TERRORISM 101 – KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE “WHAT AND WHY” OF TERRORISM AS A STATE AND LOCAL LAW ENFORCEMENT COMPETENCY

by

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September 2008

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# Terrorism 101 - Knowledge about the "What and Why" of Terrorism as a State and Local Law Enforcement Competency

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## 1. Title and Subtitle
Terrorism 101 - Knowledge about the "What and Why" of Terrorism as a State and Local Law Enforcement Competency

## 2. Report Date
September 2008

## 3. Report Type and Dates Covered
Master's Thesis

## 4. Funding Numbers

## 5. Performing Organization Name(s) and Address(es)
Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, CA 93943-5000

## 6. Sponsoring/Monitoring Agency Name(s) and Address(es)
N/A

## 7. Abstract (maximum 200 words)
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The primary focus of this research is to assess the current state of terrorism training for state and local law enforcement officials. It looks at whether the subject of terrorism is a core professional competency for law enforcement officials in every state and, specifically, if state and local police are being exposed to knowledge about the causes and motivations associated with terrorism in order to better understand, and ultimately, prevent it. Surveys and interviews of state officials are conducted in order to gather data about the current state of terrorism related training throughout the nation. A qualitative analysis is conducted in order to further assess the content of select course content and identify potential training and educational gaps.

## 11. Supplementary Notes
The views expressed in this thesis are those of the author and do not reflect the official policy or position of the Department of Defense or the U.S. Government.

## 12. Distribution / Availability Statement
Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited

## 13. Subject Terms
State Law Enforcement, Local Law Enforcement, Certification, Terrorism Courses, Education, Peace Officers Standards and Training

## 15. Number of Pages
95

## 16. Price Code
UU

## 17. Security Classification of Report
Unclassified

## 18. Security Classification of this Page
Unclassified

## 19. Security Classification of Abstract
Unclassified

## 20. Limitation of Abstract
UU
TERRORISM 101 – KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE “WHAT AND WHY” OF TERRORISM AS A STATE AND LOCAL LAW ENFORCEMENT COMPETENCY

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN SECURITY STUDIES (HOMELAND SECURITY AND DEFENSE)

from the

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
September 2008

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ABSTRACT

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The primary focus of this research is to assess the current state of terrorism training for state and local law enforcement officials. It looks at whether the subject of terrorism is a core professional competency for law enforcement officials in every state and, specifically, if state and local police are being exposed to knowledge about the causes and motivations associated with terrorism in order to better understand, and ultimately, prevent it. Surveys and interviews of state officials are conducted in order to gather data about the current state of terrorism related training throughout the nation. A qualitative analysis is conducted in order to further assess the content of select course content and identify potential training and educational gaps.
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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to acknowledge and thank my family, especially my wife Becky for supporting me and “picking-up” the slack at home throughout the course of the program. I would also like to acknowledge and express my gratitude to my thesis advisors, Dr. Anders Strindberg and Dr. David Brannan. It was an honor and pleasure working with them; they understood how much I did not want to do “another fusion center thesis.” Finally, I am thankful for the new friendships established during the program; the relationships proved to be a valuable resource and made the experience even more enjoyable.
I. INTRODUCTION

A. BACKGROUND

As the images of the planes striking the World Trade Center and the towers’ eventual collapse were broadcast across the nation in the early morning hours of September 11, 2001, law enforcement agencies scrambled across the nation to protect against an uncertain threat. Obviously, the immediate threat was from the air; in fact, as an example, rumors circulated in California that planes were heading for unknown and potential targets in the state. The typical reaction in California that day was to throw as many sworn law enforcement personnel onto the streets as possible, extend work shifts, and cancel days off as a means to counter and prevent someone or some group from doing “something.”\(^1\) Initially for state and local law enforcement officials, there may have been questions about who attacked us and why they attacked. Terrorism was something not every law enforcement agency had experience dealing with or considered as a substantial threat. Were there going to be more attacks? If California law enforcement agencies, like other state and local police agencies across America, were expected to prevent further attacks, it would seem intuitive to seek answers to these questions.

Counterterrorism and homeland security is a relatively new concern and mission for most state and local law enforcement agencies throughout the United States. The 9/11 terrorist attacks were the genesis of this new dimension in state and local law enforcement. Three eras of policing are generally recognized in American law enforcement in the 19\(^{th}\) and 20\(^{th}\) centuries—the political, professional, and community oriented or problem solving eras.\(^2\) Each era was marked by some new overriding philosophy or technological advance that impacted the nature of and approach to

\(^1\) This information is based on the author’s personal account.

policing. In light of law enforcement’s new homeland security and counterterrorism roles in the period following the attacks, it can be said the attacks ushered-in a new era for American policing.³

The introduction to the New Jersey State Police’s Practical Guide to Intelligence-Led Policing relates that the alarming discovery that terrorists are capable of carrying out attacks from our own backyards thrust policing into a new era that requires police organizations to manage risk more effectively and efficiently.⁴ New Jersey State Police’s Intelligence-Led Policing initiative, which is intended “to prevent and disrupt crime and terrorism...by leveraging an intelligence apparatus that communicates clearly, shares information, and focuses resources,” is one example of a new approach and philosophy to policing implemented in the post 9/11 policing era.⁵ Almost seven years after 9/11, however, police agencies are still trying to define their homeland security role, while the federal government is still trying to integrate non-federal, public safety agencies into the national security apparatus.

A range of new programs, funding opportunities (e.g., federal homeland security grant programs), and directives have attempted to assist local and state law enforcement agencies assume homeland security related responsibilities during this new era. Some of these directives and programs have included training and education intended to build or enhance competencies required to effectively perform homeland security missions and, ultimately, prevent terrorism.

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B. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Are law enforcement officials being consistently exposed to or provided with information, training, or educational opportunities that address the causes, motivational, and organizational and operational dynamics of terrorism—information that could assist with prevention efforts? If the answer is no, then, in the absence of this type of information, strategies and efforts may fall prey to uninformed assumptions, biases, and personal opinions. Without terrorism related training and education, which includes information and theories about the causes and dynamics of terrorism, the officer on the street may not be as effective as he or she can be in detecting, deterring, or defending against acts of terrorism in the performance of their duties. Finally, without this training or educational background, the relationships and interactions with the communities law enforcement agencies serve may also be susceptible to biases, misinformation, and misunderstanding.

A void may exist for law enforcement personnel to learn about terrorists. In simple terms, while academia may have come some way in answering the questions about “what, who, and why” that arose on 9/11, it is important and urgent to ask whether these crucial answers are filtering through to the cadre of professionals that have been described as being “the people best positioned not only to observe criminal and other activity that might be the first sign of a terrorist plot but also to help thwart attacks before they happen.” Are law enforcement personnel acquiring the full scope of pertinent and actionable information on how individuals become terrorists, their motivations, and possible intent? This thesis intends to address the question about whether law enforcement in the United States has been closing this knowledge gap and what remains to be done. The following research questions are central to this thesis:

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• Are we training and educating state and local law enforcement personnel to prevent terrorism by adequately addressing the nature and causes of terrorism?
• To which learning domains, related to the causes and nature of terrorism, are law enforcement officers being exposed (e.g., psychology, sociology, religion)?
• What learning domains and resources should be considered to assist in filling existing knowledge gaps to enhance law enforcement personnel’s ability to discharge their duties in order to prevent terrorism?

C. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review includes the following areas: (1) material regarding pre-9/11 and new roles of local and state law enforcement agencies in counterterrorism efforts; (2) national strategies and guidance documents, along with statements of national and local homeland security and law enforcement leaders about state and local law enforcement counterterrorism responsibilities and the role training and education plays in enhancing law enforcement’s ability to prevent terrorism; and (3) theoretical and academically oriented material that addresses the nature and causes of terrorism.

1. The Role of State and Local Law Enforcement in Homeland Security and Counterterrorism Efforts

The law enforcement discipline is viewed by some authors and scholars as an important element in the so-called war on terrorism. For example, consider the following statement regarding the role of law enforcement in countering the terrorist threat:

More and more, the measure of success in the war on terrorism is defined as the ability of intelligence agencies and law enforcement organizations to prevent, preempt, and deter attacks.7

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There is a lack of data and historical literature regarding specific state and local law enforcement counterterrorism roles and activities prior to the 9/11 terrorist attacks.\(^8\) A majority of state and local law enforcement officials appear to have viewed the prevention of terrorism as the purview of the federal government.\(^9\)

In the years following the 9/11 attacks, state and local law enforcement agencies have assumed and undertaken new responsibilities and initiatives as part of their state’s homeland security efforts. For example, a study conducted by Eastern Kentucky University and the Council of State Governments found that state police agencies are much more involved today than before 9/11 in terrorism-related investigations and intelligence efforts, along with coordinating and planning for homeland security in their states.\(^10\)

The Federal Bureau of Investigation’s (FBI) Joint Terrorism Task Forces (JTTFs) have represented a prominent avenue and opportunity for state and local law enforcement agencies to become more involved with, and integrated into, national security and counterterrorism efforts. JTTFs, which are FBI led teams comprised of federal, state, and local law enforcement officials tasked with conducting investigations to prevent terrorist attacks, are located in 100 cities in the nation; there is at least one in each of the FBI’s 56 field offices.\(^11\) Sixty-five of the JTTFs were created after 9/11; 3,723 personnel are assigned to JTTFs, which is more than four times the pre-9/11 personnel totals.\(^12\) In addition to 2,196 FBI Special Agents, approximately 838 state and local law enforcement officials are assigned to JTTFs.\(^13\)

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\(^9\) Ibid., 11. The State of Oklahoma and New York City, which experienced terrorist attacks, are obvious exceptions.

\(^10\) Ibid., 24-25. State police and highway patrols surveyed reported an increase in homeland security related activities.


\(^12\) Ibid.

\(^13\) Ibid.
2. Recommendations in the Literature for Enhancing Law Enforcement’s Capabilities

Eastern Kentucky University and the Council of State Governments convened workgroups comprised of state, local, and federal officials to assess the results of their collaborative study and draft recommendations to improve state level terrorism prevention and response capabilities as well as provide direction for policy makers.\(^\text{14}\) One of the recommendations concerns the development of standardized training programs for state and local law enforcement personnel to improve terrorism prevention capabilities and establish a baseline for preparedness.\(^\text{15}\) However, no specific recommendations were made in the report regarding what types of training should be provided, what course content should be considered to create the baseline, nor what steps to take or how to proceed to develop training curricula.

In his thesis for the United States Army War College, *Strategies to Integrate America’s Local Police into Domestic Counterterrorism*, Colonel Blair Alexander discusses the challenge of integrating the nation’s local law enforcement agencies into the national effort to prevent catastrophic terrorist attacks.\(^\text{16}\) Similar to Eastern Kentucky University and the Council of State Governments’ recommendations, one of Colonel Alexander’s recommendations for better integrating local law enforcement agencies into national security efforts is to standardize training. Specifically, he recommends that counterterrorism training curriculum should be standardized for local agencies at both the recruit and in-service levels through the close coordination of key law enforcement training agencies such as the International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training (IADLEST); the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), State and Provincial Police Academy Directors Section; and individual state’s Police Commissions on Standards and Testing.\(^\text{17}\) Further, Blair states the training

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\(^\text{15}\) Ibid., 44.
\(^\text{16}\) Blair C. Alexander, *Strategies to Integrate America’s Local Police Agencies into Domestic Counterterrorism* (Carlisle Barracks, PA: U.S. Army War College, 2005), iii.
\(^\text{17}\) Ibid., 29-30.
curriculum must include objectives that directly contribute to a police officer’s ability to prevent terrorist acts, including such topics as an overview of current domestic and international terrorist groups, building blocks to terrorist attacks, pre-attack-indicators, and information/intelligence flow and related legal implications.\(^\text{18}\)

Prevention is paramount. This is a key principle espoused in the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) report, *From Hometown Security to Homeland Security*. This principle is based on IACP’s view that the prevention of terrorist attacks has to be the most important priority in any national, state, tribal, and local homeland security strategy.\(^\text{19}\) However, the vast majority of federal homeland security initiatives, including the National Incident Management System and National Response Framework, have focused on enhancing the national capabilities to respond to and recover from terrorist attacks, not preventing attacks.\(^\text{20}\)

A good point is made in the report about the dual responsibility of law enforcement officials and their needs, as opposed to other public safety disciplines. Law enforcement officials are “first responders” as they are often first to arrive at the scene of a crime or vehicle collision; in the event of a terrorist attack, law enforcement personnel are likely to be part of the first contingent on scene in the aftermath.\(^\text{21}\) However, law enforcement’s primary responsibility is to prevent an attack or event before it even occurs.\(^\text{22}\) Given these two responsibilities, with the priority being prevention, law enforcement’s need to enhance capabilities to respond and recover from attacks should be secondary to building the capacity to prevent attacks.\(^\text{23}\) The attention being given to

\(^{18}\) Alexander, *Strategies to Integrate America’s Local Police Agencies into Domestic Counterterrorism*, 30.


\(^{20}\) Ibid.

\(^{21}\) Ibid., 4.

\(^{22}\) Ibid.

\(^{23}\) Ibid.
national response and recovery efforts does not reflect this priority, and therefore, at least according to IACP, “we have failed to focus on the importance of building our capacity to prevent a terrorist attack in the first place.”

Jonathan White, in his book *Terrorism and Homeland Security*, relates that state and local police agencies need to expand their traditional law enforcement roles in order to engage in homeland security efforts. Modern terrorism is described as an abstract and nebulous concept, which fluctuates in accordance with historical and political circumstances; to combat it, abstract reasoning skills, knowledge of international politics and history and specialized expertise about specific regions are needed. However, White relates that state and local police officers are not rewarded for thinking in terms of international issues or national security and chiefs and sheriffs do not usually praise abstract reasoning. Further, American law enforcement relishes pragmatic information with immediate application on the beat; state and local police officers frequently exhibit no concern for in-depth background information; the type of information needed to understand intelligence.

### 3. Federal Guidance

#### a. National Strategies and Presidential Directives

Homeland Security Presidential Directive (HSPD) 8, Directive on National Preparedness and the National Strategy for Homeland Security addresses training as a component of homeland security and national preparedness. HSPD 8 calls for the establishment of a comprehensive training program for the nation’s first responders, officials, and others that have preparedness, prevention, response, and

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26 Ibid., 446.

27 Ibid.

28 Ibid.
recovery roles. The directive does not articulate or discuss what forms and types of training or knowledge base should be provided. However, the intent of the document at the time of its issuance was likely to serve as a vision and provide overall objectives, not specific details. It is assumed that the details were left to be spelled out elsewhere, for example in other initiatives, programs, guidelines, and so forth that when articulated, support these general objectives.

The National Strategy for Homeland Security, which is intended to guide, organize, and unify the nation’s homeland security efforts, identifies the following four goals:

- Prevent and disrupt attacks;
- Protect the American people, our critical infrastructure, and key resources;
- Respond to and recover from incidents that do occur; and
- Continue to strengthen the foundation to ensure our long-term success.

Prevention is arguably the most important of the goals. As related in the paper “Prevention: First Category of the Cycle of Preparedness” by William V. Pelfrey, if the strategic objective of preventing terrorist attacks is accomplished, the others are irrelevant.

The National Strategy articulates tangible objectives for preventing terrorism. For example, it calls for denying terrorists and potential weapons of mass destruction entry into the United States through border security and interior enforcement efforts. It also recognizes the existence of an “ideological front” for preventing terrorism.

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31 William V. Pelfrey, Prevention: First Category of the Cycle of Preparedness (2004), 1. This paper was provided to me by the author of it, Dr. William Pelfrey. At the time of its writing, the article addressed the strategic objectives contained in the initial version of the National Strategy for Homeland Security dated in 2002. The objectives, at that time, were (1) Prevent terrorist attacks within the United States, (2) Reduce America’s vulnerability to terrorism, and (3) Minimize the damage and recover from attacks that may occur.

terrorism. The *Strategy* addresses the importance of ideology, along with the causes, motivational processes, and so forth inherent in the use of terrorism as both a strategy and tactic and how “this all” needs to be considered within prevention initiatives.

According to the *Strategy*, the United States faces a complex and dynamic threat from terrorism; this threat is described as being persistent and evolving—primarily composed of violent Islamic terrorist groups and cells. The *Strategy* declares the United States is not immune to the emergence of “homegrown radicalization” and violent Islamic extremism within our borders. In spite of American ideals such as freedom and equal opportunity, so-called drivers of radicalization still persist.

An objective for preventing and disrupting terrorist attacks in the United States is entitled, “Prevent Violent Islamic Extremist Radicalization in the United States.” Three catalysts for Islamic extremist radicalization in Muslim communities identified in the strategy include:

- Feelings or perceptions of social discrimination that generate a sense of alienation from society and distrust of the government;
- Perceptions of political and economic inequalities; and
- Dissatisfaction with foreign and domestic United States policies viewed as hostile to Muslims.

Following is language and recommendations contained in the strategy for preventing radicalization:

*Identify and counter the sources of radicalization.* The purveyors of violent extremism rely upon access to targeted communities to inculcate and spread their ideology. Law enforcement officials, therefore, must continue to identify and address sources of violent extremist radicalization in the homeland.

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34 Ibid.
35 Ibid.
36 Ibid., 22.
37 Ibid., 22-23.
Enhance federal, state, local, and tribal government capabilities to address radicalization. All levels of our government must strengthen institutions and human resources in a way that increases our ability to prevent violent Islamic extremism within our borders, identify when it is occurring, and spot new trends and developments in the radicalization process. To that end, we will continue to educate and train law enforcement and other U.S. Government personnel on Islamic and community norms…\textsuperscript{38}

Continue to advance our understanding of radicalization. As we achieve success in preventing homegrown violent Islamic extremism, we should expect our adaptive enemies to create new methods for spreading their ideology of hate and murder. In order to identify and preempt new trends and developments, we will continue to advance our knowledge and understanding of radicalization by supporting relevant public and private research, including with regard to the vulnerabilities or susceptibility of individuals to violent Islamic extremism.\textsuperscript{39}

Although these elements are presented in the context of Islamic extremist ideology, the strategy relates that other faiths, communities, and beliefs can give rise to terrorism and violent extremism.\textsuperscript{40} Domestic terrorists and extremist groups, including white supremacists, animal rights extremists, and eco-terrorist groups are briefly mentioned as examples of some others.\textsuperscript{41} The strategy’s content, therefore, can supposedly be “tailored to address a variety of domestic communities and groups whose members may be susceptible to radicalization.”\textsuperscript{42} Arguably, however, the focus of the strategy is still on the threat of Islamic terrorism.

4. Federal Counterterrorism Officials and Other Documents

In addition to the \textit{National Strategy for Homeland Security}, federal counterterrorism officials and other documents and strategies address the role that ideology, beliefs, and motivation play in understanding and preventing terrorism. For

\textsuperscript{39} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{40} Ibid., 22.
\textsuperscript{41} Ibid., 10.
\textsuperscript{42} Ibid., 22.
example, during his confirmation hearings for the position of the Director of the National Counterterrorism Center, Vice Admiral John Redd testified before the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence that the United States’ counterterrorism strategy should be “grounded” in an understanding of the political, cultural, and social forces that turn teenagers into indiscriminate assassins.43

Even from the Department of Defense and military perspective, ideology is an element in the so-called “War on Terrorism.” According to the 2006 National Military Strategic Plan for the War on Terrorism, “extremist ideology motivates violent action and inspires individuals to provide material resources.”44 The strategy further defines ideology as a critical component of extremist networks and movements that sustains all other capabilities.45 Although the strategic plan states, “All instruments of national power play a role in undermining ideological support and propaganda operations” that perpetuate the justification and use of terrorism, it acknowledges that the primary responsibility for confronting terrorists’ ideology rests outside of the Department of Defense.46 However, the plan offers some suggestions for the United States’ ideological campaign against terrorism, including being aware of and showing respect for all religions, cultures, customs, and philosophies of populations of concern and de-legitimizing extremist ideological leaders and providing alternatives to extremist educational systems.47

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46 Ibid.

47 Ibid., 18-19.
5. The State of California

a. Legislation

In September 2002, California Senate Bill (SB) 1350, authored by California State Senator George McPherson, was enacted into law establishing the Responders Emergency Act to Combat Terrorism (or REACT). The declaration of intent for the Act states:

In light of recent events, California is among the best prepared states in the United States with regard to potential acts of terrorism. However, additional training is appropriate and necessary to ensure that all potential first responders to a terrorist event and a terrorist attack will be prepared.48

The Act’s intended audience was the state’s first responder community, including law enforcement, firefighters, and emergency medical responders (e.g., paramedics and emergency medical technicians). The Act further states:

The best way to fight terrorism and the damage caused by those acts is to prevent it, while also ensuring that local emergency response personnel, also known as first responders, who are often the first persons dispatched during emergency situations, are appropriately trained to deal with the unique aspects of terrorist acts and are able to uphold the highest standards of public safety.49

The most poignant part of the above paragraph is the first few words, “The best way to fight terrorism and the damage caused by those acts is to prevent it….“ Those words clearly highlight that, in this author’s view, “prevention” is the most important means to confront and prevent terrorism. Training and education—the focus of the legislation—is an important piece of a continuum for enhancing the State of California’s terrorism prevention efforts.

49 Ibid.
As part of the Act, Section 8588.10 of the Government Code (GC) and Section 13519.12 of the Penal Code (PC), both of which pertain to terrorism related training, were enacted into state law. Section 8588.10 GC established the Emergency Response Training Advisory Committee (ERTAC) whose purpose is to “recommend criteria for terrorism awareness curricula to meet the training needs of state and local response personnel and volunteers.” The GC section calls for the creation of basic terrorism awareness courses for the first responder disciplines and defines standard criteria for inclusion in those basic courses. Those standard requirements include the following objectives and/or knowledge areas:

- An overview of conventional, chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear threats.
- Threat and hazard recognition, with an emphasis on ability to determine local vulnerabilities.
- Understanding the structure and function of an incident command system.
- Initial response actions, including preliminary assessment, notifications, resource needs, and safety considerations.
- Coordination with other emergency service first responders.
- Gathering, verifying, assessing, and communicating incident information.
- Understanding mass casualty implications and decontamination requirements.
- Balancing life saving activities with evidence preservation.
- General awareness and additional training for each of the first responder categories specific to each discipline.

The target audience for Section 13519.12 PC is the 66,000 state and local sworn and reserve law enforcement officials in California. The section directed the California Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training (POST) to create training standards for a course that is consistent with the curriculum recommended by

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51 California State Senate, Senate Bill 1350.

52 Ibid.
ERTAC and the required objectives listed in Section 8588.10 GC. Additionally, the PC section contained guidance and language that builds on the GC criterion for first responder disciplines to receive “general awareness and additional training” specific to the given discipline. The additional guidance states:

The training shall be developed in consultation with the Department of Justice and other individuals knowledgeable about terrorism and address current theory, terminology, historical issues and procedures necessary to appropriately respond to and effectively mitigate the effects of a terrorist incident.

The section also mandated the heads of California law enforcement agencies to identify personnel within their respective agencies—peace officers that perform general law enforcement duties at the managerial, supervisory, and line officer level that have patrol or field-related responsibilities—and ensure they receive the training course. Initially, the course that was developed to satisfy the GC and PC directives was known as Law Enforcement Response to Terrorism, or LERT. Today, the content of the LERT course has been added into an existing Incident Command System and California Standardized Emergency Management System course that is part of the basic law enforcement officer certification curriculum in the state.

b. Local Law Enforcement Officials

The belief that law enforcement officials should be knowledgeable about causes and the ideological underpinnings of terrorism is not limited to doctrine and strategy from the federal government, nor is it the sole purview of legislative intent. Top local law enforcement officials and leaders also recognize the importance for police officers to learn about the causes and nature of terrorism. For example, speaking before the United States House of Representatives, Committee on Homeland Security, Chief

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54 California State Senate, Senate Bill 1350.
55 Ibid.
56 The resulting course is part of the basic peace officer certification curriculum in the state. The content of the course is reviewed as part of an assessment conducted in Chapter III of this thesis.
William Bratton of the Los Angeles Police Department related the story about what seemingly was a string of robberies and attempted robberies of gas stations in the Southern California area in 2005.

During the robbery investigation, one of the suspect’s apartments was searched and, in addition to evidence related to the crimes, a detective noticed what appeared to be jihad-related literature. According to Chief Bratton, some of the material could have appeared to be political and philosophical ramblings to some law enforcement officials looking for evidence to merely tie the suspect to the crimes. However, the detective had received “formalized terrorism training” as part of the Terrorism Liaison Officer program. The background and training was credited for leading the detective to believe the jihad-related material, in conjunction with addresses of potential “targets,” could be related to terrorist activities.

The information was turned over to the Los Angeles Joint Terrorism Task Force where an investigation was launched that eventually revealed a terrorist conspiracy. Agents and investigators determined that the suspects were tied to a California prison group known as Jamiyyat Ul Islam Is Saheeh (JIS), or Assembly of Authentic Islam, which was founded in the late 1990s by Kevin Lamar James. James, a Los Angeles gang member serving time for robbery, directed his followers “to target for violent attack any enemies of Islam or infidels, including the United States government and Jewish and non-Jewish supporters of Israel.”

58 Ibid., 3.
59 Ibid.
60 Ibid.
61 Ibid.
62 Ibid.
The JIS affiliated suspects had already conducted surveillance of military recruiting stations, the Israeli consulate, El-Al airlines, and synagogues. According to the indictment against the suspects, the group had gone as far as to select specific times to attack in order to “maximize the number of casualties.”

Chief Bratton used this incident to illustrate that homegrown radicalization is a threat to the homeland and “formal education in the subject matter of terrorist tradecraft,” coupled with intelligence and investigative techniques, could be used to successfully prevent terrorism. This opinion can be interpreted to suggest the need exists to educate local law enforcement about counterterrorism techniques and investigations. This opinion is also consistent with the objectives contained in the *National Strategy for Homeland Security* regarding ideology and radicalization and the need for law enforcement agencies to build the capacity to deal with both.

6. **Schools of Thought**” Regarding Terrorism

Some of the previous documents reviewed reflect the recognition that training and education are important for improving law enforcement’s ability to prevent terrorism as part of their homeland security and counterterrorism responsibilities. Other reviewed documents point to specific competencies that law enforcement officials need to carry out these duties. Consider the role envisioned in the *National Strategy for Homeland Security* for law enforcement in confronting and dealing with the effects of “ideology” in terms of emerging and existing terrorist threats. Law enforcement officials are called on to build competencies and awareness related to cultures and an understanding of the potential influence of ideologies on behaviors in order to be able to identify “radicalization” trends within communities and ultimately interdict the radicalization process before it escalates to violence. This is an example of a distinct need that exists to

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64 Ibid.

65 Ibid., 5.

66 Ibid.
equip law enforcement officials with a level and depth of education about the ideological nexus to terrorism to allow them to effectively identify and respond to it. Where is there information to assist in building these types of competencies to empower law enforcement personnel to tackle such issues? There is a wealth of academic knowledge, and even existing reports completed by public safety agencies, that can contribute to answering this question. Following are examples of research that should be considered. The areas discussed include religious terrorism, political terrorism, psychological attributions of terrorism, and radicalization.

a. Religious Terrorism

According to Bruce Hoffman, “the religious imperative for terrorism is the most important defining characteristic of terrorist activity today.” Hoffman defines religious terrorism as terrorism “having aims and motivations reflecting a predominant religious character or influence.” The religious nexus to terrorism is not new. Historically, some of the first acts defined as terrorism—occurring over 2,000 years ago—were attributed to religious fanatics. Like Hoffman, others have recognized the important role that religious ideology plays in inspiring terrorists today (as opposed to terrorism being viewed as purely an instrument or means in furtherance of political objectives). More than one essay or work reviewed expressed the view that the number of terrorist acts associated with religious beliefs and the degree of violence attributed to religious imperatives has increased within recent history. Although researchers have discussed this aspect of modern terrorism, some, including David Rapoport, feel that there is still a lack of work to distinguish the characteristics of what he refers to as “holy terror” from political and secular terrorism.

67 Hoffman, Inside Terrorism, 82.
68 Ibid., 85.
69 Ibid., 83.
However, Hoffman does offer some characteristics specific to religiously motivated terrorism. For example, he explains religiously motivated terrorist acts can be understood as being transcendental in nature. That is, for the religious terrorist, violence is a “sacramental act or divine duty” conducted in accordance with, or compelled by, some theological imperative. Violence is acceptable and justified by the practitioner since it can be rationalized as part of “doing” one’s divine duty. Both Hoffman and Brian Michael Jenkins agree that the proliferation of suicide attacks can be attributed to the influence of religion; especially Islamic terrorism, which has been associated with this tactic. Although Islamic terrorism has garnered recent attention due to its ties with suicide attacks and the continued threat of Al Qaeda, acts of terrorism have been carried-out by other religious groups, including religious cults.

The literature identifies similar characteristics that exist across belief systems for religiously motivated terrorism, whether it is Islamic, Christian, or Jewish faiths. For example, Hoffman states that similar characteristics exist between Islamic and Jewish terrorists. Some of these characteristics that he identifies include the legitimization of violence through religious precepts, a sense of group alienation (i.e., disenfranchisement from the government and political process, society, a community), the activists serve as the constituents within the terrorist movement, and a preoccupation with the elimination of a “category of enemies.”

b. Political Terrorism

The use of violence, coercion, and the fear of violence to achieve political objectives represents another facet of terrorism. In her essay, “The Logic of Terrorism: Terrorist Behavior as a Product of Strategic Choice,” Martha Crenshaw suggests that, for those with radical or extreme political agendas and interests, terrorism is considered as a reasonable means for pursuing those interests; it becomes one of “many alternatives for radical organizations” to choose; it is a legitimate alternative for these groups to exercise

72 Hoffman, Inside Terrorism, 88.
73 Ibid., 131; Jenkins, Terrorism: What’s Coming, 5.
74 Hoffman, Inside Terrorism, 97.
in order to affect political change.\textsuperscript{75} Terrorism becomes a matter of strategic calculations and reasoning—cost versus benefits in some cases—about whether resorting to violence will achieve hoped for results.\textsuperscript{76} Hoffman describes the interrelationship between politics and terrorist violence as follows:

Terrorism is where politics and violence intersect in the hope of delivering power. All terrorism involves the quest for power: power to dominate and coerce, to intimidate and control, and ultimately to effect fundamental political change.\textsuperscript{77}

Given the options of resorting to violence or engaging in some political process, terrorists often determine that violence or the threat of violence is the only or most expedient way to achieve their political goals. In this way, Hoffman, similar to Crenshaw, believes that terrorism becomes a deliberate and planned application of violence.\textsuperscript{78} In other words, terrorism, for political gain, is the result of a strategic choice. Terrorism that primarily has political objectives—even more so than religious terrorism—needs to “shock, impress, and intimidate” to capture the attention of the media, the public, and, ultimately, the government in order to compel change.\textsuperscript{79}

c. Psychological Attributions of Terrorism

More research on terrorism within psychology has been published since 2001 than all previous years combined.\textsuperscript{80} So, does the consensus of this research support the idea that underlying psychological or clinical problems explain or result in terrorism? No, this does not always appear to be the case. Terrorists do not necessarily exhibit higher rates of clinical psychopathology or personality disorders when compared to the


\textsuperscript{76} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{77} Hoffman, \textit{Inside Terrorism}, 254.

\textsuperscript{78} Ibid., 255.

\textsuperscript{79} Ibid.

general public.\textsuperscript{81} Jerrold Post, in “Terrorist Psycho-logic: Terrorist Behavior as a product of Psychological Forces,” states that his comparative research on the psychology of terrorists does not reveal the existence of major psycho-pathology in individuals.\textsuperscript{82} However, Post disagrees with the views of Crenshaw, and probably with Hoffman for that matter, that those whom resort to terrorism do so willfully and that terrorism is one of many “political” alternatives.\textsuperscript{83} Post suggests that individuals are drawn to terrorism specifically in order to commit violent acts and this attraction is fueled by psychological forces.\textsuperscript{84} Further, some traits are more common in terrorists than the general public, including being action-oriented, aggressive, and inclined to seek excitement.\textsuperscript{85}

According to James Breckenridge and Philip Zimbardo, research and comprehensive reviews of both classified and unclassified data about the psychological attributes of “known terrorists consistently conclude that the distribution of psychopathology among terrorist groups is similar to that of other groups.”\textsuperscript{86} The idea terrorism is a product of the individual, “evil doer” and their internal motivations and drives suffers from the fundamental attribution error, which is the tendency to explain behavior via internal, dispositional causes as opposed to considering situational factors.\textsuperscript{87}

7. Radicalization

Although the concept of radicalization is not necessarily a cause or motivational factor in-and-of-itself associated with a specific type of terrorism, it bears attention for law enforcement. It does so because of the notion a process or path exists that leads one

\textsuperscript{81} Plaus and Zimbardo, “How Social Science can Reduce Terrorism,” B9.
\textsuperscript{83} Ibid., 25.
\textsuperscript{84} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{85} Ibid., 27.
\textsuperscript{87} Ibid.
to terrorism and, if true, then steps could be taken to disrupt, interdict, or counter this process. However, again, this requires an exposure to or understanding of the concept, process, etc.

In his essay, “Terrorism in Democracies: Its Social and Political Bases,” Ted Robert Gurr puts a political spin on radicalization. He describes radicalization as “a process in which the group has been mobilized in pursuit of a social or political objective but has failed to make enough progress toward the objective to satisfy all activists.”

Hoffman, on the other hand, discusses radicalization in terms of religious traditions becoming radicalized.89

Understanding radicalization was an important enough pursuit for one law enforcement agency—the New York Police Department (NYPD)—that they completed a case study regarding radicalization in the West. The study/report is intended to look at the “point where” terrorists begin and progress through a process (i.e., radicalization) that culminates in a terrorist attack. At the time, the report was one of the first studies created by a law enforcement agency in the United States looking at radicalization through case studies. The NYPD report was, therefore, significant because of this precedent.

In late 2007, the Texas Department of Public Safety, Bureau of Information Analysis, released a law enforcement sensitive report, Jihad in America: Homegrown Cells, American Jihadists, Lone Wolves, and Sudden Jihad Syndrome, which describes and gives examples of “homegrown terrorism.” The report discusses the threat posed by individuals or groups that sympathize with the ideology and goals of the global jihadist movement, but do not receive material support, training, or directions from a recognized

89 Hoffman, Inside Terrorism, 127.
terrorist organization.\textsuperscript{91} These entities are not international since they do not originate outside our borders and do not have direct ties to international jihadist organizations such as Al Qaeda; they are also not purely domestic either because their ideology transcends borders and mirror the ideology of international organizations.\textsuperscript{92} Although formal connections and affiliations do not exist, that does not mean groups such as the Fort Dix Six and the Virginia Paintball Jihad Group are merely “wannabes” that should not be taken seriously.\textsuperscript{93}

In addition to extremist groups, the report points to the danger of individuals acting alone—“lone wolves.” Since lone actors are often harder to detect, they are in some ways more dangerous than groups since they can keep their thoughts and intentions to themselves.\textsuperscript{94} Therefore, the possibilities and opportunities for detecting plots via multiple suspects, leaks from group members, and infiltration into and detection of networks simply do not exist or are significantly diminished. A pro-jihad website published a “Guide for Individual Jihad” in 2006 that promoted and supported the ideal of “the lone jihadist” by providing information for fighting alone.\textsuperscript{95}

The notion of sudden jihad mentioned in the report is attributed to Daniel Pipes who has used the term to describe the incidence of seemingly normal-adjusted Muslims whose religion suddenly inspires and compels them to unleash dormant jihadist beliefs so they “suddenly” turn towards violence against non-Muslims.\textsuperscript{96} Looking at an article by

\textsuperscript{91} Jeremy LeCrone, \textit{Jihad in America: Homegrown Cells, American Jihadists, Lone Wolves, and Sudden Jihad Syndrome} (Austin, TX: Texas Department of Public Safety, 2007), 1. The report, in its entirety, is labeled as “Law Enforcement Sensitive.”

\textsuperscript{92} Ibid., 2.

\textsuperscript{93} Ibid. The Fort Dix Six incident involved two U.S. citizens and three illegal immigrants that were arrested for plotting terrorist attacks against U.S. military facilities, including Fort Dix in New Jersey. The Virginia Paintball Jihad Group consisted of two former U.S. Marines and a former U.S. Army member that were convicted of “providing material support to the terrorist group Lashkar-e-Tayyiba.” The group is the armed wing of a Pakistani-based, Sunni religious organization formed in 1989 (from GlobalSecurity.org, \url{http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/world/para/lt.htm}) (accessed August 4, 2008).

\textsuperscript{94} Ibid., 2.

\textsuperscript{95} Ibid.

Pipe regarding Sudden Jihad Syndrome, a problem the author finds is there are no discussions or analysis of what contributes to this so-called syndrome. There are, however, examples in the article of individuals identified as Muslims using violence. Without further clarification and analysis, this could lead readers to assume violence is inherent within Islam and the Muslim community and, without mitigating information, lead some to believe that all Muslims are suspect.

It is difficult to believe that the phenomenon is spontaneous as suggested. If so, this would prove problematic for law enforcement prevention efforts. However, examples like the 9/11 hijackers call into question how the phenomenon could be sudden and spontaneous when the plots, indoctrination into a radical form of Islam, etc., played out over several years.97

Whether it is a group or individual, and regardless of the terms or labels associated with what is essentially another way to look at radicalization, the significance is the same. Terrorism is not just an international threat; it represents a local concern for law enforcement. Therefore, law enforcement officials should remain vigilant of and maintain awareness of the threat as it presents itself locally.

8. Literature Review Summary and Analysis

Something becomes apparent to the author when looking at the literature. On the one hand, there are articulated needs for law enforcement personnel to receive education and training regarding terrorism. In some cases, this training is supposed to address the causes and motivations associated with terrorism, or as in Admiral Redd’s words, the “political, cultural, and social forces that turn teenagers into indiscriminate assassins.”98

On the other hand, there is the academic work about theories and research about the causes of terrorism. What seems to be missing from this reviewed work is how this

97 National Commission on Terrorist Attacks upon the United States. The 9/11 Commission report – Final report of the National Commission on Terrorist Attacks upon the United States. (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 2004), 153, 232. The Commission’s report relates that most of the Saudi hijackers developed ties extremists two to three years before the 9/11 attacks. Additionally, according to Khalid Sheikh Mohammed, he started to think about attacking the United States following the 1993 World Trade Center bombing.

98 John Scott Redd, Statement made before the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence.
type of information can be “operationalized” or used by law enforcement to prevent terrorism. In other words, most of the work seems to recognize that “theory” needs to be put into “practice.” Outside of the National Strategy for Homeland Security’s recommendations about the topic of radicalization, what is lacking is clear guidance for what law enforcement in the United States should know about terrorists as well as suggestions for how to bridge this gap and put this information into practice. Therefore, here are two disciplines or professions that both complement and need one another.

Throughout all of this, it is difficult to agree with Jonathan White’s comments about how state and local police officers are not usually recognized by their executives for abstract reasoning and that they do not exhibit concern for in-depth background information. If one considers New York Police Department’s practice of assigning officials overseas, the number of local and state agencies that provide personnel to JTTFs, the recent trend towards intelligence led policing strategies, and the beliefs expressed in the literature by national law enforcement and homeland security professionals, White’s assertions seem incorrect. He does not give enough credit to state and local law enforcement’s capacity to contribute to the nation’s homeland security efforts and the comments are not consistent with the view reflected in the National Strategy for Homeland Security about law enforcement’s role in combating terrorism domestically.

D. SIGNIFICANCE OF RESEARCH

1. The Literature

The following contributions will be made to the literature from this research:

- It will provide an overview of whether states require courses and learning as part of their peace officer accreditation and standards that address the subject of terrorism.

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99 According to the National Strategy for Homeland Security, Intelligence Led Policing, which is being adopted by several law enforcement agencies, is a management and resource allocation approach to law enforcement utilizing data collection and intelligence analysis to establish law enforcement priorities to address all crimes, including terrorism.
• It will identify if information that has primarily existed in academia about the causes and dynamics of terrorism is being provided to law enforcement practitioners.

2. Future Research Efforts

At some level, this research is an attempt to move theories closer to practice. A natural progression is to bridge the gaps between academic oriented information about terrorism, national counterterrorism strategies and efforts, and those that can put all of this information into practice—state and local law enforcement officials.

3. The Immediate Consumer

The immediate consumers of this research are state and local law enforcement agencies and officials.

4. HS Practitioners and Leaders Nationally

An assessment of law enforcement training certification and/or standards organizations across the nation will reveal whether counterterrorism courses, education, and training are part of a state’s peace officer certification curriculum. Further, the assessment will reveal if the courses address information about possible causes of terrorism. Therefore, the research could be of benefit to states’ training and educational needs and provide a baseline of what is being offered across the nation in terms of law enforcement terrorism related training.

E. METHODOLOGY

The methodology employed in this thesis includes surveys, qualitative analysis, and interviews.

1. Surveys and Interviews

States’ POST commissions, their equivalent, state law enforcement academies, and/or state police agencies were queried whether a terrorism or counterterrorism course is mandatory as part of the law enforcement officer certification curriculum in their
respective states and whether the instruction included information regarding more academic topics associated with terrorism—the causes and dynamics of terrorism (e.g., the social, political, religious, psychological theories about terrorism). Based on the responses, specific course curricula or outlines were provided. Additionally, the state representatives surveyed regarding course requirements were interviewed and provided additional information regarding the condition of law enforcement training in their states.

2. Qualitative Analysis

Terrorism related course outlines or syllabi obtained as the result of the survey were reviewed for specific content. Some of the course lesson plans and workbooks were reviewed and “coded” for information and themes related to terrorism and religion, political motivation, psychological attributions of terrorism, and radicalization.

F. CHAPTER OVERVIEW

Chapter II provides an overview of a state-by-state survey of POST commissions, training and standards certification bodies, state police, or state law enforcement academies to see if a terrorism related course and specific content is mandated as part of the law enforcement officer certification curriculum in each state. Information resulting from this survey and comments attributed to respondents is analyzed and discussed further. Continuing from the results of the survey, Chapter III provides a qualitative analysis of the content of some state’s courses. Finally, Chapter IV provides a summary of the research, recommendations, and areas for further study.
II. SURVEY OF STATES

A. OVERVIEW AND INTRODUCTION

Chapter I described a foundation of strategic, legislative, and individual directions and beliefs about the importance of training, education, and enhanced knowledge for the nation’s efforts to prevent terrorism. From individual theses, opinions, and experience of law enforcement and homeland security leaders to the *National Strategy for Homeland Security* and state legislation, there is general consensus that it is important for law enforcement officials to receive training and education regarding the causes and nature of terrorism. So, are law enforcement officers being exposed to knowledge and subject matters related to terrorism? And, if so, does the training content address more academic and abstract aspects of terrorism—types, motivations, potential causes, etc.?

In order to assess the state of terrorism related training for law enforcement officials across the nation, Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) commissions, law enforcement training certification bodies or the equivalent, or, in some instances, a state’s “central” peace officer training academy or state police were contacted and surveyed.¹⁰⁰ For most states, a POST type of commission or council is designated in legislation to approve standardized training requirements for the certification of state and local officials to enforce laws in their respective state. In the absence of such a body, the state’s training standards are typically deferred to a centralized academy or state police agency.

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¹⁰⁰ Three sources were used to ascertain representatives’ phone numbers or email addresses for the commissions, academies, or agencies. The sources included the 2007 *National Directory of Law Enforcement Administrators*, published by the National Public Safety Information Bureau; the International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training (IADLEST), POST-Net website (located at http://iadlest.org/) (accessed July 20, 2008); and a directory of law enforcement training and standards agencies. The directory was provided to the author by Mr. Boe Turner of Nevada’s POST via an email attachment.
Something that became apparent at the onset of the research is some state’s certification bodies or centralized academies only have domain over a state’s basic training curriculum, not agency specific or more advance training. Saying this, these entities represented the only source possible for a systematic study of national peace officers’ training programs, basic or otherwise.\textsuperscript{101}

\section*{B. STATE SURVEY}

The survey consisted of the following questions, which were asked over the phone or provided in the body of an email survey:\textsuperscript{102}

- Is counter-terrorism training or educational courses part of the law enforcement officer certification curriculum in your state (is it mandatory)?
- Do the courses address the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism?

Table 1 displays each individual state’s response. Column 1 identifies the state; Column 2 identifies the agency that was contacted within each state; Column 3 indicates whether counterterrorism training or educational courses are mandated as part of the state’s law enforcement officer certification curriculum (YES or NO); Column 4 reflects whether types of terrorist groups, political, sociological, religious aspects and causes of terrorism are discussed/addressed in the courses taught. It should be noted the answers were based on the respondent’s individual interpretation and evaluation of the question. Finally, Column 5 summarizes additional comments made by a state representative during the course of the interview/phone survey or information contained in the e-mail survey response.

\textsuperscript{101} For this thesis, the definition of basic peace officer training is training curriculum that is intended to prepare someone mentally, morally, and physically to assume the responsibilities and execute the duties of a peace officer in society. This definition is based on the Academy Training Mission statement contained in the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, Basic Course Workbook for Learning Domain 43 – Emergency Management.

\textsuperscript{102} The questions asked over the phone were the same as listed in the email survey. Attempts were made to find and use an email address of a state representative. However, in most cases, a general phone number was located and, when called, I asked to speak with someone about the state’s law enforcement officer training certification. Ten states responded to the email survey: Delaware, Florida, Maryland, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, Virginia, and Wyoming.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Mandated Course</th>
<th>Causes, Ideology, etc.</th>
<th>Comments</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>Alabama Police Officers Standards and Training &amp; North East Alabama Law Enforcement Academy</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>It is a 4 hour course, <em>Introduction to Terrorism</em>, which primarily addresses domestic terrorism. Terrorism related topics are also taught as part of in-service training. There is also a separate course, “Sets, Cults, &amp; Deviants” that is part of a 6 hour gang related block of instruction that addresses groups and movements such as Left and Right Wing groups.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>Alaska Police Standards</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>It is not part of the required basic curriculum and it has not been looked at; however, a terrorism course may be taught at local academies as part of their extended curriculum. “Standards” only mandates a small portion of law enforcement requirements in the state.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Subject may be part of continuing education or addressed in specific position training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>Arkansas Law Enforcement Training Academy</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>A terrorism course is not legislatively mandated, such as domestic violence. However, the commission recognized a need for a terrorism related course and implemented it as part of the basic curriculum. It is a 3 hour course and the content is from LSU and addresses LE, WMD, and terrorism. NIMS is an optional, elective course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>The mandated course consists of 2 hours terrorist tactics and organizations; 2 hours counterterrorism concepts; 2 hours threat and vulnerability assessment; 1.5 hours intelligence resources; .5 hours WMD response strategies and PPE; 3 hours ICS. The organization block includes information about terrorist groups (e.g., domestic and international terrorist groups) and their motivations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>Colorado Police Officers Standards and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>8 hour course that addresses WMD and intelligence data bases within the context of “general patrol procedures.”</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>Police Standards and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>8 hours WMD, 4 hours suicide bombers, 4 hours PPE, 8 hours hazmat, 8 hours criminal intelligence. The information regarding motivation, religion, etc., is contained in the suicide bombing piece.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>Delaware State Police</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>4 hours NIMS, 8 hours ICS, 4 hours WMD/all-hazards awareness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>Florida Department of Law Enforcement, Professionalism Program</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>State and local law enforcement officials are taught FEMA’s ICS courses and response to bomb threats.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Georgia Peace Officers Standards and Training Council</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>4 hour block that includes information about anti-American beliefs of domestic and Islamic terrorist groups, threat assessments in anti-terrorism intelligence, WMD and their effects, and ICS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>Honolulu Police Department (HPD)</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Hawaii does not have a statewide system for standardized peace officer training certification; each county is independent with regards to training standards. For HPD, terrorism related training is not included within the academy training, which is focused on patrol. Counterterrorism training is conducted every 2-3 years by HPD’s Homeland Security Division as in-service training; however, it is very limited when it comes to content involving causes of terrorism due to time allotment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idaho</td>
<td>Idaho Peace Officer Standards and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>A 4 hour block is included in the basic academy regarding terrorism awareness and touches on some of the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects of terrorism. Additionally, the Idaho Bureau of Homeland Security made arrangements with Idaho State University, Institute of Emergency Management, to provide ICS, NIMS, terrorism training to all first responders. Some of the reasons for putting the training into place are because of federal requirements related to homeland security grant funding.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>The course is part of the 400 hour basic curriculum. A 4 hour terrorism course does include information about types and causes of terrorism. Parts of what can be considered counterterrorism training are spread out over the course of the academy. For example, during vehicle stop training, there is information/training dealing with contacting foreign nationals. Outside of the basic curriculum, the state averages 30,000 training hours, in advance and in-service types of training, for terrorism related courses alone.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>Law Enforcement Training Board/Indiana State Police Training Division</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>A terrorism course is not required by the Indiana Law Enforcement Training Board. The Indiana State Police, however, put a terrorism related course into their Academy curriculum. The course consists of 8 hours NIMS, 4 hours domestic terrorism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>Iowa Law Enforcement Academy</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>The subject is not taught as part of mandated academy courses. However, opportunities exist to receive terrorism related training after academy graduation (for example advance training is provided by the Division of Criminal Investigations). Training in this area is being developed for “down-the-line.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>Kansas Law Enforcement Training Center</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Terrorism is not part of the basic certification. It could be part of required 40 hour continuing education each agency has to complete a year; but, besides racial profiling and fire arms, the specific training subjects are left to individual agencies to decide.</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>Kentucky Department of Criminal Justice Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>A 40 hour homeland security related course is taught; the hours are spread all throughout the basic curriculum. Some topics include NIMS, ICS, explosive threats, and agricultural threats. Some aspects of political, social, religious themes are included. Because of the state’s belief the topic is important, the course was taught to all police during in-service training to make sure all law enforcement received it. Additional in-service training courses are available regarding terrorism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>Louisiana Police Officers Standards and Training Council</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Terrorism related courses are not part of required certification curriculum. However, a certain amount of training, in-service elective units are required that most agencies fill with some terrorism related courses. A terrorism course may be required soon as the certification curriculum is under revision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maine</td>
<td>Maine Criminal Justice Academy</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>All full-time police officers go through the Criminal Justice Academy. As of now, there is not a terrorism awareness type of course that is mandated. A 4 hour HAZMAT and WMD course is taught. A terrorism course could be added in the future; it has been talked about. However, the academy would have to be expanded to accommodate the hours. Typically, a subject has to be taken out to put something in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>Maryland Police and Correctional Training Commissions</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>The Commission mandates training objectives for entrance level academies. There are 19 certified academies in the state and they are allowed to implement their own programs that comply with the objectives. All of the academies are provided the SLATT program curriculum developed by the Institute for Intergovernmental Research and an Office for Domestic Preparedness WMD training program curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>Municipal Police Training Committee</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>Recruit level training includes ICS 100, IS 700; 8 hours of incident response, including response to terrorist bombings; 8 hours SLATT training that provides an overview of</td>
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<td>State</td>
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<td>Mandated Course</td>
<td>Causes, Ideology, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Michigan</td>
<td>Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (MCOLES) and Michigan State Police (MSP)</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>terrorism, including an introduction to domestic and international terrorism. An advanced in-service training course is also offered that is performance based; it was developed by the lessons learned in the basic curriculum. A 4 hour segment of this course addresses prevention and response to suicide bombings and the second day includes practical scenarios.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>Board of Peace Officer Standards and Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Some local agencies have created their own courses for in-service training. The only mandated courses are related to use-of-force and emergency vehicle operations. Individual chiefs of law enforcement agencies can determine the specific training their personnel should receive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>Board of Law Enforcement Standards and Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>There is training regarding HAZMAT. ICS and NIMS are taught in some academies, but that is not part of the basic curriculum. However, approximately 80 hours of training will be added to the basic curriculum in about 6 months and half of that (40 hours) will probably be terrorism related. Although terrorism is currently not addressed in the basic course, “a lot” of agencies are sending officers to homeland security training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
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<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>Missouri Peace Officer Standards and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>The required course is, or based on, AWR 160, which is a WMD awareness and response related course. Additionally, FEMA’s ICS 100 and 700 are required. Some academics may have added terrorism related courses to the basic 600 hour curriculum; however, that is left to individual academies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montana</td>
<td>Montana Police Officers Standards and Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Terrorism related courses may be taught as an in-service subject. Outside of basic training courses, there are no other additional training requirements. However, terrorism related subjects may eventually be part of new, proposed curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebraska</td>
<td>Nebraska State Patrol</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>The 2 hour course is aimed at terrorism awareness. Terrorism related topics are not a required advance topic; some agencies may address it during in-service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>Section 289.140 of the Nevada Administrative Code requires a terrorism and WMD course be taught as part of the basic certification. Terrorist motivations, use and goals of terrorism, and various terrorist groups are discussed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hampshire</td>
<td>Police Standards and Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Cadets are offered a 2 week course after regular training; it is not mandatory. The majority of content is critical incident management, NIMS, and ICS related. However, starting in January 2009, segments of the course will become mandatory as part of the basic academy certification curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>New Jersey Division of Criminal Justice</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>A learning area, entitled Terrorism and the New Jersey law Enforcement Officer, includes an overview of terrorism, why it is used, and how it differs from typical criminal activity. Other learning domains address international and domestic terrorist threats, ICS, first responder hazardous materials awareness, and WMD awareness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>Department of Public Safety Training and Recruiting Division</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Domestic terrorism is touched-on briefly in a course entitled Special Problems, Gangs, and Domestic Terrorism. International terrorist threats are not addressed. There has</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

36
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Mandated Course</th>
<th>Causes, Ideology, etc.</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>New York Division of Criminal Justice Services</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>The 24 hour course, entitled Counter Terrorism Awareness, is part of the basic certification course for law enforcement officers. Course subjects include terrorism operations, explosives response, mission of police, and fraudulent documents. Some academies may add onto the course and there are also advance and in-service training courses that are conducted relative to terrorism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>North Carolina Criminal Justice Education and Training/North Carolina Justice Academy</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>4 hour course that touches on aspects of terrorism and ideology, types, and causes. Primarily, the course is geared towards awareness and indicators that could indicate possible terrorist activity. ICS is taught as part of a separate course. In 2006, all agencies received the terrorism course to cover all sworn personnel. Today, there are required, on-going training hours. A lot of agencies teach a terrorism course as part of these required hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Dakota</td>
<td>North Dakota Police Officers and Standards Training Board</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Training that addresses terrorism is offered as in-service, continuing education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>Ohio Peace Officer Training Commission</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>5 hours of terrorism awareness training is mandatory for peace officer basic training. The content includes discussions of different terrorist groups and their goals and various methods of spreading or perpetrating terrorism. There are also continuing professional training requirements that have to be met annually, but terrorism training has not been mandated as part of these requirements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Agency</td>
<td>Mandated Course</td>
<td>Causes, Ideology, etc.</td>
<td>Comments</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>Oklahoma Council on Law Enforcement Education and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>The course is a 5 hour mandatory course that includes topics about terrorism history and terrorist techniques.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oregon</td>
<td>Department of Public Safety Standards and Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Terrorism related subjects could be part of “maintenance” training that differs between agencies and determined by department heads.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>Pennsylvania Municipal Police Officers Education and Training Commission</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>There is a mandatory block of instruction related to terrorism and gangs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhode Island</td>
<td>State of Rhode Island, Municipal Police Academy</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>POST is an oversight body, but the academy provides all the training. The academy serves 45 agencies. A job study “drives” the content of the certification curriculum; there is an 8 hour block regarding terrorism that is part of the standard curriculum. The instruction addresses typology, including environmental terrorists, ideology, home grown terrorism, issues that occur in the North East; and there is also a historical organized crime piece. ICS is a separate block of instruction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>South Carolina Criminal Justice Academy</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>There is an 8 hour mandatory “basic” terrorism course. The content/curriculum is based on LSU’s WMD and Terrorism Threat and Risk Assessment course. Instructors receive the train-the-trainer course and, in-turn, provide the training to recruits. “It’s a good, all encompassing basic course.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Dakota</td>
<td>George S. Mickelson Criminal Justice Training Center</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>A job analysis was conducted; it was determined that terrorism related training should not be part of basic training. Terrorism training is offered at times as part of advance training and FLETC training may be used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Agency</td>
<td>Mandated Course</td>
<td>Causes, Ideology, etc.</td>
<td>Comments</td>
</tr>
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<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>Tennessee Law Enforcement Training Academy</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>There are different segments as part of a “Human Relations” block of instruction: 4 hours supremacy groups; 4 hours street gangs; 4 plus hours on terrorism; and HAZMAT/WMD.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Counterterrorism courses are not part of the basic peace officer certification curriculum. Training credit is given for in-service training that addresses the subject. However, it is still not a mandated subject for in-service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>Utah Department of Public Safety, Peace Officer Standards and Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Currently, the state is looking into what terrorism related curriculum would be beneficial to the basically trained officer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vermont</td>
<td>Vermont Criminal Justice Training Council</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>Two part course, consisting of 8 hours; FBI and ATF teach counterterrorism parts of the course. The course also provides information about what to do with information obtained by officers regarding possible terrorist activity. NIMS training is separate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services, Standards and Training Section</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>The course is a NIMS/ICS course and does not specifically address terrorism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>Criminal Justice Training Commission</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>A terrorism course could be part of an agency’s 24 hour, yearly in-service training requirement. However, the courses used to satisfy the needed hours differ between agencies because content for specific in-service training requirements is not stipulated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>West Virginia State Police Academy</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>Two different academy curricula are taught – 16 week basic academy for county and local police agencies and a 30 week basic academy for the state police. However, a terrorism course is part of both academies. The content includes WMD, domestic, and international terrorism. Of interest, the West Virginia State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Agency</td>
<td>Mandated Course</td>
<td>Causes, Ideology, etc.</td>
<td>Comments</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>Wisconsin Training and Standards Bureau</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Terrorism training is available through the Department of Military Affairs and may be a topic for an agency’s advance training. It was determined that with the NIMS/ICS requirements, the federal government is addressing the terrorism related topics; so, it is not required as part of the basic curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyoming</td>
<td>Wyoming Peace Officers Standards and Training</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>The course consists of 7 hours of lecture and 2 hours of a practical exercises. The course focuses on terrorist indicators. POST requires officers to receive advance training, after basic training, but does not specify what those courses have to be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: AWR – Awareness Level; CDP – Center for Domestic Preparedness; DOJ – Department of Justice; FLETC – Federal Law Enforcement Training Center; HAZMAT – Hazardous Materials; ICS – Incident Command System; LE – Law Enforcement; LSU – Louisiana State University; NIMS – National Incident Management System; POST – Peace Officers Standards and Training; PPE – Personal Protective Equipment; SLATT – State and Local Anti-Terrorism Training Program; WMD – Weapons of Mass Destruction

C. ANALYSIS

The most notable conclusion to be drawn from the survey is the fact terrorism related courses and training are not a required law enforcement certification standard or competency in every state; at least it is not part of the basic training curriculum in all 50 states—29 states mandate it while 21 do not. The difficult part of the survey, reflected in some responses, was determining whether the individual state’s course addresses the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism. It was not necessarily difficult to ask the question “verbatim;” it was, however, difficult to clarify and explain the intent of the question. In some instances, the author attempted to clarify the question—when it was asked verbally—by adding comments about whether the course addressed different terrorist groups or if terrorist motivation, such as religious motivation, was discussed in the course. Again, without looking at and assessing course
content, the answers were accepted from the respondent based on their individual interpretation of the question. The majority of state representatives indicated that, in their opinions, the mandated terrorism course taught as part of their state’s basic peace officer/law enforcement curriculum addressed or discussed, in some regards, the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism. Three states, Colorado, Missouri, and Virginia, indicated that terrorism related subjects are part of their basic curriculum; however, the courses do not address the causal, motivational, ideological, etc. aspects of the larger subject of terrorism.

In addition to the fact terrorism related courses are not part of several states’ basic law enforcement officer certification curriculum; other common themes emerged from state-to-state. Among states where terrorism related courses are not mandated as part of their basic curriculum, 17 responses indicated that the subject could be covered as part of in-service or expanded, non-mandated individual academy curriculum; it is a topic that agencies address on their own as part of their in-service or advance training regimens; or other training resources are readily available to law enforcement officials. For example, Alaska, Arizona, Hawaii, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin indicated that subjects involving terrorism may be taught as part of an agency’s in-service or maintenance training or training and educational resources addressing the subject of terrorism are available to law enforcement officials. Again, these are not mandated courses and it is not definitive whether agencies actually address terrorism within their in-service training programs. These responses tend to indicate, because of the variance and uncertainty in responses, in-service and advance training curriculum containing information about terrorism is not standardized from one agency to another within the same state.

The number of hours of instruction that comprise a course also varies among states. Hours range from two to as many as 40 hours of instruction. Based on the 22

103 Survey/Interviews with state training representatives, refer to Table for results.
104 Ibid.
105 Ibid.
states that provided the number of instruction hours for their basic courses, the average time of instruction is approximately 11.5 hours. The difference in hours further suggests a lack of standardization and variance in instruction and topics in courses between states.

States also include the National Incident Management System (NIMS), Incident Command System (ICS), and Weapons of Mass Destruction—to include hazardous materials and Personal Protective Equipment (PPE)—related learning objectives as part of their mandated terrorism training courses. These topics were indicated by at least 18 states as part of their required terrorism courses. Further, in some instances when a state representative was asked if a counterterrorism related course is part of their certification curriculum, their response reflected they associated NIMS and ICS with counterterrorism related initiatives. One state, Wisconsin, related it was determined that with NIMS/ICS related requirements, the federal government is addressing the topic; so, it is not required. It is worth mentioning at least four states utilize training courses developed and provided by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Department of Justice, or Louisiana State University.

A question comes to mind whether the emphasis of the training and education law enforcement officials are receiving is aimed at enhancing response or prevention efforts? Looking at the breakdown of subject hours that were provided in the responses, a majority of training hours in some instances are dedicated to response related competencies. That is, NIMS, ICS, and PPE are primarily response related competencies; however, they appear to be prominent subjects in several states’ courses. For example, 12 of the 32 hours of Connecticut’s instruction are allocated for PPE and HAZMAT related objectives. Depending on the specific content and objectives of the WMD courses, the focus could also be response oriented; that is, in response to WMD

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106 Survey/Interviews with state training representatives, refer to Table for results. These hours are for mandated, state courses. Additionally, the number of hours may include a gambit of topics that the state included in what they considered their terrorism subject course (e.g., ICS, NIMS).


108 Peter Hall (Connecticut State Police/Police Standards and Training) interview/phone survey by author August 20, 2008. Course hours are displayed in Table 1.
incidents as opposed to WMD prevention efforts. For example, it was expressed that the WMD related subject matter in Michigan’s training course was aimed at defensive operations while operating in hazardous environments.\textsuperscript{109}

D. OPINIONS

The following question was contained in the email survey and the author asked some state representatives the question in addition to whether a state’s course addresses the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism:

- Do you think it is important for state and local law enforcement officials to be exposed to this type of information?

There were 33 total responses to the question; none of these responses really indicated that it was not important for law enforcement officials to receive terrorism training.\textsuperscript{110} Twenty-five representatives clearly indicated they felt it was important for law enforcement officials to receive some form of terrorism related training.\textsuperscript{111} Some responses were not necessarily definitive in terms of answering the question “yes or no.” For example, one state’s response to the question was, a lot of agencies are sending officers to homeland security training while another state answered that they were considering adding a course as a training standard.\textsuperscript{112}

South Dakota indicated the basic curriculum is based on a job analysis of skills and knowledge needed to perform the basic duties of a peace officer and the existing analysis did not substantiate that a course about terrorism is needed as part of the basic

\textsuperscript{109} Mike Johnson (Michigan State Police) interview/phone survey by author August 19, 2008.

\textsuperscript{110} The states that were asked or responded to the question were Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, South Dakota, Rhode Island, Texas, Utah, Wisconsin, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Wyoming.

\textsuperscript{111} The states that clearly indicated it is an important topic were Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Missouri, Montana, New Hampshire, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Rhode Island, Utah, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Wyoming.

\textsuperscript{112} Robert Davis (Mississippi Board of Law Enforcement Standards and Training) interview/phone survey by author September 8, 2008 and survey response emailed to author August 25, 2008, by the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education.
Some states indicated that, although they felt the subject was important, it may not be suited for the basic training curriculum. For example, the Missouri representative related that, given the amount of required training topics, there is better use of the limited number of required training hours; courses about the political, sociological, psychological, etc. aspects of terrorism are probably better suited for the policy making and strategic level.

The Virginia representative, in an email survey response, related that although it is important for officers to be exposed to this type of information, the recruit level should concentrate on the basic functions and tasks of the job. As these officers gain more experience, in the representative’s opinion, it is more important that they get advanced training in this area. However, it is interesting that he also stated that there are some rural areas in the state where the only law enforcement presence consists of newer officers; in these cases, the agency head may elect to provide advanced training, including terrorism related training, to these officers.

The South Carolina representative made the point that it is important that everyone—from the bottom through the top levels in a law enforcement organization—receive terrorism and ICS related training in order to share a common understanding and “talk the same lingo.” Further, if this knowledge is provided to new recruits as a part of a training requirement, it is a benefit to the agency head. The new officer reports with this training already completed; therefore, agencies do not have to expend resources and take an officer off the street to complete the training.

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113 Kim Knacher (George S. Mickelson Criminal Justice Training Center) interview/phone survey by author August 20, 2008.


115 Survey response emailed to author August 12, 2008, by the Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services, Standards and Training Section.

116 Ibid.

117 Ibid.

118 Mike Lenair (South Carolina Criminal Justice Academy), interview/phone survey by author August 29, 2008.

119 Ibid.

120 Ibid.
The comments by the representatives interviewed from Maryland and Rhode Island regarding the importance of terrorism training are worth mentioning. According to the Maryland representative, not exposing officers, both recruits and veterans, to this type of training is ignoring current realities.\footnote{Survey response emailed to author August 15, 2008, from Maryland Police and Correctional Training Commissions.} And, in the words of Rhode Island’s representative, “if you don’t know what to look for, you could have problems.”\footnote{David Ricciarelli (State of Rhode Island Municipal Police Academy) interview/phone survey by author August 22, 2008.}

Finally, during some of the phone interview discussions, a state representative would mention they perceived a need to add a specific subject to their existing course. For example, during a discussion with the Rhode Island representative, he mentioned that it would be good to add a learning objectives and information about identification documents, especially immigration documents.\footnote{Ibid.} The author mentioned the course material he reviewed from Pennsylvania included information about immigration documents and identifying permanent resident cards. The Rhode Island representative expressed interest in reviewing Pennsylvania’s course. These exchanges suggest that there is a benefit for states to have access to the course curriculum and what is being taught in other states as a type of national resource. In short, if there is a desired training need that another state has already expended resources to address, why “reinvent the wheel” to develop a similar learning objective and course content from scratch?
III. ASSESSMENT OF STATE COURSE CONTENT

What is being taught to state and local law enforcement officials regarding terrorism? Are officers receiving training and/or education about the causes, motivation, and organizational and operational dynamics of terrorism? What are the objectives, topics, or learning domains regarding terrorism that are included in states’ law enforcement officer certification curriculum?

Course curriculum and/or outlines of the mandatory courses taught in a state were requested during the survey of states’ peace officer standards and training commissions, certification boards, academies, or state police agencies. Course lesson plans, outlines, or complete student manuals were provided by some states. The materials were reviewed to determine whether it included specific learning objectives associated with theoretical and academically oriented themes about terrorism causes and motivations delineated in the literature review—religious terrorism, political terrorism, psychological causes of terrorism, and radicalization. The state materials reviewed are from California, Colorado, Indiana, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wyoming.

As discussed in Chapter II, state representatives were asked as part of the survey if mandated courses addressing the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism are part of their state’s law enforcement officer certification curriculum. This assessment assists in verifying if these topic areas are presented and addressed as distinct topics. A recognized limitation with reviewing courses and outlines in this manner is the topic areas may be addressed during actual instruction; however, they are not identified in the outline or lesson plan.

At face value, none of the course related materials specifically address religion, political motivation, psychological considerations, and radicalization as distinct learning objectives. The course material was reviewed further to see if the outlined objectives or content appeared to mention or touch upon these areas as part of general topic
discussions. Additionally, a qualitative analysis was conducted of select courses to gain a more detailed sense of the themes and tone of the material as it pertains to these identified educational areas.

This approach involves a type of research bias or assumption that a relation to the subject areas of religious and politically motivated terrorism, the mental state and psychological compulsion of terrorists, and the process of radicalization can be substantiated within or connected to the course content. The following “qualitative assessment structure/categories” was constructed in order to apply and assist with an overview and, then, a more in depth analysis of select course language.

The categories for the assessment structure were established in accordance with the areas discussed in the literature review. The “codes” or subject categories used were: (1) religious terrorism, (2) political terrorism, (3) psychological attributions of terrorism, and (4) radicalization. Following is a description of the codes/categories used:

Religious Terrorism. Content (words and/or sentences—data segments) were identified or coded as “religious terrorism” if a specific religion is listed (e.g., Christianity) or the language could be interpreted as “having aims and motivations reflecting a predominant religious character or influence.”124 For example, language and/or data were determined to address religious terrorism if the information could be tied to a predominately religious belief system, such as anti-abortion or apocalyptic beliefs.

Political Terrorism. Content was identified as pertaining to the category “political nature of terrorism” if course language discussed political motivation and objectives associated with terrorism. Further, if a government or a government’s policies were identified as a motivation or a catalyst for terrorism within course language, it was also included within this category.

Psychological Attributions of Terrorism. If language content addressed psychology, psychological attributes, personality traits, etc., or some individual pathology compelling individuals to commit terrorism, it was considered as pertaining to the category, “psychological attributions of terrorism.”

124 Hoffman, Inside Terrorism, 82. This distinction comes from language in Hoffman’s work previously cited in Chapter I.
Radicalization. Content that addressed and/or included information about radicalization (the process where individual or group beliefs and actions progress to where they turn towards violence—terrorism—as a means to achieve their goals) was coded and included in the category “radicalization.”

Islam, Islamic, Muslim. Words, sentences, and information containing or pertaining to Islam or Muslims were assessed to see if instructional content addressed Islam, the Muslim community, or Islamic terrorism. Some information is repeated under “Islam, Islamic, Muslim” and Religious Terrorism.

A. GENERAL COURSE OVERVIEW

Table 2 displays the results of the general, course overview. Following the overview are examples of some of the assessed areas.

Table 2. Overview of Content of Course Lesson Plans, Outlines, and Student Material

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Religion &amp; Terrorism</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Psychological</th>
<th>Radicalization</th>
<th>Islam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>UNK</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebraska</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyoming</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>UNK</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As previously mentioned, none of the reviewed courses specifically address these topics within the context of distinct learning domains or subjects. Survey respondents—listed in Chapter II—from California, Indiana, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wyoming believed their state’s courses addressed the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism. However, as illustrated in Table 2, the only consistent area addressed was the political nexus to terrorism. A consistent reference to government and the political nature of terrorism was found in definitions of terrorism provided in the majority of reviewed courses. For example, Ohio’s course content provides the following information:
For the purposes of this course, terrorism is defined as: The unlawful use of force or violence against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government, civilian population or any segment thereof, in furtherance of political or social objectives.125

The State of Ohio’s course book, Homeland Security – Terrorism Awareness, discusses Right-Wing groups and one of the groups identified is the Christian Conservative/Identity Movement. The course information relates the group uses fundamental Christian terminology and structure in association with its activities.126 Therefore, for the purpose of the analysis, this language was considered to convey a religious nexus.

“Psychological Attributions of Terrorism” was identified if it appeared course material included or addressed psychology, psychological attributes, and personality traits in relation to the causes and incidence of terrorism. As an example, Nevada’s course outline states, “In fact, very few terrorists are mentally ill in any diagnosable sense.”127 None of the courses reviewed seem to discuss the subject of radicalization.

Finally, the only reviewed state that appears to discuss Islam as a learning objective was Wyoming. The course outline included the following learning objectives: (1) understand the basic principles and divisions of Islam and (2) differentiate between Islam and militant religious fanatics.128

B. QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF SELECT COURSES

In order to gain a more detailed sense of the themes and tone of course content, a qualitative analysis was conducted of the more comprehensive course material provided by the states of California, Nevada, Nebraska, and Ohio using the same codes identified earlier in the chapter. The following figures reflect that analysis of each state’s material.

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126 Ibid., 13-3-33.

127 State of Nevada, Commission of Peace Officer’s Standards and Training, Counter Terrorism and WMD, 2007, 4. Lesson plan emailed to author.

128 Wyoming Law Enforcement Academy, Terrorism Indicators PP4018, 2006. Course outline emailed to author.
### Table 3. California - Learning Domain 43 – Emergency Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code/Category</th>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Religion and Terrorism               | • Apocalyptic views  
• Anti-abortion  
• Religion  
• Domestic terrorists are defined by their political or personal views, they include religious…movements  
• Examples of groups are: abortion groups, religious…organizations | The segments are contained under Domestic Terrorist Groups; specifically Right Wing Groups and a Chapter Synopsis that mentions domestic terrorism and special interest terrorists                                                                 |
| Political Nature of Terrorism       | • Premeditated, politically motivated violence  
• In furtherance of political *(and social)* objectives.  
• A desire to further political *(and social)* objectives  
• Anti-government  
• Anti-taxation  
• Federal, state, and local governments  
• New world order  
• International terrorism groups include state sponsors  
• International terrorism is usually perpetrated against the United States  
• International terrorists view terrorism as a tool of foreign policy and engage in anti-western terrorism  
• Domestic terrorists are defined by the political…views.  
• International groups almost all have purely political motivations | The first bullet was listed as part of defining terrorism (three definitions are provided) and “Common elements of terrorists, methods, motivations, and tactics.” The remaining segments are contained under Domestic Terrorist Groups – Right and Left Wing Groups, and Domestic Terrorist Groups and their motivations and potential targets for these groups. Further political related information is listed under International Terrorist Groups and state sponsors of terrorism. |
| Psychological Aspects of Terrorism  | None                                                                                                                                                                                                       | None                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| Radicalization                       | None                                                                                                                                                                                                       | The only instances where the term “radical” is used, is in relation to the extended term, “radical extremism.” However, it does not refer to the process or phenomenon of radicalization. |
| Islam, Islamic, Muslim               | None                                                                                                                                                                                                       | The only time the word Islam is used is with a terrorist group title, Anssar al-Islam. Other than that usage, the words Islam, Islamic, or Muslim are not mentioned or contained in the course documents. |
Table 4. Nevada - Counterterrorism and WMD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code/Category</th>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Religion and Terrorism | • Terrorist Motivations – Religious  
• Christian Identity  
• Identity beliefs include – white people are God’s chosen people; Jews and African-Americans are the children of Satan; believers must prepare for the second coming of Yahweh by taking action | “Religious” is one of five “motivations” identified. Religion is presented in the context of Right Wing and White Supremacist groups. |
| Political Nature of Terrorism | • It is easy to think of terrorists as simply psychotic killers who use political, social, or cultural issues as a pretext for acting out their lunacy  
• Terrorist Motivations – Political  
• Right Wing Groups: Anti-government – Militias, Common law, Sovereign citizens  
• Goals of terrorism – destroy confidence in institutions; isolate the enemy (government…)  
• The same Bill of Rights that make Americans uniquely free makes terrorism harder to combat  
• Foreign Powers  
• State Sponsored Terrorism | “Political” is one of five “motivations” identified. Political Motivation is a specific header/topic. Under it (sub-item) are the terms Marxist/Leninist groups, Black separatists/Black extremists, and Puerto Rican Independenistas. Foreign powers and state sponsored terrorism are contained under “The International Threat.” |
| Psychological Aspects of Terrorism | • It is easy to think of terrorists as simply psychotic killers who use political, social, or cultural issues as a pretext for acting out their lunacy  
• In fact, very few terrorists are mentally ill in any diagnosable sense  
• Often, the biggest stumbling block for getting into a terrorist’s head is getting out of our own | These sentences were contained under the heading “Understanding Terrorists.” |
| Radicalization | None | Although the term does not specifically relate to radicalization as used here, the title “International Radical Fundamentalists” is included under “The International Threat.” |
| Islam, Islamic, Muslim | • Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan  
• Egyptian Islamic Jihad  
• Palestinian Islamic Jihad | There are no discussion points regarding Islam or Muslims. The only inclusion of even the word “Islamic” is in reference to the name of Foreign Terrorist Organizations. |
Table 5. Nebraska - Terrorism Training for Law Enforcement – Terrorism Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code/Category</th>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Religion and Terrorism | • Extremist religious literature and paraphernalia  
• Bombing of an abortion clinic  
• Numerous terrorist attacks have been committed by Islamic fundamentalists…  
• Doing so could have shown that Islamic fundamental terrorists…  
• This does not specifically refer to Islamic fundamentalist terrorists….  
• Other Islamic fundamentalists destroyed the World Trade Center…  
• Continuous religious indoctrination | These references are included under “terrorism indicators” and suicide bombing indicators. |
| Political Nature of Terrorism | • Recruited by the Libyan government to commit a terrorist attack…  
• IRA – the message they wanted to send was, we can get you anytime we want so you (the government) should change the way you do business  
• They attempted to change the thinking of the government through intimidation  
• The military has always been a target for terrorists  
• As can be seen in Iraq, terrorists continue to target individuals working in government to create chaos and make it difficult for a new government to be established  
• ..but by using terrorist tactics, they can try to force changes in the behavior of governments  
• State sponsors of terrorism  
• Russian government has invaded Chechnya on at least two occasions, and as a result, the rebels have engaged in terrorist activities… | These segments were contained in the course narrative as examples of items addressing terrorism prevention (example of Japanese Red Army); historic targets; how do terrorists attack; and the case of the Russian/Beslan school siege. |
| Psychological Aspects of Terrorism | None | None |
| Radicalization | None | Although not specific to radicalization, the course outline stated, “note the presence of indicators is indicative of extremists in the community…”  
And, as a suicide bombing indicator, “continuous religious indoctrination” is described as being involved. |
| Islam, Islamic, Muslim | • Algerian Islamic group  
• Numerous terrorist attacks have been committed by Islamic fundamentalists…  
• Doing so could have shown that Islamic fundamental terrorists…  
• This does not specifically refer to Islamic fundamentalist terrorists…. | The information is primarily contained in the instruction narrative. The language regarding tactics from the Jihad perspective is mentioned in relation to the Al Qaeda Manual (no manual excerpts are included). There is no expanded discussion of Islam |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code/Category</th>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tactics from the Jihad Perspective</td>
<td>Numerous terrorist attacks have been committed by Islamic fundamentalists…</td>
<td>and Islamic terrorism per se.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing so could have shown that Islamic fundamental terrorists…</td>
<td>This does not specifically refer to Islamic fundamentalist terrorists…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Islamic fundamentalists destroyed the World Trade Center</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

General: As the course title suggests, the content and intent is geared towards identifying indicators and evidence of terrorist activities, not background, causes, historical perspectives, etc. In reference to the Al Qaeda Manual, the narrative states, “It is significant for law enforcement to have access to as much information as possible about what they are trying to do.”

Table 6. Ohio Unit 13 – Homeland Security, Topic 3 – Terrorism Awareness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code/Category</th>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Religion and Terrorism</td>
<td>From an academic viewpoint, it is politically, socially, and/or religiously motivated criminal intimidation…</td>
<td>Some of the religious groups and themes crossover into “Political” topics. There is a lot of information coded regarding Christian Identity Groups, examples have been listed here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent, criminal intimidation of innocent people for political, religious, or social objectives</td>
<td>Attacks on Jewish Organizations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sites of interest for possible terrorist event – government buildings – Religious Buildings – Synagogues</td>
<td>Terrorists may be categorized as any one of three types – The Crusader – On a mission from God</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…May believe they are agents of God</td>
<td>Aryans – founded…as a religious group; advocate elimination of Jews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian Identity Groups – Christian Bible is used to justify reasons behind beliefs</td>
<td>U.S. Constitution is extension of Bible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy is based on defense of White, Christian way of life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Political Nature of Terrorism | The unlawful use of force or violence against persons or property to coerce a government…in furtherance of political or social objectives | The first bullets are examples of several references to government that are either used within the context of defining terrorism or contained within multiple cites of Ohio criminal statutes. |
<p>| From an academic viewpoint, it is politically, socially, and/or religiously motivated criminal intimidation… | Violent, criminal intimidation of innocent people for political, religious, or social objectives | There is an extensive discussion of various Left and Right Wing Groups, Separatists, Aryans, the Militia, Patriots, and Survivalists. The themes, whether beliefs, motivations, |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code/Category</th>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>violence…in furtherance of political or social objectives&lt;br&gt;• The action must have been taken to accomplish some political, religious, or social goal&lt;br&gt;• Influence the policy of any government&lt;br&gt;• Affect the conduct of any government&lt;br&gt;• Sites of interest for possible terrorist event – government buildings&lt;br&gt;• Left and Right Wing Terrorist Groups: usually government personnel and property are targeted; advocate no taxation, claim to operate own form of government&lt;br&gt;• Highly militant, anti-government, white supremacist group which proposes violent overthrow of U.S. Government</td>
<td>or targets, are political/government oriented. Because of the quantity of information and cites, a few examples are listed here. Common goals shared by the Aryans, KKK, Christian Identity Groups that are identified in the text.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Aspects of Terrorism</td>
<td>• Terrorists may be categorized as any one of three types: The Crazies (cause freaks, sociopaths, impulsive, unpredictable)&lt;br&gt;• May be delusional (may believe they are agents of God; May believe they are God)</td>
<td>The other categorizations listed are the Crusader and the Criminals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radicalization</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Radicalization is not addressed specifically. However, there is a half-page segment entitled “Easy Steps to Terrorist Violence.” The steps include 1. Legal and accepted forms of dissent (e.g., oral protest); 2. Illegal behavior but often tolerated (e.g., vandalism); and 3. Illegal and unacceptable (e.g., Bombing).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam, Islamic, Muslim</td>
<td>• Al Qaeda – Follows strict adherence to Wahhabism&lt;br&gt;• An austere and conservative brand of Islam&lt;br&gt;• Anything not specifically mentioned in the Koran, the Islamic holy book&lt;br&gt;• Hamas – Islamic Resistance Movement&lt;br&gt;• Principles of faith – Allah is the supreme god&lt;br&gt;• Jihad is a personal, religious rite of every Muslim&lt;br&gt;• Hezbollah – Party of God&lt;br&gt;• Radical Shia group formed in Lebanon&lt;br&gt;• The call of Islam&lt;br&gt;• Al Jihad – Jihad Group, Islamic Jihad&lt;br&gt;• The Palestine Islamic Jihad&lt;br&gt;• These groups are committed to the creation of an Islamic Palestinian state and the destruction of Israel through holy war</td>
<td>There are several pages of information regarding Islamic terrorist groups. The references to Islam, Islamic beliefs, etc. are all in relation to individual terrorist groups. However, the course book lists all of these groups under “Foreign Terrorist Organizations.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misc.</td>
<td>• Ideology and belief = hatred of the West&lt;br&gt;• Terrorists may be categorized as any one of three types: The Crusader – Ideologically Inspired</td>
<td>This was included here due to the idea of ideology acting as a causative factor for terrorism.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
C. ANALYSIS – SUMMARY

Although religious terrorism, political terrorism, psychological causes of terrorism, and radicalization are not delineated as distinct instructional areas in the material reviewed, a relationship can possibly be drawn to these areas given some of the language reviewed. However, this interpretation is based on an assumption that law enforcement “students” will comprehend what these topics have to do with the causes and incidences of terrorism and, ultimately, what this information can contribute to preventing terrorism.

Again, the prominent theme that can possibly be derived is that a political nexus to terrorism exists given the amount of and consistent references to “government” and political motivations of terrorists found throughout the reviewed text. Since the amount of political and government references, the most likely conclusion about the causes and motivation of terrorism drawn by law enforcement students is that terrorism, at its core, is political in nature. Political objectives are an element of all of the definitions of terrorism in the courses; governments, government policies, and their related institutions are consistently identified as terrorist targets. Another consistent reference to governments and political motivations found in the reviewed courses is in regards to information about Right and Left Wing terrorist groups.

Religion is indicated primarily in the beliefs, interests, and motivations of terrorist groups; and these are primarily domestic, Right Wing groups. Islam is not really addressed within the context of religion; but, it was included as part of organizational identities and titles, which leads to a noticeable void. It is strikingly apparent that there are no real discussions of Islam and the Muslim community reflected in the course material covered. California does not even mention these words let alone engage in an educational dialogue about the “what and why” these topics may have in relation to the current state of terrorism. What makes this absence even more significant is the fact the National Strategy for Homeland Security emphasizes the need to prevent violent Islamic extremism. As a reminder, the strategy states, “we will continue to educate and train law
enforcement and other U.S. Government personnel on Islamic and community norms.”

There may be other training and educational outlets provided to law enforcement in states to address topics about Islamic communities, their norms, etc. that are called for as an objective within the strategy. However, based on the reviewed material, that educational discussion is not part of the terrorism courses currently being conducted. Further, radicalization—another area identified in the Strategy where law enforcement is supposed to play a role in national efforts to prevent terrorism—is not addressed in the reviewed material.

D. ADDITIONAL OBSERVATIONS

Although the original focus of this thesis is on the causes and motivations associated with terrorism, other themes related to preparing law enforcement to prevent and respond to terrorism became apparent while reviewing course content and outlines. Table 7 compares and contrasts some of the common areas that were identified. Column one indicates if the course material included a definition of terrorism. Column two indicates if the role of law enforcement (LE), in preventing, responding to, or generally dealing with terrorism is defined as part of the course. Column three reflects if different types of terrorism (e.g., Left Wing, Right Wing, etc.) are discussed. Column four indicates if Weapons of Mass destruction related topics are addressed as learning objectives. Column five displays whether counterterrorism concepts are included in the law enforcement instruction (e.g., “terrorist pre-incident indicators).
Table 7. Learning Objectives and Areas of Instruction in State Terrorism Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Defining Terrorism</th>
<th>LE’s Role</th>
<th>“Types” of Terrorists and Groups</th>
<th>WMD</th>
<th>CT Concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>UNK</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebraska</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyoming</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Definitions of Terrorism

The majority of course material reviewed includes a definition of terrorism; in some instances, it is a specific learning objective that is part of a law enforcement competency. Five of the courses used the Federal Bureau of Investigation’s (FBI) definition of terrorism. Two of these, however, included multiple definitions of terrorism including the FBI’s definition. For example, California’s course material provided three definitions of terrorism—the FBI’s, the definition of terrorism contained in United States (US) Code, Title 22, Section 2656f(d), and the U.S. Department of Justice’s definition of terrorism.130

The common elements of the definitions being taught or provided to law enforcement officials in these states, as reflected by the FBI’s definition are:

- Unlawful use of force or threat of violence
- Against persons or property
- To intimidate/coerce a government or civilian population
- In furtherance (to achieve) political or social objectives

This theme of the political nature of terrorism is no surprise given the references to government and political motivations as found in this chapter’s qualitative analyses.

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2. Role of Law Enforcement

Reviewed course materials also contain statements regarding law enforcement’s role in preventing or dealing with terrorism. For example, the course lesson plan from Indiana states:

Terrorism is becoming part of life, sadly to say, however, understanding the why’s, how’s, and where a terrorist will strike will provide the law enforcement officer with the knowledge to make informed decisions to proact or if need be react.131

Colorado’s course outline further indicates, “The student will demonstrate that terrorism prevention is the responsibility of all law enforcement officers at the local, state, and federal level…”132 Pennsylvania’s course material relates, “Being vigilant and aware of the indicators of possible terrorist attacks may assist officers in deterring and preventing attacks.133

3. Types of Terrorists and Groups

Information and content regarding terrorist groups in the reviewed courses range in discussion from general overviews of types of terrorism to more detailed information about specific terrorist organizations. The courses that address the notion that specific types of terrorism exists are consistent in differentiating domestic versus international (or foreign) terrorism. In terms of domestic terrorism, curriculum is fairly consistent in differentiating between Left and Right Wing terrorism. However, the ways other types of terrorism and terrorist organizations are identified and/or presented differ in some respects between the different states’ courses.


In addition to Left and Right Wing terrorists, the state of Ohio’s course discusses the FBI’s established classification of threat motivations in order to identify specific groups. The five classifications are political groups, religious groups, racial groups, environmentalists groups, and special interests groups. The Earth Liberation Front (ELF) is listed as an environmentalist group and the Animal Liberation Front (ALF) is listed as a special interest group, respectively, under the identified classification. Pennsylvania’s course lists ALF as an animal rights movement and ELF as an ecological terrorism movement under domestic terrorism. California does not specifically identify ALF or ELF by name; however, Animal Rights and Environmental Preservation are listed as motivations for Special Interest groups. This reflects how most groups are presented in California’s course, that is, by motivations. However, in terms of international/foreign terrorism, individual groups and organizations are identified.

As for the international terrorist groups, California identifies three sub-types: State Sponsors, Loosely Affiliated International Radical Extremists, and Formalized Terrorist Groups. The Tamil Tigers and Hezbollah are identified as examples of formalized groups while Al Qaeda is listed as a loosely affiliated radical extremist group. Pennsylvania describes international terrorist groups in terms of identification (e.g., Hamas, al Qaeda), their activities, and areas of operations.

4. Weapons of Mass Destruction

Weapons of Mass Destruction, or WMD, are also common topics among most of the reviewed course material. California’s segment of instruction is entitled, Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD), Response Strategies and Personal Protective Equipment

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134 Ohio Peace Officer Training Commission, Terrorism Awareness, 13-3-39.
135 Ibid., 13-3-40.
138 Ibid.
139 Ibid.
(PPE). Several learning objectives are identified for law enforcement officials, including identifying WMD; routes and assessment of exposure; biological, nuclear/radiological, chemical and toxic industrial agents; and response strategies and decontamination issues. The course includes WMD related learning objectives that are preventive in nature. For example, indicators of potential WMD use are discussed, such as the presence of a hazardous material in an unusual location or the theft of a gasoline tanker truck.

Pennsylvania’s course material, “Patrol Procedures – Terrorism,” also provides information and instruction related to WMD. One of the identified learning goals is intended to assist law enforcement officials in “recognizing the nature of biological, nuclear, chemical, and explosive threats.” Similar to California, symptoms and effects associated with exposure to various forms of WMD are discussed.

5. Counterterrorism Concepts

All of the courses that were reviewed contain information that can be considered counterterrorism related. That is, the courses provide information for the patrol officer regarding terrorism awareness or indicators of possible terrorist activity. Pennsylvania’s course, for example, presents an outline of “general indicators” of terrorist activity that includes logistical activities (e.g., thefts or discoveries of weapons, explosives or components, and fraudulent documents), training and staging activities (e.g., maneuvers and rehearsals), intelligence collection (e.g., surveillance activities), and even residence checks (e.g., the presence of radical literature and evidence of paramilitary training at residences). Nebraska’s course presentation provides information about pre-incident indicators that are supposedly based on “an examination of past terrorist attacks that

142 Ibid., 5-7.
143 Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, “Terrorism,” i.
144 Ibid., 7-13.
145 Ibid., 18.
reveal a pattern of activity/actions that preceded incidents.”

Some indicators discussed that are different from Pennsylvania’s course include, “a pattern or series of false alarms requiring law enforcement and/or emergency response” and “evidence of drug proceeds going to support terrorist organizations.” Additionally, Nebraska’s lesson plan indicates a segment is taught regarding suspect contacts, vehicle stops, and searches that reveal possible terrorist indicators. Some of the elements law enforcement officials are told to be mindful of during these activities include multiple identifications, cameras and video tapes, and extremist religious literature to name a few. However, with both Nebraska and Pennsylvania, there is no indication of examples being provided of what constitutes “extremist literature.” It is worth mentioning that both Pennsylvania’s and Nebraska’s curriculum address Immigration and Customs Enforcement, alien status, and fraudulent resident and immigration related documents. California’s information about terrorism indicators are presented with specific counterterrorism measures. For example, specific dates, including anniversary dates or religious holidays, are identified as an indicator; the recommended counterterrorism measure of “increase security on key dates” is provided. Applying community oriented policing initiatives, described as cultivating street sources such as cab and bus drivers and neighborhood workers are presented as a law enforcement preventive/deterrence action. Threat and vulnerability assessments are also addressed as counterterrorism topics in some courses. Indiana’s outline mentions the need for assessing threats within a jurisdiction and identifying targets of significance.

The recent trend in terrorist incidents is marked by an increase in suicide attacks. For example, from 1968 to 2005, 78 percent of all suicide terrorist incidents occurred in

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147 Ibid., 10.
150 Ibid., 2-12.
the period of 2001 to 2005.\textsuperscript{152} Further, as of 2005, 350 suicide attacks have occurred in at least 24 different countries.\textsuperscript{153} Given the proliferation of this tactic, it would seem important for law enforcement officials to receive instruction regarding this particular area of terrorism. However, only two of the courses reviewed addressed the occurrence of suicide terrorism.

Some courses, like in California, include the terrorism awareness component along with NIMS, ICS, and emergency management related subjects. This combination is reflected in the course title, “Emergency Management.” This is not to suggest that there is something substantively wrong with such a structure. This structure may provide comprehensive information to cover the gambit from prevention to response related missions. However, as indicated in the survey of state courses, NIMS and ICS were often associated with “counterterrorism” related knowledge areas. This association may not be suited for differentiating between preventing terrorist acts versus responding in their aftermath.

\textsuperscript{152} Hoffman, \textit{Inside Terrorism}, 131. The number of suicide attacks are likely higher now than at the time of the writing, especially considering the on-going conflict in Iraq.

\textsuperscript{153} Ibid., 131.
IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A. INTRODUCTION

This final chapter is structured in accordance with the three basic questions this thesis originally sought to answer. The purpose for doing so is to (1) summarize what the data points to and (2) provide recommendations for building upon this research.

B. QUESTIONS

1. Are We Training and Educating State and Local Law Enforcement Personnel to Prevent Terrorism by Adequately Addressing the Nature and Causes of Terrorism?

In light of the data collected, the answer to this question is, no; at least we are not teaching subjects concerning the dynamics, nature, and causes of terrorism consistently from state-to-state. Specifically, the survey and interview results of law enforcement standards and/or training officials revealed terrorism related subjects are not part of the required basic training or educational requirements in every state. There were states that indicated terrorism related courses are part of their standards and certification repertoire; however, the particular courses do not address more academic based themes, such as the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism. Given this information, 24 states—nearly half—are not teaching subjects regarding the causes and nature of terrorism as part of their basic law enforcement officer curriculum.¹⁵⁴

Some survey/interview responses indicated that, although a terrorism course is not part of the basic curriculum, the subject may be taught during advance or in-service training forums. However, the responses were not definitive on this matter. That is, there is an assumption that terrorism is being addressed outside of the required basic

¹⁵⁴ This number, 24, includes those states that do not require a terrorism related course and those states that related they require a course; but, the course content does not address the political, sociological, psychological, and religious aspects and causes of terrorism.
training courses; but, responses tended to indicate there are no advance training requirements or existing structure to account for whether or not terrorism related subjects are actually being taught. For example, the Kansas representative indicated that although terrorism related courses are not required as part of the basic law enforcement officer certification curriculum, it may be covered during a 40 hour, continuing training requirement for police each year. 

Besides mandatory racial profiling and firearms training, however, the specific training subjects are determined by individual agencies.

2. What Learning Domains, Related to the Causes and Nature of Terrorism, are Law Enforcement Officers Being Exposed to (e.g., Psychology, Sociology, Religion)?

The sample of courses reviewed suggest there is a lack of direct information and discussions linking terrorism to possible causative factors and underlying motivations, regardless if those areas are political, religious, or psychological in nature. As identified by the qualitative analysis in Chapter III, the majority of discussions regarding terrorism are framed within a political context. This is demonstrated by the references to political aims within terrorism definitions, language about government institutions being terrorist targets, and information about specific terrorist groups’ political objectives. Therefore, law enforcement students in the analyzed states are being exposed to the notion that there is a political nexus to terrorism—although it may not be specifically spelled out.

Some of the reviewed course material brush on the topic of religion and terrorism, primarily in relation to Right Wing, Christian Identity movement groups and domestic, extremist agendas such as anti-abortion sentiments. Considering the analysis by Bruce Hoffman about religion being the most important defining characteristic of terrorism today, it is surprising that more emphasis or concern regarding religious terrorism is not

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155 Ed Pavey (Kansas Law Enforcement Training Center) interview/phone survey by author August 28, 2008.

156 Ibid.

157 The majority of information and language identified and coded in Chapter Three consisted of political or governmental connotations.

158 California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, Learning Domain 43 – Emergency Management, 1-8; Ohio Peace Officer Training Commission, Terrorism Awareness, 13-3-30. These sites include references to this type of information.
clearly indicated in the courses reviewed.159 Along similar lines, there is an absence of instruction and information about Islam in the majority of reviewed courses. Eight of the nine courses reviewed do not specifically address Islam as part of the course instruction.160 Some states, as mentioned in Chapter III, do not even mention Islam although it can be argued that Islamic terrorism was a central element of the 9/11 attacks and continues to be the prominent terrorist threat today.161

The *National Strategy for Homeland Security* clearly identifies objectives related to Islamic extremism and specifies that law enforcement in the United States has a role in countering its effects within vulnerable communities. The following language, as a reminder, is from the *National Strategy*:

All levels of our government must strengthen institutions and human resources in a way that increases our ability to prevent violent Islamic extremism within our borders, identify when it is occurring, and spot new trends and developments in the radicalization process. To that end, we will continue to educate and train law enforcement and other U.S. Government personnel on Islamic and community norms….162

Additionally, there was a lack of instruction about the topic of radicalization. Again, quoting from the *National Strategy*:

Law enforcement officials, therefore, must continue to identify and address sources of violent extremist radicalization in the homeland.163

We are not paying attention to national strategic objectives and guidance about extremist Islam and radicalization. If the research regarding law enforcement courses and content contained in this thesis is a gauge, steps are not being taken to educate and train law enforcement personnel on Islamic and community norms. Further, we are not

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159 Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, 82.
160 Overview of content of course lesson plans, outlines, and student material displayed in Chapter Three, Table 2. The information showing that Islam is not part of states’ courses does not mean there are not other avenues available to law enforcement officials to learn about Islam in their respective states. However, the scope of this research concerned required, basic law enforcement curriculum.
161 As discussed in Chapter III’s qualitative analysis, for example, the only time the word Islam is used in California’s reviewed material is in reference to a terrorist group’s title, Ansar al-Islam.
163 Ibid.
consistently empowering and “arming” law enforcement officials whom interact with the communities they serve with the knowledge or educational foundation to carry out the very objective called for by the National Strategy; that is to “identify and address sources of violent extremist radicalization.”

3. What Learning Domains and Resources Should be Considered to Assist in Filling Existing Knowledge Gaps to Enhance Law Enforcement Personnel’s Ability to Discharge their Duties in order to Prevent Terrorism?

In all fairness, there have been strides to enhance law enforcement homeland security competencies through the courses being taught. For example, topics geared towards raising awareness about possible pre-terrorist indicators and enhancing responses to terrorist incidents are common topics being covered. But, I cannot help thinking that we are missing a fundamental, type of foundation by not consistently exposing law enforcement officials, across-the-board, to core ideas about why people turn to terrorism.

Two views emerged from the survey/interview with state officials regarding education and training about terrorism within the law enforcement community, at least at the level discussed in this thesis—basic competencies. One view is state and local law enforcement officials do not need in-depth exposure to what can be considered more academically oriented subjects in order to do their jobs. That is, education that attempts to delve into the causes, the motivations, the underlying reasons that drive people to turn to violence to achieve their political, religious, or social goals may not be appropriate for the line officer; the officer on the street needs only to be trained to an awareness level to recognize indicators and warning signs of possible terrorist activities and, then, what to do with that information. For example, one interviewee stated that this type of education is important, but not at the basic level; it is better suited for the policy and strategic level.

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The more predominant view is that law enforcement personnel should receive instruction regarding the causes, motivations, and operational dynamics associated with terrorism. This general statement is supported by the belief that it is the officer on the street, and at times the officer right-out-of the academy, that is interacting within the communities they serve on a day-to-day basis and they are the ones in position to identify and determine if something is not right. To use an appropriate metaphor, *this is where the rubber meets the road.* As related by the Illinois representative, it is likely going to be the officer on the street that is going to identify the potential terrorist.\(166\)

If one knows the potential causes of a phenomenon, then steps and interventions can be taken to address, preempt, or mitigate those causes that could otherwise culminate in violence, property damage, and the loss of innocent life. Further, if terrorists’ targeting and actions are influenced by their particular beliefs, and these beliefs are known, the police officer on the street needs to be aware of these dynamics and nuances because, as discussed above, they are the ones on the front lines within our communities where all of these aspects are going to manifest themselves. Therefore, they need to be equipped with the knowledge to effectively deal with this law enforcement challenge.

The JIS case in California, as related by Chief Bratton, serves as an example of where training and knowledge was credited for preventing terrorist attacks.\(167\) Given the continued threat of terrorism, the potential benefits of providing this type of knowledge to law enforcement officials cannot be underestimated.

Consider the following statement:

There must be something “psychologically” wrong with terrorists; they must be crazy or suicidal. Only someone without moral feelings could do the cold-blooded killing that a terrorist does.\(168\)

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\(167\) Bratton, *Countering the Radicalization Threat*, 5.

\(168\) Clark McCauley, “Psychological Issues in Understanding Terrorism and the Response to Terrorism,” in *Psychology of Terrorism*, ed. Bruce Bongar et al. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2007), 14. This statement was created using language the author uses in the chapter.
Depending on whether someone agrees or disagrees with this statement represents a striking difference in the views one has about terrorism. For law enforcement officials, it can affect the difference in the strategic and operational choices they make. Those who tend to agree with the previous statement probably do not take issue with traditional psychiatric theory suggesting that the source of individual violence and antisocial behavior lies within the psyches of disturbed and possibly crazy people. In other words, dispositional factors explain terrorists and their motivation, intent, and drive to commit violent acts; they are compelled by pathological reasons originating within themselves. Unfortunately, this view of terrorists is popularized at times by characterizations that portray terrorists as mentally deranged, homicidal madmen who are driven by severe psychopathology and antisocial behaviors.

Individual actors would likely be the focus of policy makers and officials holding the view that all terrorists are irrational and crazy. The strategic and operational choices would, therefore, consist of somewhat limited efforts, or “individualistic treatments” aimed at deterring, capturing, or killing these individuals—the Bin Ladens of the world. Obviously, this may be a simplistic proposition; but, hopefully the point is made.

There is an element of chance inherent to preventing terrorism associated with this view. If people are driven to terrorism because of internal compulsions and reasons, how do you effectively and efficiently deter, detect, and defend against terrorists and their behaviors? For law enforcement officials, I liken this proposition to detecting a drunk driver. For example, the options are: (1) a citizen calls “911” to report a possible drunk driver; (2) an officer observes poor driving and develops reasonable suspicion of impaired driving; or (3) an officer stops someone for a traffic violation (unrelated to

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171 Zimbardo, “A Situationist Perspective of the Psychology of Evil,” 47. The term “individual treatments” is not necessarily used here as a clinical reference; it is intended to imply law enforcement, counterterrorism, etc., efforts aimed at individuals and not groups, networks, or other possible, causative explanations.
suspicion of drunk driving) and notices signs and symptoms of intoxication. Unfortunately, sometimes the contact/detection is made after the driver has already crashed (i.e., after the action/behavior has already occurred). Therefore, the options are limited and dependent upon certain variables of chance.

There is certainly a deterrent factor given the threat of fines and incarceration. However, these are based on a cost-benefit analysis, which assumes a rational person is going to weigh their actions with potential repercussions and consciously decide to take the right course. The problem with this type of comparison is; if a terrorist is indeed crazy, how can they be expected to act in rational ways?

An alternative for those who do not think terrorists are necessarily crazy or suicidal is to consider that other possibilities and factors exist outside of the individual that influence their behaviors. This view is consistent with and supported by current research and studies that suggest situational factors play a significant role in explaining the origins and motivations of terrorists.172

A limited view of terrorist motivation ignores other variables that may actually exist and influence a terrorist’s behavior, such as group norms, group identity, and the influence of an authoritarian presence.173 A situationalist view of terrorism takes these variables into consideration and shifts the strategic and operational focus towards identifying causal networks and situations that may influence people to threaten and/or commit violent acts.174 There are potential benefits associated with this approach. Recruitment processes, group-decision making processes, and various societal influences giving rise to terrorism can be focused on to preempt and prevent would be terrorists.175

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172 Breckenridge and Zimbardo, “The Strategy of Terrorism and the Psychology of Mass-Mediated Fear,” 126. For example, research has shown that situationally based explanations may have greater validity in looking at the development and influence of terrorist networks; some of these studies have looked at the effects of social relationships and religious factors and the social and psychological processes that facilitate the recruitment and moral disengagement of terrorists.


174 Ibid.

Additionally, instead of looking for individuals or a proverbial needle in the haystack, efforts can be geared towards identifying networks, links, and groups; thereby, increasing the routes, avenues, and opportunities for detecting terrorist activity.

Strategies and decisions based on a dispositional view of terrorism—where the terrorist is believed to be crazy—may be ineffective and nearsighted. However, those who advocate such a stance may never have been exposed to alternative explanations about “why terrorists are who they are and do what they do.” There is nothing to say that providing education and information to those disposed to this view will change entrenched personal thoughts and perceptions. However, because of the strategic and operational implications, exposing law enforcement officials to an array of ideas and concepts about terrorism opens a door to more robust, informed, and effective counterterrorism efforts. This type of information can further assist in reducing misconceptions between police and members of the communities they serve. This last notion concerning relationships is consistent with the National Strategy’s vision of engaging key communities and educating and training law enforcement personnel on Islamic and community norms.176

C. RECOMMENDATIONS

One of the comments I made in Chapter I in response to the review of the report by Eastern Kentucky University and the Council of State Governments was, no specific recommendations were made regarding what types of training should be provided to law enforcement. However, independent, expert opinions and the National Strategy arrive at similar conclusions regarding the importance for law enforcement officials to be knowledgeable about the nature of terrorism. It is from these existing sources where some of the answers to the question about what types of training law enforcement should receive are derived, as expressed in the following statements:

• “….understanding of the political, cultural, and social forces that turn teenagers into indiscriminate assassins.”\textsuperscript{177}

• “…an overview of current domestic and international terrorist groups.”\textsuperscript{178}

• “…educate and train law enforcement and other U.S. Government personnel on Islamic and community norms.”\textsuperscript{179}

• “…advance our knowledge and understanding of radicalization.”\textsuperscript{180}

There is nothing inconsistent with the above statements and what has been discussed throughout this thesis. There are clear, core competencies that law enforcement officials in this country need to be exposed to in relation to the causes, nature, and dynamics of terrorism. Currently, these core competencies are not being addressed in a consistent and standardized manner. Therefore, the following core objectives need to be included in state and local law enforcement training and educational regimens in order to bridge current “knowledge” gaps:

• An overview of Islam and Islamic norms.

• An overview extremist Islamic ideology as it pertains to the incidence of terrorism.

• Information pertaining to so-called radicalization processes and the influence of religious, political, and social factors in these processes.

In accordance with the recommendations made by Eastern Kentucky University and the Council of State Governments and Colonel Alexander in his thesis, we need to move towards standardizing terrorism related curriculum, which currently is disparate among states. An example of this disparity surfaced during Chapter III’s qualitative analysis. Ohio’s course lists the Earth Liberation Front (ELF) as an environmentalist group and the Animal Liberation Front (ALF) as a special interest group.\textsuperscript{181} However, Pennsylvania’s course lists ELF as an ecological terrorism movement under domestic

\textsuperscript{177} Redd, Statement made before the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence.

\textsuperscript{178} Alexander, Strategies to Integrate America’s Local Police Agencies into Domestic Counterterrorism, 30.


\textsuperscript{180} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{181} Ohio Peace Officer Training Commission, Terrorism Awareness, 13-3-40.
terrorism and ALF as an animal rights movement. In addition to developing standardized information and objectives related to the areas of Islam and radicalization, the following areas also warrant inclusion in a standardized curriculum:

- Information about psychological forces—or the lack thereof—and the incidence of terrorism and the relevancy of the influence of “situationalist” factors on terrorism.
- Distinct and defined learning objects regarding the political aspects of terrorism and religious terrorism.
- An overview of current domestic and international terrorist groups, including their motivations and aims, presented under a standardized classification system.

An endeavor to create a national standardized educational/training curriculum needs to be a cooperative effort between federal, state, and local law enforcement representatives. Potential representative organizations to draw from, for example, include the Federal Bureau of Investigation, International Association of Chiefs of Police, National Sheriffs Association, and the International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training.

There is a wealth of knowledge about terrorism already out there; it can be found in the terrorism studies literature as well as increasingly in traditionally unrelated fields such as sociology and psychology. This work is a resource that begins to fill and address the recommended objective areas. The representative, law enforcement groups have to reach out to academia as another partner in order to take advantage of this resource and work towards bridging the identified knowledge gaps.

An adjunct type of resource to consider is the establishment of a national portal, site, or forum where states can post their terrorism training outlines to share information with other states. The potential benefit for this or a similar initiative came to light in some of the discussions I had with state representatives during the course of the interview and survey research where someone indicated they were looking at adding a topic and

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information to their existing courses. Some of the sought after information, for example immigration document identification, was already part of course curriculum in another state.

D. AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

An important area for future research is to assess how particular training and education curriculum affects particular beliefs of law enforcement officials. For example, a pre and post-test survey can be given regarding police officers’ opinions about terrorists’ motivations and drives, similar to the question posed in this chapter about whether terrorists are crazy. The survey can be used to assess whether a course actually affects aptitudes and opinions regarding terrorism by comparing the post and pre test results.

This thesis looked at law enforcement curriculum. However, there has been a proliferation of college courses and programs related to terrorism and homeland security. At some point, an in-depth inventory and assessment of the content of some of these courses should be conducted. Additionally, there are existing on-line training resources, like the United States Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance’s State and Local Anti-Terrorism Training (SLATT) Program that provide free and immediate training and educational resources for law enforcement agencies. Some of the online training modules’ titles found on the SLATT website include Islam and Arabic Culture, International Terrorism, and Domestic Terrorism Modules. This type of on-line resource should also be carefully considered as a means to begin to fill some of the identified gaps.

E. CLOSING

Certainly, a lot has been done in the period since 9/11 to improve state and local law enforcement counterterrorism related competencies, initiatives, and efforts that did not exist prior to the attacks. This thesis was not intended to be a criticism of the attempts and strides that have been made in building state and local police agencies’ capabilities to prevent and respond to terrorist acts. However, a gap still exists. Knowledge about terrorism and its causes needs to also be considered a type of capability
for enhancing and complimenting state and local law enforcement terrorism prevention efforts. Academia has been tackling this topic for some time and law enforcement needs to take advantage of work done in understanding terrorism and its causes in order to improve the nation’s ability to prevent terrorist acts from even occurring.
LIST OF REFERENCES


INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST

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   Ft. Belvoir, Virginia

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3. LD M. Maples
   California Highway Patrol
   Roseville, California

4. Anders Strindberg,
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