

CYBER TERRORISM– GLOBAL SECURITY THREAT

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Abstract: *It is more than obvious that the way of conducting terrorism with the time is becoming more sophisticated. The cyber terrorism is real threat to fast technology development. Potential targets are systems which control the nation's defenses and critical infrastructure. The terrorist of the future will win the wars without firing a shot - just by destroying infrastructure that significantly relies on information technology. The fast growth of the Internet users and Internet dependance dramatically increased the security risks, unless there are appropriate security measures to help prevention. To understand cyber terrorism it is important to look at its background, to see how the terrorist organisations or individuals are using the advantage of new technology and what kind of measures governments and international organizations are taking to help the fight against cyber terrorism.*

Key words: *cyber, attack, security, terrorism, DoS*

Introduction

Although there are a number of definitions which describe the term terrorism, one of the definitions that are frequently encountered is that terrorism is “the unlawful use or threatening use of force or violence by a person or an organized group against people or property with the intention of intimidating or forcing societies or governments, often for ideological or political reasons.”²

Interactions between human motives and information technology for terrorist activities in cyberspace or in the virtual world can be addressed as cyber terrorism. Yet this is the definition of cyber terrorism that Sarah Gordon and Richard Ford from Symantec have used in their efforts to define “pure Cyberterrorism.”³

The cyber terrorism as a concept has various definitions, mostly because every expert in security has its own definition. This term can be defined as the use of information technology by terrorist groups or individuals to achieve their goals. This may include the use of information technology to organize and execute attacks against networks, computer systems and telecommunications infrastructure, and to exchange information and perform electronic threat. This kind of security

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² S. Best, *Defining Terrorism*: <http://www.drstevebest.org/Essays/Defining%20Terrorism.htm>

³ www.symantec.com/avcenter/reference/cyberterrorism.pdf

threat can manifest itself in many ways, such as hacking computer systems, programming viruses and worms, Web pages attack, conducting denial of service (DoS) attacks, or conducting terrorist attacks through electronic communications. More common are claims that cyber terrorism does not exist and that actually it is a hacking and malicious attacks. Those who support these claims do not agree with the term “terrorism” because if we take into account the current technologies for prevention and care, the likelihood of creating fear, significant physical damage or death among population using electronic means would be very small.

Considering the fact that the terrorists have limited funds, cyber attacks are increasingly attractive, because, their implementation requires a smaller number of people and certainly smaller funds. Another advantage of cyber attacks is that they allow terrorists to remain unknown, because they can be very far from the place where the act of terrorism is committed. Unlike the terrorists that place their camps in countries with weak governance, cyber terrorists can store anywhere and remain anonymous.⁴ It is believed that the most effective use of cyber terrorism is when it is used in combination with physical terrorism. For example, disabling the operation of emergency services in situations where the need for deployment of such services is caused by the use of physical terrorism is really an effective way of pooling of mentioned types of terrorism. There are huge possibilities of conducting cyber terrorism through Internet using advanced technology. As possible targets of cyber terrorism can be considered government computer networks, financial networks, power plants, etc., and the reason for this is that the terrorists identifies all the above as most suitable targets to be damaged or put out of operation in order to cause chaos. Systems manipulation through “secret entrance” software, stealing classified information, data deletion, Web sites damaging, viruses inserting, etc. are just a few examples of how terrorists can enter into the secured system. The terrorist attacks enabled by computer technology can be also conducted through the air traffic control system or rby emote damage of the power supply networks.

The new information technologies (IT) and the Internet are more often used by terrorist organizations in conducting of their plans to raise the financial funds, distribute their propaganda and secure communications. Director of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), George Tenet, in his statement in 2000 for global security threats, explained that the terrorist groups including Hezbollah’s, Hamas and al-Qaeda, for support of their operations, use computerized files, e-mails and protection (encryption). The convicted terrorist Ramzi Yousef, the main planner of the attack on the World Trade Centre in New York in encrypted files in his laptop computer stored detailed plans for aircraft destruction in the United States.⁵

The terrorist organizations also use the Internet to “reach out” their audience, without need to use other media such as radio, television or holding various press conferences. Web pages are used as a way to highlight injustice and to seek support for as the call “political prisoners” wich are “illegaly captured”. Typical Web pages will not display any information related to the violent activities and will usually claim to be left with no other choice but to resort to violence. They claim to be persecuted, that their leaders have been targets of assassination and their supporters were massacred. They use this tactic to give impression that they are weak and to present themselves as outsiders. This public performance is a very easy way to recruit supporters and members. Besides propaganda, on the terrorist organizations Web sites can often be found content and instructions on

⁴ M. Cereijo, *Cuba the threat II: Cyberterrorism and Cyberwar*, 16 Maj 2006: <http://www.lanuevacuba.com/archivo/manuel-cereijo-110.htm>

⁵ R. L. Dick, Director, National Infrastructure Protection Center, FBI Federal Bureau of Investigation, Before the House Energy and Commerce Committee, Oversight and Investigation Subcommittee Washington, DC, 05 April 2001, <http://www.fbi.gov/news/testimony/issue-of-intrusions-into-government-computer-networks>

how to make explosives and chemical weapons. This allows them to identify the most common users that can have sympathy for their cause and because of that this is an effective method for recruiting.

This also helps individuals acting as terrorists to engage in terrorist activities. In 1999, a terrorist named David Copeland killed 3 people and injured 139 in London. He did this with the help of bombs placed in three different locations. At his trial it was discovered that he used Terrorists Manual (Terrorist Handbook - Forest, 2005) and How to Make a Bomb (How to Make Bombs - Bombs, 2004), which had downloaded from the Internet.⁶

Cyber terrorism

The terrorists use cyberspace to cause uncertainty. They, for their own reasons, are struggling against state authorities and governments and use all available means to achieve their own aim. Cyber attacks occur in two forms, one used to attack data, and others focused on control systems.⁷ Data theft and destruction leads to service sabotage and this is the most common form of Internet and computer attacks. The attacks focused on the control systems are used to disable or manipulate the physical infrastructure. For example, you can perform remote power supply networks, railway and water supplies in order to achieve a negative opinion on larger geographic areas. This is accomplished by sending data over the Internet or by penetrating security systems. These weak spots in the system were used in the incident in Australia that occurred in March 2000, where disgruntled employee (who failed to provide full-time employment) used the Internet to slip one million liters of unprocessed sewage into the river and coastal waters in Queensland.⁸ In fact, after 44 unsuccessful tries, the 45th was successful. The first 44 trials were not detected at all.

After the September 11 attacks, the auditors of public safety are worried because the most critical infrastructures are owned by private companies, which are not always interested in possible security threats.

In 1988, a terrorist guerrilla organization, within two weeks, flood embassies of Sri Lanka with 800 email-s a day. The message which was appearing was "We are the Internet Black Tigers and we are doing this to disrupt your communications." Department of Intelligence characterizes the attack as the first known terrorist attack on government computer systems.

Internet saboteurs in 1998 attacked Web site of the Indian Bhabha Atomic Research Centre and stole e-mails from the same center. The three anonymous saboteurs through online interview claimed that they protest against recent nuclear explosions in India.⁹ In July 1997, the leader of the Chinese hacker group claimed that temporarily disallowed Chinese satellite and announced that hackers set up a new global organization to protest and prevent investment by Western countries in China.

In September 1998, on the eve of parliamentary elections in Sweden, saboteurs attack the Web site of the right-wing political party in Sweden and created a link to a Web site on

⁶ *www.terror.net: How Modern Terrorism Uses the Internet*, 21 February 2007: <http://www.asiantribune.com/index.php?q=node/4627>

⁷ R. Lemos, *Cyberterrorism: The real risk*, 2002: <http://www.crime-research.org/library/Robert1.htm>

⁸ Ibid

⁹ D.Briere, P.Hurley, *Wireless network hacks and mods for dummies*, 2005, Wiley.

the left and to the pornographic sites. The same month, saboteurs attacked the website of the Mexican government in protest against government corruption and censorship. Analysts point out these crime examples as low level information warfare.

Romanian hackers on one occasion managed to intrude into the computer systems controlling the life support systems at an Antarctic research station, endangering the 58 scientists involved. Fortunately, their activity is stopped before any accident occurred.

During the Kosovo conflict, Belgrade hackers conducted a denial of service attack (DoS) on the NATO servers. They “flooded” NATO servers with ICMP Ping messages, typically used for diagnostic or control purposes or generated in response to errors in IP operations.

During the Palestinian-Israeli cyber war in 2000 similar attack has been used. Pro-Palestinian hackers used DoS tools to attack Israel’s ISP (Internet Service Provider), Netvision. Although the attack was initially successful, Netvision managed to resist subsequent attacks by increasing its safety.

Also in April 2007, numerous journalistic organizations associated with the “Associated Press” reported that cyber attacks on critical information infrastructure on Estonia is conducted by computer servers located in Russia, although it was later determined that it is a Distributed DoS attacks carried out by different locations around the world (U.S., Canada, Brazil, Vietnam and other locations). Of course, the locations of the computers involved in the attack do not always shows the location of the direct participants in the attack. It is actually the location of the so-called “zombie” machines that act as intermediaries during the attack, without their knowledge or without any knowledge of the direct attackers. The attack completely put out the function of the Web sites of many governmental, media and financial institutions and leads to diplomatic talks which was a reason to examine the possibility of creating a NATO-supported research center capable of identifying the source of cyber attacks. In August 2008, a similar attack was conducted against Georgia. It is assumed that the attack was perpetrated by Russian hackers.

In October 2007, hackers attacked the Web site of Ukrainian President Viktor Jushenko. The responsibility for this attack took over the radical Russian nationalist youth group, the Eurasian Youth Movement.¹⁰

An analyst from the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) publicly revealed that in January 2008, hackers successfully stopped power supply networks in several U.S. cities. In November 2008, the Pentagon had a problem with cyber attacks carried out by computer virus, prompting the Department of Defense (DoD) to take unprecedented step of banning the use of external hardware devices, such as flash memory devices and DVDs.¹¹ Officially, U.S. never felt cyber terrorist attack.

One of the examples that have caused global panic occurred in late 2008, when a group of hackers called “Greek Security Team”, “intrude” into CERN computer systems (European Center for Nuclear Research) so deep, that they were very close to take control

¹⁰ Radio Free Europe, 2007

¹¹ FOX News, 2008

of one of the detectors at LHC (Large Hadron Collider), the largest particle accelerator. Hackers broke into the system on the first day of the experiment and placed a fake page on the site of CERN, whose aim was to defame the experts responsible for computer system, calling them “a group of students.” CERN officials said that it was not caused any damage, but knowing that the detectors and all valuable equipment is vulnerable to digital threats is really uncomfortable.

Methods and techniques of the cyber terrorism

As we already explained, except for offensive operations the terrorist can effectively use the cyberspace for secure communications.¹²

Information security is of great importance to many organizations, including the terrorists. The reason for this primarily lies in their malicious activities, so it is obvious that they will be faced with a well-equipped government security forces and coalition forces, that can easily reveal their intentions through the interception of communication using sophisticated monitoring equipment.

This problem is well known for the terrorist organizations, which is the reason for them to pay great attention to security aspects during the transmission of subtle information.

“Al Qaeda Training Manual” is just one of the many evidence of the commitment of terrorist organizations for safe communication. Notably, among the most important and most extensive lessons described in this guide are two lessons that provide guidance on the proper usage of communications and data protection. Special emphasis on this issue is placed in the thirteenth lesson “Secret Writing and Ciphers and Codes” which aim is to train potential members of this terrorist organization for secure data transmission.

Data hiding by the members of terrorist organizations is revealed on many occasions, but for sure it can be said that the number of cases where the data transmission covered using steganographic methods is not registered by security services is much larger.

Evidence for the use of steganography by al-Qaeda terrorist organization is the arrest in Berlin in 2012 of a 22 year old Austrian who had just arrived from Pakistan. Later it was confirmed that he is a member of this terrorist organization. The digital storage and memory cards he tried to hide were password protected and the information were invisible. After the initial analysis it was found that inside memory cards was buried a pornographic video “Kick Ass” and a file named “Sexy Tanja”. A few weeks later, after great efforts to combat a password and the software to make the file almost invisible, German researchers encoded in the video of a treasure trove of intelligence – over 100 documents including al-Qaeda firsthand about some of the plots of the terrorist group and a bolder road map for future operations for which there were not specified neither the date nor the location. Also various terrorist training manuals used by this organization were found. All these data were hidden using steganographic tools.

¹² M. Bogdanoski, A. Risteski, & S. Pejovski, (2012, November). *Steganalysis—A way forward against cyber terrorism*. In Telecommunications Forum (TELFOR), 2012 20th (pp. 681-684). IEEE.

The National Coordination Office (NCO) for Networking and Information Technology Research and Development (NITRD), in a report released in 2006's gave the following statement:¹³

"..... immediate concerns also include the use of cyberspace for covert communications, particularly by terrorists but also by foreign intelligence services; espionage against sensitive but poorly defended data in government and industry systems; subversion by insiders, including vendors and contractors; criminal activity, primarily involving fraud and theft of financial or identity information, by hackers and organized crime groups..."

"International interest in R&D for Steganography technologies and their commercialization and application has exploded in recent years. These technologies pose a potential threat to national security. Because Steganography secretly embeds additional, and nearly undetectable, information content in digital products, the potential for covert dissemination of malicious software, mobile code, or information is great."

"The threat posed by Steganography has been documented in numerous intelligence reports."

Rumors about the usage of Steganography by terrorists first appeared in the daily newspaper "USA Today", on 5 February 2001, in two articles titled as "Terrorist instructions hidden online" and "Terror groups hide behind Web encryption". In October 2001, the information looked even more precise: "militant wired Web links to jihad". In October 2001, "The New York Times" published an article claiming that al-Qaeda had used steganography techniques to encrypt and insert messages into images and then transported via e-mail and possibly via USENET to prepare and execute the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks.

With reference to research on Jamestown Foundation, captured terrorist training manual "Technical Mujahid, a Training Manual for Jihadists", contains a section titled "Covert Communications and Hiding Secrets inside Images".

Centre for Steganographic Research and Analysis, during the latest research, identified more than 725 applications for digital steganography.¹⁴

National responses to the cyber terrorism threat

The European Commission adopted a provision that requires all members of the European Union all activities defined as "attack through interference with information systems" to be punishable as terrorist act, if their goal is "serious alteration or destruction of political, economic or social structures". France expanded police power to search private property without warrants.¹⁵

¹³ A. Jahangiri, *Cyberspace, Cyberterrorism and Information Warfare: A Perfect Recipe for Confusion*: <http://www.alijahangiri.org/publication/Cyberspace-Cyberterrorism-and-Information-Warfare-A-Perfect-Recipe-for-Confusion.htm>

¹⁴ E. S. Othman, *Hide and Seek: Embedding Audio into RGB 24-bit Color Image Sporadically Using Linked List Concepts*: IOSR Journal of Computer Engineering (IOSRJCE), Volume 4, Issue 1 (Sep-Oct. 2012), PP 37-44, <http://iosrjournals.org/iosr-jce/papers/Vol4-issue1/G0413744.pdf>

¹⁵ E. Waak, *The Global Reach of Privacy Invasion, Humanist*, November/December: <http://www.thehumanist.org/humanist/articles/waakND02.htm>

Spain, similar to the UK legislation, restricts the activities of any organization that is directly or indirectly related to the ETA (Euskadi Ta Askatasuna) - an armed separatist group for Basque Homeland and Freedom. The European Council took steps to establish the wanted level across Europe and to define the term “terrorist crime.” Germany’s government cuts the limits about monitoring telephone calls and monitoring e-mails and bank accounts and restores previously limited communication between the Secret Service and the police. In June 2002, the United Kingdom, under the pretext of counter-terrorism, tried to bring regulations that would mandate almost all local and national government agencies to gain access to data communications traffic without the need of a warrant.¹⁶

Australia introduced a law on terrorists in order to intercept electronic mail (giving power to the main Australian Security Intelligence Organisation), and to create an attack directed against the preparation and planning of terrorist acts. This law allows the terrorist property to be “frozen” or taken away. New Zealand has introduced similar legislation in order to comply with the bilateral agreement on legal harmonization between these two countries.

India also brought its own decree to protect against terrorism, enabling authorities to apprehend suspect without trial, to conduct surveillance and to seize money and property of suspected terrorists, and in some cases to implement the death penalty.¹⁷

Some states, such as is the case with the U.S. and Australia, recommended setting of network operation center in cyberspace, which will include Internet service providers, and developers (programmers) of computer hardware and software.

Their task is to develop safe technology, as intelligent analysis software, that will be able to analyze existing data, both public and private, in order to detect suspicious activities.¹⁸

Multilateral responses to threats of cyber terrorism

Response of cyber terrorism by the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

As sophisticated political-military alliance, NATO has long been familiar with the use and defense of electronic and information warfare. For years, NATO is involved in efforts to transform the military organization and conduct of operations by “networking oriented warfare” and “network enabled capabilities”. At the Prague Summit in November 2002, NATO leaders decided to strengthen its capabilities to defend against cyber attacks. Decision in Prague resulted in many initiatives.¹⁹

A new NATO Cyber Terrorism Program is initiated, involving various NATO bodies: NATO Communication and Information Systems Services Agency (NCSA), described as the “first line of defense against cyber terrorism,” NATO INFOSEC Technical Center

¹⁶ K. Curran&Others, Civil Liberties and Computer Monitoring, 2004: <http://www.jiti.com/v05/jiti.v5n1.029-038.pdf>

¹⁷ Ibid

¹⁸ B. Simons, & E. H. Spafford, Inside Risks 153, *Communications of the ACM*, 46(3), March 2003

¹⁹ NATO Prague Summit Declaration Article 4(f), 21 November 2002: <http://www.nato.int/docu/pr/2002/p02-127e.htm>.

(NITC), responsible for communication and computer security; NATO Information Assurance Operations Centre (NIAOC), responsible for management and coordination of cryptographic equipment in response to a cyber attack against NATO; NATO Computer Incident Response Capability (NCIRC), whose task is to protect the NATO encrypted communications systems.²⁰

After the cyber attack against Estonia in April and May 2007, NATO ministers agreed on the outline of the NATO's cyber defense concept, which was brought in Nordwijk, in October 2008.²¹ This concept at the beginning of 2008 was developed into a NATO Policy on Cyber Defense.²² The NATO members were informed in more details about this policy on the NATO Summit held in Bucharest at the beginning of April 2008.²³

Following the Summit, NATO established Cyber Defence Management Authority (CDMA), in order to bring together all key players in the NATO activities related to cyber defense, and better management of the cyber defense support to any member of the alliance in defense against cyber attack, upon request.²⁴ At the same time, NATO leaders agreed with the formal establishment of the NATO Cooperative Cyber Defence Center of Excellence (CCD-CoE), which has been in development since 2004. The significance of the CCD-CoE, based in Tallinn, was confirmed during the attack of Estonia in 2007, so in October 2008 the NATO Council grants the Centre *full NATO accreditation* and *the organisation obtains the status of International Military Organization*.²⁵

“The mission and vision” of the CCD-CoE are described as follows: “enhance the capability, cooperation and information sharing among NATO, NATO nations and partners in cyber defence by virtue of education, research and development, lessons learned and consultation” and to be “the main source of expertise in the field of cooperative cyber defence by accumulating, creating, and disseminating knowledge in related matters within NATO, NATO nations and partners”.²⁶ The organization current has eleven “nations-sponsors”: Estonia, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovakia, Spain and the USA. Invitation for membership is open to all NATO members, but cooperation projects are also conducted jointly with NATO partner countries, academia and the private sector.

²⁰ NATO Communication and Information Systems Services Agency: http://www.ncsa.nato.int/topics/combating_cyber_terrorism.htm

²¹ European Security and Defence Assembly, ‘Cyber warfare’ (Assembly of the Western European Union, Defence Committee Report C/2022. 5 November 2008), p.19.

²² NATO, ‘Defence against cyber attacks’, 26 June 2008: http://www.nato.int/issues/cyber_defence/index.html.

²³ NATO, Bucharest Summit Declaration, Art. 47, 3 April 2008: <http://www.nato.int/docu/pr/2008/p08-049e.html>.

²⁴ NATO, ‘Defending against cyber attacks: what does this mean in practice?’, 31 March 2008: http://www.nato.int/issues/cyber_defence/practice.html.

²⁵ CCD-CoE, ‘History and way ahead’: <http://www.ccdcoe.org/12.html>

²⁶ CCD-CoE, ‘Mission and Vision’: <http://www.ccdcoe.org/11.html>

United Nations (UN)

Cyber security is one of the main themes on the traditional debates on security policy in the UN system. Normally this refers to those debates related to the threat of terrorism and in the form of Resolutions of the UN Security Council.²⁷ The topic is covered in the work of the Counter Terrorism Committee established by Security Council,²⁸ and it is mentioned in the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy.

In the latter case, the goal is not only “counter terrorism in all its forms and manifestations on the Internet”, but also with more active approach to “use the Internet as a tool for countering the spread of terrorism.”²⁹ Wider in the UN systems, cyber security is regularly recognized as a central feature that will be constantly developed in the international agenda for international security.

In the UN system, the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) has highest responsibility for the practical aspects and applications of the international cyber security.

The *ITU mission* statement embraces the *issue of cyber security* in *direct* terms. The purpose of the organization is to develop confidence in the use of cyberspace through enhanced online security. Achieving of the cyber security and cyber peace are some of the most critical concerns in the ICT development, and ITU takes concrete measures through its Global Cybersecurity Agenda (GCA).³⁰

In September 2008, the ITU and the International Multilateral Partnership Against Cyber Threats (IMPACT) signed an agreement under which GCA is located in IMPACT headquarter in Cyberjaya, Malaysia.³¹

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)

Issued in 2002 by the Directorate for Science, Technology and Industry of the OECD, Guidelines for the Security of Information Systems and Networks have become a standard reference point for national and international cyber security initiatives. Non-binding guidelines adopted by 19 of the 30 members of the OECD as well as Brazil, and the European Union. The Guidelines apply to all participants in the new information society and sug-

²⁷ See UN Security Council Resolution 1373: reference to ‘use of communications technologies by terrorist groups’ (28 September 2001, para. 3(a)): <http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2001/sc7158.doc.htm>. UN Security Council Resolution 1624 refers to the need to ‘prevent terrorists from exploiting sophisticated technology, communications and resources’ (14 September 2005, p.2): <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N05/510/52/PDF/N0551052.pdf?OpenElement>.

²⁸ UN Security Council Counter-Terrorism Committee: <http://www.un.org/sc/ctc/index.html>. See also UN Security Council, ‘Report of the Counter-Terrorism Committee to the Security Council on the implementation of resolution 1624 (2005)’ (S/2006/737, 15 September 2006), paras 6, 16, 43: <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N06/520/37/PDF/N0652037.pdf?OpenElement>.

²⁹ The Use of Internet for Terrorist Purposed: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime - Viena, (September 2012, p.vi), http://www.unodc.org/documents/frontpage/Use_of_Internet_for_Terrorist_Purposes.pdf.

³⁰ ITU Global Cybersecurity Agenda (GCA, Framework for International Cooperation in Cybersecurity), ITU 2007, <http://www.ifap.ru/library/book169.pdf>

³¹ Curbing Cyberthreats-IMPACT: <http://www.itu.int/osg/csd/cybersecurity/gca/impact/index.html>

gest the need for a greater awareness and understanding of security issues and the need to develop a “culture of security”.

The guidelines are based on nine complementary principles that organize and implement a safety culture: Awareness (the need for security of information systems and networks); Responsibility (all participants are responsible for the security of the information systems and networks); Response (participants should act on security incidents in timely and co-operative manner); Ethics (respect the legitimate interests of other users and promotion of best practice); Democracy (security measures should be compatible with the basic values of a democratic society); Risk assessment (broad assessment of threats and weaknesses as a basis for risk management); Security design and implementation (security measures should be an essential feature of information systems and networks); Security management (comprehensive approach involving all stakeholders at all levels, addressing threats as they appear); Reassessment (continuous review, revision and modification of security measures as risks evolve).³²

Other cyber security initiatives include a series of OECD reports on information security and privacy, including topics such as national guidelines for information security, OECD guidelines for policies to identify radio frequency and many others,³³ and finally the Working Party on Security of Information and Privacy (WPSIP), which aims is to provide a “foundation for developing national co-ordinated policies.”³⁴

Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)

OSCE’s interest in the challenges of cyber security is increasing. In December 2004, the OSCE Ministerial Council decided to dedicate to the “extent of use of the Internet by terrorist organizations,” including a number of activities, such as recruiting of the terrorists, foundation, organization and propaganda.³⁵ Two years later, the foreign ministers called for greater international cooperation and utilizing more effort to protect “vital critical information infrastructures and networks from the threat of cyber attacks.”

The participating countries were asked to closely monitor Web pages of the terrorist and extremist organizations and to exchange information with other governments in the OSCE and other relevant forums and it is asked “more active participation of civil society institutions and the private sector in preventing and countering the use of the Internet for terrorist purposes.”³⁶ OSCE’s Permanent Council has also been a venue for debate and discussion concerning cyber security.³⁷ In June 2008, for example, Estonian Defence

³² OECD, Guidelines for the Security of Information Systems and Networks: Toward a Culture of Security (Paris: OECD, 25 July, 2002), pp. 9-12: http://www.oecd.org/document/42/0,3343,en_2649_34255_15582250_1_1_1_1,00.html

³³ OECD Resources on Policy Issues Related to Internet Governance: http://www.oecd.org/document/t/21/0,3343,en_21571361_34590630_34591253_1_1_1_1,00.html

³⁴ OECD Working Part on Information Security and Privacy: http://www.oecd.org/document/46/0,3343,en_2649_34255_36862382_1_1_1_1,00.html

³⁵ OSCE Ministerial Council Decision 3/04: Combating the Use of the Internet for Terrorist Purposes, 7 December 2004: http://www.osce.org/documents/mcs/2004/12/3906_en.pdf

³⁶ OSCE Ministerial Council Decision 7/06: Countering the Use of the Internet for Terrorist Purposes, 5 December 2006: http://www.osce.org/documents/mcs/2006/12/22559_en.pdf

³⁷ OSCE Permanent Council: <http://www.osce.org/pc/>

Minister Jaak Aaviksoo spoke about immense amount of work that has to be done in the field of cyber security.³⁸

The OSCE's Forum for Security Co-operation (FSC) also contributed to the organization's involvement in the field of cyber security. Although the FSC's work has been concentrated largely on arms control, disarmament and confidence-building measures,³⁹ lately, the forum began to be more interested in cyber security. In October 2008, FSC (in joint session with the Permanent Council) decided to convene an OSCE workshop on a Comprehensive approach to improving cyber security in March 2009.⁴⁰ Finally, the OSCE supports national efforts, such as the Armenian Forces on Cyber Crime and Cyber Security.⁴¹

Council of Europe (CoE)

Contribution of the CoE in the international cyber security policy is primarily through the Convention on Cyber Crime, which was opened for signature in November 2001 and which entered into force in July 2004. It is important to note that, although the Convention was signed by 46 countries, including Canada, Japan, South Africa and the U.S., until today it has been ratified by only 26 countries, including Macedonia, Albania, Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Romania and Slovenia, 11 EU states have yet to ratify the Convention and five CoE member states have not even signed (including Russia). Convention was signed and ratified by countries that are not members of the CoE (Canada, Japan, South Africa and USA).⁴² Sixteen other countries that are not members of the Council of Europe are reported as "known to use the Convention as a guideline for their national legislation" (including Brazil and India).

The CoE Convention on Cybercrime is important for several aspects. First, the Convention addresses the illegal activities and practices that features across spectrum of cyber security threats. Second, the Convention establishes common standards and procedures that are legally binding on its signatories. Third, the Convention is open to the Member States of the CoE and others, which increases its authority as an international instrument. Finally, the Convention introduced requirements for handling data and access that have led to concerns about the privacy law and civil liberties.

G-8

The main contribution of the G-8 in international cyber security policy is a Sub-group of High-Tech Crime, created as a subset of Lyon Group in 1996 to combat trans-

³⁸ OSCE Permanent Council, 'OSCE can play important role in cyber security, says Estonian defence Minister', Vienna, 4 June 2008: http://www.osce.org/pc/item_1_31483.htm

³⁹ OSCE Forum for Security Co-operation: <http://www.osce.org/fsc/>

⁴⁰ OSCE FSC/PC 36th Joint Meeting, FSC Decision No. 10/08, 'OSCE Workshop on a Comprehensive OSCE Approach to Enhancing Cyber Security', 29th October 2008: <http://www.osce.org/fsc/>

⁴¹ OSCE, 'OSCE office organises discussion in Yerevan on cyber security threats', 21 March 2006: <http://www.osce.org/item/18450.html>

⁴² Council of Europe Convention on Cybercrime: <http://conventions.coe.int/treaty/Commun/ChercheSig.asp?NT=185&CM=8&DF=&CL=ENG>

national organized crime. The purpose of this subgroup was to “enhance the ability of the G-8 countries to protect, investigate and prosecute crimes committed using computers, network communications, and other new technologies.” The mission of the subunit was subsequently extended to include the use of the Internet by terrorists and the protection of critical information infrastructure. Subgroup is trying to deal with cyber crime not only within the jurisdiction of the G8 countries, but also to create guidelines that could take and implement other countries. The subgroup has created 24/7 network of contact for high-tech crime and international Critical Information Infrastructure Protection (CCIP) Directory. Subgroup has published its best practice documents and guidelines for assessment of threats to computer and network security and has organized international training conferences for cyber-crime agencies.

Conclusion

This paper gives a short overview of the term of cyber terrorism and describes the most known cyber terrorist attacks. Taking in consideration the fact that the cyber terrorists are using smarter methods and tools to attack computer systems and government institutions, and the main objective is to achieve their objectives; the national and global security are subject to higher risk.

The second part of the paper represents a response to the cyber security challenges at national level and by various international organizations. NATO, for example, is a long-standing political and military organization, with extensive experience in the field of cyber terrorism and cyber security.

One of the limitations that occur during the acquisition of various cyber security measures is a balance to be made between security measures and civil liberties. There should be also a balance between the provision of specific interests to a particular organization or government, and more general requirements for the benefit of all legitimate users to be formed an international communications and technological environment that will be unfriendly-oriented to the ambitions of cyber terrorists and extremists, cyber criminals and hackers.

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