, all of which were excluded by Kellet et al., and support activities (Leman-Langlois and Brodeur 2005).

Table 5: Typology of Terrorist Fundamental Rationales

Justification of action	Scope of desired impact	
	Narrow	Wide
Forward-looking	Demand-based terror	Revolutionary terror
Backward-looking	“Private-justice” terror	“Restoration” terror

Source: Leman-Langlois and Brodeur (2005)

Since many databases contain what Leman-Langlois and Brodeur refer to as an artificially discrete list of historical events, the authors undertook to study “situations” or

⁵ The dataset and codebook were requested, but not yet received at the time of publication.

the manner in which events are linked together either through their perpetrators or consequences (e.g., a murder following a kidnapping is considered as a unit). Each *situation* was classified according to the “scope of the desired impact” and the “timeframe of the element that is held to have justified the act” (123)⁶. A typology was then created based on the intersection between these two variables. For instance, the researchers defined situations as “demand-based terror” and “revolutionary terror” if the justification was seen as being “forward-looking” and scope of the desired impact was seen as being either “narrow” or “broad”, respectively (Table 5). Demand-based terror is focused on ameliorating a situation, and is considered to be the most common type in Canada; whereas, Revolutionary terror involves the desire for more fundamental changes at the state level. By contrast, those situations that are motivated by a desire for retribution or punishment based on past wrongs (i.e., “backward-looking”), and have a narrow or wide scope, are categorized as “private-justice terror” and “restoration terror”, accordingly. The former involves individual claims of past victimization; whereas, the latter stems from a desire to remedy or recreate an historical situation.

Global Terrorism Database (Canadian Data)

The Global Terrorism Database (GTD) was established in 2001 when researchers at the University of Maryland obtained a large, open-source dataset from the Pinkerton Global Intelligence Service (PGIS). The PGIS dataset – later referred to as the GTD1 – contained data from 1970 to 1997 on global events based on a definition of terrorism:

"the threatened or actual use of illegal force and violence by a non-state actor to attain a political, economic, religious, or social goal through fear, coercion, or intimidation."(National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (START) 2012).

A second data collection phase was undertaken (GTD2 1998-2007), in which the above definition was dropped. In order for events to be included in the new database, three attributes had to be present, along with two out of three additional criteria (see Table 6).

One reason cited for the change was to permit users the flexibility of extracting data in accordance with different interpretations of what constitutes a terrorist act. The first two criteria are mostly consistent with the PGIS definition. The first criterion involves the motive (i.e., a political, economic, religious or social goal), and the second involves the aim (i.e., intention to coerce, intimidate or publicize to a larger audience than the immediate victims). According to the third criterion, the act must fall outside the

⁶ This approach is similar to the one used by Statistics Canada for their UCR survey. The survey refers to “incidents”, as compared to “situations”, and the number of incidents is based on the type of violation and consistency surrounding the elements of the crime. “[V]iolations can be tied together because they either happened in a sequential manner, they repeat over time, or they are all part of a larger case.” Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics (2010). Fundamentally different types of criminal violations are still coded as separate incidents (e.g., traffic and non-traffic violations). Actions that are interrelated can be coded as a single incident, such as the case when one action is the consequence of another (e.g., a person commits murder in a building then sets fire to the building in order to cover up the crime). Even criminal violations that occur over time are coded as a single incidents if enough elements of the crime are the same and if all of the actions come to the attention of police at the same time (e.g., a person breaks into a cottage several times over several weeks). Cases are still coded as separate incidents where a person robs a bank, for instance, then proceeds to break into a car.

parameters of international Humanitarian Law (IHL). This last criterion is a bit awkward, since the IHL specifically governs the acceptable conduct of *States* during times of war; whereas, the GTD does not include acts of state terrorism. This criterion is taken to refer to “extranormal” violence, such as the deliberate targeting of civilians or non-combatants

Table 6: Global Terrorism Database Inclusion Criteria

<p>All three of the following attributes must be present for an event to be included:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ The incident must be intentional – the result of a conscious calculation on the part of a perpetrator.▪ The incident must entail some level of violence or threat of violence -including property violence as well as violence against people.▪ The perpetrators of the incidents must be sub-national actors. This database does not include acts of state terrorism. <p>In addition, at least two of the following three criteria must be present:</p> <p>Criterion 1: The act must be aimed at attaining a political, economic, religious, or social goal. In terms of economic goals, the exclusive pursuit of profit does not satisfy this criterion. It must involve the pursuit of more profound, systemic economic change.</p> <p>Criterion 2: There must be evidence of an intention to coerce, intimidate, or convey some other message to a larger audience (or audiences) than the immediate victims. It is the act taken as a totality that is considered, irrespective if every individual involved in carrying out the act was aware of this intention. As long as any of the planners or decision-makers behind the attack intended to coerce, intimidate or publicize, the intentionality criterion is met.</p> <p>Criterion 3: The action must be outside the context of legitimate warfare activities. That is, the act must be outside the parameters permitted by international humanitarian law (particularly the prohibition against deliberately targeting civilians or non-combatants).</p>

Reproduced from: National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (START) (2012)

Taken together, the attributes and inclusion criteria for the GTD are remarkably broad. The database could almost be viewed as being an extremist crime, instead of terrorism database. If greater emphasis were lent to ideological motivation or goals, as opposed to political, economic, religious or social goals, then the structure of the database would be virtually indistinguishable from one that focuses more broadly on violent extremist crime.

It should be noted that hate crimes are viewed as terrorism in the GTD if they target a broader audience, and are coercive; that is, aimed at attaining a political, economic, religious or social goal. By contrast, acts of hate that are instrumental or merely retributive or personal are not viewed as terrorism, hence are excluded from the GTD.

The GTD also includes unsuccessful attacks. Though, unlike the provisions for terrorism in the Canadian Criminal Code , the GTD does not appear to include hoaxes.

While the GTD is an American database, it captures global terrorism events. As such, it includes a dataset on past events in Canada, of which there are 64. Variables are included on the location, perpetrator, target, fatalities, injuries, type of attack and

weapon. Unlike some other databases, a description of the events is missing, which means that users must take for granted that events are correctly coded. The database does appear to underrepresent Canadian events, however, given the significantly greater number of terrorism events that are included in the Kellet and RCMP databases.

OPEN SOURCE SEARCH ENGINES

All of the databases that are referred to in this report have exclusively relied upon open sources of information. Many sources of incident data exist for terrorism and extremism data (e.g., publicly available, searchable materials, such as books, newspaper articles, official records, such court records, and magazines). Kellet, Beanlands et al. (1991) compiled their chronology of events, in part, from Canadian criminal cases, Dominion Law Reports, and domestic and international newspaper and wire services. With the advent of the Internet, many more sources now exist. For instance, investigators with the U.S. Extremist Crime Database (ECDB) systematically search 26 web-engines to uncover information on extremist crimes, suspects, victims and groups, as shown in Table 7 (Chermak, Freilich et al. 2011). The ECDB rely on other sources as well, such as scholarly reports and journals that include relevant case studies, chronologies and information. They also obtain information on extremist activities from watch-dog groups (e.g., the Southern Poverty Law Centre, the Anti-Defamation League, the Militia Watchdog Organization, the Centre for Democratic Renewal, and Political Resource Associates). These organizations are present on the Internet and their members often circulate reports, newspaper clippings and other documents. The list in Table 7 should be taken as a guide, revised and augmented based on their relevance to Canadian domestic extremist crime. The extent to which there exist scholarly reports and journals and watch-dog groups reporting on Canadian extremist crime still needs to be explored.

Table 7: Search Engines Used for Uncovering Potential U.S. Extremist Crime Incidents

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Lexis-Nexis | 14. Surf Wax |
| 2. Proquest | 15. Dogpile |
| 3. Yahoo | 16. Mamma |
| 4. Google | 17. Librarians' Internet Index |
| 5. Copernic | 18. Scirus |
| 6. NewsLibrary | 19. All the Web |
| 7. Westlaw | 20. Google News |
| 8. Google Scholar (Articles & Legal Opinions) | 21. Google Blog |
| 9. Amazon | 22. Homeland Security Digital Library |
| 10. Google U.S. Government | 23. Vinelink |
| 11. Federation of American Scientists | 24. The inmate locator |
| 12. Google Video | 25. Individual State Department of Corrections |
| 13. Center for the Study of Intelligence | 26. Blackbookonline.info |

Source: Chermak, Freilich et al. (2011)

CANLii

One potentially very useful Canadian source for information is CanLii, which provides public access to court judgments from all jurisdictions (www.canlii.org).

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(NON-CONTROLLED GOODS)

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REVIEW: GCEC APRIL 2011