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Series of pistols This article is about the semi-automatic pistol. For other uses, see Glock (disambiguation). Glock A first-generation Glock 17 adopted by the Norwegian Armed Forces under the P80 designationType Semi-automatic pistol Machine pistol (Glock 18) Place of originAustriaService historyIn service1982–presentUsed bySee UsersWars Kurdish-Turkish conflict[1] War in Afghanistan Iraq War Mexican drug war Syrian Civil War War in Iraq Russo-Ukrainian War Russian invasion of Ukraine[2][3] 2024 conflict in Ecuador[4] Production historyDesignerGaston GlockDesigned1979–1982ManufacturerGlock Ges.m.b.H.Produced1982–presentNo. built20,000,000 as of 2020[5]VariantsSee VariantsSpecificationsCartridge 9×19mm Parabellum 10mm Auto .22 LR .357 SIG .380 ACP .40 S&W .45 ACP .45 GAP ActionShort recoil, locked breech, tilting barrel (straight blowback for Glock 25, 28 and 44)Rate of fire1,100–1,400 rounds/min (Glock 18)Muzzle velocity375 m/s (1,230 ft/s) (Glock 17, 17C, 18, 18C)[6]Effective firing range50 m (55 yd) (Glock 17, 17C, 18, 18C)Feed system6-, 10-, 13-, 15-, 17-, 19-, 24-, 25-, 31-, 33-, or 40-round[7] detachable box magazine, or 50- or 100-round[8] detachable drum magazine Glock (German: [ˈɡlɔk]; stylized as GLOCK) is a brand of polymer-framed, short-recoil-operated, striker-fired, locked-breech semi-automatic pistols designed and produced by Austrian manufacturer Glock Ges.m.b.H. The firearm entered Austrian military and police service in 1982 after becoming the top performer in reliability and safety tests.[9] Glock pistols have become the company's most profitable line of products, and have been supplied to national armed forces, security agencies, and police forces in at least 48 countries.[10] Glocks are also popular among civilians for recreational and competition shooting and self-defense.[11] The company's founder and head engineer, Gaston Glock (1929–2023), had no experience with firearms design or manufacture at the time his first pistol, the Glock 17, was being prototyped. Glock had extensive experience in advanced synthetic polymers, which was instrumental in the company's design of the first commercially successful line of pistols with a polymer frame.[12] Glock introduced ferritic nitrocarburizing into the firearms industry as an anticorrosion surface treatment for metal gun parts.[13] In 1980, the Austrian Armed Forces announced that it would seek tenders for a new, modern duty pistol to replace their World War II–era Walther P38 handguns.[9] The Federal Ministry of Defence of Austria formulated a list of 17 criteria for the new generation service pistol, including requirements that it would be self loading; fire the NATO-standard 9×19mm Parabellum round; the magazines were not to require any means of assistance for loading; be secure against accidental discharge from shock, strike, and drop from a height of 2 m (6 ft 7 in) onto a steel plate.[9] After firing 15,000 rounds of standard ammunition, the pistol was to be inspected for wear. The pistol was to then be used to fire an overpressure test cartridge generating 5,000 bar (500 MPa; 73,000 psi).[dubious – discuss] The normal maximum operating pressure (Pmax) for the 9 mm NATO is 2,520 bar (252 MPa; 36,500 psi).[14] Glock became aware of the Austrian Army's planned procurement, and in 1982, assembled a team of Europe's leading handgun experts from military, police, and civilian sport-shooting circles to define the most desirable characteristics in a combat pistol.[9] Within three months, Glock had developed a working prototype that combined proven mechanisms and traits from previous pistol designs.[15] In addition, the plan was to make extensive use of synthetic materials and modern manufacturing technologies, which led to the Glock 17 becoming a cost-effective candidate. Several samples of the Glock 17 (so named corresponding to its magazine capacity[16] or because it was the 17th patent procured by the company)[17] were submitted for assessment trials in early 1982, and after passing all of the exhaustive endurance and abuse tests, the Glock emerged as the winner.[18][19][20] According to Friedrich Dechant, former head of the Austrian Armaments and Defence Technology Agency, the Glock P80 was clearly superior to other handguns in terms of performance, handling, charging capacity and price.[21] The handgun was adopted into service with the Austrian military and law enforcement in 1982 as the Pistole 80 (P80),[22] with an initial order for 25,000 guns.[15] The Glock 17 outperformed eight different pistols from five other established manufacturers (Heckler & Koch of Germany offered their P7M8, P7M13, and P9S, SIG Sauer of Switzerland bid with their P220 and P226 models, Beretta of Italy submitted their model 92SB-F, FN Herstal of Belgium proposed an updated variant of the Browning Hi-Power, and the Austrian Steyr Mannlicher entered the competition with the GB).[23] The results of the Austrian trials sparked a wave of interest in Western Europe and overseas, particularly in the United States, where a similar effort to select a service-wide replacement for the M1911 had been going on since the late 1970s (known as the Joint Service Small Arms Program). In late 1983, the United States Department of Defense inquired about the Glock pistol and received four samples of the Glock 17 for unofficial evaluation.[24] Glock was then invited to participate in the XM9 Personal Defense Pistol Trials, but declined because the DOD specifications would require extensive retooling of production equipment and providing 35 test samples in an unrealistic time frame.[24] In 1985, after joint Norwegian and Swedish trials from 1983 to 1985, the Glock 17 was accepted into service as the P80 in Norway, and in 1988 as the Pistol 88 in Sweden, where it surpassed all prior NATO durability standards.[25][26][24] As a result, the Glock 17 became a standard NATO-classified sidearm and was granted a NATO Stock Number (1005-25-133-6775).[24] By 1992, some 350,000 pistols had been sold in more than 45 countries, including 250,000 in the United States alone.[22] Starting in 2013, the British Armed Forces began replacing the Browning Hi-Power pistol with the Glock 17 Gen 4, due to concerns about weight and the external safety of the Hi-Power.[27] The British preferred the Glock 17 Gen 4 over the Beretta Px4 Storm, FN FNP, Heckler & Koch P30, SIG Sauer P226, Smith & Wesson M&P, and Steyr M9A1 of which 19 pistols each, all chambered in 9×19 mm Parabellum, were entered in the R9GSP trials.[28][29] The French Armed Forces (FAF) in 2020 began replacing their MAC Mle 1950 and, to a lesser extent, their PAMAS G1 pistols with Glock 17 Gen 5 models specifically made for the FAF.[30] The French preferred the Glock 17 Gen 5 over the HS2000 and CZ P-10 offerings that also made it to the final selection phase.[31] Glock has updated its basic design several times throughout its production history. A "first-generation" Glock 17 with the slide locked back, displaying its vertical barrel tilt The first-generation (Gen 1) Glock pistols are most notably recognized by their smoother "pebble finish" grip and finger groove-less frames. The Gen 1 frame pattern and design was used by Glock from 1982 through 1988 and pre-dates the checkered grip patterns used in the second generation of Glock pistols. The first Glock 17s imported to the US were serialized with an alphanumeric (two-letter prefix followed by three numbers) stamped into the slide, barrel, and a small metal plate inserted into the bottom side of the polymer frame. The first documented Glock 17s (by serial number) imported into the US were from the AF000 series in January 1986, followed by AH000, AK000, and AL000.[32] These early Glock (Gen 1) pistols (serial number prefix AF through AM) were also manufactured with a barrel that had a smaller overall diameter and thinner bore walls, later known as "pencil barrels". The barrels were later redesigned with thicker bore walls, and manufacturing continued to evolve and improve the design of Glock pistols.[33] Many of the first-generation Glocks were shipped and sold in the iconic "Tupperware" style plastic boxes. The earliest Glock boxes had ammunition storage compartments that allowed for 17 rounds of 9mm to be stored with the pistol. This box design was later changed by Glock to meet BATF import requirements, and the ammunition storage compartments were removed.[33] A "second-generation" Glock 17, identified by the checkering on the front and rear straps of the pistol grip and trigger guard A mid-life upgrade to the Glock pistols involved the addition of checkering on the front strap and trigger guard and checkering and serrations to the back strap. These versions, introduced in 1988, were informally referred to as "second-generation" or Gen2 models, though Glock did not mark the pistols Gen2.[34] In 1991, an integrated recoil spring assembly replaced the original two-piece recoil spring and tube design. The magazine was slightly modified, changing the floorplate and fitting the follower spring with a resistance insert at its base.[citation needed] A "third-generation" Glock 17C, identified by the addition of an extra cross pin above the trigger, finger grooves, a reshaped extractor that serves as a loaded chamber indicator, and an accessory rail In 1998, the frame was further modified with an accessory rail (called the "Universal Glock rail") similar to a Picatinny rail to allow the mounting of laser sights, tactical lights, and other accessories. Thumb rests on both sides of the frame and finger grooves on the front strap were added. Glock pistols with these upgrades are informally referred to as (early) "third-generation" models. Later third-generation models additionally featured a modified extractor that serves as a loaded chamber indicator, and the locking block was enlarged, along with the addition of an extra cross pin to aid the distribution of bolt thrust forces exerted by the locking block. This cross pin is known as the locking block pin and is located above the trigger pin.[35] The polymer frames of third-generation models can be black, flat dark earth, or olive drab. Besides that, non-firing dummy pistols ("P" models) and non-firing dummy pistols with resetting triggers ("R" models) have a bright red frame, and Simunition-adapted practice pistols ("T" models) a bright blue frame for easy identification.[36] In 2009, the Glock 22 RTF2 (Rough Textured Frame 2) (chambered in .40 S&W) was introduced. This pistol featured a new checkering texture around the grip and new scalloped (fish gill-shaped) serrations at the rear of the sides of the slide.[37][38] Many of the existing models became available in the RTF2 version, including the 17,[39] 31, 32, 23, 21, and 19. Some of those did not have the fish gills.[original research?] A "fourth-generation" Glock 17, identified by an enlarged and reversible magazine release catch, modified rough texture frame grip checkering, interchangeable backstraps, and a "Gen4" rollmark on the slide A "fourth-generation" Glock 19 At the 2010 SHOT Show, Glock presented the "fourth generation", now dubbed "Gen4" by Glock itself.[40] Updates centered on ergonomics and the recoil spring assembly. The initial two fourth-generation models announced were the full-sized Glock 17 and Glock 22, chambered for the 9×19mm Parabellum and .40 S&W cartridges, respectively. The pistols were displayed with a modified rough-textured frame (RTF-4), front grip strap with finger grooves, interchangeable backstraps of different sizes, and an accessory rail.[34] "Gen4" is rollmarked on the slide next to the model number to identify the fourth-generation pistols. The basic grip size of the fourth-generation Glock pistols is slightly smaller compared to the previous design. A punch is provided to remove the standard trigger housing pin and replace it with the longer cross pin needed to mount the medium or large backstrap that will increase the trigger distance by 2 mm (0.079 in) or 4 mm (0.16 in). With the medium backstrap installed, the grip size is identical to the third-generation pistols. The magazine release catches are enlarged and reversible for left-handed use.[citation needed] To use the exchangeable magazine release feature, fourth-generation Glock magazines have a notch cut on both sides of the magazine body. Earlier versions of the magazines will not lock into the Gen4 pistols if the user has moved the magazine release button to be operated by a left-handed user. Gen4 magazines will work in older models.[41] Mechanically, fourth-generation Glock pistols are fitted with a dual recoil spring assembly to help reduce perceived recoil and increase service life expectancy. Earlier subcompact Glock models such as the Glock 26 and Glock 30 have already used a dual recoil spring assembly that was carried over to the fourth-generation versions of those models. The slide and barrel shelf have been resized, and the front portion of the polymer frame has been widened and internally enlarged, to accommodate the dual recoil spring assembly. The trigger mechanism housing has also been modified to fit into the smaller-sized grip space.[42][43][44][45][46] The introduction of fourth-generation Glock pistols continued in July 2010 when the Glock 19 and Glock 23, the reduced size "compact" versions of the Glock 17 and Glock 22, became available for retail.[47] In late 2010, Glock continued the introduction of fourth-generation models with the Glock 26 and Glock 27 "subcompact" variants. In January 2013, more fourth-generation Glock pistols were introduced commercially during the annual SHOT Show, including the Glock 20 Generation 4 along with other fourth-generation Glock models.[citation needed] In September 2011, Glock announced a recoil spring exchange program in which the manufacturer voluntarily offers to exchange the recoil spring assemblies of its fourth-generation pistols (with the exception of the "subcompact" Glock 26 and Glock 27 models) sold before 22 July 2011 at no cost "to ensure our products perform up to GLOCK's stringent standards", according to the company.[48] On 29 June 2016, the United States Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) awarded a contract to Glock to provide new 9×19mm Parabellum chambered duty pistols.[49] The solicitation specifications deviated from the specifications of Glock fourth-generation models.[50] Features found in the M series pistols evolved into what become Glock's Fifth Generation or Gen5 pistols.[34] In August 2016, the Indianapolis Metro Police Department (IMPD) started training with a batch of Glock 17M pistols. The most obvious difference with the Glock third- and fourth-generation models on published images is the omission of finger grooves on the grip.[51] In October of that year, the IMPD issued a 17M voluntary recall following failures encountered while dry firing the pistols during training. According to Major Riddle with the IMPD, "Glock is working to correct the problem and we hope to begin issuing the new [17Ms] as soon as December."[52][53] A "fifth generation" Glock 17 Gen 5 FR used by a French soldier In August 2017, Glock presented the "fifth generation" or "Gen 5". The revisions centered on ergonomics and improving reliability. Many parts of fifth-generation Glock pistols cannot be interchanged with those of the previous generations. The two fifth-generation models announced were the Glock 17 and Glock 19, chambered for the 9×19mm Parabellum. Some conspicuous changes on the fifth-generation models are ambidextrous slide stop levers, DLC surface finish for barrel and slide, a barrel featuring a revised style of polygonal rifling (called the "Glock Marksman Barrel" by Glock), a deeper recessed barrel crown, omission of the finger grooves on the grip, a flared magazine well, and a reintroduction of a half-moon-shaped cutout on the bottom front of the grip. The locking block pin located above the trigger pin that was introduced in the third generation is omitted. Many internal parts were less conspicuously revised.[54][55][56][57][58] "Gen 5" is rollmarked on the slide next to the model number to identify the fifth-generation pistols. The "Gen 5" slide can feature front serrations (FS) to provide an additional tactile traction surface choice. The magazines were also revised for the fifth-generation models: the redesigned magazine floor plates feature a frontward protruding lip to offer grip for manual assisted extraction and the magazine follower became orange colored for easier visual identification.[citation needed] The Glock 17 is a short recoil–operated, locked-breech semi-automatic pistol that uses a modified Browning cam-lock system adapted from the Hi-Power pistol.[59] The firearm's locking mechanism uses a linkless, vertically tilting barrel with a rectangular breech that locks into the ejection port cut-out in the slide (the SIG Sauer system). During the recoil stroke, the barrel moves rearward initially locked together with the slide about 3 mm (0.12 in) until the bullet leaves the barrel and chamber pressure drops to a safe level. A ramped lug extension at the base of the barrel then interacts with a tapered locking block integrated into the frame, forcing the barrel down and unlocking it from the slide. This camming action terminates the barrel's movement while the slide continues back under recoil, extracting and ejecting the spent cartridge casing. The slide's uninterrupted rearward movement and counter-recoil cycle are characteristic of the Browning system.[60] Glock pistols incorporate a number of features intended to enhance reliability in adverse conditions, such as utilizing advanced metal coatings, "stub" slide guides instead of true frame rails, and an unusual cocking mechanism wherein the trigger is partially responsible for cocking the striker.[61][better source needed] By relying partially on force from the shooter's trigger finger to cock the striker, a Glock effectively reduces the load on the recoil spring as the slide moves forward into battery, whereas almost all other striker-fired pistols on the market rely fully on the recoil spring to cock the striker.[62][better source needed] A subcompact Glock 30 field stripped to its main groups with a .45 ACP round The slide features a spring-loaded claw extractor, and the stamped sheet metal ejector is pinned to the trigger mechanism housing.[63] Pistols after 2002 have a reshaped extractor that serves as a loaded chamber indicator. When a cartridge is present in the chamber, a tactile metal edge protrudes slightly out immediately behind the ejection port on the right side of the slide.[64] The striker firing mechanism has a spring-loaded firing pin that is cocked in two stages that the firing pin spring powers. The factory-standard firing pin spring is rated at 24 N (5.4 lbf), but by using a modified firing pin spring, it can be increased to 28 N (6.3 lbf) or to 31 N (7.0 lbf).[65] When the pistol is charged, the firing pin is in the half-cock position. As the trigger is pulled, the firing pin is then fully cocked. At the end of its travel, the trigger bar is tilted downward by the connector, releasing the firing pin to fire the cartridge. The connector resets the trigger bar so that the firing pin will be captured in half-cock at the end of the firing cycle. This is known as a preset trigger mechanism, referred to as the "Safe action" trigger by the manufacturer. The connector ensures the pistol can only fire semiautomatically.[citation needed] The factory-standard, two-stage trigger has a trigger travel of 12.5 mm (0.49 in) and is rated at 25 N (5.6 lbf), but by using a modified connector, it can be increased to 35 N (7.9 lbf) or lowered to 20 N (4.5 lbf). In response to a request made by American law enforcement agencies for a two-stage trigger with increased trigger pull, Glock introduced the NY1 (New York) trigger module, which features a flat spring in a plastic housing that replaces the trigger bar's standard coil spring. This trigger modification is available in two versions: NY1 and NY2 that are rated at 25 N (5.6 lbf) to 40 N (9.0 lbf) and 32 N (7.2 lbf) to 50 N (11.2 lbf), respectively, which require about 20 N (4.5 lbf) to 30 N (6.7 lbf) of force to disengage the safeties and another 10 N (2.2 lbf) to 20 N (4.5 lbf) in the second stage to fire a shot.[citation needed] The Glock's frame, magazine body, and several other components are made from a high-strength nylon-based polymer invented by Gaston Glock, called Polymer 2.[66] This plastic was specially formulated to provide increased durability and is more resilient than carbon steel and most steel alloys. Polymer 2 is resistant to shock, caustic liquids, and temperature extremes where traditional steel/alloy frames would warp and become brittle.[66] The injection-molded frame contains four hardened steel guide rails for the slide: two at the rear of the frame, and the remaining pair above and in front of the trigger guard. The trigger guard itself is squared off at the front and checkered. The grip has an angle of 109° and a nonslip, stippled surface on the sides and both the front and rear straps.[67] The frame houses the locking block, which is an investment casting that engages a 45° camming surface on the barrel's lower camming lug. It is retained in the frame by a steel axis pin that holds the trigger and slide catch. The trigger housing is held to the frame by means of a polymer pin. A spring-loaded sheet-metal pressing serves as the slide catch, which is secured from unintentional manipulation by a raised guard molded into the frame. Because of its polymer construction, there were initially fears that Glock pistols would be invisible to airport X-ray machines, making them easy to illegally import into the United States. In actuality, 84% of the gun's weight is from steel, and Polymer 2 is visible to X-ray machines. The myth's prevalence is believed to be connected to a scene that perpetuated the myth in Die Hard 2, which released a few years after the Glock was invented.[68] In 1988, the Undetectable Firearms Act was passed in the United States, banning the manufacture or import of any gun that could pass undetected through a metal detector.[citation needed] The Glock pistol has a relatively low slide profile, which holds the barrel axis close to the shooter's hand and makes the pistol more comfortable to fire by reducing muzzle rise and allows for faster aim recovery in rapid firing sequences. The rectangular slide is milled from a single block of ordnance-grade steel using CNC machinery.[69] The barrel and slide undergo two hardening processes prior to treatment with a proprietary nitriding process called Tenifer. The Tenifer treatment is applied in a 500 °C (932 °F) nitrate bath.[66] The Tenifer finish is between 0.04 and 0.05 mm (0.0016 and 0.0020 in) in thickness, and is characterized by extreme resistance to wear and corrosion; it penetrates the metal, and treated parts have similar properties even below the surface to a certain depth.[70] The Tenifer process produces a matte gray-colored, nonglare surface with a 64 Rockwell C hardness rating and a 99% resistance to salt water corrosion (which meets or exceeds stainless steel specifications),[69] making the Glock particularly suitable for individuals carrying the pistol concealed as the highly chloride-resistant finish allows the pistol to better endure the effects of perspiration.[70] Glock steel parts using the Tenifer treatment are more corrosion resistant than analogous gun parts having other finishes or treatments, including Teflon, bluing, hard chrome plating, or phosphates.[70] During 2010, Glock switched from the salt bath nitriding Tenifer process to a not exactly disclosed gas nitriding process. After applying the nitriding process, a black Parkerized decorative surface finish is applied. The underlying nitriding treatment will remain, protecting these parts even if the decorative surface finish were to wear off.[13] A fourth generation Glock 17 consists of 34 parts.[65] For maintenance, the pistol disassembles into five main groups: the barrel, slide, frame, magazine, and recoil-spring assembly. The firearm is designed for the NATO-standard 9×19mm Parabellum cartridge, but can use high-power (increased pressure) +P ammunition with either full-metal-jacket or jacketed hollow-point projectiles.[citation needed] The hammer-forged barrel has a female type polygonal rifling with a right-hand twist. The stabilization of the round is not by conventional rifling, using lands and grooves, but rather through a polygonal profile consisting of a series of six or eight interconnected noncircular segments (only the .45 ACP and .45 GAP have octagonal polygonal rifling). Each depressed segment within the interior of the barrel is the equivalent of a groove in a conventional barrel. Thus, the interior of the barrel consists of smooth arcs of steel rather than sharply defined slots. Instead of using a traditional broaching machine to cut the rifling into the bore, the hammer forging process involves beating a slowly rotating mandrel through the bore to obtain the hexagonal or octagonal shape.[71] As a result, the barrel's thickness in the area of each groove is not compromised as with conventional square-cut barrels. This has the advantage of providing a better gas seal behind the projectile as the bore has a slightly smaller diameter, which translates into more efficient use of the combustion gases trapped behind the bullet,[71] slightly greater (consistency in) muzzle velocities, and increased accuracy and ease of maintenance.[72][better source needed] The newer lines of Glock pistols—i.e. Gen5, G42/43—are equipped with the Glock Marksmanship Barrel, or GMB. While older barrels were somewhat difficult to identify a bullet as coming from a particular barrel with high enough reliability for evidentiary use, the newer GMB ones are designed differently. A study by Stephen Christen and Hans Rudolf Jordi, published by Forensic Science International in February 2019, shows that the new GMB barrels leave more identifiably unique markings on the fired projectile. These marks were more easily identified than previous pistol barrel markings, and were sufficient for reliably tying a bullet to a particular barrel. The study used a comparison microscope and an ABIS (Evofinder).[73] Glock pistols lack a traditional on-off safety lever, which Glock markets as an advantage, especially to police departments, as the user is able to fire immediately without separately manipulating a safety.[74] Instead, the pistols are designed with three independent safety mechanisms to prevent accidental discharge. The system, designated "Safe Action" by Glock, consists of an external integrated trigger safety and two automatic internal safeties: a firing pin safety and a drop safety.[75] The external safety is a small inner lever contained in the trigger. Pressing the lever activates the trigger bar and sheet metal connector. The firing pin safety is a solid hardened steel pin that, in the secured state, blocks the firing pin channel (disabling the firing pin in its longitudinal axis). It is pushed upward to release the firing pin for firing only when the trigger is actuated and the safety is pushed up through the backward movement of the trigger bar. The drop safety guides the trigger bar in a ramp that is released only when direct rearward pressure is applied to the trigger. The three safety mechanisms are automatically disengaged one after the other when the trigger is squeezed, and are automatically reactivated when the trigger is released.[22][76] In 2003, Glock announced the Internal Locking System (ILS) safety feature named Glock Safety Lock.[77] The ILS is a manually activated lock located in the back of the pistol's grip. It is cylindrical in design and, according to Glock, each key is unique. When activated, the lock causes a tab to protrude from the rear of the grip, giving both a visual and tactile indication as to whether the lock is engaged or not.[78] When activated, the ILS renders the Glock unfireable, as well as making it impossible to disassemble. When disengaged, the ILS adds no further safety mechanisms to the Glock pistol. The ILS is available as an option on most Glock pistols. Glock pistols cannot be retrofitted to accommodate the ILS. The lock must be factory-built in Austria and shipped as a special order.[citation needed] A Glock 9×19mm Parabellum 17-round magazine. The numbered witness holes at the back portion visually indicate how many cartridges are contained in the magazine. The Glock 17 feeds from staggered-column or double stack magazines that have a 17-round capacity (which can be extended to 19 with an optional floor plate) or optional 24 or 33-round high-capacity magazines.[79] For jurisdictions which restrict magazine capacity to 10 rounds, Glock offers single-stack, 10-round magazines. The magazines are made of steel and are overmolded with plastic. A steel spring drives a plastic follower. After the last cartridge has been fired, the slide remains open on the slide stop. The slide stop release lever is located on the left side of the frame directly beneath the slide and can be manipulated by the thumb of the right-handed shooter.[citation needed] Glock magazines are interchangeable between models of the same caliber, meaning that a compact or subcompact pistol will accept magazines designed for the larger pistols chambered for the same round. However, magazines designed for compact and subcompact models will not function in larger pistols because they are not tall enough to reach the slide and magazine release. For example, the subcompact Glock 26 will accept magazines from both the full-size Glock 17 and the compact Glock 19, but the Glock 17 will not accept magazines from the smaller Glock 19 or the Glock 26. The magazines for the Glock 36, the Glock 42, the Glock 43, and the Glock 44 are all unique; they cannot use magazines intended for another model, nor can their magazines be used in other models.[citation needed] Standard sighting arrangement of a "first-generation" Glock 17 The first Glock pistols sent to the United States in 1985 failed to meet the BATF import "points" requirement, requiring Glock to quickly develop an adjustable rear sight which allowed for the pistols to be imported and sold commercially in 1986. It is believed that Glock designed and created this adjustable rear sight over a weekend in order to meet the ATF's importation requirements, and so it was dubbed the "weekend" sight. These first-generation adjustable rear sights extended past the slide and were susceptible to breaking.[80] Even on later models, the front sight can easily become misshapen from friction against the holster,[81] leading to replacements with metal sights, or tritium illuminated night sights.[82] More commonly today, the Glock 17 has a fixed polymer combat-type sighting arrangement that consists of a ramped front sight and a notched rear sight with white contrast elements painted on for increased acquisition speed – a white dot on the front post and a rectangular border on the rear notch. Some newer rear sights can be adjusted for windage (on certain models due to the windage sights not coming as factory default), as it has a degree of lateral movement in the dovetail it is mounted in. Three other factory rear sight configurations are available in addition to the standard 6.5 mm (0.26 in) height sight: a lower impact 6.1 mm (0.24 in) sight, and two higher impact versions – 6.9 mm (0.27 in) and 7.3 mm (0.29 in).[83] The Glock pistol accessories available from the factory include several devices for tactical illumination, such as a series of front rail-mounted "Glock tactical lights" featuring a white tactical light and an optional visible laser sight. An alternate version of the tactical light using an invisible infrared light and laser sight is available, designed to be used with an infrared night vision device. Another lighting accessory is an adapter to mount a flashlight onto the bottom of a magazine. Polymer holsters in various configurations and matching magazine pouches are available. In addition, Glock produces optional triggers, recoil springs, slide stops, magazine release levers, and maritime spring cups. Maritime spring cups are designed to allow the pistol to be fired immediately after being submerged in water. They feature additional openings that allow liquids to flow and escape around them, offering enhanced reliability when water has penetrated into the firing pin assembly channel. Magazine floor plates (or +2 baseplates), which expand the capacity of the standard magazines by two rounds, are available for models chambered for the 9×19mm Parabellum, .45 GAP, .40 S&W, .357 SIG, and .380 ACP cartridges. In addition to the standard nonadjustable polymer sight line, three alternative sight lines are offered by Glock. These consist of steel, adjustable, and self-illuminating tritium night rear sights and factory steel and self-illuminating tritium contrast pointer steel front sights.[84] The Glock 17 along with many variants can accept pistol conversion kits, with one such example being the FAB-Defense KPOS Scout.[85] They can also accept special stocks like the Flux Defense Brace.[86] Main article: Glock switch A Glock switch is an aftermarket accessory which depresses the firearm's sear, allowing fully automatic fire. Without the proper license, they are illegal in the United States.[87] Glock began producing limited edition and commemorative Glocks in 1991. Glock later produced a series of anniversary models to celebrate business milestones and in honor of 20, 25, and 30 years of US sales. Additionally, many law enforcement agencies had the department name, logo, or badges engraved on the slides of issued duty weapons.[33] This section needs additional citations for verification. Please help improve this article by adding citations to reliable sources in this section. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. (May 2024) (Learn how and when to remove this message) Following the introduction of the Glock 17, numerous variants and versions have been offered. Variants that differ in caliber, frame, and slide length are identified by different model numbers with the exception of a few models with a letter suffix (the Glock 17L, 19X, 30S, and 43X). The original double-stack "small frame" Glock pistols are made in five form factors, all modeled after the original full-sized Glock 17. "Standard" models are designed as full-sized duty firearms with a large magazine capacity. "Compact" models are slightly smaller with reduced magazine capacity and lighter weight while maintaining a usable grip length. "Subcompact" models are designed for easier carry and being lighter and shorter, are intended to be used with two fingers on the grip below the trigger guard and lack an accessory rail like the larger, after generation two, Glock models. The other two form factors use the full-size "standard" frame with longer slides that include a lower section to fill in the space between the frame's dust cover and the front of the slide. The first of these are the "long slide" models, which were too long for certain IPSC classes, necessitating the creation of the intermediate "competition" models. Currently, available chamberings for all five form-factors are 9mm Parabellum (9×21mm in certain countries) and .40 Smith & Wesson. Additionally, .357 SIG and .45 GAP chamberings are offered in "standard", "compact", and "subcompact" models, while .380 ACP is offered only in "compact" and "sub-compact" models. Recently, so-called "crossover" versions in 9mm Parabellum pair short (front to back) "compact" frames with longer "standard" grip lengths. This was initially to provide a longer-grip, higher capacity version of the Glock 19 (Glock 19X and Glock 45), but Glock developed the Glock 47 for US Customs and Border Patrol which used the G45 frame with a G17 length slide that included a front section to fill in the gap between the dust cover and the front of the slide, a design that fits the same overall dimensions as the Glock 17. Naturally, the next step was to couple this slide with the Glock 19 Frame, creating the Glock 49. There are also the wider double-stack "large frame" Glock pistols for use with larger calibers, currently in 10mm Auto and .45 ACP. These models have bigger, wider slides and frames and are larger than the smaller-chambered pistols. These come in only "standard", "subcompact", "competition" (.45 ACP only), and "long slide" (10mm only). Additionally, Glock introduced the "subcompact" Glock 30S in .45 ACP adjusted to use the slimmer lighter slide of the Glock 36. Also, in 2007, Glock introduced a "short frame" version of these large frame weapons to provide a grip better suited to small hands. The short frame was originally designed to compete in the now cancelled U.S. military Joint Combat Pistol trials for a new .45 ACP pistol to replace the M9 pistol. Glock's entry featured an optional ambidextrous magazine release and MIL-STD-1913 rail along with a reduction in the size of the backstrap. The Glock 21SF was originally available in three versions: one with a Picatinny rail and ambidextrous magazine release and two with a Universal Glock rail available with or without the ambidextrous magazine release. However, the ambidextrous release and picatinny rail were soon dropped. As of January 2009, the Glock 20, 21, 29, and 30 were offered in short-framed variations. These models incorporate a 2.5 mm (0.098 in) reduction in trigger reach, and full-sized models feature a 4 mm (0.16 in) reduction in heel depth, which corresponds to an overall reduction in length for those models.[88][89][90] The short frame models were not introduced for the Gen 4 and Gen 5 models, as the replaceable backstraps design makes a separate short frame version redundant. Glock also produces single-stack "slimline" models, targeting the concealed carry market. The first was introduced with Gen 3 in .45 ACP as the Glock 36. More recently, after the introduction of Gen 5, came the Glock 42 in .380 ACP, followed by the Glock 43 in 9mm Parabellum. The most recent additions to the "slimline" series, the 43X and 48, were introduced together in 9mm Parabellum. These have longer grips that allow for a full three-finger hold and a 10-round capacity. The 43X is a long grip "crossover" 43, while the 48 has a longer slide to provide a "slimline" version of the "compact" Glock 19. Glock Variants with normal frame width (slide size/grip size) Caliber Subcompact (SC)/SC Compact (C)/C C/Standard (Std) Std/C Std/Std Competition/Std Long Slide/Std 9×19mm G26 G19,[a] G46 G19X,[b] G45[c] G49[d] G17,[e] G18, G47,[f] P80 G34[g] G17L[h] 10mm Auto G29 G20[i] G40[j] .45 ACP G30, G30S[k] G21[l] G41[m] .40 S&W G27 G23 G22[n] G35[o] G24[p] .380 Auto G28 G25 .357 SIG G33 G32 G31 .45 G.A.P. G39 G38 G37 22 LR G44 ^ G19 compact size slide is interchangeable with G47 and G49 standard size slides and the G19X and G45 compact size slides. ^ G19X compact size slide is interchangeable with G47 and G49 standard size slides and the G19 and G45 compact size slides. ^ G45 compact size slide is interchangeable with G47 and G49 standard size slides and the G19 and G19X compact size slides. ^ G49 standard size slide is interchangeable with G47 standard size slide and G19, G19X, and G45 compact size slides. ^ G17 standard size slide is interchangeable with G17L long slide and G34 competition size slide. ^ G47 standard size slide is interchangeable with G49 standard size slide and G19, G19X, and G45 compact size slides. ^ G34 competition size slide is interchangeable with G17 standard size slide and G17L long slide. ^ G17L long slide is interchangeable with G17 standard size slide and G34 competition size slide. ^ G20 standard size slide is interchangeable with G40 long slide. ^ G40 long slide is interchangeable with G20 standard size slide. ^ G30S slim slide is interchangeable with G36 slim slide. ^ G21 standard size slide is interchangeable with G41 long slide. ^ G41 long slide is interchangeable with G21 standard size slide. ^ G22 standard size slide is interchangeable with G24 long slide and G35 competition size slide. ^ G35 competition size slide is interchangeable with G22 standard size slide and G24 long slide. ^ G24 long slide is interchangeable with G22 standard size slide and G35 competition size slide. Glock Variants with slimline frame width (slide size/grip size) Caliber Subcompact (SC)/SC SC/Compact (C) C/C 9×19mm G43 (slim)[a] G43X (slim)[b] G48 (slim)[c] .45 ACP G36 (slim)[d] .380 Auto G42 (slim) ^ G43 subcompact size slide is interchangeable with G43X subcompact and G48 compact slide. ^ G43X subcompact size slide is interchangeable with G43 subcompact and G48 compact slide. ^ G48 compact size slide is interchangeable with subcompact slides of G43 and G43X. ^ G36 slim slide is interchangeable with G30S slim slide. Glock 17: The Glock 17 is the original 9×19mm Parabellum model, with a standard magazine capacity of 17 rounds, introduced in 1982. Initial samples of the new civilian offering were marked Glock 82. But, it was decided not to use the year to designate civilian models, but to begin the model numbers at 17 and continue numerically from there. Glock also offers a version of the standard magazine which incorporates a longer "+2" base plate to provide a capacity of 19 rounds. Also, a 10-round version of the standard magazine was created for markets that restrict the magazine capacity of handguns. Glock also offers an extended 24-round (with flush base plate) magazine for the Glock 17. Finally, the Glock 17 can use the Glock 18's extended 33-round (with +2 base plate) magazine. The base plates for the extended magazines can be swapped out to create 26- and 31-round magazines as well. The longest serving of the Glocks, the Glock 17 can be had with numerous "options" such as a threaded barrel, or slides cut for the Modular Optic System (MOS). Some options, such as the universal Glock rail have become standard. In addition, some features have been given their own suffixed model designations creating entirely new models, all of which can use the same magazines as the Glock 17: Glock 17L: Introduced in 1988, the 17L incorporates a longer slide and extended barrel. Initially, the Glock 17L had three holes in the top of the barrel and a corresponding slot in the slide; however, later production pistols lack the holes in the barrel. The Glock 17L is manufactured in limited quantities. Glock 17C: Introduced in 1996, the 17C incorporates slots cut in the barrel and slide to compensate for recoil. Many other Glock pistols now come with this option, all with a "C" suffix on the slide. Glock 17MB: The 17MB is a version with ambidextrous magazine catch. This model, along with the other MB variants, was no longer available upon the introduction of the fourth-generation models, which have a reversible magazine catch. Glock 17M: Introduced in 2016, the 17M was created in response to an FBI solicitation for a new full-size 9mm pistol. Differences from the Generation 4 model include removal of the finger grooves, ambidextrous slide lock, rounded slide nose profile, flared magazine well with new magazine baseplates, and a tougher finish on metal components. The Glock 17M also abandons the polygonal rifling of previous models for conventional rifling.[91] As of 2017[update], the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the South Carolina Highway Patrol and the Ontario Provincial Police[92] have adopted the pistol as standard. Glock P80: Introduced in 2020, the P80 was commissioned by United States firearms distributor Lipsey's to create an exclusive commemorative Glock model, the Pistole 80. The P80 is a throwback to the original Glock 17 Gen 1 type pistol chambered in 9×19mm with original Gen 1 frame and stippling and Gen 2 / Gen 3 internals Man firing a fully automatic 9×19mm Glock 18 machine pistol with a shoulder stock Glock 18: The Glock 18 is a selective-fire variant of the Glock 17, developed at the request of the Austrian counter-terrorist unit EKO Cobra, and as a way to internally test Glock components under high strain conditions.[93] Originally produced in 1986, this machine pistol–class firearm has a lever-type fire-control circular selector switch, installed on the serrated portion of the rear left side of the slide. With the selector lever in the bottom position, the pistol fires fully automatically at a cyclic rate of 1,100–1,400 RPM (rounds per minute), and with the selector lever in the top position, the pistol fires semi-automatically. The firearm is typically used with an extended 33-round-capacity magazine and may be fired with or without a shoulder stock, although other magazines from the Glock 17 can be used, with available capacities of 10, 17, 19 or 24 rounds. Unlike all Glock's other pistols, it is only offered to military, law enforcement, and government organizations.[94] Early Glock 18 models were ported to reduce muzzle rise during automatic fire. A very early design introduced a longer ported barrel, which was soon discarded as it would not fit in a holster. Another compensated variant was produced, known as the Glock 18C. It has a keyhole opening cut into the forward portion of the slide, similar to the opening on the Glock long-slide models, although the Glock 18 has a standard-length slide. The keyh

Police of the Czech Republic, mainly special units[191] 17 Denmark Sirius Dog Sled Patrol, Greenland[192] 20 Ecuador National Police,[172] Various special police units such as the GOE and GIR[172] 17 Estonia Police and Border Guard Board[193][194] 19 Estonian Special Operations Force[195] 19 Finland Finnish Defence Forces[196] 17 (as 9.00 PIST 2008) Finnish Police, primary service firearm;[197] Border Guard (Ministry of Interior)[196] 17, 19, 26 Criminal Sanctions Agency, Dept. of Corrections (Vankeinhoitolaitos) (Ministry of Justice)[196] — France French Armed Forces[198][199][30][200][201] 17, 17 MOS, 19, 26, 34 Georgia Mainly used by GSOF and some MIA units.[172][173] Became standard issue for Georgian Ministry of Internal Affairs forces in October 2021.[202] 17, 21, 26 Germany Kampfschwimmer of the Bundeswehr, G17 issued under designation P9.[203][115] 17 Federal and State Police, tactical units (GSG 9, SEKs); Customs (ZUZ) - G17, G19, G26.[115] 17, 19, 26 State Police in Saxony-Anhalt - about 8,600 G46 TR, standard-issue firearm.[115][113] 46 Greece Ειδική Καταστὰλτική Αντιτρομοκρατική Μονάδα (EKAM) unit of the Hellenic Police[204] 21 Hong Kong Hong Kong Police Force (incl. special units SDU, CTRU, ASU, SBDIV),[172] ICAC, C&E Dept. 17, 19 Iceland Iceland Crisis Response Unit (Ministry of Foreign Affairs)[205][206][207] — Icelandic National Police,[205][206][207] Víkingasveitin units[205][206][207] (Ministry of Interiour) — India Standard Issue side arm for special forces Para (SF) (Army), MARCOS (Navy), National Security Guard (Min. of Home Aff.).[172] 17, 26 Indonesia Indonesian National Armed Forces (Army, Navy, Air Force)[208][209][210][211][212] 17, 19, 26, 42 Indonesian National Police[213] 17 Iraq Iraqi security forces - military and law enforcement forces (purchased 125,163 pistols)[214] 19 Israel Israeli Defense Forces,[173] Israel Police 17, 19 Japan Security Police of Tokyo Metropolitan Police Department[215]Special Assault Team[216] 17, 19 Jordan Royal Guard[172] — Kosovo Kosovo Police, Kosovo Security Force[217][218] 19, 17 Latvia Latvian Military,[173] standard-issue pistols with Land Forces.[219][220][221] 17, 19, 21, 26 Lithuania Lithuanian Armed Forces[173][222] 17 Lithuanian Police[223] 17, 19, 26 Luxembourg Luxembourg Army[224] 17 Unité Spéciale de la Police of the Grand Ducal Police[225][226] 17, 26 Malaysia Malaysian Armed Forces[227] 17, 19, 34 Malaysia Coast Guard (MMEA);[228] Royal Malaysia Police[227] (Ministry of Home Affairs) 17, 18, 19, 26, 34 Royal Malaysian Customs (Ministry of Finance)[229] 17, 19, 26, 43 Mexico Armada de México (Navy)[172] 17 Monaco Compagnie des Carabiniers du Prince[230][231] 17 Montenegro Armed Forces of Montenegro, standard military sidearm.[232] 17 Myanmar Used by Myanmar Army[194] and the Myanmar Police Special Task Force. Manufactured locally as MA-1 MK-II.[233] MA5 MK II Netherlands Military of the Netherlands;[173][234][235] Royal Marechaussee (Min. of Defence) BSB sections Persoonsbeveiliging (PB), Observatie Team (OT) and Sky Marshals also use Glock 26.[236] 17, 18, 26 Dutch Police, standard-issue firearm of the Dienst Speciale Interventies.[237][238][239] 17 New Zealand New Zealand Defence Force[240] 17 New Zealand Police[241] (an "unarmed service", but are trained to use firearms) 17 Norway Norwegian Armed Forces[172][173] 17 (P-80, P-80NM1, P-80NM2) Pakistan In use with Special Service Group units[242] 17, 19 Philippines Armed Forces of the Philippines,[243] Philippine Army,[243] Philippine Marine Corps MARSOG,[244] Presidential Security Group (joint service unit)[172] 17, 21 National Intelligence Coordinating Agency, Philippine Drug Enforcement Agency[172] (Office of President)[172] — National Bureau of Investigation (Dept. of Justice);[172] Philippine National Police[245][246] (DILG)[172] 17 Peru Peruvian Air Force, Peruvian Army, Peruvian Navy, Dirección Nacional Antidrogas. 17 Poland Polish Armed Forces[173] 17 Border Guard;[247] Polish Police[248] (Ministry of Interior and Admin.) 17, 19, 26 Portugal Portuguese Army;[249] Portuguese Marine Corps;[173][250] Maritime Police;[251] Military Judiciary Police;[252] (Ministry of National Defence) 17 Guarda Nacional Republicana;[250] Polícia de Segurança Pública;[253] Foreigners and Borders Service;[254] Municipal Police;[255] (Ministry of Internal Administration) 19, 19X Judiciary Police;[256] Prison Guard;[257] (Ministry of Justice) 19, 26 Romania Romanian Armed Forces[173] 17, 17L, 19 Russia Special Operations Forces[258] 17, 26 Federal Security Service (FSB);[259] Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD), special forces[260][261] 17, 19 Serbia Police of Serbia[262][263] 17, 19, 21, 35 Singapore Singapore Police Force;[264] Prison Service (Ministry of Home Affairs)[265] 19 Slovakia 5th Special Operations Regiment (Slovakia)[266] 17 Slovak Police Force[267] Spain Unidad Especial de Intervención (UEI) group of Spanish Civil Guard,[268] Special Naval Warfare Force,[269] Army's Special Operations Command[270] 17, 19, 43 Sweden Swedish Armed Forces[173][271][272] 17 (Pistol 88, 88C, 88C2), 19 (Pistol 88B, 88D) Swedish Police Authority[273] 45 Switzerland Swiss Armed Forces: Military Police, Swiss Grenadiers, ARD 10, FSK-17[274] 17, 26 Police (Gendarmerie) Cantonal of Geneva[275] 19 Taiwan Various criminal investigation bureaus outside major cities[276] 19 Thailand Royal Thai Police at least 2,238 G19,[172] G17 used by Arintharat 26, Naresuan 261 units. G17 and G19 used by Royal Thai Army[277] 17, 19 Timor Leste National Police of East Timor[278] 19 Tunisia Unité Spéciale – Garde Nationale[279] 17, 34 Turkey Used by Special Forces Command.[280] 17, 19 Ukraine Ukrainian Armed Forces[281] 17 Department of Security Police in the Kyiv region[282] 17, 19 United Kingdom British Armed Forces[283] 17 (L131A1),[284][285] 17T (L132A1), 19 (L137A1)[285] Specialist Firearms Command of the Metropolitan Police[286] 17, 17M, 19, 19M, 26[287] Police Scotland[288] 17 Police Service of Northern Ireland[289] 17, 19[290] United States USSOCOM;[97][103][104][105] United States Marine Forces Special Operations Command;[291] United States Navy SEALs[292] 19, 19M, 26 U.S. Customs and Border Protection;[293][294] United States Coast Guard[295] (Dept. of Homeland Security) 19, 26, 47; 19 Federal Bureau of Investigation;[296] Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, Firearms and Explosives;[297] Drug Enforcement Administration[298] (Dept. of Justice) 17M, 19, 19M, 22, 23, 27 Alaska State Troopers[299] 22 Baltimore City Police Department[300] 17, 22 Colorado State University Police Department[301] 17, 19 Kansas Highway Patrol[302] 17 Kentucky State Police SRT [303] Trigg County Sheriff's Office 27, 35 New York City Police Department;[304] New York State Police;[305] New York State University Police[306] 17, 19, 21, 22, 23, 27 New Jersey State Police;[307] Port Authority Police Department[308] 19 South Carolina Highway Patrol[309] 17M Dallas Police Department[310] 17, 19, 45 Douglas County Sheriff's Department, Douglas County Oregon[311] 18 Houston Police Department[310] 17 Uruguay Uruguayan National Army[312] 17 Vatican City Swiss Guard[313] 19 Gendarmerie of Vatican City[313] 17 Venezuela Venezuelan Armed Forces[172][173] 17 Vietnam Mobile Police 19[314] Yemen Military of Yemen[315] 19 Glock pistols have been used in mass shootings in the United States including the 1991 Luby's shooting, the 2007 Virginia Tech shooting, the 2011 Tucson shooting, the 2012 Aurora shooting, the 2012 Sandy Hook Elementary School shooting, the 2015 Charleston church shooting, the 2016 Orlando nightclub shooting, the Pittsburgh synagogue shooting, and the 2022 New York City Subway attack. In April 2022, Ilene Steur, a survivor of the 2022 NYC subway attack, sued Glock and its Austrian parent company for compensation for her physical injuries and emotional pain.[316] Glock pistols have also been used in mass shootings elsewhere in the world, including the 2001 Nepalese royal massacre, the 2002 Erfurt massacre, the 2002 Nanterre massacre, the killings committed by Viktor Kalivoda in 2005, the 2011 Norway attacks, the 2012 Bucharest hair salon shooting, the 2016 Munich shooting, the 2023 Rotterdam shootings and the 2023 Prague shootings. A 2014 report by the Chicago Police Department found that Glock pistols were the third most traced handgun, coming after those from Smith & Wesson and Sturm, Ruger & Co.[317] Experts on gun control, mass shootings, and defense training have cited factors such as reliability, ease of use, and commonness for why Glock pistols are so often involved in mass shootings and other criminal acts. The criminal use of handguns including Glocks has led to calls for increased gun control in the United States.[318][319][320] This common usage, however, has been described by Paul M. Barrett to be a result of Glock's overall popularity and market presence in the US and that "this level of violence isn't necessarily tied to a particular[,] to a brand". In the late 80s, gun control advocates had focused on Glock pistols because of their magazine capacity (compared to six-shot revolvers), but also their "futuristic, distinct appearance".[citation needed] Glock pistols were singled out for restriction by some jurisdictions and were branded the "hijacker's special" based on the false assumption that they could bypass airport metal detectors because of their polymer frame. This was refuted in Congressional hearings by the ATF, FAA, and other organizations responsible for airline security, which proved embarrassing for the ban's advocates and provided significant publicity for Glock.[321][better source needed] In December 2024, the states of Minnesota and New Jersey sued Glock over the design of the 9-millimeter semiautomatic pistol, claiming that the company had failed to make changes to prevent the easy conversion of the pistol into an illegal and much more dangerous machine gun.[322] The conversion is done using a small, illegal device known as a Glock switch.[323] Glock Ges.m.b.H. Glock knife ^ Şafak, Yeni. "PKK'ya ait silahlar ele geçirildi". Yeni Şafak (in Turkish). Retrieved 24 June 2023. ^ Howard Altman (5 July 2023). "Ukraine Situation Report: A Peek Into Prigozhin's Bizarre Pad". Archived from the original on 8 July 2023. According to Fontanka, two Saiga carbines, an Austrian Steyr carbine, an Arka semi-automatic rifle, and several other rifles and pistols were among the items returned to Prighozin. The most revered of all those weapons, however, was a Glock pistol Prigozhin was awarded by Russian Defense Minister Sergei Shoigu, according to Fontanka. ^ "Ukrainian Kraken Regiment show their small arms and revolver grenade launchers". Ukrainska Pravda. 5 March 2023. Archived from the original on 8 March 2023. Kraken's arsenal includes Austrian Glock pistols, Swiss B&T submachine guns, American M4A1 assault rifles, DD MK18, Belgian Scar rifles, and lightweight multi-shot RBG6 hand grenade launchers made in Croatia. ^ @war_noir (9 January 2024). "#Ecuador □□: A recent footage shows armed members of the criminal groups shooting at a Police car during the recent conflicts. 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foreign countries–including Turkey, Iran, Russia and the United States–have been directly involved in the conflict, providing support to opposing factions. Iran, Russia and Hezbollah supported Assad's government militarily, with Iran intervening in 2013 and Russia conducting airstrikes and ground operations in the country beginning in September 2015. In 2014, the US-led international coalition officially began conducting air and ground operations–primarily against the Islamic State, al-Qaeda elements such as Hurras al-Din and the Khorasan group and occasionally against pro-Assad forces–and has been militarily and logistically supporting factions such as the Syrian Free Army and the SDF. Turkish forces occupied parts of northern Syria and have fought the SDF, Assad government and Islamic State alike while actively supporting the SNA. Between 2011 and 2017, fighting from the Syrian civil war spilled over into Lebanon as opponents and supporters of the Syrian government traveled to Lebanon to fight and attack each other on Lebanese soil. While officially neutral, Israel exchanged border fire and conducted repeated strikes against Hezbollah and Iranian elements inside Syria, whose presence in the country it viewed as a security threat.[36][37] Violence in the war peaked during 2012–2017 amid rebel and government offensives and sectarian and Islamist violence.[38][39] International organizations had accused virtually all sides involved—the Assad government, the Islamic State, opposition groups, Iran, Russia,[40] Turkey[41] and the US-led coalition[42]—of severe human rights violations and massacres.[43] The conflict had caused a major refugee crisis, with millions of people fleeing to neighboring countries such as Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan;[44][45] however, a sizable minority also sought refuge in countries outside of the Middle East, with Germany alone accepting over half a million Syrians since 2011.[45] Since 2011 a number of peace initiatives had been launched, including the March 2017 Geneva peace talks on Syria led by the United Nations, but fighting continued.[46] Escalation (2012–2013) For a chronological guide, see May–August 2012, September–December 2012, January–April 2013 and May–December 2013 timelines. Further information: 2012–2013 escalation of the Syrian civil war Rise of the Islamist groups (January–August 2014) For a chronological guide, see January–July 2014 timeline. Further information: Inter-rebel conflict during the Syrian civil war US intervention (September 2014 – August 2015) For a chronological guide, see August–December 2014 and January–July 2015 timelines. Further information: US intervention in the Syrian civil war, 2015 Southern Syria offensive, Northwestern Syria offensive (April–June 2015), Battle of Idlib (2015), Palmyra offensive (May 2015), Palmyra offensive (July–August 2015), and Battle of al-Hasakah (2015) Russian intervention; first partial ceasefire (September 2015 – August 2016) For a chronological guide, see August–December 2015 and January–April 2016 and May–August 2016 timelines. Further information: Russian intervention in the Syrian civil war Aleppo recaptured; Russian/Iranian/Turkish-backed ceasefire (September 2016 – April 2017) For a chronological guide, see September–December 2016 and January–April 2017 timeline. Further information: Aleppo offensive (November–December 2016) Syrian-American conflict; de-escalation zones (April–August 2017) For a chronological guide, see May–August 2017 timeline. Further information: Khan Shaykhun chemical attack, 2017 Shayrat missile strike, and Hama offensive (March–April 2017) ISIL siege of Deir ez-Zor broken; CIA program halted; Russian forces permanent (September–December 2017) For a chronological guide, see September–December 2017 timeline. Further information: Deir ez-Zor offensive (September–November 2017) and Siege of Deir ez-Zor (2014–2017) Army advance in Hama province and Ghouta; Turkish intervention in Afrin (January–March 2018) For a chronological guide, see January–April 2018 timeline. Further information: Northwestern Syria campaign (October 2017 – February 2018), Operation Olive Branch, Rif Dimashq offensive (February–April 2018), and February 2018 Israel–Syria incident Douma chemical attack; US-led missile strikes; southern Syria offensive (April–August 2018) For a chronological guide, see May–August 2018 timeline. Further information: Douma chemical attack, Operation House of Cards, and Syria missile strikes (September 2018) Idlib demilitarization; Partial US withdrawal; Iraq strikes ISIL targets (September–December 2018) For a chronological guide, see September–December 2018 timeline. Further information: Idlib demilitarization (2018–2019) ISIL attacks continue; US states conditions of withdrawal; fifth inter-rebel conflict (January–April 2019) For a chronological guide, see January–April 2019 timeline. Further information: National Front for Liberation–Tahrir al-Sham conflict New outbreaks of civil war; northwestern offensive; northern buffer zone established (May–August 2019) For a chronological guide, see May–August 2019 timeline. Further information: Northwestern Syria offensive (April–August 2019) US forces withdraw from buffer zone; Turkish offensive into north-eastern Syria (September–December 2019) For a chronological guide, see September–December 2019 timeline. Further information: 2019 Turkish offensive into north-eastern Syria In October 2019, Kurdish leaders of the AANES announced they had reached a major deal with the Assad government, allowing for Syrian Army forces to enter Kurdish-held towns along the Syria–Turkey border. The deal was part of an effort to resist Turkey's cross-border incursion into AANES territory after US forces withdrew from the area after the collapse of the Northern Syria Buffer Zone.[47][48][49] In November 2019, Russia, Turkey and the Assad government established a new buffer zone in northern Syria that deescalated the Kurdish-Turkish clashes.[50] US-led coalition forces regrouped in eastern Syria in continued support of the SDF against the Islamic State insurgency, amid tensions with local Russian forces and Iranian elements in the region.[51][52] By the end of the decade, the war had resulted in an estimated 470,000–610,000 violent deaths, making it the second-deadliest conflict of the 21st century, after the Second Congo War.[53] For a chronological guide, see 2020, 2021, 2022, 2023 and January–October 2024 timelines. Further information: Northwestern Syria offensive (December 2019 – March 2020), Operation Spring Shield, and Southern Syria protests (2023–24) Following the March 2020 Idlib ceasefire, frontline fighting between the Syrian government under Assad and opposition groups had mostly subsided. By 2021, the Assad government controlled about two-thirds of the country and was consolidating power.[54][55] Although, regular flare-ups occurred among factions in northwestern Syria, and large-scale protests emerged in southern Syria and spread nationwide in response to extensive autocratic policies and the economic situation. The protests were noted at the time as resembling the 2011 revolution that preceded the civil war.[56][57][58][59][60] The civil war had largely settled into a stalemate by early 2023. The United States Institute of Peace said: Twelve years into Syria's devastating civil war, the conflict appears to have settled into a frozen state. Although roughly 30% of the country is controlled by opposition forces, heavy fighting has largely ceased and there is a growing regional trend toward normalizing relations with the regime of Bashar al-Assad. Over the last decade, the conflict erupted into one of the most complicated in the world, with a dizzying array of international and regional powers, opposition groups, proxies, local militias and extremist groups all playing a role. The Syrian population has been brutalized, with nearly a half a million killed, 12 million fleeing their homes to find safety elsewhere, and widespread poverty and hunger. Meanwhile, efforts to broker a political settlement have gone nowhere, leaving the Assad regime firmly in power.[61] The US Council on Foreign Relations said: The war whose brutality once dominated headlines has settled into an uncomfortable stalemate. Hopes for regime change have largely died out, peace talks have been fruitless, and some regional governments are reconsidering their opposition to engaging with Syrian leader Bashar al-Assad. The government has regained control of most of the country, and Assad's hold on power seems secure.[62] However, major clashes continued between Turkish forces and factions within Syria. In late 2023, Turkish forces continued to attack Kurdish forces in northern Syria.[63] Starting on 5 October 2023, the Turkish Armed Forces launched a series of air and ground strikes targeting the Syrian Democratic Forces in northeastern Syria (AANES territory). The airstrikes were launched in response to the 2023 Ankara bombing, which the Turkish government alleged was carried out by attackers originating from northeastern Syria.[64] See also: Fall of the Assad regime, Syrian caretaker government, Syrian transitional government, 2024 Syrian opposition offensives, and Operation Dawn of Freedom For a chronological guide, see November 2024–present timeline. Further information: Southern Syria offensive (2024), Deir ez-Zor offensive (2024), Battle of Aleppo (2024), 2024 Hama offensive, 2024 Homs offensive, Palmyra offensive (2024), Fall of Damascus (2024), 2024 Israeli invasion of Syria, Hezbollah–Syria clashes (2024–present), Western Syria clashes (December 2024–present), and March 2025 Western Syria clashes Syrian opposition offensives which overthrew Assad's regime in 11 days. On 27 November 2024, a coalition of opposition groups called the Military Operations Command,[65] led by Hay'at Tahrir al-Sham, launched a major offensive[66] against the Syrian Army and other pro-government forces in Aleppo, Idlib, Hama and Homs Governorates.[67] This was followed by other rebel offensives from the Southern Operations Room, the SDF and the Syrian Free Army which all began seizing Syrian government territory in the country's south and east.[68][69][70][71] On 29 November, rebel forces entered Aleppo as Syrian Army positions collapsed across the country.[72] On 7 December, rebel forces entered Damascus and the next day, on 8 December, Bashar al-Assad was reported to have fled the capital.[73] The Syrian Army confirmed Assad was no longer in power and had fled the country,[74][75][76] resulting in the collapse of his regime and ending over 60 years of Ba'athist rule under the Assad dynasty.[77][78][79][80][81] Assad and his family had fled to Moscow and was granted asylum in Russia.[82][83][84][85] Syrian Prime Minister Mohammad Ghazi al-Jalali recognized the transfer of power to the Syrian Salvation Government, which established a transitional government in Damascus with Mohammed al-Bashir serving as the prime minister.[86] Ahmed al-Sharaa, the leader of the Syrian Salvation Government and emir of Hay'at Tahrir al-Sham, became de facto leader of Syria.[87] On 8 December 2024, Israel invaded southern Syria, subsuming the Golan Heights buffer zone and capturing Quneitra, the Syrian portion of Mount Hermon, and surrounding towns and villages, while also carrying out a bombing campaign against Syrian military bases. Israel has maintained a military occupation of the buffer zone.[88][89] At the Syrian Revolution Victory conference held in Damascus on 29 January 2025, the new government appointed al-Sharaa as president of Syria during the transitional phase and announced the dissolution of several armed militias and their integration into the Syrian Army under the Syrian Ministry of Defense. The Turkish-backed SNA and the SDF continued to clash with each other during negotiations to dissolve all non-state armed groups in the country. The Syrian transitional government faced sectarianism and opposition to its rule from Assad loyalists and former allies. In December 2024, Hezbollah began clashes with forces of the transitional government primarily along the Lebanon–Syria border, and the neo-Ba'athist Syrian Popular Resistance launched an insurgency. Later, some, Syrian Druze formed an armed coalition in Suwayda Governorate in southern Syria to resist the transitional government's authority in the region. In May 2025, Druze leaders agreed to share security responsibilities in Suwayda.[90] Main articles: Background and causes of the Syrian revolution and Modern history of Syria See also: Ba'athist Syria, Presidency of Hafez al-Assad, Presidency of Bashar al-Assad, and Assad family The Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party government came to power through a coup d'état in 1963 by overthrowing the Second Syrian Republic. A second coup in 1966 ousted the old Baathist leadership of Michel Aflaq, replacing it with a militaristic, hard-left, pro-Soviet regime led by Salah Jadid, causing a split between the Syrian branch of Ba'ath, which supported Jadid, and the Iraqi branch, which remained loyal to Aflaq. Jadid was in turn removed in November 1970 by General Hafez al-Assad, an Alawite who declared himself President in March 1971.[91] This marked the beginning of the domination of personality cults centred around the Assad family that pervaded all aspects of Syrian daily life and was accompanied by a systematic suppression of civil and political freedoms, becoming the central feature of state propaganda. Authority in Ba'athist Syria was monopolised by three power-centres: Alawite loyalist clans, the Ba'ath Party and the Syrian Armed Forces. All three united by their allegiance to the Assad family.[92][93][94] The Syrian Regional Branch remained the dominant political authority in what had been a one-party state until the first multi-party election to the People's Council of Syria was held in 2012.[95] On 31 January 1973, Hafez al-Assad implemented a new constitution, leading to a national crisis. The 1973 Constitution entrusted the Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party with the distinctive role as the "leader of the state and society", empowering it to mobilise the civilians for party programmes, issue decrees to ascertain their loyalty and supervise all legal trade unions. Ba'athist ideology was imposed upon children as a compulsory part of school curricula as the Armed Forces became highly monitored by the Party. The constitution removed Islam from being recognised as the state religion and stripped existing provisions such as the requirement that the president of Syria be Muslim. These measures caused widespread furor amongst the public, leading to fierce demonstrations in Hama, Homs and Aleppo organized by the Muslim Brotherhood and the ulama. The Assad regime violently crushed the Islamic revolts that occurred during 1976–1982, waged by revolutionaries from the Syrian Muslim Brotherhood.[96] The Ba'ath Party carefully constructed Assad as the guiding father figure of the party and modern Syrian nation, advocating the continuation of Assad dynastic rule of Syria. As part of the publicity efforts to brand the nation and Assad family as inseparable, slogans such as "Assad or we burn the country", "Assad or to hell with the country" and "Hafez Assad, forever" became an integral part of the state and party discourse during the 1980s. Eventually the party organisation itself became a rubber stamp and the power structures became deeply dependent on sectarian affiliation to the Assad family and the central role of armed forces needed to crack down on dissent in the society. Critics of the regime have pointed out that deployment of violence is central to the rule of Ba'athist Syria and describe it as "a dictatorship with genocidal tendencies".[97] Hafez al-Assad's nearly three-decade rule was marked by its methods, ranging from censorship to violent measures of state terror such as mass murders, forced deportations and brutal practices such as torture, which were unleashed collectively upon the civilian population.[98] Upon Hafez al-Assad's death in 2000, his son Bashar al-Assad succeeded him as the President of Syria.[97] Bashar's wife Asma, a Sunni Muslim born and educated in Britain, was initially hailed in the Western press as a "rose in the desert".[99][100] The couple once raised hopes amongst Syrian intellectuals and outside Western observers, being seen as a path towards implementing economic and political reforms. However, Bashar failed to deliver on promised reforms, instead cracking down on the civil society groups, political reformists and democratic activists that emerged during the Damascus Spring in the 2000s.[101] Bashar Al-Assad claims that no 'moderate opposition' to his government exists, and that all opposition forces are Islamists focused on destroying his secular leadership; his view was that terrorist groups operating in Syria are "linked to the agendas of foreign countries".[102] Main article: Demographics of Syria The total Syrian population in July 2018 was estimated at 19,454,263 people. By ethnic groups, Syria was approximately Arab 50%, Alawite 15%, Kurd 10%, Levantine 10% and 15% of other ethnic groups (includes Druze, Ismaili, Imami, Assyrian, Turkmen and Armenian). Its religious breakdown was: Muslim 87% (official; includes Sunni 74% and Alawi, Ismaili and Shia 13%), Christian 10% (mainly of Eastern Christian churches[103]—may now be smaller as a result of Christians fleeing the country), Druze 3% and Jewish (uncounted in the estimate, but with few remaining in Damascus and Aleppo).[104] Socioeconomic inequality increased significantly after free market policies were initiated by Hafez al-Assad in his later years, and it accelerated after Bashar al-Assad came to power. With an emphasis on the service sector, these policies benefited a minority of the nation's population, mostly people who had connections with the government, and members of the Sunni merchant class of Damascus and Aleppo.[105] In 2010, Syria's nominal GDP per capita was only $2,834, comparable to sub-Saharan African countries such as Nigeria and far lower than its neighbors such as Lebanon, with an annual growth rate of 3.39%, below most other developing countries.[106] The country also faced particularly high youth unemployment rates.[107] At the start of the war, discontent with the government was strongest in Syria's poor areas, predominantly among conservative Sunnis.[105] These included cities with high poverty rates, such as Daraa and Homs, and the poorer districts of large cities. The unrest coincided with the most intense drought ever recorded in Syria, which lasted from 2006 to 2011 and resulted in widespread crop failure, an increase in food prices and a mass migration of farming families to urban centers.[108] This migration strained infrastructure already burdened by the influx of some 1.5 million refugees from the Iraq War.[109] The drought has been linked to anthropogenic global warming.[110][111][112] Subsequent analysis, however, has challenged the narrative of the drought as a major contributor to the start of the war.[113][114][115] Adequate water supply continues to be an issue in the ongoing civil war and is frequently the target of military action.[116] Main articles: Human rights in Syria and Human rights violations during the Syrian civil war The human rights situation in Syria has long been the subject of harsh critique from global organizations.[117] The rights of free expression, association and assembly were strictly controlled in Syria even before the uprising.[118] The country remained under a state of emergency from 1963 until 2011 and public gatherings of more than five people were banned.[119] Security forces had sweeping powers of arrest and detention.[120] Despite hopes for democratic change with the 2000 Damascus Spring, Bashar al-Assad was widely reported as having failed to implement any improvements. In 2010, he imposed a controversial national ban on female Islamic dress codes (such as face veils) across universities, where reportedly over a thousand primary school teachers that wore the niqab were reassigned to administrative jobs.[121] A Human Rights Watch report issued just before the beginning of the 2011 uprising stated that Assad had failed to substantially improve the state of human rights since taking power.[122] Main article: Belligerents in the Syrian civil war Local, regional and international actors involved in the Syrian civil war prior to the fall of the Assad regime. There are numerous factions, both foreign and domestic, involved in the Syrian civil war. These can be divided into four main groups. First, Ba'athist Syria led by Bashar al-Assad and backed by his Russian and Iranian allies. Second, the Syrian opposition consisting of two alternative governments: i) the Syrian Interim Government, a big-tent coalition of democratic, Syrian nationalist and Islamic political groups whose defense forces consist of the Syrian National Army[123] and Free Syrian Army, and ii) the Syrian Salvation Government, a Sunni Islamist coalition led by Hay'at Tahrir al-Sham.[124] Third, the Kurdish-dominated Autonomous Administration of North and East Syria and its military wing, the Syrian Democratic Forces, supported by the United States, France and other coalition allies.[125] Fourth, the global jihadist camp consisting of al-Qaeda affiliate Guardians of Religion Organisation and its rival Islamic State.[126] The Syrian government, the opposition and the SDF have all received support—militarily, logistically and diplomatically—from foreign countries, leading the conflict to often be described as a proxy war.[127] Main article: Foreign involvement in the Syrian civil war See also: Israel and the Syrian civil war Map of states with military/paramilitary forces deployed in Syria. Syria Supported the Assad government with troops Supported the Assad government with militia Supporting Syrian rebels or a non-government faction with troops The major parties that supported the Syrian government were Iran,[128] Russia[129] and Lebanese militia Hezbollah. Syrian rebel groups received political, logistic and military support from the United States,[130][131] Turkey,[132] Saudi Arabia,[133] Qatar,[134] Britain, France,[135] Israel[136][137] and the Netherlands.[138] Under the aegis of operation Timber Sycamore and other clandestine activities, CIA operatives and US special operations troops have trained and armed nearly 10,000 rebel fighters at a cost of $1 billion a year since 2012.[139][140] Iraq had also been involved in supporting the Syrian government, but mostly against ISIL.[141] Hezbollah, the Lebanese Shia militant group, was significantly involved in the Syrian Civil War. Starting from the 2011 Syrian revolution, Hezbollah provided active support to the Ba'athist government forces.[142][143] By 2012, the group escalated its involvement, deploying troops across Syria.[144] In 2013, Hezbollah publicly acknowledged its presence in Syria, intensifying its ground commitment. This involvement included an estimated 5,000 to 8,000 fighters at any given time, comprising Special Forces, standing forces from all units, part-time fighters and new recruits with accelerated combat training. Hezbollah's presence, supported by Iranian weaponry and training, further complicated the conflict dynamics, drawing Israeli airstrikes against Hezbollah and Iranian targets in Syria.[145] Main article: Spillover of the Syrian civil war Further information: War in Iraq (2013–2017) In June 2014, members of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) crossed the border from Syria into northern Iraq, and took control of large swaths of Iraqi territory as the Iraqi Army abandoned its positions. Fighting between rebels and government forces also spilled over into Lebanon on several occasions. There were repeated incidents of sectarian violence in the North Governorate of Lebanon between supporters and opponents of the Syrian government, as well as armed clashes between Sunnis and Alawites in Tripoli.[146] Starting on 5 June 2014, ISIL seized swathes of territory in Iraq. As of 2014, the Syrian Arab Air Force used airstrikes targeted against ISIL in Raqqa and al-Hasakah in coordination with the Iraqi government.[147] See also: List of equipment of the Syrian Army, List of military equipment used by Syrian opposition forces, and Improvised artillery in the Syrian civil war 'Hell cannon' Improvised artillery found after the battle of Aleppo in 2016 Syrian Army T-72 tank during the 2018 Rif Dimashq offensive Main articles: Use of chemical weapons in the Syrian civil war and Destruction of Syria's chemical weapons See also: Syria and weapons of mass destruction and Syria chemical weapons program Sarin, mustard agent and chlorine gas have been used during the conflict. Numerous casualties led to an international reaction, especially the 2013 Ghouta chemical attack. A UN fact-finding mission was requested to investigate reported chemical weapons attacks. In four cases, UN inspectors confirmed the use of sarin gas.[148] In August 2016, a confidential report by the UN and the OPCW explicitly blamed the Syrian military of Bashar al-Assad for dropping chemical weapons (chlorine bombs) on the towns of Talmenes in April 2014 and Sarmin in March 2015 and ISIL for using sulfur mustard on the town of Marea in August 2015.[149] The United States and the European Union have said the Syrian government has conducted several chemical attacks. Following the 2013 Ghouta attacks and international pressure, the destruction of Syria's chemical weapons began. In 2015 the UN mission disclosed previously undeclared traces of sarin compounds at a "military research site".[150] After the April 2017 Khan Shaykhun chemical attack, the United States launched its first intentional attack against Syrian government forces. An investigation conducted by Tobias Schneider and Theresa Lutkefend of the GPPi research institute documented 336 confirmed attacks involving chemical weapons in Syria between 23 December 2012 and 18 January 2019. The study attributed 98% of the total chemical attacks to the Assad regime. Almost 90% of the attacks occurred after Ghouta chemical attack in August 2013.[151][152] In April 2020, the UN Security Council briefing was held on the findings of a global chemical weapons watchdog, Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW), which found that the Syrian Air Force used sarin and chlorine during multiple attacks in 2017. Syria's close allies, Russia, and other European countries debated the issue, during which Moscow dismissed the OPCW findings while many Western European countries called for accountability for the government's war crimes.[153] The UN Deputy ambassador from Britain, Jonathan Allen, stated that the report by the OPCW's Investigation Identification Team (IIT) claimed that the Syrian regime is responsible for using chemical weapons in the war on at least four occasions. The information was also noted in two UN-mandated investigations.[154] In April 2021, Syria was suspended from the OPCW through the public vote of member states for not cooperating with the IIT and for violating the Chemical Weapons Convention.[155][156][157] Findings of another OPCW investigation report published in July 2021 concluded that the Syrian regime had engaged in confirmed chemical attacks at least 17 times, out of the 77 reported incidents of chemical weapons usage attributed to Assadist forces.[158][159] Syria is not a party to the Convention on Cluster Munitions and does not recognize the ban on the use of cluster bombs. The Syrian Army is reported to have begun using cluster bombs in September 2012. Steve Goose, director of the Arms Division at Human Rights Watch, said "Syria is expanding its relentless use of cluster munitions, a banned weapon, and civilians are paying the price with their lives and limbs." He adds of the weapons that "The initial toll is only the beginning because cluster munitions often leave unexploded bomblets that kill and maim long afterward."[160] Russian thermobaric weapons, also known as "fuel-air bombs", were used by the government's side during the war. On 2 December 2015, The National Interest reported that Russia was deploying the TOS-1 Buratino multiple rocket launch system to Syria, which is "designed to launch massive thermobaric charges against infantry in confined spaces such as urban areas".[161] One Buratino thermobaric rocket launcher "can obliterate a roughly 200 by 400 metres (660 by 1,310 feet) area with a single salvo".[162] Since 2012, rebels have said that the Syrian Air Force (government forces) is using thermobaric weapons against residential areas occupied by the rebel fighters, such as during the Battle of Aleppo and also in Kafr Batna.[163] A panel of United Nations human rights investigators reported that the Syrian government used thermobaric bombs against the strategic town of Qusayr in March 2013.[164] In August 2013, the BBC reported on the use of napalm-like incendiary bombs on a school in northern Syria.[165] An Army of Glory fighter launches a BGM-71 TOW anti-tank missile at a Syrian government position during the 2017 Hama offensive. Several types of anti-tank missiles are in use in Syria. Russia has sent 9M133 Kornet, third-generation anti-tank guided missiles to the Syrian government whose forces have used them extensively against armour and other ground targets to fight jihadists and rebels.[166] US-made BGM-71 TOW missiles are one of the primary weapons of rebel groups and have been primarily provided by the United States and Saudi Arabia.[167] The US has also supplied many Eastern European sourced 9K111 Fagot launchers and warheads to Syrian rebel groups under its Timber Sycamore program.[168] See also: Operation Laylat al-Qadr In June 2017, Iran attacked ISIL targets in the Deir ez-Zor area in eastern Syria with Zolfaghar ballistic missiles fired from western Iran,[169] in the first use of mid-range missiles by Iran in 30 years.[170] According to Jane's Defence Weekly, the missiles travelled 650–700 kilometres.[169] Main articles: Sectarianism and minorities in the Syrian civil war and Federalization of Syria Map of Syria's ethno-religious composition in 1976 The successive governments of Hafez and Bashar al-Assad have been closely associated with the country's minority Alawite religious group, an offshoot of Shia, whereas the majority of the population, and most of the opposition, is Sunni. This resulted in calls for persecution of the Alawites by parts of the opposition.[171] A third of 250,000 Alawite men of military age have been killed fighting in the Syrian civil war.[172] In May 2013, SOHR stated that out of 94,000 killed during the war, 41,000 of which being Alawites.[173] According to The Daily Beast news website, many Syrian Christians stated in November 2013 that they had fled after they were targeted by the anti-government rebels.[174] As militias and non-Syrian Shia—motivated by pro-Shia sentiment rather than loyalty to the Assad government—have taken over fighting the anti-government forces from the weakened Syrian Army, fighting has taken on a more sectarian nature. One opposition leader has said that the Shia militias often "try to occupy and control the religious symbols in the Sunni community to achieve not just a territorial victory but a sectarian one as well"—reportedly occupying mosques and replacing Sunni icons with pictures of Shia leaders. According to the Syrian Network for Human Rights, human rights abuses have been committed by the militias including "a series of sectarian massacres between March 2011 and January 2014 that left 962 civilians dead".[175] In 2025 after the defeat of Assad and the rise of the Transitional government an ongoing series of mass killings and massacres against Alawites has occurred in Syria since March 2025 as part of communal and sectarian violence by fighters aligned with the Syrian caretaker government (including locally mobilised civilians, Syrian National Army (SNA) militias and Saraya Ansar al-Sunnah) and armed remnants of the former Assad regime. The UK-based Syrian Observatory for Human Rights (SOHR) reported that 1,614 civilians were killed by armed militias supporting the Syrian government since 6 March. The observatory estimated actual numbers to be much higher.[176] Main articles: Autonomous Administration of North and East Syria and Rojava conflict The Autonomous Administration of North and East Syria (AANES), also known as Rojava,[j] is a de facto autonomous region in northeastern Syria.[180][181] The region does not claim to pursue full independence but autonomy within a federal and democratic Syria.[182] Rojava consists of self-governing sub-regions in the areas of Afrin, Jazira, Euphrates, Raqqa, Tabqa, Manbij and Deir Ez-Zor.[183][184] The region gained its de facto autonomy in 2012 in the context of the ongoing Rojava conflict, in which its official military force, the Syrian Democratic Forces (SDF), has taken part.[185][186] While entertaining some foreign relations, the region is not officially recognized as autonomous by the government of Syria or any state except for the Catalan Parliament.[187][188] The AANES has widespread support for its universal democratic, sustainable, autonomous pluralist, equal and feminist policies in dialogues with other political parties and organizations.[189][190][191][192] Northeastern Syria is polyethnic and home to sizeable ethnic Kurdish, Arab and Assyrian populations, with smaller communities of ethnic Turkmen, Armenians, Circassians and Yazidis.[193][194][195] The supporters of the region's administration state that it is an officially secular polity[196][197] with direct democratic ambitions based on an anarchistic, feminist and libertarian socialist ideology promoting decentralization, gender equality,[198][199] environmental sustainability, social ecology and pluralistic tolerance for religious, cultural and political diversity, and that these values are mirrored in its constitution, society and politics, stating it to be a model for a federalized Syria as a whole, rather than outright independence.[182][200][201][202][203] The region's administration has also been accused by some partisan and nonpartisan sources of authoritarianism, support of the Syrian government,[204] Kurdification and displacement.[205] However, despite this the AANES has been the most democratic system in Syria, with direct open elections, universal equality, respecting human rights within the region, as well as defense of minority and religious rights within Syria.[189][206][207][208][209][210][211] In March 2015, the Syrian Information Minister announced that his government considered recognizing Kurdish autonomy "within the law and constitution".[212] While the region's administration was not invited to the Geneva III peace talks on Syria,[213] or any of the earlier talks, Russia in particular called for the region's inclusion and did to some degree carry the region's positions into the talks, as documented in Russia's May 2016 draft for a new constitution for Syria.[214][215] The Kurdish-led Syrian Democratic Forces announcing the Deir ez-Zor campaign in 2017 An analysis released in June 2017 described the region's "relationship with the government fraught but functional" and a "semi-cooperative dynamic".[216] In late September 2017, Syria's Foreign Minister said that Damascus would consider granting Kurds more autonomy in the region once ISIL was defeated.[217] On 13 October 2019, the SDF announced that it had reached an agreement with the Syrian Army which allowed the latter to enter the SDF-held cities of Manbij and Kobani in order to dissuade a Turkish attack on those cities as part of the cross-border offensive by Turkish and Turkish-backed Syrian rebels.[218] The Syrian Army also deployed in the north of Syria together with the SDF along the Syrian-Turkish border and entered into several SDF-held cities such as Ayn Issa and Tell Tamer.[219][220] Following the creation of the Second Northern Syria Buffer Zone, the SDF stated that it was ready to work cooperatively with the Syrian Army if a political settlement between the Syrian government and the SDF was achieved.[221] According to information gathered in December 2021, Iraqi authorities have repatriated 100 Iraqi fighters from the ISIL (ISIS) group who were being held by Kurdish forces in northeast Syria.[222] As of 2022, the main military threat and conflict faced by Rojava's official defense force, the Syrian Democratic Forces (SDF), are firstly, an ongoing conflict with ISIS; and secondly, ongoing concerns of possible invasion of the northeast regions of Syria by Turkish forces, in order to strike Kurdish groups in general, and Rojava in particular.[223][224][225] An official report by the Rojava government noted Turkey-backed militias as the main threat to the region of Rojava and its government.[226] In May 2022 Turkish and opposition Syrian officials said that Turkey's Armed Forces and the Syrian National Army are planning a new operation against the SDF, composed mostly of the YPG/YPJ.[227][228] The new operation is set to resume efforts to create 30-kilometre-wide (19 mi) "safe zones" along Turkey's border with Syria, President Erdoğan said in a statement.[229] The operation aims at the Tal Rifaat and Manbij regions west of the Euphrates and other areas further east. Meanwhile, Ankara is in talks with Moscow over the operation. President Erdoğan reiterated his determination for the operation on 8 August 2022.[230] On 5 June 2022, the leader of the SDF, Mazloum Abdi, said that forces of the Kurdish government in the AANES were willing to work with Syrian government forces to defend against Turkey, saying "Damascus should use its air defense systems against Turkish planes." Abdi said that Kurdish groups would be able to cooperate with the Syrian government, and still retain their autonomy.[231][232][233][234][235] The joint discussions were a result of the negotiation processes that had begun in October 2019.[236] In early 2023, reports indicated that the forces of Islamic State in Syria had mostly been defeated, with only a few cells remaining in various remote locations.[237][238][239] As of 2023, Turkey was continuing its support for various militias within Syria, consisting mostly of the Syrian National Army, which periodically attempted some operations against Kurdish groups.[227][228][240] One stated goal was to create "safe zones" along Turkey's border with Syria, according to a statement by Turkish President Erdoğan.[229] The operations were generally aimed at the Tal Rifaat and Manbij regions west of the Euphrates and other areas further east. President Erdoğan openly stated his support for the operations, in talks with Moscow in mid-2022.[230] Human toll of the Syrian civil warThis graph was using the legacy Graph extension, which is no longer supported. It needs to be converted to the new Chart extension.Pre-war population 22 ±.5; Internally displaced 6 ±.5, Refugees 5.5 ±.5, Fatalities 0.5 ±.1 (millions)[citation needed]Syrian refugees By countryTurkey, Lebanon, Egypt, JordanSettlementsCamps: Jordan Internally displaced Syrians Casualties of the war CrimesWar crimes, massacres, rape Return of refugees, Refugees as weapons, Prosecution of war criminalsvte Syrian refugees in Lebanon living in cramped quarters (6 August 2012) Main article: Refugees of the Syrian civil war This section needs to be updated. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (December 2024) As of December 2022, an estimated 6.7 million refugees have been forced to flee Syria,[241] with approximately 5.5 million Syrian refugees residing across the five nearby countries of Turkey, Lebanon, Jordan, Iraq and Egypt. Germany hosts the largest refugee population out of any non-neighboring nation with more than 850,000 Syrian refugees.[242] Over 3.7 million Syrian refugees are in Turkey.[243] Many refugees are housed in a system of a dozen Syrian refugee camps placed under the direct authority of the Turkish Government. Satellite images confirmed that the first Syrian camps appeared in Turkey in July 2011, shortly after the towns of Deraa, Homs and Hama were besieged.[244] The massive sustained presence of Syrian refugees has fueled resentment from Turkish citizens and figures across the country's political spectrum. They have been employed as scapegoats during periods of crisis within the country. Measures have been put in place to "drive them out" including raised fees on utilities such as water and services such as marriage licences. There has been an increase on attacks targeting Syrian refugees in the country.[245] In 2013, one in three of Syrian refugees (about 667,000 people) sought safety in Lebanon, which had a population of 5.2 million in 2012.[246][247] In September 2014, the UN stated that the number of Syrian refugees had exceeded three million.[248] According to the Jerusalem Center for Public Affairs, Sunnis are leaving for Lebanon and undermining Hezbollah's status. The Syrian refugee crisis has caused the "Jordan is Palestine" threat to be diminished due to the onslaught of new refugees in Jordan. Greek Catholic Patriarch Gregorios III Laham claimed in 2014 that more than 450,000 Syrian Christians have been displaced by the conflict.[249] As of September 2016[update], the European Union has reported that there are 13.5 million refugees in need of assistance in the country.[250] Australia is being appealed to rescue more than 60 women and children stuck in Syria's Al-Hawl camp ahead of a potential Turkish invasion.[251] A report from NGO ACT Alliance found that refugees in camps in north-eastern Syria have tripled in 2019.[252] Numerous refugees remain in local refugee camps. Conditions there are reported to be severe, especially during the winter.[253][254] In 2019, 4,000 people were housed at the Washokani Camp. The Kurdish Red Cross was the only organization known to have helped the camp's refugees. Numerous camp residents called for assistance from international groups.[255][256] On 30 December 2019, over 50 Syrian refugees, including 27 children, were welcomed in Ireland, where they started afresh in their new temporary homes at the Mosney Accommodation Centre in Co Meath. The migrant refugees were pre-interviewed by Irish officials under the Irish Refugee Protection Programme (IRPP).[257] Main article: Return of refugees of the Syrian civil war Another aspect of the post-war years will be how to repatriate the millions of refugees. The Syrian government has put forward a law commonly known as "law 10", which could strip refugees of property, such as damaged real estate. There are also fears among some refugees that if they return to claim this property they will face negative consequences, such as forced conscription or prison. The Syrian government has been criticized for using this law to reward those who have supported the government. However, the government said this statement was false and has expressed that it wants the return of refugees from Lebanon.[258][259] In December 2018, it was also reported that the Syrian government has started to seize property under an anti-terrorism law, which is affecting government opponents negatively, with many losing their property. Some people's pensions have also been cancelled.[260] Erdogan said that Turkey expects to resettle about 1 million refugees in the "buffer zone" that it controls.[261][262][263][264] Erdogan claimed that Turkey had spent billions on approximately five million refugees now being housed in Turkey; and called for more funding from wealthier nations and from the EU.[265] This plan raised concerns amongst Kurds about displacement of existing communities and groups in that area. Main article: Internally displaced persons in Syria The violence in Syria caused millions to flee their homes. As of March 2015, Al-Jazeera estimated 10.9 million Syrians, or almost half the population, have been displaced.[266] Violence in the ongoing crisis in northwest Syria had forced 6,500 children to flee every day over the last week of January 2020. The recorded count of displaced children in the area has reached more than 300,000 since December 2019.[267] As of 2022, there are 6.2 million internally displaced persons in Syria according to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. 2.5 million of those are children. 2017 alone saw the displacement of at least 1.8 million people, many of them being displaced for the second and third time.[268] Hundreds of boys are being held hostage by ISIS. As of 25 January 2022, The New York Times stated that the fight over a prison in northeastern Syria has brought attention to the plight of thousands of foreign children who were brought to Syria by their parents to join the Islamic State caliphate and have been detained for three years in camps and prisons in the region, abandoned by their home countries.[269] An estimated 40,000 foreigners, including children, travelled to Syria to fight for the caliphate or work for it. Thousands of them had brought their small children with them. There were also other children born there. When ISIS lost control of the last piece of territory in Syria, Baghuz, three years ago, surviving women and young children were detained in camps, while suspected militants and boys, some as young as 10, were imprisoned.[269] Furthermore, when the boys in the camps reach the age of adolescence, they are usually transferred to Hasaka's Sinaa prison, where they are packed into overcrowded cells with no access to sunlight. According to prison guards in the area, there is insufficient food and medical attention.[269] When the boys reach the age of 18, they are sent to the regular prison population, where wounded ISIS members are placed three to a bed.[269] Main article: Casualties of the Syrian civil war Total deaths over the course of the conflict in Syria (18 March 2011 – 18 October 2013) based on data from the Syrian National Council[270] On 2 January 2013, the United Nations stated that 60,000 had been killed since the civil war began, with UN High Commissioner for Human Rights Navi Pillay saying "The number of casualties is much higher than we expected, and is truly shocking".[271] Four months later, the UN's updated figure for the death toll had reached 80,000.[272] On 13 June 2

during the political transition following the dissolution of the 2012 Constitution of Ba'athist Syria.[463][464] Al-Sharaa promised to go after war criminals belonging to the former regime.[465][466] Kurdish-led Syrian Democratic Forces (SDF) leader Mazloum Abdi congratulated al-Sharaa on assuming the Syrian presidency and invited him to visit northeast Syria. The SDF agreed to integrate into state institutions on 10 March 2025 and the Suwayda Military Council agreed to the same on 12 March 2025, marking the unification of all Syrian revolutionary factions into the transitional government.[467][468] On 29 March 2025, the Syrian transitional government was announced by al-Sharaa at a ceremony at the Presidential Palace in Damascus,[469] in which the new ministers were sworn in and delivered speeches outlining their agendas.[470] The government replaced the Syrian caretaker government which had been formed following the fall of the Assad regime.[471] Asia portalCurrent events portalMiddle East portalModern history portal Belligerents in the Syrian civil war 2010s in Syria political history Cities and towns during the Syrian civil war Eastern Syria insurgency Inter-rebel conflict during the Syrian civil war Rojava conflict Timeline of the Syrian civil war Spillover of the Syrian civil war Syria chemical weapons program Syrian Captagon industry Syrian–Turkish border clashes during the Syrian civil war Terrorism in Syria Spillover of the Israel–Hamas war in Syria Syrian civil war in popular culture Fall of the Assad regime Casualty recording Human rights violations during the Syrian civil war Control of cities during the Syrian civil war List of Syrian defectors List of aviation shootdowns and accidents during the Syrian civil war List of terrorist incidents in Syria Northwestern Syria offensive (April–June 2015) ("Battle of Victory") Battle of Yarmouk Camp (2015) 2024 Syrian opposition offensives Fall of Damascus Syrian civil war ceasefires Syrian Democratic Council Syrian diaspora Syrian peace process White Helmets (Syrian civil war) Iraqi insurgency (2011–2013) Islamist uprising in Syria from 1976 until 1982 List of wars involving Syria War in Iraq (2013–2017) ^ Including ex-Hay'at Tahrir al-Sham. ^ The Syrian Free Army and the United States operate the Al-Tanf Deconfliction Zone.[1] ^ Includes former Syrian National Army factions.[3] Although the SNA as a coalition was disbanded at the Syrian Revolution Victory Conference,[4] its affiliated armed groups still fighting with the SDF. The Syrian Ministry of Defense is integrating forces that were previously part of the Syrian Interim Government.[5][6] ^ Russia retains control of its Tartus naval base and Khmeimim Air Base ^ Israel occupied the Golan Heights after 1967, but this is not recognized by the United Nations or any member states except Israel and the United States. Israel launched a new invasion of Syria on 8 December during the Fall of Damascus, taking advantage the power vacuum created by the fall of the Assad regime to increase the amount of territory it controlled by several hundred square miles.[11][12][13] ^ Large-scale demonstrations in Syria began in March 2011 and were subsequently suppressed by force by the Assad regime[14], it eventually led to an all-out civil war.[15][16] In July 2011, defectors from Assad's regime formed an organized militia called the Free Syrian Army to protect protesters and strike back at Assad[15]. The International Committee of the Red Cross said the violence in Syria had become so widespread that it was in a state of civil war in July 2012[17]. ^ With the Ba'athist regime prevailing, the hostilities were mostly put on hold between 6 March 2020 and 27 November 2024, when the Syrian opposition launched a campaign of quick successful military offensives in Northwestern Syria, toppling the Assad regime on 8 December. Further fate of the ongoing conflict remains uncertain.[18][19][20][21][22][23][24][25] ^ According to the Syrian Observatory for Human Rights and Syrian Network for Human Rights, 88–91% of these deaths were caused by the Assad regime and its allies.[28][29] ^ Sources: Kassam, Kamal; Becker, Maria (16 May 2023). "Syrians of today, Germans of tomorrow: the effect of initial placement on the political interest of Syrian refugees in Germany". Frontiers in Political Science. 5: 3. doi:10.3389/fpos.2023.1100446. ISSN 2673-3145. "Syria: The story of the conflict". 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